

C O N T E N T S .

- ✓ 1. Child Welfare Information Centre. Summary of Annual Reports received from Government between January 1st, 1936, and the First Session of the Advisory Committee on Social Questions (April 15th, 1937.) (1937.IV.6.) 1-50pp.
- ✓ 2. Traffic in Women and Children. Work of the Bandoeng Conference. (1937.IV.11.) 50-92pp.
- ✓ 3. Advisory Committee on Social Questions. The Recreational Cinema and the Young. (1938.IV.13.) 93-108pp.
- ✓ 4. dto Enquiry into Measures of Rehabilitation of Prostitutes. Social Services and Venereal Disease. (1938.IV.1.) 109-141pp.
- ✓ 5. Child Welfare Information Centre. Summary of the Legislative and Administrative Series of Documents of the Child Welfare Information Centre to December 31st, 1937. (1938.IV.3.) 142-167pp.
- ✓ 6. dto. Summary of Annual Reports received from Governments between the close of the First Session and the close of the Second Session of the Advisory Committee on Social Questions (May 1st, 1937-May 5th, 1938.) (1938.IV.5.) 168-247pp.
- ✓ 7. Advisory Committee on Social Questions. Enquiry into Measures of Rehabilitation of Prostitutes (Part I) Prostitutes: Their Early Lives. (1938.IV.11.) 248-317pp.

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Geneva, July 15th, 1937.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

CHILD WELFARE INFORMATION CENTRE

Summary of Annual Reports received from
Governments between January 1st, 1936, and
the First Session of the Advisory Committee
on Social Questions (April 15th, 1937).

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INTRODUCTION.

Under a resolution adopted by the Child Welfare Committee at its session in 1933 and approved by the Council on May 22nd, 1933, Governments were asked to supply each year a report on the legislative and administrative measures which had been taken, or had been under consideration, during the year with reference to any aspect of child welfare.

The result of the analysis of the reports received by the Secretariat between January 1st, 1936, and the first session of the Advisory Committee on Social Questions is contained in the present document; the data supplied by Governments have, in certain cases, been supplemented by statements made by delegates at meetings.

The summary contains information from the following thirty-eight countries :

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AFGHANISTAN.

The Government of Afghanistan takes a very sympathetic interest in all questions affecting child welfare and, in spite of its political and economic preoccupations, has given close attention to these humanitarian questions.

The Government of Afghanistan has already opened an orphanage which receives destitute orphans and provides for their education. It has also organised lying-in wards in hospitals to give free treatment to poor women in confinement and to care for new-born infants.

Further, the Government intends to set up other institutions for the protection of children, and has instructed the Ministry of Public Health to study its proposals.

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

Draft Laws.

The Government of the Union of South Africa is engaged in the preparation of fresh legislation on the subject of child welfare for introduction during the forthcoming Parliamentary session. For that reason, it has been unable to furnish the annual report for submission to the Committee on Social Questions.

The Government of the Union has sent, in relation to the introduction of the fresh legislation referred to above, the report of the Departmental Committee on Destitute, Neglected and Delinquent Children.¹

ADMINISTRATIVE MEASURES.

It has also sent the report of the Union Department of Education for the calendar year 1935¹ (U. G. No. 55, 1936).

In Part A of this last document, Chapter VI deals with the problem of delinquent minors; Chapter VII, with special education—*i.e.*, the handicapped child, schools for the deaf and the blind, special educational provision for educable sane epileptics; and Chapter VIII, with the administration of the Children's Protection Acts.

In Part B, which contains only statistical material, Table 20 deals with "Industrial Schools under the Children's Protection Act: Average Enrolment and Unit Costs"; Table 21, with "Reformatories: Average Enrolment and Unit Costs, 1935-1936"; Table 22, with "Particulars concerning Pupils who left the State Trades, Commercial, Agricultural and Industrial Schools in 1935"; and Table 23, with "Ages of Pupils in Vocational and Industrial Schools during the Year ended December 1935".

¹ This document has been distributed to the Advisory Committee on Social Questions.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

ANNUAL REPORT ON RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN CHILD WELFARE IN THE UNITED STATES DURING THE YEAR, JULY 1st, 1935, TO JUNE 30th, 1936.

The year ending June 30th, 1936, was characterised by a distinct economic improvement in the United States; by an increase in employment and production and a less rapid increase in pay-rolls; by a continuance of serious unemployment and of public relief programmes; and by a new national effort through the Social Security Act to deal with certain phases of unemployment relief and dependency under a permanent co-operative Federal State programme and to prevent certain social and economic hazards in the field of health and welfare. These general social and economic trends directly affected family security and the welfare of children.

CONDITIONS AFFECTING CHILDREN AT THE BEGINNING OF THE YEAR.

In July 1935, there were approximately 7,000,000 children under 16 and 800,000 of 16 and 17 years of age in families receiving relief. Increased numbers of children and young people were benefiting from special relief programmes, such as rural rehabilitation, student aid and enrolment in the Civilian Conservation Corps. The shift of the Federal relief programme to employment at "relief wages" on a Federal works project for one employable member of families on relief was under way, leaving to the States the provision for others on relief. This change in the relief programme increased the income of many families and lowered the income of others, with a related effect on children in such families.

In May 1935, Title I of the National Industrial Recovery Act was declared unconstitutional, and the codes of fair competition adopted under it for practically all industries,

ceased to be in effect. The year under discussion opened therefore, without this form of protection against the employment of children under 16 and support for wage and hour standards for young workers.

MAJOR TRENDS DURING THE YEAR.

1. *Children under the Social Security Act.*

The Social Security Act was approved by the President on August 14th, 1935, and on February 11th, 1936, the Act of Congress providing appropriations for grants to the States as authorised was approved. Four parts of the Social Security Act relate directly to children. Under these, Federal grants are offered to the States for (1) aid to dependent children, (2) maternal and child health services, (3) services for crippled children and (4) child welfare services.

The programme of aid to dependent children, authorised in Title IV of the Social Security Act, is the outgrowth of the "mothers' aid" or "mothers' pension" movement which was started early in the century to provide for fatherless families a definite assurance of continuing financial aid to enable the mother to keep her children together in her own home.

A Federal appropriation (\$24,750,000 for the first year) is authorised for grants to the States for aid to needy dependent children. Funds are to be given to the States under plans submitted by State agencies and approved by the Social Security Board in amounts equal to one-third of the sums spent by the State and local governments for such purposes up to a maximum of \$18 a month for the first child in each home and \$12 a month for each additional child. State plans must be in effect in all political subdivisions of the State and must provide for State administration or supervision and State financial participation. The term "dependent child" is defined as follows:

"The term 'dependent child' means a child under the age of 16 who has been deprived of parental support or care by reason of the death, continued absence from the home or physical or mental incapacity of a parent, and who is living with his father, mother, grandfather,

grandmother, brother, sister, stepfather, stepmother, stepbrother, stepsister, uncle or aunt, in a place of residence maintained by one or more of such relatives as his or their own home”.

The Social Security Board, which administers Title IV of the Act, reports that, by June 30th, 1936, eighteen States and the District of Columbia had been given Federal grants for aid to dependent children and that 147,097 children were benefiting from the Act. By November, plans qualifying the State to receive the Federal grants had been approved for twenty-six States and the District of Columbia.

The Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labour is responsible for the administration of Title V, Parts 1, 2 and 3, of the Social Security Act, which relate to maternal and child health services, services for crippled children and child welfare services. To administer these programmes, three divisions have been established in the Children's Bureau: the maternal and child health division, the crippled children's division, and the child welfare division. Two units—the public health nursing unit and the State audits unit—serve these divisions, which also receive service from the statistical, editorial and administrative divisions of the Bureau. The work of the Children's Bureau has been carried on in close co-operation with other agencies of the Federal Government responsible for the administration of parts of the social security programme. Advisory committees appointed by the Secretary of Labour and including representatives of medical nursing, welfare and citizens' groups have given valuable service in the development of general policies. The provisions of the portions of the Act for which the Children's Bureau is responsible may be summarised briefly as follows:

Title V, Part 1—Maternal and Child Health Services—authorises an annual appropriation of \$3,800,000, including \$2,820,000 (Fund A) to be allotted by the Secretary of Labour, \$20,000 to each State and \$1,800,000 to be allotted on the basis of live births, all to be matched dollar for dollar by State or State and local funds, and \$980,000 (Fund B) to be allotted by the Secretary of Labour on the basis of the financial need of the State for assistance in carrying

out its plan, as determined after taking into consideration the number of live births in the State. The services made possible by this aid are to be developed especially in rural areas and in areas suffering from severe economic distress.

Grants are made on the basis of plans submitted by the State agencies of health and are approved by the chief of the Children's Bureau when they conform to the seven conditions specified in the Act.

Title V, Part 2—Services for Crippled Children—authorises an annual appropriation of \$2,850,000 to be allotted by the Secretary of Labour, \$20,000 to each State (total, \$1,020,000) and a share of the remaining \$1,830,000 distributed on the basis of the number of crippled children in need of services and the cost of furnishing services to them. The entire amount is to be matched dollar for dollar by State or State and local funds. Like the maternal and child health services, these services are to be developed especially in rural areas and in areas suffering from severe economic distress.

Grants are to be made on the basis of plans submitted by a State agency and are approved by the chief of the Children's Bureau when they conform to the six conditions specified in the Act.

Title V, Part 3—Child Welfare Services—authorises an annual appropriation of \$1,500,000 to be allotted to the States by the Secretary of Labour, \$10,000 to each State and the remainder according to rural population, for use by co-operating State public welfare agencies on the basis of plans developed jointly by the State agency and the Children's Bureau. The funds are to be used (1) for paying part of the cost of district, county or other local child welfare services for homeless, dependent and neglected children and children in danger of becoming delinquent in areas predominantly rural, and (2) for developing State services for the encouragement and assistance of adequate methods of community child welfare organisation in areas predominantly rural and other areas of special need.

For the purposes of the Act, the term "State" includes Alaska, the District of Columbia and Hawaii, so that there are fifty-one jurisdictions to which grants may be made.

The Children's Bureau is directed (Title V, Part 5) to make such studies and investigations as will promote the efficient operation of the portions of the Act for which it is responsible, and the Secretary of Labour is directed to make rules and regulations necessary for the efficient administration of the functions with which he is charged (Title XI, Section 1102).

By November 25th, 1936, fifty-one States and territories were co-operating in the maternal and child health programme, forty-one in the crippled children's programme and forty-two in the child welfare programme. It is probable that within the current year nearly all the States will be co-operating under all three types of services.

2. *Children in Families on Relief.*

The Federal unemployment relief programme was changed in the spring and summer of 1935 to limit Federal responsibility (1) to workers who could be employed on work projects, giving preference to heads of families or one worker in each family on relief; (2) to a permanent programme of aid to the States for assistance to dependent children, the aged and the needy blind under the Social Security Act; and (3) to provision for certain special groups through the Civilian Conservation Corps, the National Youth Administration and the Resettlement Administration.

This change in policy brought practically to a close by December 1935 the granting of Federal funds to the States to be used for "direct relief"—that is, the giving of cash or commodities to families and individuals needing relief. The Federal Government thus transferred to the States the responsibility of supplying relief to families in which no member could be employed or was eligible for any of the special forms of Federal assistance otherwise available. Some of the States transferred responsibility for these groups to the local political subdivisions.

The Resettlement Administration, created by Executive Order in April 1935, is the Federal agency in charge of relief in agricultural areas, the resettlement of low-income families, the development of communities in rural and suburban areas, and loans for the purchase of farm lands and equipment by farmers, farm tenants, share-croppers or farm labourers.

The Resettlement Administration, up to about November 1st, 1936, had made small loans to 385,870 farm families for the purchase of farm supplies and equipment. In obtaining such loans, the farm family agrees to farm and home-management plans and the farm wife receives the help of the home-management supervisor in providing proper food and clothing for her children. Many of the loans are for the medical care of children. Since the average family receiving a rehabilitation loan has three or four children, it is estimated that more than 1,000,000 farm children have been affected by this loan programme. In November 1936, 2,143 families were living in communities developed by the Resettlement Administration. Most of the communities have their own schools, community buildings and parks and playgrounds for children.

The extreme drought of the summer of 1936 in the Great Plains area of the United States brought many families who had not previously needed relief to the point where assistance was imperative. Inadequate food supplies, lack of milk and of medical care endangered mothers and children. The emergency was met by grants through the Resettlement Administration and by employment of heads of families under the Works Progress Administration.

3. *Child Dependency.*

Statistics of dependency cases dealt with by juvenile courts for twenty-eight courts reporting since 1929 show that fewer cases were disposed of in 1935 than in any previous year—a resumption of a steady downward trend from 1930 which had been interrupted in 1934.

The most striking trends in care shown were the steadily increased proportion of dependent children who are receiving care in foster homes and a decrease in the population of institutions.

The downward trend in institutional care of dependent children manifested since 1932 in urban areas reporting social statistics to the Children's Bureau continued in 1935, but the decrease from 1934 was less marked than in preceding years. The number of children in foster homes increased steadily from 1929 through 1935. For a group of agencies reporting monthly for five years, the figures indicate that the number of children in foster homes had increased 17 % and the number in institutions had

decreased 10 %. A small increase in day nursery care occurred during both 1934 and 1935—a reversal of a marked downward trend from 1930 to 1933.

4. *Trends in Child Labour and Junior Employment.*

Monthly statistics of employment certificates issued to 14- and 15-year-old children compiled by the Children's Bureau for a registration area for 1934 and 1935 of twelve States and 107 cities in twenty other States showed a definite tendency to return to child labour, following the invalidation of the codes under the National Industrial Recovery Act. During the last seven months of 1935, about 50 % more certificates were issued to 14- and 15-year-old children in this registration area than during the entire twelve months of 1934. Increase in employment for all age groups, of course, is a factor in this rise.

Although only nine States had regular sessions of their legislatures in 1936, advances in legal protection afforded to children were made in several States.

The provisions of the Federal Walsh-Healey Act, setting standards to which firms engaged in contract work for the Federal Government amounting to \$10,000 or more will have to conform, make possible uniform protection of young persons employed by such firms. In the past year, increased private employment, emergency conservation work under the Federal Work and Relief Act, and the student aid and junior placement activities developed under the National Youth Administration gave employment or constructive occupation to many thousands of young persons past the legal school-leaving age who would otherwise have been idle.

5. *Trends in Juvenile Delinquency and Youthful Crime.*

Juvenile-court statistics are compiled annually by the Children's Bureau for a large registration area. Figures for sixty-four courts serving areas with more than 4,500,000 children of juvenile-court age, which reported in both 1934 and 1935, showed a decrease in juvenile delinquency cases in 1935 of 3 %. The decrease occurred almost entirely in boys' cases. Reports for eighteen courts for each year of the nine-year period 1927-1935 showed a smaller number of cases in 1935 than any previous year of the period. The

decline from the peak year (1930 for boys and 1929 for girls) was 19 % in boys' cases and 31 % in girls' cases. It is impossible to state the extent to which the marked reduction in the amount of juvenile delinquency dealt with by courts represents a real improvement in juvenile conduct or changed administrative policies with greater utilisation of other forms of social treatment.

On the basis of records of arrests for State and local offences as evidenced by finger-print cards, the United States Department of Justice reports a change in the age most frequently reported from 19 to 21 years. The shift to this higher age occurred in the last six months of 1935 and the first six months of 1936. Figures for earlier years, beginning with 1932, showed that 19-year-old offenders outnumbered those of any other age.¹

6. *Child Welfare Legislation.*

The most far-reaching child welfare legislation in the United States during the year ending June 30th, 1936, was the Federal Social Security Act (Titles IV and V).

Regular sessions of the legislatures were held in only nine States, but many States had special sessions. The principal action taken concerning child welfare in the State legislatures which met during this period were measures making it possible for the States to take advantage of the Federal aid offered under the Social Security Act. Other State legislative action included the creation of State departments of public welfare to place State administration of relief on a permanent basis and to provide States agencies to administer the Social Security programme for old-age assistance, aid to dependent children, aid for the needy blind, and child welfare services. Alabama, Colorado, Indiana, Kentucky, Louisiana, Nebraska and West Virginia passed laws establishing new State departments of public welfare, and Oklahoma, by popular referendum, adopted a law creating such a department. New York passed a law reorganising its State Board of social welfare.

¹ "Uniform Crime Reports for the United States and its Possessions", Vol. 7, No. 2 (Second *Quarterly Bulletin*, 1936), pages 81-83, Bureau of Investigation, U.S. Department of Justice, Washington, D.C., 1936.

Note.—The information contained in the report relating to the birth rate and “infant and maternal mortality rates” has been communicated to the Health Section. The information sent under the heading of “Trends in Child Labour and Junior Employment”, of which only the main features are given in this summary, and the information entitled “Special Projects for Unemployed Youths”, relating principally to youths above 18 years of age, have been communicated to the International Labour Office.

AUSTRALIA.

New South Wales.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

Projects.

When the Child Welfare Bill is passed, steps will be taken to forward copies of the Bill for the information of the League, together with particulars and explanations of the alterations in the law which the Bill will bring about.

The Education Department has no immediate legislation in contemplation, but the question of raising the school-age has been receiving careful consideration, and, in the event of any legislation being enacted, full information will be forwarded to Geneva.

The Department of Labour and Industry states that legislation is proposed to amend the Law of Apprenticeship in the direction of enlarging the powers of the Apprenticeship Committees established under the Industrial Arbitration Act in respect of the regulation of the industrial training of young people.

Enforcement.

The provisions of the Factories and Shops Act in respect of the employment of children have been enforced in conjunction with the general supervision of the Act by the Department.

ADMINISTRATIVE MEASURES.

Information taken from the annual report on the working of the Factories and Shops Act during the year 1934 was added to the report and summarises the activities of the Department in the administration of the law.

The report of the Minister of Public Instruction on the work of the Child Welfare Department for the years 1932, 1933 and 1934 and for the half-year ended June 30th, 1935, was presented to Parliament in accordance with Section 122 of the Child Welfare Act of 1923. A copy of this report

was sent to the Secretariat.¹ In addition to a diagrammatic table on the organisation of the Child Welfare Department of New South Wales as at June 30th, 1935, the contents of the report are as follows :

- Boarding of children apart from their parents;
- Boarding-out of children with their own parents;
- The treatment of the delinquent child;
- Institutions for delinquent girls;
- Institutions for delinquent boys;
- Training-homes for non-delinquent wards;
- Homes for mentally deficient children;
- Care of mothers and babies;
- Other departmental activities.

The report gives the following conclusion :

“ The importance of opening up greater possibilities for employment for children under the control of the Department in various forms and the development of leisure occupation interests have been particularly stressed. The allotment of one member of the inspectorial staff to devote the whole of his time to the finding of employment for wards has extended the facilities for placing wards in employment and placing them in avenues which vocational guidance tests have indicated they are likely to be most fitted for. Apart from those children directly, the responsibility of the State as wards, the Department has been able to render considerable assistance in this direction with respect to children placed on probation by the children’s court and those released to parents on licence from institutions. The development of suitable hobby interests for children and the formation of boy-scout and girl-guide troops in the Department’s homes and institutions will, it is hoped, lay the foundation for such interests being developed after the children leave the establishments.”

Queensland.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

On October 17th, 1936, Section 15 of the Infant Life Protection Acts (1905 to 1927) was repealed and in its

¹ This report has been placed in the archives of the Secretariat.

stead the adoption of Children Act (1935) ¹ was assented to.

This Act makes provision for children under the age of 21 years to be adopted, and such adopted children are granted hereditary rights.

The Infant Life Protection Act was also amended ² in certain particulars which gave authority to the Department of the Premier of Queensland to have supervision over children under the age of 6 years in nursing-homes. Provision was also made by amendment for the mother of a child to claim an increased amount for confinement expenses.

South Australia.

The Government of South Australia has sent a copy ³ of the report of the Children's Welfare and Public Relief Board for the year ended June 30th, 1935.

Attention is specially drawn in this report to the information relating to the children's institutions, which are classified as follows :

Institutions under the Control of the Board.

Children's Institutions.

Central Depot, Gawler Place, Adelaide	} Government Institutions.
Industrial School, Edwardstown	
Seaforth Convalescent Home, Somerton, near Glenelg	
Boys' Reformatory, Magill	
Girls' Probationary School, Fullarton	} Under the control of the Board and under the management of the Salvation Army.
Boys' Probationary School, Mount Barker	
Barton Vale School, Enfield	
Boys' Reformatory, Brooklyn Park	} Under the control of the Board and under the management of the Roman Catholic Church.
Catholic Girls' Home, Parkside	

¹ A copy of this Act was attached to the report and has been filed in the archives of the Secretariat.

² A copy of this amendment was attached to the report and has been filed in the archives of the Secretariat.

³ The copy was filed in the archives of the Secretariat.

The report contains also information and statistics relating to the children under the "custody and control" of the Children's Welfare and Public Relief Board, to probationary children and children under the age of 7 years in unlicensed and licensed homes.

Victoria.

The report of the State of Victoria only mentions that, during 1935, there has been no development relating to the protection and welfare of children and young persons which is considered to be of sufficient importance to justify comment.

Western Australia.

The State of Western Australia has stated that there have been no developments of importance relating to the protection and welfare of children during 1935 and 1936.

Tasmania.

There has been no alteration in Tasmania in the laws regarding the treatment of juvenile delinquents. The matter was receiving the close attention of the Government some two years ago, but, owing to pressure of other business, proposals which were submitted by a special board appointed to deal with the question of child delinquency have not been proceeded with. There was no great urgency for a change in the present system of treatment, but the Government intends to give consideration to the matter at the first opportunity.

AUSTRIA.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

During the year 1935, two Federal laws concerning regulations for the employment of children were adopted :

- (a) *Federal Law laying down Principles concerning the Employment of Children in Agriculture and Forestry (Federal Legislative Gazette, No. 297/1935).*

In accordance with Article 36 of the Constitution of 1934, the Federal legislation had to be confined to general principles. The legislative bodies of the Federal provinces had then to give effect to these principles by themselves adopting special laws in execution of the Federal law.

All the Federal provinces except Carinthia, Lower Austria and Upper Austria adopted special laws. In the three Federal provinces which did not do so, the legal provisions previously in force (Law on the Employment of Children, 1918) are still applied.

The laws adopted by the Federal provinces in execution of the Federal Law repeat the principles laid down in the latter; they also contain supplementary provisions regulating the details of the hours of sleep of children employed in agriculture and forestry, the maximum working-hours of children on days on which the schools are closed and on days on which they are obliged to attend school, and, lastly, the question of child labour on Sundays and holidays.

Article 12 of the Federal law lays down detailed regulations for supervising the strict observance of the provisions relating to the employment of children in agriculture and forestry. The provisions of this article are reproduced in the laws of the Federal provinces, with certain amendments to bring them more into line with local conditions. Thus, under the legislation of the provinces, local public assistance institutions and certain private child welfare organisations are responsible for co-operating with the administrative authorities in exercising supervision.

The Federal law and the laws of the Federal provinces lay down penalties for breaches of the law.

- (b) *Federal Law concerning Regulations for the Employment of Children and Young Persons, excluding the Employment of Children in Agriculture and Forestry (Federal Legislative Gazette, No. 298/1935).*

This law, which came into force on September 1st, 1935, lays down regulations for the employment and occupation of children in all branches of economic work, with the exception of agriculture and forestry. It applies to children during the period of compulsory school attendance and also contains provisions for the protection of adolescents under 18 years of age.

The main object of the Federal laws referred to in (a) and (b) is to bring the legislative provisions on the employment of children, particularly the 1918 Law, into line with the draft Convention fixing the Minimum Age for Admission of Children to Industrial Employment (International Labour Conference, Washington, 1919) and with those of the draft Convention concerning the Age for Admission of Children to Non-industrial Employment (Geneva, 1932). After the promulgation of the above-mentioned laws, Austria ratified the said Conventions (see document C.105. M.46.1936.VII).

ADMINISTRATIVE MEASURES.

The Federal Ministry of Social Welfare has enacted the following provisions :

An Order dated October 16th, 1935, which constitutes an official commentary on the provisions of Law No. 298/1935.

A Decree fixing the form of the employment card issued to children as provided for under Article 14 of Law No. 298/1935 and of the lists of workers under 16 years of age which must be drawn up for each undertaking, under Article 16 of the same law. The decree came into force at the same time as the law.

(The text of the laws and decrees referred to in the report was communicated by the Federal Ministry of Social Welfare. It has been placed in the archives of the Secretariat.)

BELGIUM.

The Belgian Government has communicated the following documents, which have been placed in the archives of the Secretariat :

(1) A note relating to the general operations of the Œuvre nationale de l'Enfance, which was instituted by the Law of September 5th, 1919.

(2) A copy of the report on the activities of this organization during the year 1934.

(3) The text of the Law of September 5th, 1919, instituting the Œuvre nationale de l'Enfance, as amended by the Laws of January 22nd, 1931, and March 5th, 1935.¹

(4) A copy of the latest Organic Regulations of the Œuvre nationale de l'Enfance.

(5) The text of the Law of March 31st, 1936, replacing Article 386*bis* of the Penal Code. The new article provides that " any person who sells or distributes to children under 16 years of age, or exposes on or along the public highway ² indecent pictures, figures or articles calculated to excite their imagination " shall be liable to a fine of from 26 to 100 francs. The said pictures, figures and articles shall be confiscated.

(6) The text of the Law of April 11th, 1936, on the importation into Belgium of obscene publications.

Article 1 of this law provides that the " King may, by an order of the Council of Ministers, prohibit the introduction into Belgium of obscene foreign publications ". The King fixes the conditions in which prohibitions shall be brought to the knowledge of the public. Article 2 of the law lays down penalties for breaches of Article 1. These penalties may consist of from eight days' to six months'

¹ See document C.93.M.36.1936.IV, page 4.

² It is the phrase " or exposes on or along the public highway " which constitutes the amendment to the Law of March 31st, 1936. Article 386*bis*, which is abrogated, stipulated that this article should apply to " any person who exposes in public in the neighbourhood of an educational or training establishment attended by children under 16 years of age any indecent pictures, figures or articles calculated to excite their imagination ".

imprisonment and a fine of from 26 to 500 francs. The penalties laid down may in some cases be doubled if the offence of selling, displaying for sale or distribution of the publications prohibited under Article 1 was committed in connection with minors. In this case, the guilty person may be sentenced to the deprivation of rights for from five to ten years as indicated under Nos. 1, 3, 4 and 5 of Article 31 of the Penal Code.

Article 3 provides for the confiscation of publications imported in contravention of decrees issued in virtue of Article 1.

(7) The text of the Royal Decree of July 31st, 1935,¹ on the raising of the school-leaving age, which is in force until September 1st, 1937. The Royal Decree provides that, in order to mitigate the effects of unemployment on young persons, they shall attend appropriate classes at a primary, technical or occupational school or school of domestic science. A copy of the circular of September 5th, 1935, interpreting the decree is appended to the text of the law.

Labour centres for unemployed juveniles, officially recognised by the Royal Decree of December 30th, 1935, have been organised and are in operation. These centres, which have been opened by the workers' organisations themselves and receive State grants, aim at giving unemployed juveniles a healthy environment and at improving their physical and moral condition. The programme these centres has been very carefully framed, and the work (the duration of which does not exceed four hours a day) is adapted to each person's individual capacity, special attention being given to nutrition and recreation. The centres are open to young men and women between 16 and 25 years of age for a maximum period of thirty days, those admitted being required to prove that they are not responsible for being out of work. The State grant amounts to 10 francs per head per day, unemployment benefit being still paid, but with a reduction of 25 % per day. In 1935, eighteen centres gave admission to 500 young men and 109 young women; in 1936, with the fall in unemployment, six centres admitted about 300 unemployed men and women.

¹ See document C.93.M.36.1936.IV, page 6.

BOLIVIA.

No fresh provisions concerning child welfare were adopted in Bolivia in 1935.

A draft Supreme Decree, which has been drawn up by the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare and is about to be approved, has been sent to the Secretariat; its object is to ensure the regulation of female and child labour and maternal welfare (women in child-bed).

UNITED KINGDOM.

**REPORT FOR 1935 ON NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN
LEGISLATION, REGULATIONS AND ADMINISTRATIVE
PRACTICE RELATING TO THE PROTECTION
AND WELFARE OF CHILDREN AND YOUNG
PERSONS.**

**1. LEGISLATION ON INFANTS, CHILDREN OF PRE-SCHOOL
AGE, CHILDREN OF SCHOOL AGE, AND ADOLESCENTS OF
POST-SCHOOL AGE.**

Northern Ireland.

The Unemployment Insurance (Amendment) (Northern Ireland) Act, 1935, gave extended application to regulations made in 1935 for the crediting of unemployment insurance contributions to boys and girls in respect of "continued education".

**2. LEGISLATION REGARDING SPECIAL CATEGORIES OF
CHILDREN SUCH AS DELINQUENT CHILDREN, PHYSICALLY
DEFECTIVE CHILDREN, MENTALLY DEFECTIVE CHILDREN,
ETC.**

There is nothing of special interest to report.

**3. LEGISLATION CONTEMPLATED REGARDING POINTS 1
AND 2.**

(a) A Bill is before Parliament with the object of raising the school-leaving age from 14 to 15 years of age, with a proviso that children who have attained the age of 14 may obtain exemption from the obligation to attend school for the added year if they can satisfy the Local Education Authority that beneficial employment is available for them.¹

¹ This Bill became law in July 1936.

This is part of the Government's Programme of Educational Development, the administrative aspects of which are dealt with under 4.

Similar legislation for Scotland is also before Parliament.¹

(b) It is proposed to introduce legislation to consolidate the Children and Young Persons (Scotland) Acts, 1908 to 1932.

4. INFORMATION REGARDING THE PRACTICAL APPLICATION OF LEGISLATION BY THE STATE, THE LOCAL AUTHORITIES AND THE PRIVATE ORGANISATIONS.

England and Wales.

Board of Education.

Copies of the following documents which relate to the work of the Board of Education were attached to the report:

I. Report of the Juvenile Organisations Committee of the Board of Education on the Need for Youth Community Centres on New Housing Estates.

The object aimed at in the formation of local Juvenile Organisations Committees is to bring together in each district representatives of juvenile organisations, social workers and others concerned with welfare work among young people in the expectation that by this joining of forces the effectiveness of all the organisations acting together will be considerably greater than the sum of their comparatively unrelated individual efforts.

The categories to which the activities of Juvenile Organisations Committees may in the main be assigned are:

(1) To act as a meeting-ground for representatives of juvenile organisations and for all persons engaged in juvenile welfare work in which common problems and common action can be discussed. Common action may take the form of:

(a) Making a survey of existing work, from which can be seen where the greatest need for further development exists and what kind of work is particularly called for;

¹ This Bill became law in July 1936.

(b) Conducting investigations into any matter of common interest;

(c) Arranging such functions as combined displays, exhibitions, leagues and so on.

(2) To act as a body representative of all juvenile organisations, and to express the collective opinion of the organisations on matters of which they can speak with one voice.

(3) To act as a link between juvenile organisations and Local Education Authorities (and other statutory bodies interested), working with them to promote juvenile welfare.

(4) To assist voluntary organisations in the recruitment of leaders and helpers and to act as a clearing-house, finding suitable opportunities in juvenile organisations for all persons whose services as leaders are made available.

(5) In general, to carry on activities which are beyond the scope of any single organisation.

According to the report, the *educational activities* of the Juvenile Organisations Committees are chiefly evening classes, arts and crafts, dramatic societies (which do not, on the whole, appear to take a very prominent place in the activities of the Committees) and folk dancing. With regard to folk dancing, the report says that, although a large number of Juvenile Organisations Committees include folk dancing in their displays, it is doubtful whether this stimulating activity receives the attention which it merits in the regular work of Juvenile Organisations.

The *recreational activities* seem to be playing-fields, the organisation of leagues (for games), training for games and physical training.

The *social activities* are clubs, old scholar clubs, camping, play centres, displays, exhibitions and competitions and some other types of work such as singing classes, the giving of lantern or cinematograph lectures or talks on any kind of subject, especially travelling and adventure, likely to interest young people.

A number of Committees publish a handbook for the use of workers among young people's organisations. A typical handbook of this kind should contain revised lists of juvenile organisations with the names and addresses of their

officers and remarks on the kind of work done, miscellaneous information likely to be useful to such workers—*e.g.*, some brief notes on the essential points regarding unemployment and health insurance, educational and library facilities, information regarding juvenile courts, names of probation officers, etc.¹

Chapter VI of the report deals with the way in which the Juvenile Organisations Committees are financed: local education authorities are empowered by Section 86 of the Education Act, 1921, to make arrangements, with the approval of the Board of Education, to supply or maintain or aid the supply or maintenance of facilities for social and physical training in the day or evening.

A substantial portion of the funds supporting Juvenile Organisations Committees comes from local education authority grants: there are, however, many ways in which these grants are supplemented, and in some cases Committees contrive to perform very useful work with little or no local education authority assistance. Private subscriptions also are common.

Juvenile Organisations Committees may be accepted by the Inland Revenue Authorities as charitable organisations for the purposes of finance Acts and income-tax Acts, subject to the adoption of a suitable form of constitution and to the examination of accounts, where necessary, to ensure that the income is applied in the furtherance of the charitable object—namely the social, physical, mental and moral welfare of boys and girls.

Some Committees derive a certain amount of income from affiliation fees, but quite a large number charge no fee, and affiliation is effected simply by registration. Where a fee is required, it is usually in the region of 2s. 6d.

II. Circulars of January 6th and 13th, 1936, dealing with educational development and physical education.

The Government's administrative programme of educational development as set out in the circular of January 6th provides, *inter alia*, for the extension of nursery-school

¹ The handbooks compiled by the Birmingham and Liverpool Juvenile Organisations Committees are particularly full and informative, and it is said that they have proved of immense value to all those engaged in social work.

facilities, improvements in elementary-school buildings, the facilitation in rural areas of the concentration of children at senior schools, the removal of all maximum limits on the number of special places in secondary schools, an increase in the number of State scholarships, improvements in the provision for technical and adult education, improved school medical and dental services and the development of physical education.

Since the introduction in October 1934 of a scheme for the provision of milk to schoolchildren at the reduced rate of $\frac{1}{3}d.$ for a third of a pint, the number of children taking milk daily in school has increased from about 1,000,000 to about 2,700,000. About 90 % of the children pay for the milk and the other 10 % receive it free, generally under arrangements made by local education authorities for the provision of meals to necessitous children. Nearly 70 % of the milk supplied under the scheme is "pasteurised" milk.

The scheme also applies to pupils attending authorised courses of instruction for unemployed boys and girls established by local education authorities.

The circular of January 13th contains the views of the Board of Education as to the policy to be pursued in regard to all aspects of physical education, in order to assist authorities and others in preparing a comprehensive plan of development suited to the needs of their areas. It deals with physical education in public elementary schools, in secondary and technical schools, for persons no longer attending school, the training of teachers and the appointment of organisers of physical training.

The Ministry of Health.

The annual reports of the Ministry of Health and of the Chief Medical Officer of Health of the Ministry for 1934/35 and 1934¹ respectively were sent to the Secretariat, which was informed that the reports for the subsequent year had not yet been published.

¹ These reports are printed and published by H.M. Stationery Office and may be purchased directly from H.M. Stationery Office at any of the following addresses: Adastral House, Kingsway, London, W.C.2; 120, George Street, Edinburgh, 2; York Street, Manchester 1; 1, St. Andrew's Crescent, Cardiff; 80, Chichester Street, Belfast; or through any bookseller. The price is 5s. 6d. net.

As these reports deal exclusively with health questions, it seems sufficient to direct the attention of the Committee to the following in the report of the Ministry of Health for 1934/35 :

The chapter entitled "Maternity and Child Welfare Services" (pages 83 and 88) in the division of the report entitled "Survey of Public Health Services in London";

The chapter "Maternity and Child Welfare" (pages 127-133) in the division entitled "Health Services and the Local Government Act, 1929";

The chapter "Maternity and Child Welfare" (pages 281-283) under "Public Health" in the division entitled "Welsh Board of Health";

Appendix III (England) (pages 291-293), which contains statistics for 1932/33 and 1934 on health visiting infant welfare centres, ante-natal clinics, maternity homes and hospitals, children's hospitals (for sick or ailing children), convalescent homes, homes for mothers and babies, day nurseries, home nursing and infant-life protection;

Appendix XXXI (pages 337-339), which contains statistics on the same subjects (with the exception of day nurseries) for Wales.

In the report of the Chief Medical Officer of the Ministry of Health for the year 1934, attention is drawn :

To the chapter entitled "Maternity and Child Welfare" (pages 44-67), which deals with questions of maternity services, maternal mortality investigation, etc., infant-life protection, infant welfare centres, voluntary work and maternity and child welfare services in England and Wales;

To Appendix A (pages 178-181), which contains tables of vital statistics of population in England and Wales from 1801 to 1934;

To Appendix D (pages 194-200), which contains tables of live-birth rate, infantile and maternal mortality in administrative counties and county boroughs, 1934.

The Ministry of Labour.

The Unemployment Act, 1934, the provisions of which were re-enacted in the Unemployment Insurance Act,

1935, placed an obligation upon education authorities to provide courses of instruction, as may be necessary, for unemployed boys and girls in their areas in accordance with a scheme made by the Minister in consultation with the Board of Education.

Where the number of unemployed boys and girls is considerable, the courses of instruction take the form of Junior Instruction Centres, the curriculum of which is designed to give the kind of mental and manual instruction which will help them to become absorbed or reabsorbed into employment as soon as opportunity may occur, but without attempting to train them for specific occupations. When the numbers are not large enough to justify a centre, a Junior Instruction Class is established, normally in connection with some institution for higher education. In other areas, where there are only small groups of unemployed juveniles, they are admitted to existing day-time or evening classes. Arrangements are also made for the admission of unemployed boys and girls possessing higher education or industrial qualifications to educational courses likely to provide instruction of a type more suited to their special aptitudes than the centre or class.

The following statistics show the number of authorised courses of instruction and the average number of unemployed boys and girls in attendance during the week ended November 20th, 1935 :

Junior Instruction Centres and Classes				Other educational institutions		
Number of centres	Number of classes	Average attendance		Number of institutions	Average attendance	
		Boys	Girls		Boys	Girls
183	18	19,414	9,992	249	761	720

Home Office.

It is proposed to make an Order raising the upper limit for committal to a Borstal Institution from 21 to 23 years.

In a report issued in April 1936, a Committee of Enquiry into the social services in courts of summary jurisdiction made important proposals for the reorganisation of the probation service and the social services of the courts. Their recommendations included the simplification of the

law relating to probation; official recognition of the various social services carried out by probation officers in addition to the supervision of probationers; increases in the number of full-time probation officers and improvements in organisation; provision for the theoretical and practical training of all candidates for appointment as probation officers; and the acceptance by the Home Office of greater responsibility for the general administration, supervision and direction of the probation service. Steps are being taken to implement the recommendations of the Committee. Those already taken include the appointment of Home Office inspectors, revision of the conditions of service, and the establishment of a Central Training Board.

Scotland.

(1) Approximately 350,000 children in Scotland are participating in a scheme similar to that in England and Wales, which is operated by the Scottish Milk Marketing Board, for the supply of milk in schools at reduced rates. About 70 % of the milk supplied under the scheme is of Grade A (T.T.) quality.

Similar schemes are operated by the North of Scotland Milk Marketing Board and the Aberdeen and District Milk Marketing Board (in the latter case, since January 1936). The area covered by the North of Scotland Milk Marketing Board is, however, sparsely populated and little advantage has so far been taken of their scheme.

The approved arrangements of the three Boards also provide for the supply of milk at the reduced rates to unemployed boys and girls attending authorised courses of instruction established under the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1935.

(2) A circular issued to education authorities on January 6th, 1936, by the Scottish Education Department calls their attention to certain features of the Government's programme of educational reform which can be dealt with by administrative action.¹

¹ A copy of this circular has been placed in the archives of the Secretariat.

Northern Ireland.

Copies of the latest annual report of the Ministry of Home Affairs for Northern Ireland¹ and of the annual report for 1934 /35 of the Belfast and District Branch of the National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children were attached to the report and have been placed in the archives of the Secretariat. The report of the Ministry of Home Affairs contains (pages 20 and following) information regarding the reformatory and industrial schools, as well as information regarding their work and administration, and (pages 77 and 78) statistical tables relating to the activity of juvenile courts.

¹ Published by H.M. Stationery Office on behalf of the Government of Northern Ireland. To be purchased directly from H.M. Stationery Office at the following addresses: 80, Cluchester Street, Belfast; Adastral House, Kingsway, London, W.C.2; 120, George Street, Edinburgh, 2; York Street, Manchester, 1; St. Andrew's Crescent, Cardiff; or through any bookseller. 1935. Price 2s. 6d. net.

BULGARIA.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

The Department of Justice and the Ministry of Education state that there has been no change in the legislation on child welfare.

ADMINISTRATIVE MEASURES.

Education.

The Ministry of Education has drawn up regulations concerning the fund for the assistance of highly gifted children and young people. A special system is introduced in these regulations under which the children and young people to be assisted from the fund will be selected by means of an educational and psychological test.

A Committee consisting of experts and representatives of the Ministry of the Interior and the Public Health Department is working at the Ministry of Education. This Committee has already drawn up plans for extending the measures applicable to backward children, in accordance with the law on special training.

The Eighth Course for Women Teachers was held at Sofia in 1935. This course was arranged by the Ministry of Education, with the assistance of the Child Welfare Union, for the purpose of training teachers to enable them to give young mothers in the villages advice on the care, feeding and education of children and on domestic economy. In 1935, a course was attended by 120 teachers, the number of teachers who have taken this special training being now 694.

Assistance.

The Ministry of the Interior has introduced new regulations for the creation and administration of holiday camps and colonies and summer playing-fields for children.

The Ministry is also drafting regulations for poor relief and for the equipment and administration of orphanages, crèches, infant homes, dining centres, popular canteens for

the distribution of milk, employment centres for young people, sorting centres for children, day nurseries, and isolation homes for children threatened with tuberculosis

Social Service.—According to the information received from the Social Assistance Section, the following establishments were engaged on child welfare work during 1935 :

	Number of establishments	Number of children admitted	Sums allocated from the Social Assistance Fund Leva
1. Crèches (including those under construction)	10	355	2,872,000
2. Orphanages	27	1,208	4,376,000
3. Homes for blind, deaf and dumb and crippled children (under construction).	—	—	373,000
4. Homes for erring children.	3	137	798,000
5. Children's homes	23	450	1,185,000
6. Preventive establishments	4	404	755,000
7. Summer playing-fields	322	83,450	3,962,497
8. Sorting centre for children	1	285	55,000
9. Holiday colonies	315	29,764	3,394,300
10. Children's camps	15	1,264	2,409,272
11. Canteens for the distribution of milk (including those under construction).	3	2,053	—
12. Dining centres	2,057	140,057	20,374,880
13. Medical consultation centres	147	221,547	182,000
14. Children's day nurseries	152	2,147	1,983,000
15. Sums allocated to the Relief Union for Child welfare work	—	—	3,750,000
Total . . .	3,079	483,131	46,469,952

All these establishments have been organised by the educational authorities, the sections of the Child Welfare Union or the Communal Social Assistance Services. In addition to the sums shown in the preceding table, which are obtained from the social assistance funds, they receive maintenance grants from the education budgets and from the receipts from charity fêtes, collections, etc., arranged by the teachers with the help of the pupils. The population of each town or village in which there are establishments of this kind, particularly children's dining centres, also contributes largely in money and kind.

The yield from the Ninth Children's Day held on

May 17th, 1935, was devoted to children's dining centres and summer playing-fields.

Note.—The Bulgarian Government states that supplementary information on the child welfare work done by official bodies and private organisations in Bulgaria will be found in the report published by the Child Welfare Union on its activities in 1935, and in the reports presented by various prominent Bulgarians at the First Balkan Child Welfare Conference (Athens, April 1936).

CANADA.

In reply to the request regarding the annual report of the Government of Canada on child welfare, the Secretariat has received a copy of the report of the Canadian Welfare Council on Welfare Legislation in Canada for the Parliamentary and Provincial Sessions of 1934/35.

The Secretariat was informed that the report for 1935/36 would not be ready for some weeks.

As these reports are printed in the form of booklets, the Secretariat has accepted the offer of the Canadian Welfare Council to forward a sufficient number of copies of the reports for it to be possible to distribute them to the members of the Committee on Social Questions. The reports contain all the information relating to the Federal legislation and to the legislation in each province. The report for 1934/35 is attached to the present document; the report for 1935/36 will be distributed as soon as it is received.

CHILE.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

Chile has communicated the text of the existing laws and regulations for safeguarding and protecting mothers and children. These provisions are contained in Articles 40-47 (Chapter 11) of the Health Code, in Article 25 (c) of Law No. 4054 on the Compulsory Insurance Fund and in Articles 51 and 56 (Maternal Welfare) of the Law concerning persons employed in private undertakings. The legislation concerning maternal and child welfare applies not only to employees, but also to all salaried persons whatsoever. Child welfare measures vary according to the age of the child, but special attention is given to the needs of infants.

DRAFT LAWS.

There are two draft laws¹ on maternal and child welfare, one framed by the Children's Defence Council, and the other by the Department for the Protection of Mothers and Children.

PRACTICAL ACHIEVEMENTS.

Mention should also be made of the establishment in industrial undertakings of day nurseries where mothers can leave their children while they are at work; the employer must give them the necessary time to nurse their babies.

¹ At the request of the Head of the Permanent Bureau of Chile accredited to the League of Nations, these documents will be published in Legislative and Administrative Series C.Q.S./P.E./C.I.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA.

The Czechoslovak Government draws attention to the following texts which were published during 1935 :

ADMINISTRATIVE MEASURES.

Communication No. 25/1935 (*Bulletin of the Ministry of Justice*, page 40, No. 3791/35), which relates to the educational measures adopted by the guardianship (curatorship) courts.

Order of the Ministry of Justice dated February 6th, 1935, No. 54254 (*Bulletin of the Ministry of Justice*, page 61), which provides that young persons accused of offences shall attend the principal hearing at the children's court which tries their cases.

INFORMATION.

The Czechoslovak Government points out that, in pursuance of the Government Decree of November 9th, 1934 (Collection of Laws and Decrees, No. 229), on printed matter harmful to young people and on the prohibition to distribute such matter, the Ministry of Education has begun to co-operate with the Centre for the Critical Examination of Printed Matter which is Harmful to Young People, the organisation and rules of which are laid down in the decree.

On July 20th, 1935, the Government decided that the Ministry of Social Welfare, with the help of the other Ministries concerned, the provinces and the Central Institute of Social Insurance, should draw up a uniform programme for co-ordinating and making more effective the measures taken to assist young people.

DRAFT LAWS.

The Czechoslovak Government intends, as soon as the programme of work is established, to draw up the following texts within the scope of this programme :

- (a) A draft law to provide for the protective educa-

tion of all children and young people whose environment exposes them to moral depravity;

(b) A draft law to put measures to assist young people on a uniform legal basis throughout the country.

Note.—The report of the Czechoslovak Government also draws attention to the legislative and administrative measures (promulgated since 1921) which serve as the basis of child welfare in Czechoslovakia. Most of these measures were referred to in document C.P.E.517, of January 25th, 1936 (Summary of Annual Reports of Governments received up to December 31st, 1935); document C.484. M.260.1935.IV (Organisation of Juvenile Courts and Results attained hitherto); and document C.P.E./C.I./4 (Campaign against Unemployment among Young People).

DENMARK.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

There have been only negligible changes in Danish legislation on child welfare during 1935.

DRAFT LAWS.¹

The following draft laws have been laid before the Riksdag :

Draft law relating to children born out of wedlock, giving them the right to bear their father's name and obliging the latter to contribute to their maintenance according to his means (the payment of a compulsory fixed contribution has long been the rule);

Draft law amending and supplementing the Decree of May 21st, 1845, modifying the legislation on inheritance;

Draft law on legitimate children;

Draft law on the payment of alimony and the measures to be taken to guarantee payment;

Draft law amending and supplementing the law on judicial organisation (questions concerning paternity);

Draft law amending Law No. 56 of March 18th, 1925, concerning the legal effects of marriage;

Draft law amending Law No. 120 of April 20th, 1926, relating to the right of inheritance and to undivided succession of husband and wife.

Since the Danish Government's annual report was sent in, Denmark has adopted :

1. On March 31st, 1937, a law (No. 85) "to combat infant morbidity and mortality during the first year of life". The purpose of this law is to encourage municipal bodies to employ visiting nurses who are at the same time trained for social service. The State pays half the cost

¹ The texts of these drafts in Danish have been placed in the archives of the Secretariat.

of employing the nurses thus trained, the other half being paid by the local authorities. There are already forty of these nurses. The organisation of this service, which has met with a favourable reception by the population, is the result of a five-year experiment carried out with the help of the Rockefeller Foundation. A substantial fall in the infant mortality rate has been observed in those districts of Denmark where the experiment was carried out.

2. On May 7th, 1937, a "Law concerning children born out of wedlock" (No. 131), which alters the relation of the illegitimate child to his father in the matter of rights of inheritance.

ESTONIA.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

Law of November 11th, 1936 (Official Gazette, No. 99, 1936), concerning the Subsidies granted to the Children of Government Officials.

Under this law, subsidies are paid, not only for legitimate children, but also for adopted, legitimated and illegitimate children. The mother is only entitled to grants in the latter case if the child is dependent on her (Article 1 of the Law of November 11th, 1936).

Subsidies are paid until the beneficiaries reach the age of 18. There is no age-limit in the case of the invalidity of the child. Children who are incapacitated for work to the extent of 75 % or more come under this category (Article 2 of the above-mentioned law).

The amount of the subsidy depends on the number of children and the district in which the family of the official resides, account being taken of the cost of living. For instance, an official living in the Tallinn district receives 10 Estonian crowns per child for one or two children, 12 crowns for three or four children, and 14 crowns for five or more children. Elsewhere, the subsidy amounts to 7½ crowns per child for one or two children, 9 crowns for three or four children, and 11 crowns for five or more children.

The subsidies paid in respect of the children of officials serving abroad amount to 20, 25 and 30 Estonian crowns per child, according to whether there are one or two, three or four, or five or more children (Article 3 of the above-mentioned law).

Draft Law.

A Law on the Protection of Mothers and Children is in course of preparation. The general principles of this law have already been decided upon and the draft will shortly be submitted to the Government for approval.

FRANCE.

CENTRAL BODIES FOR CHILD WELFARE.

The central bodies for child welfare are :

I. The Ministry of Public Health, in collaboration with the three Under-Secretariats of State :

Under-Secretariat of State for Child Welfare;
Under-Secretariat of State for Physical Education;
Under-Secretariat of State for Sports and Spare Time.

II. Other Ministries who are responsible for the enforcement of laws particularly connected with their field of action—*i.e.* :

Ministry of Labour;
Ministry of Justice;
Ministry of National Education.

III. Councils, Committees, Commissions set up by decree, which provide official direct and permanent contact between the authorities and private associations.

IV. The National Committee for the Child, which co-ordinates the work of private associations.

MINISTRY OF PUBLIC HEALTH AND UNDER-SECRETARIAT FOR CHILD WELFARE.

The Ministry of Public Health is responsible for the enforcement of laws connected with hygiene, public assistance and housing. Its work is supplemented by that of the three Under-Secretariats created by the Decrees of June 4th, 1936 (*Journal Officiel*, June 5th, 1936) :

Under-Secretariat of State for Child Welfare;
Under-Secretariat of State for Physical Education;
Under-Secretariat of State for Sports and Spare Time.

The offices whose work is connected with child welfare are attached to the Health and Public Assistance Branch of the Ministry of Public Health. They are :

The *first office* (National Welfare Institutions, Service for Mentally Defective, Blind, and Deaf and Dumb Children), centralises questions connected with abnormal, mentally defective, blind, and deaf and dumb children. It is responsible for the supervision of public and private institutions, the allotment of bursaries, pensions and free admissions reserved for this class of children.

The *second office* of the same Branch (Public Assistance, Inspection Staff and Services dealing with the child) is concerned with :

(1) The inspection of the following :

(a) Public Assistance and the care of assisted children, children placed under the guardianship or protection of the Public Assistance authorities, the enforcement of the Law of June 27th, 1904, and of the Laws of April 19th, 1898, and July 24th, 1898;

(b) Delinquent minors less than 13 years old permanently entrusted by the judicial authority to the care of the Public Assistance authorities, and delinquent minors provisionally entrusted to the Public Assistance authorities by the Decrees of October 30th, 1935.

Vagrant minors and children placed in institutions by way of paternal correction (*par voie de correction paternelle*).

(2) Protection of infants; enforcement of the Law of December 23rd, 1874; the enforcement, as regards children, of the Law of January 14th, 1935, concerning the supervision of private welfare institutions; child welfare work, maternal welfare associations, milk dispensaries, and well-baby clinics, *Sociétés de patronage*, crèches and day-nurseries, clinics for sick children, etc.

(3) The allotment of grants to holiday camps.

(4) The enforcement of the Law of April 11th, 1908, concerning the prostitution of minors.

The *fourth office* (campaign against tuberculosis and alcoholism) has authority over all matters connected with preventoria.

The *sixth office* (Protection of Health and Prevention of Epidemics) is competent for all matters connected with vaccines and school medical inspection.

The *seventh office* (Natality—Secretariat of the Higher Council for Natality) centralises questions relating to birth.

(1) It is responsible for the enforcement of laws concerning :

(a) Assistance to women in childbirth (Laws of June 17th, 1913, and of July 30th, 1913);

(b) Supplementary grants for nursing mothers (October 24th, 1919);

(c) The assistance of large families (Law of July 14th, 1913);

(d) The national encouragement of large families and bounties to increase the birth rate (July 22nd, 1923).

(2) It is responsible for the allotment of credits voted in the budget for the expenses of departments, communes and public institutions for maternal assistance, children under school age and holiday camps and colonies.

A *decree of January 2nd, 1937*, laid down the organisation of the General Inspection of services dealing with the child, and was followed by a decree and an *order of January 4th, 1937 (Journal Officiel, January 9th, 1937)*, appointing a General Inspector and an Assistant General Inspector of these services.

Central Services of Social Hygiene

(previously “ National Social Hygiene Office ”).

Under this heading are grouped the different services which, until 1934, formed the National Social Hygiene Office. At the present time, they are directly attached to the technical office of the Minister of Public Health. They are :

The Central Service for the Prevention of Venereal Disease;

The Central Nursing Bureau;

The Information Service;

The Technical Studies and Departmental Enquiries Service;

The Propaganda Service.

Central Service for the Prevention of Venereal Disease.

This service has organised the campaign against venereal disease throughout the country, by forming, wherever they were needed, various organisations enabling the prevention and treatment of venereal disease to be carried out in the best conditions.

In view of the importance of detecting maternal syphilis during pregnancy in order to preserve the life of the child, and the development of the campaign against hereditary syphilis—the cause of so much mental abnormality—this branch of the service is particularly active.

Besides the 680 *anti-venereal clinics*—some autonomous, some attached to anti-tuberculosis clinics and maternal and infant welfare clinics—which undertake the work of detecting and treating venereal disease, there are 625 *special consulting clinics* attached to maternal and infant welfare institutions, for the detection and treatment of maternal and hereditary syphilis.

In order to make this service available to all sections of the population, *ninety rural departmental services* have been set up. Facilities for diagnosis and treatment are placed at the disposal of all doctors for patients who do not wish or are unable to visit a clinic.

The problem of prostitution is one of the major ones falling within the scope of the service, whose powers mark an important extension of State authority, both for the enforcement of the present laws and regulations and for the framing of new and more efficient legislation. For example, on November 5th, 1936, M. Henri Sellier, Minister of Public Health, submitted to the Senate a draft law dealing with the prevention of venereal disease, public incitement to debauchery and procuring.

Further, the service, acting in collaboration with the various bodies concerned, provides hospital treatment for persons suffering from infectious diseases, places children suffering from hereditary taints, and carries out work for the rehabilitation of prostitutes.

Central Nursing Bureau.

The Central Nursing Bureau is responsible for the application of decrees, orders and circular orders affecting nurses, for social hygiene, visiting nurses and helpers.

The importance of the work done by visiting nurses and health visitors to lower the infant mortality rate by the education of mothers, and the care of mothers and children in pre-natal consulting clinics and well-baby clinics has shown the need for the professional training of nurses. The preparation for and the supervision of examinations and also of schools, and the application of official programmes; the centralisation of all information about schools; superintendence of the duties of nurses and health visitors; perfection of teaching methods; perfection of the professional training of nurses and health visitors; propaganda for recruiting pupils and the compilation of their dossiers—these are questions with which the Central Nursing Bureau has to deal.

The importance of the propaganda work of the Central Nursing Bureau is shown in the increase in the number of schools, which has reached 110 in 1937.

The increase in the number of pupils is as follows :

1922.....	200
1927.....	1,077
1932.....	3,022
1937.....	4,200

The Decree of August 28th, 1936 (*Journal Officiel*, August 30th, 1936), provides for the reorganisation of schools of nursing and social service schools. It unifies the methods of work and training of nurses and social workers and tends to favour a polyvalent system.

Information Service.

The aim of the Information Service is to centralise and place at the disposal of national and local public services, the medical corps, hygienists and the public, all French and foreign documents and all information connected with hygiene, social diseases and their prevention.

The progress which has been achieved in maternal and infant welfare, and the continuous endeavour to find fresh ways of improving upon the results obtained, have led to an increased interest in the problems of social hygiene with special reference to maternal and infant welfare. The whole of the material on this question thus forms a regular section of the Information Service.

The work of the service is divided into three branches :

(1) *Collection of Documents.*—These are obtained from the most varied sources : books, periodicals, newspapers, accounts of congresses, and works of every kind containing information on modern achievements and the most recent advances in the sphere of social hygiene. The number of *periodicals* which the service goes through amounts to about 350, of which more than fifty deal solely with the problems of maternal and infant welfare. Three copies of each periodical are obtained, so that a complete collection remains in the library and an index can be kept of the articles selected from the other two copies.

A *library*, which now contains more than 11,000 volumes, possesses nearly every work on maternal and infant welfare as well as many foreign publications.

Finally, a special collection of documentary information has been formed containing the *texts of all legislation* concerning the protection of public health. The different texts can be found immediately by means of a card-index.

(2) *Classification of Documents.*—In order that the documents thus collected shall be easy to use, they have been classified under a system which permits of an almost indefinite expansion in the size of the collection. The number of files has grown from 323 on January 1st, 1926, to more than 19,000 in 1936; 7,500 of these deal with maternal and infant welfare.

(3) *Dissemination of Information.*—Until 1935, the most important documents collected were mentioned in an *Annual Bibliographical Directory*, in which child welfare occupied a large place. This directory enables anyone interested in the different health questions to keep informed of all work published on this subject throughout the world.

The material thus collected enables *enquiries to be answered*. Nearly 15,000 enquiries—of which more than half were on maternal and infant welfare—have already been answered since the service was inaugurated. The enquiries come from widely differing sources (public organisations, departmental and communal authorities, private societies, various organisations for social work, hygienists, medical practitioners, teachers, etc.). They cover a wide range of subjects, closely or remotely connected with public health.

To sum up, at the present time, more than 11,000 volumes and 19,000 files containing at least 400,000 documents on all subjects closely or remotely connected with public health are held in readiness and are immediately placed at the disposal of anyone requiring information.

Service for Technical Studies and Departmental Enquiries.

The Service for Technical Studies and Departmental Enquiries has given *a real stimulus to action*, in co-operation with the Inspectors-General of the administrative services and local correspondents. It has instituted health enquiries in all the Departments of France. The results of these enquiries are collected in a 700-page volume entitled "L'Armement sanitaire en France", published in 1930; it provided at that time very complete documentation on the demographic situation in the ninety-three Departments and on their organisation from the point of view of public health and social hygiene.

This departmental documentation was used for making maps and graphs with particular reference to demography (birth and death rate, excess of deaths or births, infantile mortality, number of still-births), to child welfare organisations and to the campaigns against the principal social diseases.

But the collection of this material has, above all, enabled the Service for Technical Studies to perfect down to the smallest detail a great variety of plans which the departmental or municipal authorities have asked for to assist them in setting up the necessary services.

Besides the thirty-three services of Departmental Health Inspection instituted by the Service for Technical Studies, a strong stimulus has been given to the formation of *Maternal and Infant Welfare Centres* working on the lines advocated in the Ministerial circular letter of July 15th, 1931. In 1934, the number of these centres had risen to 295.

The Service has also contributed largely to the organisation of *school medical inspection in the Departments*, by showing the advantage of entrusting this service to medical inspectors of health. At present, in forty-two Departments, the medical inspection of schools is carried out completely or partially in the best technical conditions.

Besides stimulating the activities of other organisations, the Service for Technical Studies also undertakes original researches on the most varying subjects and on all problems of a technical nature which come to the attention of the Ministry of Public Health. For example, the Service provides the Secretariat for the many Commissions, among which the Co-ordinating Commission of Social Insurance and Public Health deserves special mention. The service also takes part in the work of a number of other Commissions (Commission for the Allotment of State Subsidies for Child Welfare Work, Permanent Section of the Council for the Improvement of Nurses' Colleges, Commission for Holiday Camps and Outdoor Day Nurseries, Supervisory Commission for the Berck Institutions, etc.).

The Ministry of Public Health's circular of September 26th, 1936 (*Journal Officiel* of October 3rd and 4th, 1936), sets up a Departmental Co-ordinating Committee for Health and Social Welfare to act as a link between the various public and private agencies engaged in public health and social welfare work and to guide, co-ordinate and control their efforts.

Propaganda Service.

Health propaganda is at present entrusted to the various social hygiene committees and leagues (National Anti-tuberculosis Committee, National Anti-venereal League, French National Anti-cancer League, National Temperance League, French Association for Increasing the Population, National Slum Clearance League, etc.).

An administrative secretariat works at the Ministry, in correlation with the other social hygiene services.

The work includes general action, departmental action, action among the big corporative bodies and the organisation of national campaigns.

1. *General action* is carried on :

Through the Press. About 300 newspapers co-operate in this work and print every year an increasing number of articles.

Through the cinema. 350 propaganda films are shown all over France by means of a film-distribution service and the formation of a film library.

Broadcasting is also largely utilised; 2,034 talks were given during 1933.

Printed matter is widely distributed—posters, pamphlets (between 50,000 and 8,000,000 are printed every year), tracts, post-cards, school-books, etc.

The theatre. Special propaganda plays have been written and a series of performances organised.

Finally, the Exhibition Committee has about forty pictures which have been shown at several big international exhibitions.

2. *Departmental action* is exercised throughout the country. Special health fortnights, weeks and days are organised, with lectures, films and extensive displays of posters.

3. *Special action* is undertaken by the big corporative bodies. The co-operation of the teaching profession is particularly sought. Special work is done among railwaymen, post-office workers, seamen, trade unions, foreign workmen and recently among students.

4. *Big national campaigns* have been organised against social diseases, and particularly against tuberculosis and diphtheria, which constitute a special danger to children (campaigns in favour of BCG. and anatoxin vaccination).

Under-Secretariat of State for Physical Education.

The duties of the Under-Secretary of State for Physical Education include the general inspection of physical education. He organises physical education in schools, takes an interest in federations, school and post-school associations, medical inspections, physical training for abnormal and pathological cases, institutes of physical training and periods and special courses of physical training.

He superintends the work of the following organisations :

The Ecole normale d'Education physique, which trains physical education instructors for second-grade schools;

The Ecole de Joinville, which trains military gymnastic instructors according to its own system;

Regional centres of physical training (C.R.I.P.);

Garrison fencing-schools and, in general, all physical training in barracks;

Military preparation associations which prepare young men for the Certificate of Physical Aptitude (B.A.P.) and for the Certificate of Preparation for Military Service (B.P.S.M.);

Physical training before and after military service.

Finally he approves, subsidises and superintends the approved societies placed under academic control. He examines, subsidises and supervises the execution of building schemes proposed by the above-mentioned societies.

Under-Secretariat of State for Sports and Spare Time.

The Under-Secretariat of State for Sports and Spare Time was established in June 1936.

The laws providing holidays with pay and the forty-hour week and, in short, the attainment by the working-classes and the masses of a life no longer entirely taken up with work, at once brought this problem to the fore.

The powers of the Secretariat cover everything which enables the masses of the people to make profitable use, both from the physical and from the moral point of view, of their spare time in general, and more particularly of their annual holidays.

The means used to this end will be examined in the chapter dealing with young people, in so far as they are relevant to the object of this report (youth hostels). Mention must also be made here of the institution of cheap holiday tickets and the encouragement of winter sports and camping.

The Under-Secretariat took the initiative in forming an Inter-Ministerial Committee on Spare Time as well as a Committee on Sports and Spare Time in each Department.

As regards sports, it has instituted a Higher Council for Sport, representing all organisations interested in physical education and open-air life. It examines types of stadiums, playing-fields, gymnasiums and swimming-baths and has drawn up in detail an extensive programme of construction. Besides this, it has introduced the Brevet sportif populaire, of which there are four classes corresponding to the different ages.

OTHER MINISTRIES PARTICIPATING IN THE WORK
FOR MATERNAL AND INFANT WELFARE.

Three of these must be specially mentioned :

The Ministry of Labour;
The Ministry of Justice;
The Ministry of Education.

Ministry of Labour.

Since its formation in 1906, the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare has had authority over the application of the laws and regulations concerning female and child labour. Previously, the Ministry of Commerce was responsible, and more particularly its Labour Department, which was attached to the new Ministry.

At first, in fact, the Ministry of Labour united nearly all the services engaged on legislation for the welfare of workers, which were previously dispersed among different Ministries.

In 1920, important services were detached to form the Ministry of Health, Social Assistance and Welfare.

In 1924, the functions of the two Ministries were again united into one.

Finally, in 1930, the creation of a Ministry of Public Health, while not depriving the Ministry of Labour of its departments dealing with the health of workers, caused it to resume its 1906 title of Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare.

The working conditions of women and children are chiefly under the care of the second and third offices of the Labour Department.

An external service, that of the Inspection of Labour, is responsible for securing the execution of the provisions of Book II of the Labour Code, some of the provisions of Book I and part of the Law of 1898 on industrial accidents.

Ministry of Justice.

The Ministry of Justice participates in child welfare work, on the one hand, through children's courts and civil

courts with varying degrees of jurisdiction and, on the other, through special administrative services such as :

(a) Special magistrates, whose appointment was prescribed by the circular order of June 28th, 1931;

(b) Prison Administration, which has taken the new title of Department for Prison Administration and Services of Correctional Education, thus showing the public authorities' intention of devoting particular attention to delinquent children;

(c) Institutes of Correctional Education under the authority of the above Administration;

(d) Research and Information Service, dealing with abandoned children or children appearing before the courts, instituted under an order of January 12th, 1935;

(e) National Committee for the Welfare of Children appearing before the Courts, instituted under the Decree of June 8th, 1927.

Ministry of Education and Under-Secretariat for Education and Technical Instruction.

As its name shows, the work of this Ministry deals particularly with children. By means of its Departments for Primary and Secondary Education, it regulates a large part of the life of every child in France, and its policy and its decisions have the greatest influence on these children's physical, moral and intellectual development. Among its most important problems is that of school curricula and time-tables.

Since 1936, the Department for Technical Instruction has become increasingly important, and it is directly attached to the Under-Secretariat of the same name.

TERRITORIES UNDER FRENCH MANDATE.¹

Syria.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

Draft Law.

At the request of the Ministry of Justice, the Legal Adviser of the State of Syria is at present studying a draft

¹ As this report is the first of its kind on the territories under French mandate, it contains a brief summary of what is being done in connection with child welfare.

law relating to the administrative measures to be taken in respect of boys who engage in immoral practices, with a view to supplementing on this point the Law of June 24th, 1933, on prostitution.

ADMINISTRATIVE MEASURES.

The Syrian Government has promulgated the following Orders :

- (1) Order No. 136, of March 10th, 1926, providing for the punishment of the offence of child desertion;
- (2) Order No. 137, of March 20th, 1926, for the protection of foundlings. (Its provisions replace Articles 19 and 20 of Order No. 176, of September 1st, and are confirmed by Article 41 of Order No. 3633, of October 15th, 1931, relating to registration);
- (3) Order No. 2230, of July 6th, 1930, on the employment of minors.

The Syrian authorities have taken various administrative measures for the protection of children with a view to making up, where necessary, for the shortcomings of their parents. The annual report contains information on the following points :

The Government has stipulated that the municipalities shall provide credits in their budgets for the appointment of one or of two certificated midwives, according to the size of the population. It is hoped by this means to reduce the number of miscarriages due partly to the incompetence of the *matrones*, or native midwives, who are quite indifferent to the puerperal infections caused by their ignorance and inefficiency. The people are so backward, however, and so averse to the most elementary health measures that they do not call in the midwives appointed by the municipalities, but still prefer to employ the *matrones* as in the past. So far it has not been possible to put an end to the dangerous activities of these ignorant practitioners.

Maternity wards have been introduced in certain hospitals.

Through the opening of official dispensaries, infant mortality has been reduced to some extent. The figure in

towns is 20 %; in country districts, particularly among the nomadic population, the percentage is probably higher.

The provision of in-patient accommodation in establishments administered by the public assistance services has also facilitated the treatment of infantile diseases. Apart from seasonal diseases of the respiratory organs, the chief of these diseases are gastro-enteritis, trachoma, syphilis, malaria and smallpox.

The introduction of a mobile medical service has enabled visits to be made fairly frequently to most of the villages in the territory. It has not been possible to take full advantage of this measure, because the State budget is too small to meet all the requirements; nevertheless, effective action has been taken in connection with epidemics, particularly smallpox, which has almost disappeared from some areas.

In conclusion, attention should be called to the increased numbers attending school and the opening of several infant schools by the official education service. This has produced excellent results; 1,500 children attended the five schools in Aleppo and the Idlib school in 1933.

It should also be noted that the State has played a less prominent but none the less effective part in the development of other institutions founded by private individuals or communities, which receive considerable assistance from the authorities in the form of grants.

PRIVATE INITIATIVE.

Milk Centres.

The towns of Damascus, Aleppo and Hama have milk centres which have given excellent, though inadequate, results.

At Aleppo, a welfare society known as the St. George Foundation was formed in 1930 and still subsidises the milk centre of the Armenian Red Cross Dispensary.

Crèches.

The Aleppo National Hospital has had a crèche since 1924 for newly born babies of all religions. They receive the necessary care from the doctors and nursing sisters of the National Hospital.

Orphanages.

Orphans are admitted to various establishments, most of which are subsidised by the State public assistance services. Among them may be mentioned :

The Foch Orphanage at Muslimieh, about 15 kilometres from Aleppo, which is attached to the French assistance service. This orphanage takes in all deserted children found by the High Commissioner's delegations, irrespective of religion. It provides primary elementary education, and practical agricultural training is given at a farm school attached to the establishment. There are at present thirty-three pupils.

The Moslem Orphanage at Aleppo maintains 160 children who are also prepared for the elementary-school certificate.

The Orphanage of Domestic Arts at Aleppo is a Moslem private school. It is with the aid, however, of the Syrian Government that the school provides primary education for twenty-six girl orphans and apprenticeship in dress-making and embroidery. The Syrian Government also subsidises various private orphanages.

Mention must further be made of the activities of the Tadamonet Kheri Society, the Society of St. Vincent de Paul and the Al-Kalimat Welfare Society, founded in 1924.

The religious missions at Alexandretta have opened two orphanages which they run with the aid of grants from the Sanjak Administration. The Lepsius Deutsch Orient Mission runs an orphanage at Kassab to which a vocational school is attached.

Children who are too young to be sent to orphanages are taken charge of by the municipalities. They are placed with foster-mothers, who look after them in return for a small monthly payment.

Note.—The text of the three orders referred to under "Legislative Measures", together with statistical tables relating to the work of the milk centres and public assistance establishments, are appended to the report summarised above.

Lebanese Republic.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

Large-scale industry is still undeveloped in the Lebanon.

The most common form of industry at the present time is a home industry—the hand weaving of various archaic patterns, in which the help of the children may sometimes be required.

It has not been thought necessary, therefore, to legislate on the conditions of child labour. Great care is taken as regards the regulation of the age at which children may be employed and the hours of employment in orphanages to which workshops and workrooms are attached. These establishments, moreover, are run on humanitarian lines and there are no abuses.

OFFICIAL AND PRIVATE PRACTICAL MEASURES.

Since 1919, 10,000 orphans have been admitted to sixteen orphanages opened or reorganised in the Lebanon. A good many of these children were subsequently taken over by families. On January 1st, 1923, however, there were still 4,000 children in the various relief institutions.

In addition, the settlement of 20,000 Armenian refugees in the Lebanon made it necessary for the mandatory Power, with the assistance of the Nansen International Office for Refugees, to admit a very large number of recently deserted children to the existing orphanages, or to new orphanages specially opened for Armenian children.

To sum up, there are still twenty-one orphanages in the Lebanon at the present time—namely, eleven French orphanages, six Lebanese orphanages, and four foreign orphanages. An annual grant of 150,000 francs is allocated to these orphanages from the Lebanese budget for public assistance.

Since the introduction of the mandate, various societies have been formed to provide further assistance for deserted or necessitous children.

In 1932, a *crèche* for deserted children was opened at Beirut by the French Hospital of the Sacred Heart; it is

run by the Sisters of Charity. This establishment, although subsidised by France and by the Lebanese Government, obtains most of its funds from the charity of the public.

At the same time, the society known as the *Milk Centre (goutte de lait)*, which has a *consultation centre for infants* and, where necessary, for *ante-natal advice*, was opened in Beirut by the Franco-Lebanese Red Cross; it receives a grant from the Lebanese Government.

One establishment which has perhaps had an indirect influence on infant-life protection is the institution attached to the French Faculty of Medicine, which has opened an *infant consultation centre* at the French Maternity Home, and has at its disposal a *special laboratory for BCG. anti-tuberculosis vaccine*. Cases are followed up regularly, and the results from the point of view of preventive health work for infants are very interesting.

While considerable progress has been made in training mothers and in thus reducing the rate of infant mortality, thanks to the various infant consultation centres, the *means available for supervising the development of the child in general* are still inadequate in the Lebanon and, indeed, throughout the whole of the mandated territories. There is only one school inspector actually engaged in medical work of this kind for all the official and private schools in Beirut. In the smaller towns and rural centres, the *kaza* and district doctors are, theoretically, attached to this service. The supervision thus exercised must, however, be extended and improved by calling upon the doctors—who would have to be more conversant with what is required of them and more conscious of their responsibilities—to follow more closely the development of the children.

Model farms were opened at Beirut and in the immediate neighbourhood, where children who had been deserted were taught to till the soil, grow trees and vines and rear poultry. But owing to the very high cost of administration, the number of these establishments has gradually been reduced, and at the present time there is only one left in Beirut—the farm school of Burg-Hamun, a very efficiently run and carefully supervised school for sixty orphans, which has given very interesting results.

In 1925, a Swiss Protestant association opened a home at Ghazil for *abandoned blind young people*. At present

there are about 100 boys and girls in the home, and they will remain until they have attained their majority. They are taught a trade, and the articles they make in the school are sold in the neighbourhood. Out of the proceeds of these sales each pupil receives a small sum on leaving the establishment.

According to the latest statistics, there are very few *backward* or *abnormal* children in the Lebanon. The reason, no doubt, is that the native races are very hardy and take very little alcohol and that syphilis is not widespread.

There are also very few *delinquent children*. The family is still a stable institution in the Lebanon and has a very beneficial influence on social life.

Up to the present, it has not been necessary to create in the Lebanon an office for the supervised placing of children in families, with its corollary—a body of social workers.

GUATEMALA.

The Government of Guatemala has sent a copy of the Health Code of the Republic of Guatemala (Decree No. 1841 dated May 27th, 1932).¹ Chapter 12, which deals with the health of the child, contains only one article :

“ *Article 142.*—The Higher Council for Health shall introduce, by means of regulations, such measures as it considers advisable in the matter of ante-natal health and the health of infants and children of pre-school age. The Higher Council of Health and the services which it may be necessary to set up in pursuance of the adoption of the said measures shall be responsible for carrying out these measures.”

In addition, the Government of Guatemala has sent a copy of a volume entitled “ *Contribution to the study of Problems connected with Infant Mortality and Child Welfare in Guatemala* ”,¹ by Dr. Luis Gaitan, Deputy Director of Public Health. On pages 189-244 of this volume will be found a list (and the text) of all the laws, decrees and agreements on child and social welfare from 1872 to 1935.

¹ This volume (in Spanish) has been placed in the Library of the League of Nations.

HAITI.

The Republic of Haiti states that there is no special legislation in Haiti concerning children of pre-school age and school age and young people of post-school age. There is, however, a child welfare service, which is subject to administrative regulations and concerns itself with infants and school-children.

Nor is there any legislation in the Republic of Haiti on delinquent children or physically or mentally abnormal children. Children belonging to these categories are sent to a special home and the national public health service exercises supervision over their health.

Steps are now being taken by private initiative to open a school of puericulture.

HUNGARY.

The Hungarian Government states in its report that, owing to the need for economy in all fields of administration, the Government has had to confine itself, during 1935, to the solution of economic and financial problems. The decisions that have been reached in this connection would not seem to call for attention from the general standpoint of child welfare. They have not necessitated the adoption of any noteworthy legislative or administrative provisions.

A copy of the report of the Budapest Guardianship Chamber for 1935 is attached to the annual report of the Hungarian Government.¹

¹ This document has been placed in the archives of the Secretariat.

INDIA.

Government of Bengal.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

There has been no fresh legislation regarding infants, children of pre-school age and adolescents of post-school age. The only legislation affecting children of school age, if by that term children between 6 and 11 years of age are meant, is the Bengal (Rural) Primary Education Act, 1930 (Act VII of 1930). This is not, however, a new development, but enforcement of the Act would be a new development.

There is also no legislation regarding physically or mentally defective children. As regards delinquent children, the Government of Bengal refers to their "Report on Institutions for Neglected and Delinquent Minors", dated December 23rd, 1935.

Project.

No legislation is contemplated by the local Government regarding the categories of children mentioned in the two paragraphs above.

ADMINISTRATIVE MEASURES.

With a view to facilitating the introduction of free and compulsory primary education under the Bengal (Rural) Primary Education Act, 1930, District School Boards have been established in twelve districts in Bengal.

Government of Bombay.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

The following new developments relating to legislative measures for the protection of children have been introduced :

Amendments of the Bombay Children Act :

(1) Prohibiting publication of names, addresses or other details which may lead to the identification of children or young persons involved in offences;

(2) Providing for a system of true probation, as distinct from supervision, by empowering the court to reconsider the case of any youthful offender who has failed on probation to deal with him in such manner as it thinks fit;

(3) Empowering the Chief Inspector of Certified Schools to release youthful offenders on licence from certified schools;

(4) Repealing the Reformatory Schools Act, 1897, in so far as it applies to places to which the Bombay Children Act has been applied.

(5) Amendment of the Bombay Borstal Schools Act raising the minimum term of detention in the Borstal school from two to three years.

ADMINISTRATIVE MEASURES.

The whole of the Children Act has been extended to the City of Bombay, the Bombay Suburban District and some of the district towns in the Presidency. The administration of the Act has continued satisfactorily in the City of Bombay and the Bombay Suburban District, mainly through the agency of the Bombay Children's Aid Society. The Bombay Children Act (excluding the parts relating to destitute children and those offended against) has been extended throughout the Presidency; this will make it no longer necessary to send children to prison.

Suitable measures of an educative character have already been taken in the case of delinquent minors, and competent authorities have the power to transfer young offenders from prison to Borstal schools.

Government of the Punjab.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

An Act for the Suppression of Immoral Traffic was passed by the Punjab Legislative Council in 1935. It provides for the punishment of persons responsible for encouraging or abetting the seduction of girls under 18 years of age.

There is no other new development to report, except that the Indian Penal Code has some very good provisions for the protection of minors.

Government of the United Provinces, Government of Burma, Government of Bihar and Orissa, Government of the Central Provinces, and the Chief Commissioner, Delhi.

The above four Governments and the Chief Commissioner, Delhi, only state that they have no new developments to report for the protection of children.

IRAQ.

ADMINISTRATIVE MEASURES.

Health.

As regards child welfare, attention was devoted mainly in 1935 to the work of the children's dispensaries maintained by the health services of Bagdad, Mosul, Basra and all the principal towns. (A voluntary relief organisation maintains a similar dispensary at Bagdad, which supplements the work of the municipal health service.) Treatment is given at these dispensaries for mild complaints of children, and mothers are advised on the care and upbringing of their children. The health visitor of these centres visits the homes of newly born infants.

During 1936, a new children's hospital and a new clinic were opened. Three women doctors are specialising at present in diseases of children; several doctors who have already specialised in this branch of medicine have been appointed in the large towns. The system of specialisation will be extended and improved as far as financial resources permit.

Education.

Women doctors attached to the Ministry of Education give lectures on domestic hygiene (including the care of the child) to the older pupils at girls' schools.

Relief.

During 1936, milk was distributed to poor children throughout the country. About 1,000 litres of milk are distributed daily to 1,000 children in the different *liwa* centres.

Activities of the Red Crescent.

The Red Crescent Society also engages in health, educational and welfare work. It has obtained the services

of a British nurse who has specialised in child welfare. This nurse is organising child welfare in Bagdad. She gives lectures at girls' schools and is in charge of a special clinic where infants belonging to poor families are provided with milk and clothing, and baths of a suitable size.

ITALY.

DRAFT LAWS.

A draft Civil Code is at present under consideration. It provides for important changes in the legal position of illegitimate children and other classes of children who have the greatest need for protection. The draft Civil Code provides for investigations to establish paternity and the judicial declaration of paternity, together with such precautions as are necessitated by the circumstances. The draft Code therefore admits action to prove paternity in the case of a non-ephemeral union, when paternity is recognised by a judgment or by a written declaration of the person who acknowledges paternity, in cases of seduction, abduction and rape. It also extends action for acknowledgment by the mother, this being allowed in all cases provided the child is not born of an adulterous or incestuous connection. Furthermore, the new Code, while maintaining intact the principles laid down with regard to children born of an adulterous or incestuous connection, improves the legal position of children belonging to these categories, particularly by mitigating the severity, in certain special cases, of the former Code, which prohibited acknowledgment. The draft Code makes it quite clear that a child born out of wedlock is *always* entitled to maintenance. It also provides for considerable changes as regards paternal power and adoption.

REPORT OF THE NATIONAL MATERNITY AND CHILD WELFARE SOCIETY ON ITS ACTIVITIES DURING THE YEAR 1935—XIII/XIV.

The unified text of the laws on maternity and child welfare was approved by Royal Decree of December 24th, 1934—XIII, No. 2316, and was published in the *Official Gazette of the Kingdom of Italy*, No. 47, on February 25th, 1935—XIII.

The new unified text is more explicit as to the principles upon which the work of the National Society should be

based, and therefore allows of a stricter application of the laws and simplifies their interpretation.

The objects of the new provisions are as follows :

1. More unified control, greater flexibility, and the more efficient administration of the Society by means of a reduction in the number of central and local administrators (thirteen for the Central Council and nine for the Governing Bodies of the federations). In addition, the Executive Committees of the federations are done away with and the number of members of the Central Executive Committee is reduced from nine to three.

2. Closer co-ordination in the provinces and communes between the various forms of assistance for mothers and children. For this purpose, the Prefects of the provinces will act as chairmen of the Council of the federation, and the " Podesta " as chairmen of the Communal Welfare Committees. The new provisions provide that the heads of the women's " Fasci " shall act as vice-chairmen of these Councils and Committees.

3. A more economic administration of the provincial federations and after-care committees; for this purpose, the heads of these bodies will be required to avail themselves, as the case may be, of the services of the secretary and employees of the province or the secretary and employees of the commune.

There are other provisions supplementing certain rules contained in the Law of 1925, the most important of which are :

(a) The members of the Society are empowered to send representatives to the Governing Bodies of the federations (Articles 3 and 8 of the unified text);

(b) It is provided that the State shall make an annual contribution towards the funds of the National Society out of the yield from the tax on unmarried persons;

(c) It is laid down, as regards the existing provisions on the subject in Article 34 of the Decree-Law of December 30th, 1923, No. 2841, that expectant mothers and women in childbirth are entitled to accommodation in hospitals and maternity wards when their own dwellings are unsuitable (Article 18 of the unified text);

(d) It is laid down that the prohibition to sell tobacco

or to distribute alcoholic drinks, including wine, in homes and educational establishments shall apply to minors under 16 years of age, and that the age-limit below which minors are prohibited from smoking in public places shall be raised from 15 to 16 (Articles 24 and 25 of the unified text).

The new unified text came into force on the date on which it was promulgated.

Article 1 of the Decree-Law of July 20th, 1934, No. 1404, relating to the constitution and procedure of juvenile courts, provides that there shall be set up in all the headquarters of Courts of Appeal or sections of Courts of Appeal, in one and the same building, a home for judicial reform, a home for correctional reform, a prison for minors, and an observation centre for minors, this last being organised by the National Society for Maternity and Child Welfare. These institutions as a whole shall be known as "centres for the re-education of minors". The decree specifically instructs the National Society to set up and run observation centres for minors.

Article 8 of the Decree-Law of July 20th, 1934, also supplements the provisions of Article 170 of the Society's regulations in connection with the duties of observation centres. As regards the practical application of the measures laid down in the decree-law, the National Society has given the necessary instructions, in Circular No. 92 of April 8th, 1935—XIII, for observation centres for minors to be opened and administered at the headquarters of each Court of Appeal or section of a Court of Appeal (that is to say, at twenty-four headquarters in all). The circular provides that these centres shall consist of two services—a Health Service and a Social Assistance Service.

PRACTICAL MEASURES.

The National Maternity and Child Welfare Society has greatly developed ante-natal assistance with a view to reducing stillbirths and infant mortality immediately after birth. The latest statistical returns on these aspects of national demography leave no doubt as to the influence exercised by the Society in this connection. Progress has been made, not only through the very large number of

obstetric and pediatric consultation centres opened by the Society, but also through the home visiting service which is now general throughout the country. The extension of the campaign against venereal disease and tuberculosis, the provision of meals to children in children's homes, moral assistance for children and young people during the last financial year should also be noted.

The founding of "homes for mothers and children" is also in full development.

The number of obstetric and pediatric consultation centres, babies' homes, milk centres, etc., has increased considerably. It is interesting to note that the Society's activities along these lines do not in any way diminish private initiative in maternity and child welfare work.

Briefly, the progress made during the first ten years of the existence of the National Maternity and Child Welfare Society may be indicated by the following figures: 7,500,000 persons have benefited by 13,000,000 welfare measures; 9,000 institutions have been opened and a sum of about 1 milliard lire has been spent.

DRAFT REGULATIONS.

In connection more particularly with the National Maternity and Child Welfare Society, the bringing up to date of the regulations for the execution of the Law of December 10th, 1925, is under consideration.

Note.—The unified text of the Laws on Maternity and Child Welfare (Royal Decree of December 24th, 1934—XIII, No. 2316), a copy of Circular No. 92, April 8th, 1935, issued by the National Maternity and Child Welfare Society in connection with the centres for the re-education of minors was attached to the report and has been placed in the archives of the Secretariat.

JAPAN.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

A law was recently passed providing for maternal and child welfare.

Before this law was passed, assistance was given to mothers and children under the 1929 Law on Assistance and other general measures of a philanthropic nature. In 1935, for instance, there were forty-two semi-official and private organisations assisting indigent persons. The following figures may be quoted to give an idea of the work done under the Law on Assistance: In 1934, 91,946 children under 13 were assisted, the sums distributed for the purpose amounting to 5,810,388 yen. This relief was insufficient, as it was found in May 1935 that 95,000 necessitous children needed more extensive protection. The Japanese authorities accordingly studied the measures applied in such countries as the United States, Canada, Denmark and New Zealand, and prepared a draft law enacting adequate measures with the necessary adaptations to meet the special conditions prevailing in Japan.

Under the new law on maternal and child welfare, mothers with no means of livelihood are assisted in accordance with detailed regulations which will be laid down by decree. The law enacts that children in receipt of assistance must remain with their mothers whenever this is possible. Mothers and children are helped, not only by cash payments, but also by finding them employment, advising them, etc.

The budget for relief given to mothers and children, as provided by the law for 1937, amounts to 2,592,700 yen, the rate of relief being 25 sen per head per day in rural districts and 35 sen in large towns.

ADMINISTRATIVE MEASURES.

Relief is allotted by the mayor of the commune, with the help of social welfare workers who, in default of a better translation for the Japanese term, may be called "local

delegates". These social welfare workers are usually volunteers, but it is proposed to pay them a salary. There are 47,000 persons at present engaged in this work. Their principal duties are to seek out mothers in need of assistance and to keep family record cards; by the end of 1935, about 490,000 such cards had been compiled. It is proposed to increase the number of these delegates.

In addition to the provisions already in force for the protection of mothers with children under age and parturient women, steps have been taken to assist, at harvest-time, mothers with small children. The latter are placed in temporary day nurseries while the women work in the fields. Use is made for this purpose of Buddhist or Shinto temples, town or village halls and elementary-school buildings; and the children are usually looked after by priests, teachers or voluntary helpers.

LATVIA.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

Under the legislative measures in force in Latvia, the Ministry of Social Welfare is required to take care, not only of children in need of social assistance, but also of children brought up by their parents or placed in families, when there are grounds to suppose that these children are cruelly treated or exploited for criminal or immoral purposes. In such cases, the Minister of Social Welfare may, after the circumstances have been thoroughly investigated, remove a child from the care of its parents or from the family in which it was placed, if he thinks fit, without awaiting a legal order. He may institute proceedings to set aside the paternal power and place the child under guardianship.

The Latvian Government points out that, in 1934, Article 317 of the Civil Code, which prohibited the appointment of women as guardians, except in the case of a mother or grandmother, was abrogated; consequently, women may now be appointed as guardians. This amendment was published in the Official Gazette, *Valdibas Vestnesis*, No. 273, 1934.

PRACTICAL MEASURES.

1. Since 1934, a new form of assistance for the children of indigent townspeople has been introduced in Latvia. These children are placed temporarily for a holiday with peasant families. During 1934, 1,232 children between 6 and 11 years of age were boarded out in this way, for 83,189 days in all. During the summer of 1935, the number of children placed in families rose to 4,185, for 254,860 days in all. In the summer of 1936, 4,575 children were placed in families. The State is responsible for their board, as well as for the cost of the journey and medical treatment. The health-insurance funds have followed the example set by the State and send the children of their members for a holiday. Some municipalities also under-

take to board out poor children. Temporary boarding-out has produced very satisfactory results. The children have benefited both physically and morally. It has also met with the full approval, not only of the parents, but also of the peasant families with whom the children were boarded.

2. The system of boarding-out in families is extending in Latvia. Up to the present, the State has boarded 1,310 children : 30% with townspeople and 70% in peasant families. The municipalities have boarded out 1,417 children : 24% in the towns and 76% in the country. The private organisations have boarded out 202 children : 56% in the country and 44% in the towns. The total number of children boarded out is 2,929 : 828, or 28.3%, in towns and 2,101, or 71.7%, in the country.

It has been found that boarding-out encourages the adoption of children by the families in whose charge they are placed. Up to the present, more than 10% of the boarded-out children have been adopted.

3. Although there is no longer any unemployment, strictly speaking, in Latvia, the State still provides hot meals for the children of indigent townspeople. This work has developed considerably, as will be seen from the following figures : 1,368,131 meals were provided during the winter of 1931/32 and 2,519,388 during the winter of 1935/36.

4. To raise the birth rate and reduce infant mortality the State :

(a) Assists the Latvian Red Cross to open medical consultation centres for free medical treatment and advice on health questions for mothers and children. During 1935, seventeen new centres were opened. Up to November 1st of the current year, six additional centres had been opened. The medical officers of thirty of these centres are paid by the State.

(b) Distributes layettes together with a bed (total cost, 50 lats) for new-born children in poor families. During 1935, 366 layettes were distributed. Up to November 1st of the current year, 454 had been distributed. On August 24th, 1936, the provisions relating to public assistance for indigent women in

childbirth and new-born infants in country districts were put into force.

(c) Regularly distributes food products (butter, bacon, sugar and milk) to large families. During the preceding period, 409 indigent families with 2,192 children—1,828 of whom were under 12 years of age—received 5,305 kg. of butter, 6,894 kg. of bacon, 6,719 kg. of sugar, and 129,905 litres of milk. Up to November 1st, 1936, 630 families with 3,751 children—3,254 of whom were under 12 years of age—received 21,776 kg. of butter, 23,603 kg. of bacon, 23,528 kg. of sugar, and 442,804 litres of milk, of a total value of 140,000 lats.

(d) Makes grants for the purchase of clothing.

(e) Makes grants for opening nursery schools, as well as for the food of the children placed in these schools and for the salaries of the staff. During the preceding financial year, 9,800 lats were spent on this work, while, up to November 1st of the current year, expenditure amounted to 40,500 lats. 272 children received food in nursery schools at the expense of the State.

LIBERIA.

The Department of State of Liberia sent a copy of the Acts of the Legislature of Liberia for 1935/36.

Particular attention was drawn to Chapter XVII of these Acts, which contains "An Act relating to Matrimonial Causes", and to Chapter XXII, which contains "An Act relating to Children born out of Wedlock where the Parents subsequently marry". This last Act is composed of one section reading as follows :

Section 1.—That, should the natural father and mother of a child born out of wedlock afterwards contract a marriage and take the child to live with them as a member of the family, such act on their part shall be construed as legitimation of the said child, who shall thereafter be entitled to all the rights and privileges and benefits which accrue to children of said parents born in wedlock, and said child shall be considered as possessing heritable blood and a legitimate heir of the aforesaid parents.

"Any law to the contrary notwithstanding."

NETHERLANDS.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

The annual report consists of the text of the Law of July 18th, 1936 (promulgated in the *Law Gazette*, 1936, No. 203), which amends and supplements the provisions of the Penal Code on morals with a view to rendering the protection of minors more effective, and of the Parliamentary documents relating to the said law.

*Commentary.*¹

“ The new provisions may be divided into two groups. The first (see *ad* 1) deals with the prevention of immoral practices with minors; the second (see *ad* 2) concerns the protection of young people from indecent literature and literature calculated to excite the senses.

“ *Ad* 1.—The first paragraph of Article 248 *ter* originally read as follows :

“ ‘ Any person who, by gifts or promises of money or goods, the misuse of authority, force, threats or fraud, wilfully incites a minor of irreproachable behaviour, whom he knows or may reasonably be presumed to know to be a minor, to have carnal relations with him shall be liable to a term of imprisonment not exceeding two years.’

“ This provision now reads as follows :

“ ‘ Any person who, by gifts or promises of money or goods, or the misuse of a predominant position resulting from actual circumstances, or fraud, wilfully incites a minor of irreproachable behaviour whom he knows or may reasonably be presumed to know to be a minor

¹ This commentary is taken from the Collection of Penal and Penitentiary Documents, *Bulletin of the International Penal and Penitentiary Commission*, Vol. V, Part 4, November 1936. It is by Dr. B. V. A. RÖLING, of the University of Utrecht, and was forwarded by M. J. Simon van der Aa, General Secretary of the International Penal and Penitentiary Commission.

to commit immoral acts with him or to submit to such acts shall be liable to a term of imprisonment not exceeding four years.’

“ The words *underlined* show clearly that the category of punishable offences has been extended considerably.

“ The provisions of Article 249 concerning immoral conduct by persons in a position of authority have been extended to meet what has long been felt to be necessary in practice. Among other offences, the new article prohibits any person from engaging in immoral practices with ‘ a minor placed in his care, under his instruction or in his custody or with an employee or subordinate who is a minor ’.

“ Article 250, which provides, in particular, for the punishment of the offence of procuring minors in a position of dependency upon the person guilty of the offence, is extended in the same way.

“ *Ad 2.*—Two classes of provisions are amended : in the first place, Article 240 *bis*, concerning the steps taken to protect young people against indecent literature and contraceptives. The act of procuring them was punishable when it was committed for the purpose of gain and the victim was under 16 years of age, and when it was known that obscene literature or contraceptives were involved. The new law extends the category of punishable offences. The motive of gain is omitted. The age-limit is raised (on the initiative of Parliament) to 18 years. It sufficed to make the offence punishable if there was a reasonable presumption that obscene literature or a contraceptive was involved. (This provision was also extended on the initiative of Parliament.) Lastly, it is punishable to read aloud, repeat, or cause obscene writings to be heard.

“ Article 451 *bis*, which concerns the protection of young persons against literature calculated to excite the senses, has also been amended. It is also an offence to cause writings calculated to excite the senses of young people to be heard in public places. Moreover, to procure or show literature of this kind to minors under 18 years of age (or to cause such literature to be heard by such minors) is also punishable. According to the statement of reasons

given in the law, the promulgation of these provisions had become necessary because children at the secondary schools had often been found in possession of literature of this kind."

DRAFT LAWS.

The Netherlands Government has tabled a Bill amending the civil law in respect of children. In accordance with this Bill, no special act of acknowledgment is necessary to establish civil law relations between the mother and the illegitimate child.

PRACTICAL MEASURES.

In the last three or four years, much has been done in the Netherlands to help unemployed juveniles, whose numbers since the beginning of 1937 are, happily, decreasing. As in Belgium, private associations organise labour camps, which are highly appreciated and are subsidised by the State, but are also well supported by the public.

NEW ZEALAND.

There were no outstanding administrative changes or measures taken or adopted during the year 1935, neither was any legislation passed that year concerning child welfare.

The annual report on the Child Welfare Branch for the year ending March 31st, 1936, was forwarded. It deals with the number of children under the supervision of the Child Welfare Branch, the cases appearing before children's courts, preventive work (*i.e.*, adjusting conditions in homes in connection with families in order to prevent the committal of children to the care of the State or their coming before the courts at all), children under the guardianship of the Superintendent of the Child Welfare Branch, infant-life protection, adoptions, children in residence in private orphanages, and illegitimacy (all illegitimate births are notified to the child welfare officers, who investigate them and seek to advise and assist the mother where possible; the report contains statistics of such investigations). The report further contains particulars of the expenditure for the year ending March 31st, 1936.

NORWAY.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

Laws Nos. 2 and 3, of May 24th, 1935, make slight changes in the laws on adoption and inheritance.

Law No. 12, of June 25th, 1935, on hotels, boarding-houses and restaurants (Article 12) provides that the provisions of the Occupational Law of July 25th, 1913 (Chapters 3, 4 and 5 and Articles 40 to 42), shall in future apply to the relations between proprietors and managers of hotels and their apprentices. Under this law, however, apprentices under the age of 18 may be required to work between 8 p.m. and 11 p.m. for not more than three days a week, provided they are not required to work before midday on the following day.

ADMINISTRATIVE MEASURES.

In 1935, the Child Welfare Councils worked along the same lines and with the same results as in previous years.

PERU.

The annual report of the Peruvian Government contains a list and the text¹ of the legislative and administrative measures on child welfare adopted during 1935 and 1936.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

Law No. 8159, providing for the formation of a Christmas fund by means of a tax of 10% on the receipts from public performances during the month of December in each year, to be used for the purchase of clothing, food and toys for poor children in Peru.

Law No. 8258, imposing an extraordinary tax of 10% on the receipts from public performances in the town of Lima, to be levied only on the second Sunday in May of each year, for the benefit of the "Home for Mothers".

Law No. 8299, imposing a tax of 1% on the receipts from public performances, for the benefit of the children's seaside colony at Ancón—an institution founded by Mme. Francisca B. de Benavides and under her patronage.

Law No. 8465, authorising the extension of the services of the Children's Hospital with a view to providing 1,000 beds, medical and surgical equipment and an out-patient consultation centre for the benefit of the children of Lima. For this purpose, 10% will be allocated from the Lima Unemployment Fund. (During the year 1935, the Children's Hospital treated 32,963 children, the total number of consultations being 103,920.²)

ADMINISTRATIVE MEASURES.

Presidential decrees relating to the scheme for the extension and organisation of child welfare centres in the

¹ The text of the laws and decrees has been placed in the archives of the Secretariat.

² A table showing the general figures per half-year of out-patient consultations and in-patients admitted to the Children's Hospital is annexed to the report.

Republic and officially recognising the children's institutes of the towns of Trujillo, Cuzco and Tacna.

Presidential decree providing the Children's Hospital with sterilising apparatus in order to render the hospital services more effective.

Ministerial Decrees Nos. 3729 and 3407, appointing Mme. Emilia Barcia Bonifatti as organiser of nursery schools and instructing her to open such schools in the towns of Iquitos and Contamana.

Presidential decree recognising the "Friends of the Child" Society as a collaborator with the State in educational work and measures for the development and welfare of children, and in increasing the number of nursery schools in the Republic.

Presidential decree authorising the General Directorate of Health to appoint nuns as nurses in the Children's Hospital.

Presidential decree authorising the Ministry of Public Health to place the sum of 24,000 soles from the surplus for the financial year 1935 at the disposal of the Child Welfare Committee for the extension of its services.

Presidential decree providing for the free daily distribution, through the popular restaurants of Lima and Callao, of 600 breakfasts to school-children. It was provided that this number might be increased to 1,000 if necessary. Under a Presidential decree dated August 28th, 1936, 2,500 breakfasts were provided, and, under a Presidential decree dated September 28th, 1936, 10,000.

Presidential decree appointing from among the directors of educational establishments in Lima and Callao the members of the Commission on free breakfasts for school-children.

Presidential decree providing for the creation and organisation of dining-rooms for mothers for the supply of free food to indigent mothers during the last few months of pregnancy and the first months of the nursing period.

Ministerial decree approving the constructions at the Children's Hospital of premises to serve as a waiting-room for patients attending for a consultation.

Presidential decree providing for the extension of the Children's Hospital by the construction of wards for contagious and tuberculous cases.

Presidential decree authorising the Ministry of Public Health to grant the Rotary Club of Callao a subsidy of 6,000 soles as a contribution towards the construction of the municipal playing-field for the children of this town.

Presidential decree by which the Government, in view of the valuable work for children of the Institute for the Deaf and Dumb, presents an omnibus to this institute to enable it to continue its social welfare work.

INFORMATION.

During 1935, the National Children's Institute assisted 12,260 children (total number of consultations, 93,244) through the infants' dispensaries, crèches, colonies in the mountains and other child welfare services.

The institute has extended its welfare services by opening two new infants' dispensaries. There are now nine dispensaries for infants in Peru, five crèches, two colonies in the mountains—one for boys and one for girls—a centre for maternising milk and various clothing centres for children.

(A list of children's dispensaries, crèches and mountain colonies is annexed to the report and has been placed in the archives of the Secretariat.)

The Ministry of Public Works has communicated a note on the organisation of the school breakfast service. This new service is now in the hands of the four popular restaurants and is divided among them in accordance with the situation of the schools and the number of pupils. Each restaurant supplies about 2,000 breakfasts. The food is taken to the schools in lorries hired for the purpose, packed in hermetically sealed tins so that the liquid is warm on arrival. The bread is packed in special boxes. Each breakfast consists of 150 grammes of milk, 10 grammes of coffee, cocoa or "frux",¹ 22 grammes of sugar, 60 grammes of bread and 10 grammes of butter.

¹ A mixture of cocoa and of banana flour.

POLAND.

The Polish Government has not sent in a report on its activities in the sphere of child welfare legislation during 1936, because a Bill dealing with child welfare is now in preparation and no fresh regulations or orders have been promulgated.

In various parts of the country, however, Child Welfare Committees have been set up to arrange for the provision of extra nourishment for children and young people and to organise certain forms of social assistance to children at elementary schools and maternity centres (distribution of clothing, boots and shoes, school equipment, etc.). These Committees also deal with holiday camps.

The special Institute for Mental Hygiene has been opened with the help of the Rockefeller Fund. Special courses in psycho-pathology are given there to welfare workers and nurses; the examinations held at the end of these courses show that the standard of training reaches a high level.

PORTUGAL.

The Portuguese Government states that, with a view to improving the "Children's Jurisdictional Services", it adopted the following provisions during 1935 :

Decree No. 26156.—This decree separates the duties of the Director of the "Refuge" (Casa de Observações) from those of minors' guardians under the Children's Guardianship Council of the city of Oporto. It provides that the duties of Judge of the Children's Guardianship Council of Coimbra shall be performed by a judge of the first class (these duties were formerly undertaken by the Professor of the Chair of Penal Law in the Faculty of Law, Coimbra).

Order No. 8262 of November 6th, 1935.—This order provides that the Guardianship Councils shall be entitled to represent children who are in their charge before the courts, even when the parents still retain their paternal power.

The Portuguese Government states that the reorganisation of the "Children's Jurisdictional Services" is under consideration.

ROUMANIA.

The report of the Roumanian Government contains the text of the new Roumanian Criminal Code and the Book of Criminal Procedure concerning delinquent minors and children in moral danger, which came into force on January 1st, 1937.

This legislation has been published in document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I./2 (Legislative and Administrative Series, No. 7).

SIAM.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

The Siamese Government states that, apart from the enactment in B.E.2477 (1934) and the application in B.E.2478 (1935) of the Public Health Act, certain sections of which empower the public health authorities to forbid the admittance of children suffering from infectious diseases into schools and public places, there are no other noteworthy particulars to be reported in respect of legislative or administrative measures taken or considered during 1935 on the subject of child welfare.

ADMINISTRATIVE MEASURES.

No important administrative measures have been taken or have been under consideration during the year 1935 with reference to child welfare.

SPAIN.

Since July 1936, the ordinary problems of child welfare which had been engaging the attention of the Spanish Government—particularly since the Frente Popular came into power in March 1936—have been aggravated and complicated through the conditions brought about by the military rising and the war.

The Spanish Government had already embarked upon the study of various legislative measures for the protection of children, and this work has been carried on without interruption in spite of the heavy practical responsibilities imposed upon it by circumstances.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

By a decree of January 4th, 1937, approved by the Cortes, the guardianship of minors under 18 years of age who have been abandoned or are in moral danger was vested in the Higher Council for the Protection of Minors, henceforward to be known as the National Council for the Guardianship of Minors.

This body will be actively concerned with all matters connected with the guardianship of minors, the appointment of guardians, the supervision of accounts, etc., and disputes regarding the recognition of children under age, action to establish paternity and the divorce or separation of married couples with children under age.

In short, a special body has been set up for the legal protection of minors, and the regulations in application of the decree are now under consideration.

A decree dated February 3rd, 1937, deals with the civil capacity of women; henceforward, a mother will enjoy the same rights as the father in respect of the children of their union and, pending the constitution of special family tribunals, any disputes will be settled by the ordinary courts of first instance.

The organisation of special family tribunals is already under consideration.

In the exercise of the powers vested in it by its Charter,

the autonomous Government of Catalonia has introduced legislation which makes fundamental changes in the traditional family law. Henceforward, the age of majority will be attained at 18 and women will enjoy full civil capacity. The law of adoption has also been changed; in future, persons of full age will be able to adopt children irrespective of the conditions laid down by the Spanish Civil Code, and adoption will no longer be irrevocable.

PRACTICAL PROBLEMS.

As a result of the war, the Spanish Government has been faced with heavy responsibilities in the matter of the protection of children, more particularly by the two grave problems of (1) their evacuation from the war zone and (2) the arrangements to be made for them after evacuation.

In the early days of August 1936, thousands of refugee families began to stream into the large cities in the centre of Spain, and Madrid in particular, from the war areas in the south and west of the country. Groups of children, stricken with terror at the death of their relatives, fled from their homes in the villages and sought refuge in Madrid. For these thousands of children, homes had to be hastily improvised.

From September onwards, children's homes, or "colonies" as they are called, have been organised along the Mediterranean coast, where, in groups of from forty to fifty, or in some cases from 100 to 150, they are in the charge of paid or voluntary staffs.

By November, however, the fighting had drawn nearer, and it became necessary to evacuate the population of Madrid, which had been swollen by the arrival of refugees from other districts. As a result, some 100,000 children had to be rapidly transferred to the Mediterranean provinces, where they were boarded out in families which had previously offered to take them in.

Experience of the two systems of children's colonies and boarding-out in families has shown that the latter is easier to work and can be much more rapidly and economically organised; in an emergency, it is possible under that system to provide for large numbers of children without any apparent disturbance of local conditions or additional cost.

The organisation of colonies requires roomy, though not too roomy, premises, and specialised staff which cannot always be obtained on a voluntary basis—all of which entail considerable expenditure.

Nevertheless, it has been found in practice that the grouping of children in colonies is much more satisfactory than boarding-out in families, and the thousands of children who were originally provided for by the latter method are now gradually to be organised into groups of not more than fifty.

In these groups, which have health and teaching staff attached, the children can develop in a manner better suited to their own individualities than in private families, where adaptation is not always possible and where unpleasantness and complaints are apt to arise; in the case of some particularly sensitive children, rather serious nervous trouble has even resulted.

Children's colonies have been opened in country houses given over by their owners or requisitioned by the Government in the owners' absence.

Foreign Assistance to Spanish Children.

Various international associations and organisations in a number of countries have offered the Spanish Government assistance for children, and have sent food and medical supplies or offered to find children adoptive homes in private families. Organisations of Spanish residents in certain French and Belgian towns have raised funds by voluntary subscription, and with the assistance of various bodies have organised homes or colonies for small groups of Spanish children.

The Spanish Government is profoundly grateful for these marks of international solidarity, which have certainly proved of the greatest assistance. As regards the sending of Spanish children to foreign countries, on the other hand, it has been obliged to make certain reservations. The above-mentioned drawbacks of boarding-out in private families are increased by differences of language, so that incompatibility may be even more pronounced. For these reasons, the Government has not favoured the expatriation of children on a large scale and has only sent children to the colonies hitherto set up in certain French and Belgian cities.

SWITZERLAND.

The Federal Political Department has supplied the following information, which was obtained from the Federal authorities, with regard to the measures adopted by the Swiss cantons in 1935.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

The authorities of the Canton of *Schaffhausen* draw attention to a cantonal Law on Regulations concerning Relief which came into force on January 1st, 1935. The object of Article 11 of this law is to "place under the special protection of the public assistance authorities children and young people under 16 years of age who do not live with their father and mother but with relations or with persons not related to them, and for whose maintenance the official public assistance authorities are wholly or partly responsible". The same article provides that the Council of State shall promulgate an order on the protection of adopted children, with special reference to the compulsory notification of these children.

DRAFT LAWS.

The authorities of the Canton of *Solothurn* draw special attention to two "motions", one relating to appropriate measures for promoting the moral and economic welfare of the family and of young people, and the other to measures for the moral welfare of young people.

The Canton of *Lucerne* is preparing a Law on Procedure concerning Jurisdiction for Minors, which will be communicated to the Secretariat in due course.

ADMINISTRATIVE MEASURES.

In the half-canton of *Lower Unterwald*, school-children have undergone a medical inspection for the first time with

a view to preventing tuberculosis. This inspection proved to be highly necessary.

The half-canton of *Basel-Land* has forwarded regulations for schools dated March 9th, 1934, and the text of instructions concerning the school health service.

The authorities of the Canton of *Schaffhausen* state that regulations for supervision over the maintenance of children (*Kontrolle der Versorgung von Kindern*) have been adopted.

INFORMATION.

The Federal Political Department states in its report that no changes in connection with child welfare have been announced in the Canton of *Berne*, and that the arrangements for child welfare in *Geneva*, which date back to 1912, have proved complicated and inadequate and no longer meet the requirements. Studies are therefore being made by a committee of experts with a view to reorganising the welfare measures for minors in Geneva.

Note.—Various documents annexed to the report of the Federal Political Department have been placed in the Library of the Secretariat. In addition to the text of the legislative and administrative measures referred to above, mention should be made of the report of the Berne Cantonal Office for Minors for the year 1935, a copy of the *Swiss Year-Book on the Welfare of Young People during the Years 1933 and 1934*, published by the General Secretariat of the "Pro Juventute" Foundation in 1935, and various copies of the *Revue suisse d'utilité publique*.

VENEZUELA.

The report of the Venezuelan Government consists of a brief description of the improvements introduced in the internal arrangements and physical training syllabus of the institute known as the Home for Boys (Refugio Infantil para Varones) of the town of Maracay.

YUGOSLAVIA.

ADMINISTRATIVE MEASURES.

The Government authorities are taking steps to protect children who are deserted or neglected by their parents in order to save them from vagrancy, mendicity and other such practices. These children are brought back to their homes or placed in institutions or, in some cases, in the care of private persons. Lost children are brought back to their home commune and placed with qualified guardians. Children from villages are preferably placed with peasants so as not to remove them from their natural environment and prospects.

The economic depression of recent years has led to an increase in the number of children who beg in the streets and on the public squares of large towns and smaller localities. At one time, cases of theft organised with the help of children had also become more frequent, but, thanks to the vigilant and effective action of the authorities, assisted by charitable institutions, it has proved possible to combat this evil successfully, so that at the present time cases of this kind have become quite exceptional.

Owing to the lack of financial resources, the number of State institutions engaged in child welfare work is inadequate compared with the number of deserted children. The existing institutions, however, are extremely active. There are crèches, day nurseries, hostels of the combined school and agricultural type for children who have passed through elementary school, and also holiday camps in the mountains or on the coast.

In the matter of social hygiene, the activity of the Government authorities is manifold. The Kingdom has a number of special institutions for blind, deaf and dumb, mentally defective or erring children. Mention may also be made here of the anti-tuberculosis hospitals and dispensaries for children.

On admission to school, children undergo a medical examination which is repeated later at regular intervals so

as to verify their state of health. They are also given serum inoculations. Training courses dealing with the diet and care of children have been organised in the smaller localities and villages; when performing inoculations, medical officers also give the necessary advice. Children attending school are treated free of charge. New school polyclinics are constantly being opened.

In addition, the Government authorities give humanitarian associations and institutions assistance either directly (*e.g.*, winter help), or indirectly in the form of subsidies.

Finally, the Government authorities verify the age at which minors begin work and supervise the conditions under which they work. Further, persons who have been given charge of deserted children are kept under special supervision.

The communal authorities devote special attention to children who have been deserted or neglected by their parents. For this purpose, day and night refuges are opened for these children, in addition to day nurseries and kindergartens where parents employed during the day, and therefore unable to attend to their children, may leave them. Furthermore, communes maintain public canteens and supply destitute children with underwear, clothing and footwear.

PRIVATE ORGANISATIONS.

Private organisations are divided into two classes; those which operate throughout the Kingdom (such as the Red Cross, the Association of Yugoslav Sisters, etc.), which intervene more especially in cases where assistance is required on a more extensive scale; and those (women's institutions, humanitarian institutions, etc.) whose activity is purely local and which are mainly engaged in establishing kindergartens and day nurseries and obtaining for the children the most essential food. The value of their work depends, of course, on the energy and zeal of their members but it may, in general, be said that in most cases the work done by these associations is of great value to the children.

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TRAFFIC IN WOMEN AND CHILDREN
WORK OF THE
BANDOENG CONFERENCE

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INTRODUCTION

“In the social sphere there are problems — and even primary problems — which no longer present any difficulties in the West but which are still awaiting solution in the East.”

These words, spoken by Dr. Enthoven, Director of the Department of Justice in the Netherlands Indies, in the address with which he opened the Conference of central authorities at Bandoeng, reflect the background against which the work of that Conference has to be considered. Moreover, in the social, as in most other spheres, there is no single and indivisible East. The social problems of Singapore and Hong-Kong are only in part those of Bangkok, and in social structure Malaya differs more widely from China than Italy from France or Europe from North America. In the following pages, the term “East” is used in a geographical sense and not as indicating spiritual or social unity.

The purpose of the present booklet is not to present the whole question of traffic in women and children in the East — that has been done in the comprehensive report of the Commission of Enquiry on Traffic in Women and Children in the East¹ — but to give a condensed account of the work of the Conference, utilising also such relevant information as has come to the knowledge of the Secretariat

¹ League of Nations document C.849.M.393.1932.IV.

of the League of Nations since the publication of the report. This publication has been issued at the special request of the Conference, which asked that "a report be prepared by the Secretariat of the League of Nations suitable for distribution to a wider public".¹

The work of the Conference, which was convened under the auspices of the League of Nations, was carried on from the very first in a spirit of co-operation and mutual understanding. In his concluding speech, the representative of the Netherlands Indies Government declared himself "deeply impressed by the fact that it has been possible for such a diversity of Eastern nations to co-operate so intimately that many tangible results have been achieved".

There were differences of opinion, of course ; but at no single moment did such differences lead to serious difficulties. All the recommendations and suggestions were adopted unanimously, even those relating to the abolition of licensed brothels, a question which only a few years before could perhaps not have been raised at all at a Conference in that part of the world.

The aim of the Conference was to give a new impetus to the forces working in the East against the traffic in women and children. That impetus may prove to be especially valuable because it seems to have come at the right psychological moment ; public opinion is definitely on the move, and the Governments are ready for international action in this field.

¹ See Annex 4, page 86.

I. CAUSES OF PROSTITUTION, WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE EAST

There are two general causes leading women into prostitution which may be considered independently of the particular country in which prostitution is carried on and of the social structure of the community. Those causes are poverty and ignorance. Their relative importance, however, varies in different parts of the world. Thus M. Chen, of the Chinese delegation, referred to ignorance as a cause of prostitution and stated that :

“Out of 500 prostitutes in Peiping, only eleven could read and write and only two had received any higher education. The study made of 3,000 prostitutes at Tientsin showed that only thirteen — *i.e.*, 0.04% could read and write; a large number, estimated at about 40% of the prostitutes, were also found to be feeble-minded.”

Whilst it would appear from a study now being made by the League that the school-leaving age of prostitutes in Europe is also abnormally low, no such percentage of illiteracy has been found among them. If illiteracy is taken as an index of ignorance, it may safely be assumed that ignorance as a contributing factor to prostitution is far more important in the East than in Europe.

On one important point, however, prostitution in the East is quite different from that in Europe and America. In vast territories, it is the consequence of social habits

rather than of individual failings, and for whole groups of women it is the inevitable outcome of circumstances. Certain recent studies of the antecedents of prostitutes have shown that social customs in Europe are contributory rather than determining factors.

Such information as the League has obtained during previous enquiries and at the Conference shows that there still exist in the East, especially in India, whole groups of women actually destined for prostitution. A note forwarded by the Commissioner of Police, Bombay, in 1937, stated that there were "certain classes in India (viz., Naiks of Kumaun, Kalawant, etc.) amongst whom the females usually take to prostitution as a profession." Kumaun is a remote hill district in the United Provinces. It has also to be kept in mind that, among some of these castes, there has never been registered marriage in the Western sense.

A report which reached the League Secretariat in 1936 from the Government of the United Provinces stated that there was "at least one caste in the United Provinces, the Naiks of Kumaun, the hereditary occupation of whose women was prostitution. An act has been passed for the protection of minor girls of the caste from being brought up as prostitutes." A report from the Government of Orissa states that prostitutes "are generally from families who have adopted this profession for generations". A report from Bengal states "girls married at the age of 7 years or less often find themselves widowed before they reach the age of 15... Generally speaking, a young widow is ill treated both by her own family and her husband's family and is therefore

continually seeking an opportunity to remove herself from her environment. Only one profession is open to her, and her entry into the ranks of prostitution may be said to be entirely normal and inevitable.”¹

The delegate of Portuguese India at the Bandoeng Conference gave the following account of the position :

“Apart from the general causes of prostitution in Portuguese India, there was a cause of religious origin in that country—namely, Devadasism—which was a social, semi-ritual and semi-traditional institution compelling women of a certain caste to become prostitutes.

“The bayaderes did not marry. They were attached to the service of the pagodas... The children born of these women did not belong to any caste. If they were girls, they became bayaderes like their mothers...”

On account of “precocious marriages, girls became widows when they were scarcely nubile or still in their childhood. Widows, whether children or adults, could never re-marry. Moreover, they became the drudges of all the members of the deceased husband’s household.

¹ In the case of India, there is the further factor that the strong prejudice felt against women who have been prostitutes makes a return to normal life well-nigh impossible. One report from India states that, “once having taken to this unhappy mode of living, they find it impossible to give it up because they are regarded as social and moral outcasts”. The unfortunate position of widows has been a feature only among certain classes in Hindu communities. The modern educational movement is seeking to create from among these unfortunate women the first trained nurses, teachers and social workers.

The hardest duties were reserved to them and they had no comfort or rest. They had only one extremely simple meal per day. They had to submit to strict fasts, to shave their heads, to abstain from all ceremonies or rejoicings, marriages or religious festivals. They had to keep out of sight of women in labour or any person who might be injured by their evil eye. Under these circumstances, it was not astonishing that these young widows should form a large proportion of the inmates of brothels ; according to certain figures, they represent 30% of the total number of prostitutes."

The Portuguese delegate pointed out that, as a result of the policy of religious tolerance practised in the Portuguese colonies, the Hindus had been allowed to maintain the prostitution of the bayaderes.

Thus, for whole groups of prostitutes in the East, personal responsibility on the part of the victim is to a large extent practically non-existent, and circumstances over which she has no control force her into prostitution quite independently of her own disposition. Hence it is evident that a greater share of responsibility falls upon society, which must employ different measures to deal with prostitution in the East from those employed in other parts of the world. In Europe and America, prostitution, though a definite social phenomenon, is not a group phenomenon. But this is the case in parts of the East, and it is therefore natural that the exponents of society—the authorities—should play a far more important rôle in dealing with this problem than is the case in other parts of the world.

Signs are not lacking that public opinion in this part of the world is awakening to the importance of improving social conditions. The Sarda Act prohibiting child marriages, the Devadasism Bill and the Re-marriage of Widows Bills, all applying to British India, show how social thought is advancing in modern India.

II. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

WHAT IS MEANT BY TRAFFIC IN WOMEN AND CHILDREN ?

The expression "traffic in women and children" has replaced the former designation of "white slave traffic" which is to-day used only colloquially. The latter term was current in official language until the creation of the League; both the 1904 International Agreement and the 1910 International Convention refer to the "suppression of the white slave traffic". It has, however, been gradually abandoned, as it became clear that traffic in women was not confined to women of the white race, but that the scourge appeared all over the world and included women of all races.

Many attempts have been made to define "traffic in women and children". It has of course different aspects according to whether it is regarded from the legal, criminal or social standpoints. Generally speaking, traffic in women can be defined as the procurement for gain of girls and women for immoral purposes. The League of Nations, however, did not deal originally with the traffic in women in this wide sense but with one of its aspects—the international traffic. This has been defined in one of the League's reports as "meaning primarily the direct or indirect procurement and transportation for gain to a foreign country of women and girls for the sexual gratification of one or more other persons".

From the beginning, it has proved difficult, if not impossible, to “isolate the international question entirely from various forms of commercialised vice where there is no transportation to a foreign country”. The League could therefore not always avoid dealing with national traffic in women and children, but great care was always taken to do so only with the approval of the authorities concerned.

ENQUIRIES IN DIFFERENT PARTS OF THE WORLD

One of the League’s first tasks in the campaign against traffic in women and children was to ascertain how far the facts warranted further activities in that field. For this purpose, the League undertook a number of enquiries, two of which are especially relevant in connection with the Bandoeng Conference.

A. Europe and America

The first enquiry took place in the years 1924-1926 and resulted in the report of the Special Body of Experts on Traffic in Women and Children.¹ It covered a number of European countries — Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, France, Germany and others — as well as some non-European countries, especially in Central and South America. This report had far-reaching repercussions, since it proved the existence of an extensive traffic in women, chiefly from Europe to Central

¹ League of Nations documents C.52.M.52.1927.IV, and C.52(2).M.52(1).1927.IV.

and South America, and also to Egypt and various regions of North Africa. In addition, it proved that licensed brothels constitute one of the principal factors in the promotion of the traffic. A new impulse was thus given to public opinion and to Government action for the abolition of licensed brothels, especially in Europe.

Since this enquiry was made, the situation has changed considerably for the better. Several countries have abandoned or restricted the system of regulation, and the consequent breaking-up of the chain of licensed houses which before the war existed practically throughout Europe, coupled with the decrease of illiteracy in various parts of Europe and the stabilisation of currencies in a number of countries most affected by the economic consequences of the war, has led on the whole to an improvement in the situation. In addition, such measures as stricter enforcement of immigration and emigration regulations, the provision for control of passports, the extension of unemployment benefits to new categories of workers, especially women workers, etc., had a salutary effect. The cumulative result of all these and other factors was a distinct decline in the international traffic in women in Europe itself and from Europe to America. How far the economic depression, which held Europe and indeed most of the world in its grip between 1929 and 1932, directly influenced this development is difficult to ascertain. The evidence is conflicting. While the general impoverishment resulting from the crisis has undoubtedly increased the number of women liable to fall into prostitution, it has at the same time diminished

the purchasing power of the potential clients of prostitution. The situation seems to have varied from country to country and even from town to town.

B. *The East*

In 1929, the League of Nations Assembly, the highest authority of the League, decided that an enquiry into the traffic in women and children should be extended to the East. This decision was taken after the Governments concerned in the East had declared themselves prepared to collaborate in such an enquiry. The organisation entrusted with the investigation consisted of (a) a travelling Commission of Enquiry of three members appointed by the Council of the League, (b) a Committee to which the Governments having delegates on the Traffic in Women and Children Committee appointed representatives. The countries represented on this Committee were the United States of America, the United Kingdom, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Poland, Roumania, Spain, Uruguay. The Commission studied the position in the following territories : the Far East—Japan, China, Hong—Kong, Macao, the Philippine Islands, Indo-China, the Netherlands Indies, the Straits Settlements, the Federated Malay States, the Unfederated Malay States, Siam; the Middle East—India, Ceylon, Iran; the Near East—Iraq, Near—Eastern territories under French mandate, Palestine.

The results of this, the first comprehensive enquiry into the question of traffic in women and children in

the East, were submitted to the Council in an exhaustive report.¹ They were published in 1933 and aroused great interest throughout the world.

The chief results of the enquiry have been authoritatively summarised as follows² :

“The essential facts which the report discloses are that there is an international traffic in oriental women and girls in the Near, Middle and Far East ; that the number of women and girls involved in this traffic is, in the aggregate, large ; that the bulk of this traffic is traffic in Asiatic women from one country in Asia to another ; that the largest number of such victims are of Chinese race ; the next in numerical importance are women of Japanese nationality — that is, Japanese, Korean and Formosan—followed in very much smaller number by Malayan, Annamite, Siamese, Filipino, Indian, Iraqui, Persian and Syrian.

“As regards traffic in Occidental women to the East, the Commission reports that this traffic, which once was considerable, has markedly decreased... With certain exceptions to be found chiefly in the Mediterranean Near East, prostitutes who go to the Middle or Far East seek their clients almost solely among clients of their own race. Even Occidental prostitutes who go to the Middle or Near East seek their clients almost solely among Occidental men.”

¹ Commission of Enquiry into Traffic in Women and Children : Report to the Council — League of Nations, document C.849. M.393.1932.IV.

² Document C.T.F.E.594, C.P.E.420.

“The report indicates that some of the more important causes which underlie the traffic in the Occident operate also in the Orient, but in a different manner.”

These enquiries in Europe, America and the East were made possible by generous grants from the American Social Hygiene Association.

CHANGES IN THE TREND AND VOLUME OF TRAFFIC IN WOMEN AND CHILDREN

In a questionnaire which was sent to all the countries interested in the Conference of Central Authorities in Eastern Countries, the Governments were invited to state, *inter alia*, whether the trend of the traffic in women and children had undergone any change, whether the volume had increased or decreased and whether they were in a position to give a general résumé of the situation. The answers to this questionnaire referred to changes that have taken place since the end of 1931—*i.e.*, to developments subsequent to the investigation of the Commission of Enquiry into the Traffic in Women and Children in the East.

From the replies, it appeared that traffic had declined in the majority of Eastern countries. Statements to this effect were made by the Government of the Straits Settlements and by the Government of Hong-Kong, the latter expressing the opinion that the traffic from Hong-Kong to the South Seas had practically ceased. Siam pointed out that the traffic from China had declined. The report of the Government of the Indo-Chinese Union stated that, in the cases detected, only isolated

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individuals had been concerned, while the Governments of Macao and Portuguese India and the reports of most of the Indian Provincial Governments stated that external traffic in women and children was practically non-existent.

As to general development, the International Criminal Police Commission stated in a memorandum that "traffic in women and children, and all offences connected with the traffic, such as those concerning *souteneurs*, procurers and other persons exploiting immorality are on the decline".

This general statement is not disproved by the fact that there seems to be some slight increase in certain places in the East. The following paragraphs contain various observations from Governments' replies relating to particular areas.

The Netherlands Indies stated that the traffic had increased.

The report from the Straits Settlements contends that the sex ratio for Chinese in Malaya is tending gradually towards equalisation. "This affects traffic in prostitutes in two ways : first, more locally-born Chinese women take to prostitution, leaving less demand for prostitutes from China ; and, secondly, more Chinese men in Malaya are married, so that there is less demand for prostitutes altogether. The working of the Aliens Ordinance since the beginning of 1932 has made the examination of passengers easier and more effective, and has therefore made traffic more difficult and risky."

As the report from Hong-Kong states, "the closing of tolerated houses in Hong-Kong and Malaya, together

with the fact that, at the examination of deck passengers at the Secretariat for Chinese Affairs, known prostitutes are not allowed to proceed abroad, has been responsible for the decrease. The economic depression in Malaya has possibly been a contributing factor.”

These two statements show that the decrease in international traffic in this part of the world is due, at least in part, to the same factors which contributed to such a definite decrease in the traffic between Europe and South America—namely, the strengthening of official measures and stricter control.

As regards the nature of the traffic, all the evidence available points to the fact that, in almost all cases, the traffic was the work of individuals who delivered up individual women to prostitution for the sake of gain. The notion that it has invariably been carried on by organised gangs of traffickers and that whole groups of victims were involved seems not to be warranted by the facts as they exist in the East.

INTERNATIONAL LEGISLATION IN THE FIELD OF TRAFFIC IN WOMEN AND CHILDREN

The Conference of Central Authorities in Eastern Countries forms part of the general social and humanitarian activity of the League of Nations. These are based on Article 23 (c) of the Covenant, which entrusted the League, *inter alia*, “with the general supervision of the execution of agreements with regard to the traffic in women and children”.

The League first concentrated on the ratification by its Members of the international instrument concluded before its foundation—*i.e.*, the 1904 International Agreement for the Suppression of the White Slave Traffic and the 1910 International Convention for the Suppression of the White Slave Traffic.

Since the foundation of the League, the international legislation in this field has been extended by the conclusion of three further international instruments : the 1921 International Convention for the Suppression of Traffic in Women and Children, the 1923 International Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in and Circulation of Obscene Publications, and the 1933 International Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in Women of Full Age. The following are the chief provisions of these Conventions as far as they deal with traffic in women and children.

The Agreement of 1904

The Agreement of 1904, which to-day seems a timid endeavour, but which, at the time of its conclusion, constituted a great step forward, contains an undertaking on the part of the contracting Governments to “establish an authority charged with the co-ordination of all information relative to the procuring of women and girls for immoral purposes abroad. The Governments undertake to have a watch kept for persons in charge of women and girls destined for an immoral life. The arrival of persons who appear to be principals, accomplices in or victims of such traffic shall be notified to the authorities of the place of destination.”

Establishment of Central Authorities

The 1904 Agreement is of special importance for the present study, as it created the central authorities which are charged, in the different countries, with the duty of combating the traffic in women and children.

Article 1 of the Agreement states that each of the contracting Governments undertakes to establish or name some authority charged with the co-ordination of all information relative to the procuring of women or girls for immoral purposes abroad. Since the conclusion of the Agreement, practically all the countries of the world have created or named such offices, and their collaboration has played a considerable rôle in the diminution of traffic in women, especially in Europe. The question of how co-operation between the central authorities in Eastern countries¹ could be made closer was one of the chief problems with which the Bandoeng Conference was faced.

The Convention of 1910

The International Convention of 1910, on which the further international legislation in this field is based, covers the offence of "procuring, enticing or leading away for immoral purposes in order to gratify the passions of another person, a woman of full age when there is fraud, violence and any measures of compulsion". It also covers the offence of procuring, enticing or leading

¹ See Annex 2, page 72.

away for an immoral purpose, under the same conditions, a woman under the age of twenty, even with her consent

The Convention of 1921

The International Convention of 1921, the first drawn up in this field under the auspices of the League, raised the age of protection to 21 and extended the protection to minors of either sex.

The Convention of 1933

The last Convention, that of 1933, covers the offence of procuring, enticing or leading away, even with her consent, a woman or girl of full age for immoral purposes in another country.¹ Under the Convention of 1933, the term "country" includes "the colonies and protectorates of the High Contracting Party, as well as territories under his suzerainty and territories for which a mandate has been entrusted to him".

Next Stage

As the last stage in this development, a Convention for the Suppression of the Exploitation of Prostitution by Other Persons (*Souteneurs*) is being prepared. This international instrument is intended to fill the gap left in the former Conventions by providing for the protection

¹ The position as regards the signature of, accession to and ratification of these international instruments by the countries which participated in the Conference will be found in Annex 3, page 76.

of persons of full age and of either sex against being procured for profit, even with their consent and when they are not taken abroad, and also against any other form of exploitation of their prostitution.

III. FRAMEWORK OF THE CONFERENCE

Conferences are not isolated events. If they are not to be foredoomed to failure, thorough and careful preparations must be made for them, leaving as little as possible to chance. They represent in themselves the culminating stage in the development of a problem—political, economic, financial, social or health. If successful, they are the starting-point for new developments.

The Conference of Central Authorities held at Bandung, Java, in February 1937, forms no exception to this general rule. Its debates were the climax of many years of research, study and discussion, and it concluded by unanimously adopting an important set of recommendations and resolutions designed to stimulate public opinion, Government activity and League action.

COMPOSITION

The Conference was convened by the Secretary-General of the League of Nations in accordance with a Council decision of October 10th, 1936, authorising the issue of invitations to the Governments which had declared their readiness to participate in the Conference, to the missions and international organisations whose participation had been agreed upon by the majority of the countries taking part, to such national, regional or local organisations as had been proposed by the participating Governments in whose territories they

operate, and to experts whose participation was considered desirable for the success of the Conference.

It was composed as follows : The Governments of the Straits Settlements, the Federated Malay States, Hong-Kong, China, France (for the Indo-Chinese Union and the French Concession of Shanghai), India, Japan, the Netherlands (for the Netherlands Indies), Portugal (for Portuguese India and Macao), and Siam. The representative of the United States of America attended in the capacity of an observer. Thus the nine countries which had shown an active interest in the Conference all sent representatives to Bandoeng.

As regards missions and international voluntary organisations, the Sacred Congregation "De Propaganda Fide" was represented by an observer, and the International Mission Council and the following international voluntary organisations were represented by delegates :

The Salvation Army, the Pan-Pacific Women's Association, the World's Alliance of Young Men's Christian Associations, the World's Young Women's Christian Association.

The national, regional and local organisations were composed of organisations from India, China and the Netherlands East Indies.

These national, regional and local organisations were :

China. — The World Red Swastika Society of China,

The Children's Home, Hsiang-Shan, Peiping,
The China Child Welfare Association.

India. — Association for Moral and Social Hygiene.

Netherlands Indies. — Association “Ati Soetji”,
Indo-Europeesch-Verbond Vrouwen-Organisatie,
Perkoempoelan Pembasmian Perdagangan Perem-
poean dan Anak-anak.

The International Criminal Police Commission was represented by a Commissioner of Police from Middle Java acting as expert. The Conference also invited Miss M. Malthe, a former member of the Commission of Enquiry into the Traffic in Women and Children in the East, to sit as an expert.

Some of the delegates of the national, regional and local organisations attended in a dual capacity as Government experts and as representatives of those associations, and two representatives of international voluntary organisations were accredited to different associations. The actual number of delegates, experts, advisers, etc., at the Conference was sixty-one.

It appeared probable before the Conference met that the voluntary organisations would be particularly well represented and, in fact, there were fourteen delegations representing non-official bodies as compared to nine Government delegations. The voluntary organisations were able to give most valuable assistance in the discussions on questions in which they had specialised, and their contribution to the work of the Conference was generally appreciated. Resolution No. IV on the co-operation of Governments and voluntary organisations¹ is certainly due in part to the fact that collaboration

¹ See Annex 4, page 84.

between Governments and voluntary organisations proved very satisfactory at the Conference itself.

The Conference was presided over by Jonkheer A. T. Baud, first delegate of the Netherlands, while Mrs. C. Mukerjee, Chairman of the All-India Women's Conference, delegate of India, acted as vice-president.

AGENDA OF THE CONFERENCE

The Conference discussed the following agenda :

I. Closer collaboration and wider exchange of information between the police and other authorities in the different countries who are responsible for measures concerning the prevention of traffic in women and children in the East.

II. Migration, in so far as this question affects the protection of migrants against traffic in women and children.

III. Possibility of abolishing licensed or tolerated brothels in the East.

IV. Closer collaboration between police and other authorities and private organisations in the East.

V. Possibility of employing a larger number of women officials by the authorities responsible for the welfare of women and children.

VI. Problem of women refugees of Russian origin in the Far East who have been or are in danger of becoming victims of the traffic.

IV. CLOSER COLLABORATION BETWEEN THE AUTHORITIES RESPONSIBLE FOR THE PREVENTION OF TRAFFIC IN WOMEN AND CHILDREN

It was one of the main contentions of the Report of the Commission of Enquiry into the Traffic in Women and Children in the East that collaboration and exchange of information between the police and other authorities in the different countries responsible for measures concerning the prevention of such traffic was not in every instance proceeding satisfactorily. The report gives a number of actual cases to prove its contention, and these findings have never been challenged.

The chief purpose of the Conference was to find ways and means of remedying this state of affairs. This it did either by making suggestions of a comprehensive character or by recommending specific action on different aspects of the question.

SUGGESTED ESTABLISHMENT OF A LEAGUE BUREAU

The chief suggestion in this direction was made as early as the second meeting of the Conference, when the delegate of the Straits Settlements and the Federated Malay States gave an account of the technique of the traffickers and of the measures at the disposal of the authorities for combating the traffic. "It was true",

the delegate stated, "that a trafficker who had once succeeded in deceiving the authorities would make a fresh attempt, but if he were caught, or if the victim were discovered, he was sentenced to a long term of imprisonment and deported. That measure, which at first sight appeared to be satisfactory, was only so to the State which applied it ; for if the trafficker returned to his own country—for instance, to Kwantung—there was nothing in the provisions at present in force to prevent him from resuming his traffic in the direction of India, China or Siam, since he was not obliged, in order to send women to those countries, to pass through Singapore or any other port in which he was forbidden to stay.

"In order to do really useful work, therefore, the competent officials should inform the authorities of the trafficker's country of origin of the measures taken against him, and they should send all particulars necessary for his identification. Moreover, this would not be sufficient—a Central Bureau should be opened in order to collect all data regarding Eastern traffickers."

The delegate of the Straits Settlements then pointed out certain analogies between the problem of fighting the traffic in women and children and the campaign against counterfeiting currency. As the outcome of a regional conference held in Singapore some years ago, an office was opened at Singapore for the exchange of information regarding the counterfeiting of currency, and since that system had been applied, there had been a marked decline in those offences. "The action taken against coiners", continued the delegate, "can be taken

with greater justice against persons engaged in the traffic in women and girls. If the Conference considered that the proposal he had just made had any practical value, he would suggest that it should consider the possibility of opening a Far-Eastern Bureau... under the auspices of the League, for the exchange of information in regard to traffic in women and children... This Bureau should be placed under the auspices of the League, as the latter had successfully organised a Bureau for the exchange of epidemiological information at Singapore.”

This suggestion met with the general approval of the Conference, which sent it to its Bureau for technical consideration. It was finally adopted by the Conference in the terms of a resolution¹ in which the Conference recommends “that a Bureau of the League of Nations should be created in the East to receive regular reports from all participating countries in regard to traffic in women and children and to circulate such reports to all participating countries”. These reports should contain information concerning the following classes of individuals :

Men and women convicted of trafficking in women and in children ;

Men and women deported or banished from the territories of participating countries for offences referred to above, whose conviction in court has been impossible for some good reason, but whose guilt has been

¹ See Annex 4, page 79.

established to the satisfaction of the Government concerned, and, lastly :

Men and women who are wanted in connection with such offences but who have made their escape before the warrant of arrest issued against them could be executed.

Detailed particulars of each individual would be given. The Conference considered that these should include, in addition to the name, sex, date of birth, and nature of the offence, the guilty person's photograph and fingerprints.

The Bureau should also suggest any measures which might facilitate the collection and distribution of information, and generally promote collaboration between participating countries in such ways as might appear desirable to those countries.

The Information Bureau would make annual reports on its work to the League of Nations.

As will be seen from the text, this resolution consists of three main suggestions : (1) that the League Bureau to be opened in the East should regularly receive reports from all participating countries and should circulate such reports ; (2) that besides this task, which, though highly important, is of a routine character, the Bureau should assume a more active rôle in liaison work, and (3) that the Bureau should make annual reports on its work to the League of Nations.

The following case discussed at the Conference may be quoted to illustrate the type of work to be undertaken under (1).

The regional Conference at Hong-Kong had raised

the problem of the position of a girl sent back to Macao at the expense of the authorities of that port. What was to prevent the trafficker from sending her to Bangkok or elsewhere under another name? The delegate of the Straits Settlements thought that this difficulty would disappear if the proposal to create an information bureau were adopted by the Conference. The parties to the agreement would receive detailed information, the authorities of the State to which the girl was repatriated would be kept informed of the matter, would know the name of the trafficker and could consequently prevent him from sending the girl under another name to a different territory.

In addition to its purely technical duties, it was the Conference's intention that the Bureau should also be responsible for liaison work (2). It was understood that the importance of this type of work would depend upon the manner in which the work of the Bureau was carried out, upon what measure of confidence it could win from the Governments and upon a number of other technical and psychological factors.

The hope was expressed that this Bureau, which would have to begin on a modest scale, would subsequently become an important centre for the campaign against the traffic in women and children, and, as one of the delegates put it, "a kind of general staff of the army fighting the traffic in women and children in the East". This is particularly evident if the above is considered in conjunction with the suggestions contained in the following sections.

The Assembly of the League of Nations in September 1937 dealt with the resolution of the Bandoeng Conference with regard to the creation of a bureau of the League of Nations in the East and considered that "the details of this scheme require fuller examination"; it therefore asked the Council of the League of Nations "to appoint an expert adviser to discuss the matter as soon as possible on the spot with the competent authorities of the Governments interested".

REGIONAL CONFERENCES

In the course of the Conference, the suggestion was made that conferences of a similar kind should meet at regular intervals—for instance, every three years—to deal with the question of the traffic in women and children in the East. The suggestion was not retained in its original form, as the Conference was of the opinion that it would not be possible to convoke regularly such a representative assembly. It did agree, however, that some of the Eastern countries might usefully hold regional conferences on specific points arising out of the local situation. The Conference therefore recommended that the League of Nations should approach the interested Governments "with a view to the holding of local conferences, where necessary, for the consideration of more effective measures for the prevention of traffic in women and children"¹, it being understood that the instrument through which the League would act would

¹ See Annex 4, page 81.

be the League of Nations Bureau to be established in the East.

LACK OF CO-OPERATION BETWEEN CHINESE
AUTHORITIES AND ADMINISTRATIONS
OF FOREIGN SETTLEMENTS

The report of the Commission of Enquiry had pointed out that "a regrettable example of the lack of co-operation in the fight against traffic in Chinese women and children is to be found also in respect of measures taken by Chinese authorities on the one hand and the administrations of foreign settlements in China on the other. This is particularly noticeable in Shanghai, where the authorities of the Chinese City, the French Concession and the International Settlement have no agreement whatever amongst themselves with regard to the prevention of traffic."¹

As the situation does not seem to have improved since the publication of the report, the suggestion was made that a liaison officer should be appointed whose chief purpose would be to assist in the co-operation between the authorities. He should not be stationed at any one point, but should visit various places. This suggestion was not accepted by the Conference. It was understood, however, that the League Bureau to be established in the East would undertake what action was needed for this problem as part of its general task of promoting collaboration between participating countries in such ways as might appear desirable to those countries.

¹ League of Nations document C.849.M.393.1932.IV, page 91.

The holding of local conferences, wherever necessary, for the consideration of more effective measures for the prevention of traffic in women and children was especially recommended by the Conference in view of the lack of co-operation between the police authorities of China and those of the foreign concessions and settlements on the Chinese coast.

V. PROTECTION OF MIGRANTS AGAINST TRAFFIC IN WOMEN AND CHILDREN

The Conference had to deal with migration only in its relation to traffic in women and children.

The report of the Commission of Enquiry had shown, and the discussion of the Conference confirmed this, that it is the traffic in Chinese women to which the migration problem east of Singapore chiefly relates. From the examples given by the report, it appeared that traffickers were not deterred by even the most stringent regulations, such as existed in Singapore, the Netherlands East Indies and the Philippines.

With regard to the Philippines, the report gives an example showing the lengths to which traffickers will go. Chinese girls intended to be smuggled into the Philippines as children under age of Chinese already settled in the Islands were actually made to live for as long as two years in the village in China which they would later be required to state as their birthplace, and were regularly drilled in the answers they were to give to the questions of the migration officials at Manila.

THE MOST IMPORTANT DISTRIBUTING CENTRE—HONG-KONG

The discussion confirmed the impression received from the report of the Commission of Enquiry that Hong-Kong is to be regarded as the strategic point for the traffic east of Singapore, which is almost entirely

confined to women from South China. It was pointed out that action should be taken, not only at Singapore, the distributing centre for girls intended for the Malay Archipelago, but also at Hong-Kong, the collecting centre for all the girls whom the trafficker wished to place, not only in Malaya, but also in China and in the Philippines.

In dealing with the situation at Hong-Kong, the regional Conference held at the Secretariat for Chinese Affairs at Hong-Kong in 1935 adopted the recommendation that police officers on anti-piracy duty should be instructed to keep a watch for apparent cases of traffic in outgoing ships. As the Government of Hong-Kong stated in its reply to the questionnaire, such instructions were given to its police officers on anti-piracy duty.

The Conference showed general appreciation of the work of the Hong-Kong authorities. This was apparent from the fact that, after having taken note of the measures in force at the port of Hong-Kong for the examination of female and minor emigrants and for the provision of photographs for identification, the Conference "expressed the hope that similar measures might be adopted at other ports in the East at which it is reasonably suspected that traffic in women and children is taking place".¹

After a very full discussion, the Conference came to the conclusion that, in view of the special importance of Hong-Kong, further measures would be advisable.

¹ See Annex 4, page 82.

As the delegate of Hong-Kong observed, the examination at Hong-Kong related only to emigrants—that was to say, passengers on so-called “emigrant ships”. There was no inspection of vessels proceeding to the ports of China or Indo-China, and there were loopholes in the system. The Conference, in its resolution dealing with this question, recommended “that the Hong-Kong Government be requested to consider the extension of the provisions in force regulating the control of migration to cover the cases of female and minor passengers on other than emigrant ships”.¹

In explaining the term “emigrant ships”, the delegate of Hong-Kong pointed out that “for instance, a vessel transporting less than twenty Asiatic passengers was not examined. In addition, first- and second-class passengers were not regarded as emigrants. Moreover, emigrants arriving from Chinese ports and passing through Hong-Kong were not examined there.” The delegate explained that the reason for the incompleteness of the examination was that something like 10,000 persons entered and left Hong-Kong every day and that a large staff of officials would be required if stricter control were instituted.

PROPORTIONS OF THE SEXES AMONG MIGRANTS

In connection with the discussion of the relationship between migration and traffic, an account was given by the delegate of the Straits Settlements and the Federated

¹ See Annex 4, page 82.

Malay States, showing how by direct Government action "conditions which are favourable to the traffic might be changed and replaced by conditions which were unfavourable to the traffickers".

By utilising the immigration machinery to change the proportion of men to women (sex ratio) of a certain group of immigrants, the composition of the Chinese population of the Malay States had been definitely changed. Under the old Chinese Empire, the emigration of women from China was discouraged and sometimes even forbidden. The Chinese emigrant had therefore normally been an unattached male—either a bachelor or a married man who had left his wife in China. Such a situation created a persistent demand for prostitutes. In the census year 1911, the sex ratio for Chinese in the Straits Settlements was 358 females per 1,000 males, and in the Federated Malay States, 188 per 1,000 males.

Between 1911 and 1921, no attempt was made to alter the sex ratio. It was felt that the ratio would be corrected by the gradual opening-up of the country, improvement in social conditions, better health conditions, etc. As a matter of fact, in 1921 the ratio for Chinese was 479 women to every 1,000 men in the Straits Settlements and 351 in the Federated Malay States. These figures had been to some extent affected by the catastrophic change in economic conditions, which had two main effects on migration. It had caused the return to China of emigrants and had brought about Government restriction of the number of immigrants admitted into the country.

The emigrants returning to China consisted mostly of unattached males. A restriction was imposed on incoming Chinese in 1930 which applied only to males, no restriction being placed on females. There was no census figure for the whole country later than 1931, but the census of the municipality of Singapore taken in 1936 was considered to be typical of the conditions in the rest of the country. It showed a ratio of 698 women to every 1,000 men. The rising proportion of locally-born Chinese had of course its influence on this development.

These figures showed, in the opinion of the delegate of the Straits Settlements, how the economic conditions could affect migration if these induced the authorities to set out deliberately to influence sex ratio. A change in this ratio from 358 in 1911 to 698 in 1936 must have indirectly affected the traffic in women.

Whilst the Conference agreed on this latter point, no recommendation was made for the general adoption of a similar policy in the East, it being understood that such a policy could be applied only in the case of minorities which preserved their racial independence and where the question of assimilation of the minority was not desired either by the authorities or by the minority itself. A country such as Siam, for instance, as was pointed out by the delegate of that country, was not in the same position with regard to this problem as some of the other countries in the East.

PROBLEM OF FEMALE MIGRANTS FROM HAINAN

In this connection, the delegate of the Straits Settlements drew attention to a special problem, that of the Hainanese communities. Until 1917, Hainanese custom did not allow Hainanese women to emigrate with the men, who came to Malaya in large numbers. In 1917, the arrival of the first Hainanese woman in Malaya created such consternation in the community that she had to return ; but from 1923 onwards, Hainanese women began to emigrate freely. The situation seems to have been similar in Siam, which reported that, the number of Hainanese female emigrants having increased, the men have become more domestic in their habits. This is believed to have an indirect effect on the traffic.

TIOCHIU TROUPES

The Siamese delegate drew the attention of the Conference to a type of entertainment troupes, travelling from town to town and from country to country, which caused certain difficulties to the authorities. The delegate of the Straits Settlements further explained that these troupes of boy actors came from the hinterland of Swatow and were known in Malaya as Tiochiu troupes. They toured Malaya, Siam, Sumatra, and elsewhere wherever Tiochiu communities were to be found. When in 1931, on account of the slump, the living conditions of these boys became very precarious, the Malayan authorities decided to prohibit the admission of such troupes into that country. This measure

having caused some stir among the Tiochiu Communities, an agreement was reached by which the heads of the Tiochiu communities and the impresarios in Malaya agreed not to bring Tiochiu actors into Malaya, but to recruit them locally. Definite terms of engagement were prepared and accepted by the heads of the communities.

The Conference recommended that special measures should be taken by Governments both by control at frontiers and by supervision within their territories to provide for the protection against traffickers of women and children who belonged to or accompanied travelling troupes of entertainers.¹

COLLABORATION BETWEEN SHIPPING COMPANIES AND THE AUTHORITIES

The report of the Commission of Enquiry deals with certain cases in which collaboration between authorities either existed already or was desirable, with reference to arrangements with national shipping ; but the report contained no concrete suggestions on the matter. The Conference, when discussing migration, had its attention drawn to this question by the delegate of Siam, who, after having reminded the Conference of a certain loophole in the system of control noted by the report, stated that the only remedy would lie in co-operation with the steamship companies, and expressed the hope

¹ See Annex 4, page 83.

that the companies would realise the necessity for granting their assistance.

In respect of this matter, the Conference recommended that Governments should make arrangements or, if necessary, regulations under which their national shipping should collaborate with port authorities generally, in order to prevent traffic in women and children.¹ The Conference especially recommended that precautions should be taken by steamship companies to prevent evasion by female and minor emigrants of any examination instituted with a view to the protection of such persons by the authorities at the ports of departure or on the arrival of ships.

¹ See Annex 4, page 83.

VI. ABOLITION OF LICENSED BROTHELS IN THE EAST

THE BROTHEL IN INTERNATIONAL TRAFFIC IN THE EAST

The question of the possibility of abolishing licensed or tolerated brothels in the East was included in the agenda because the chief purpose of the Conference was to give a new impulse to the campaign against traffic in women and children in the East. The report of the Commission of Enquiry had shown how close the connection was between the traffic and licensed brothels. It stated :

“The observations of the Commission have shown that the existence of licensed or recognised brothels in an Eastern country is a determining factor in making the country a place of destination for international traffic and that, immediately recognition is withdrawn from brothels, the amount of incoming traffic shows a marked decrease. . .

“Recognised brothels in an Eastern country naturally tend to facilitate also outgoing traffic, but even then such traffic can only be improved in extent and capable of development if licensed houses are equally available in the country of destination.”

SITUATION AS REGARDS ABOLITION

In connection with this item of its agenda, the whole question of State control and of State intervention in the

matter of prostitution was raised, as indeed was to be expected.

In order to give an adequate idea of the background of this discussion, it may be useful to present a rough outline of the position of the countries represented at the Conference with regard to regulated prostitution. Of these nine countries, the Straits Settlements, the Federated Malay States, Hong-Kong, the United States of America, India¹ and the Netherlands Indies may be classified as totally abolitionist, as they have neither regulation of prostitution nor licensed brothels. In China², licensed or tolerated brothels are prohibited in principle, but the principle of abolition has not yet been fully applied by the Government itself. The Indo-Chinese Union, Japan, Portuguese India, Macao and Siam are regulationist, but in different degrees. The future of regulation in the Indo-Chinese Union and in the French Concession of Shanghai, where regulated prostitution and licensed brothels exist, will depend on the progress of the abolitionist legislation in France which has been laid before Parliament. Should the bill in question (the Sellier Law) be passed in France itself, its subsequent enforcement in the Indo-Chinese Union may be anticipated, since, in the words of the

¹ Tolerated brothels exist in certain parts of India.

² In a report submitted by the Chinese delegation to the Conference of Central Authorities in Bandoeng, it is stated under the heading "Suggestions concerning the elimination of traffic", that prostitution should be abolished according to the Chinese law, but before it is put into effect all prostitutes must be licensed and must be gradually withdrawn.

French delegate to the Conference, France has always tried to bring her colonial legislation into line with the law of the mother-country.

In Siam, the question has been studied by a Government Committee, which reported in favour of abolition, and the Siamese delegate at the Conference was one of the most consistent advocates of abolition.

In Japan, the abolitionist movement is progressing, and in a growing number of prefectures licensed brothels have actually been closed. Moreover, a full abolitionist policy is foreshadowed by Government statements made at Geneva at the Advisory Committee on Social Questions.

Portuguese India and Macao are fully regulationist.¹

THE BROTHEL : MEDICAL, ETHICAL, AND SOCIAL ASPECTS

The Conference dealt with the question of licensed brothels from various aspects—medical, ethical and social.

As to the medical side, it was interesting to note that, at this gathering of representatives of Governments, of which only about half had introduced abolition, all the

¹ The answer of the Government of Macao to the questionnaire transmitted to the Governments in July 1936 states, however, that, in spite of the disadvantages which, in the opinion of the Government, might ensue from the suppression of brothels, the Portuguese authorities of the Colony were studying a Bill on the suppression of brothels, which will be put into force after approval by the Portuguese Government.

delegates, with one exception, seemed to be in favour of abolishing licensed prostitution.

The intervention by one of the experts on the occasion of this discussion is noteworthy, coming as it did from an army doctor, as showing that, even under such different conditions as those prevailing in the Netherlands Indies Army, experience of venereal disease has been very similar to that in Europe.

Dr. P. L. Tiberghien de Moulin, First Class Army Medical Officer, of the Netherlands Indies delegation, submitted to the Conference two graphs showing the incidence of venereal disease in the Netherlands Indies Army among European and native troops respectively.

Abolition had been introduced in the Netherlands Indies in 1911-1913, when treatment of syphilis was still very inadequate. Dr. Tiberghien de Moulin observed that the syphilis rate for native soldiers showed no appreciable change until 1914. "Among Europeans... the maximum was reached in 1912 and the curve fell rapidly until 1914, when it reached a figure below that of 1911. In 1921, personal prophylaxis had been introduced, and after that venereal disease had shown a decrease, but at the present time there was a slight tendency to increase."

"The upward movement of the graphs relating to syphilis and gonorrhœa from 1914 to 1921 is possibly explained by the fact that, as many experts admitted, in times of prosperity and in war-time the increase in venereal disease was to be expected. Opinions regarding the effect of prosperity were not, however, unanimous. It was nevertheless a remarkable fact that, after 1921

(a period of prosperity)—that was to say, after the introduction of effective prophylaxis treatment, regular medical examination of the men and propaganda in respect of morals—all the graphs showed a considerable drop and in most cases declined below the figures of 1903.”

Dr. de Moulin summarised the position as follows :

“It must be admitted that, while abolition had not at the beginning brought about a decrease in venereal disease, it had not caused an increase of this disease in the Netherlands Indies Army. It was necessary that abolition should be followed by medical, social and legislative measures, in order to bring about a decline in venereal disease.”

As to the ethical side of the question, in the East the position is not quite comparable with that in Europe or in America. While all the members of the Conference individually agreed with the criticism of brothels on ethical grounds, several members pointed out that, in some of the countries concerned, such standards would apply only to a minority ; that public opinion would not yet condemn brothels on such grounds as, for instance, that to be kept in a brothel was against the human dignity of a woman ; and that, in some countries, public opinion has only just begun to count in this question.

As to the social aspect of the question, which, as already observed, is closely bound up with the ethical aspect, no comparison is possible between the position in most of the European and American countries and that in the majority of the countries represented at the Conference,

especially in India, Portuguese India, Indo-China and, to a certain but decreasing degree, in China.¹

DIFFERENT APPROACHES TO ABOLITION

The ideas which underlie the actual enforcement of abolitionist measures and which determine their character can perhaps be divided into two groups. There is the point of view, chiefly represented in the East by Anglo-Saxon authorities, that regulation of prostitution being an evil in itself, no compromise should be admitted on that point ; abolition should not be conditional. Hence the enforcement of abolitionist measures is considered to be rather a problem of public order and security, deriving from police powers, than a social problem in the strict sense of the word. In these countries, therefore, it is preceded or accompanied by a number of processes of an essentially *technical* character. They are usually applied in several pre-arranged and carefully planned stages.

When, for instance, brothels were closed in the Straits Settlements in 1929, in the Federated Malay States in 1931, and in the various Unfederated Malay States at different dates, long notice was given beforehand that steps would be taken. The first step was to prohibit professional prostitutes from landing at Malayan ports. The next step was the enactment of legislation making the keeping of a brothel an offence. The third and last step consisted of a final notice to brothel-keepers

¹ See Chapter I of this publication.

and prostitutes that by a certain date brothels must be closed. Experience showed that the landing prohibition had already resulted in a diminution of the number of these women, and in consequence the many brothel-keepers found that it no longer paid to run them. From the time the final notice was given, prostitutes left the brothels in increasing numbers. Some of them returned to their home-country (China); others moved to other premises in the same or another town in Malaya. Some of them turned to normal work as sempstresses, washer-women, etc. The Government admits, however, that the scheme was made more practicable in Malaya by the fact that the inmates of the tolerated brothels were almost exclusively aliens.

Similar steps were taken and similar experience gained in Hong-Kong, where the closing of licensed houses had been effected according to plan, the last of the forty-three houses affected having been closed in June 1934.

The other school of thought moves on somewhat different lines. For them the question of regulation and abolition is not one in which there is any "categorical imperative"; it is rather a question of expediency. They agree that abolition is the ideal state; they accept abolition as the final goal; but they consider that its application should be conditional upon the fulfilment of certain essential conditions, not so much of a technical nature as the measures enumerated above, but of a fundamental character. They hold that abolition presupposes changes in social circumstances. This approach to the question is reflected in the statement of the French

delegate, in whose opinion abolition has to be preceded, in some Eastern countries, especially Indo-China, by changes in what he called the *milieu social*. In Indo-China, for instance, there is no registration of births, marriages, etc. Local custom regards the birth of a girl as an unlucky event, while in Annam births of girls are not reported at all. Women are socially and legally in an inferior position, and are also illiterate. In his opinion, abolition, to be successful, presupposes not merely the general education of women and the raising of their legal status, but also the establishment of a whole series of medical, social and other measures.

The delegate of Siam agreed that, before legislative steps were taken to abolish brothels, the protection of women should be organised. He thought that women's possession of the suffrage in some countries reflected an improved status for women, which was a necessary preliminary to further progress.

PRACTICAL EXPERIENCE

That the Conference's proceedings were eminently practical is illustrated by the following circumstance : As some of the countries in the East had abolished licensed brothels and the registration of prostitution and had gained valuable information on this subject, the French delegate asked that these experiences and the steps taken in the preparation for and enforcement of such measures might be put before the Conference. The Conference therefore heard a number of statements on the subject from the delegates of the Netherlands Indies, the Federated Malay States and Hong-Kong. From these

statements, as well as from previous information communicated to the League Secretariat, it appeared that neither in Hong-Kong, Singapore nor the Netherlands East Indies had public morality suffered to any appreciable degree from the dissolution of licensed brothels. The gist of the statements may be summarised as follows : (1) that the chief evil after-effects of abolition in these countries consisted in a certain increase of soliciting and street-walking ; (2) that there was no evidence of any increase in venereal diseases as a consequence of abolition, but rather the contrary ; (3) that certain types of *souteneur* (brothel bullies, protectors of brothels), who used to provoke fights with rival gangs, had disappeared ; (4) that it was important to organise strong police action against clandestine brothels, which, as experience showed, were apt to spring up when the licensed brothels were closed.

Besides these points, a number of general measures were indicated which had accompanied or should accompany the closing of licensed brothels, as regards immigration, the protection of girls, etc. The French delegate pointed to the particular value of such information concerning past experiences in view of the effort which was being made in Indo-China to bring about the gradual abolition of licensed brothels.

This example shows how the Conference directly helped to bring about a pooling of experience which, in present circumstances and especially in view of a certain lack of routine collaboration between the authorities in this part of the world, would otherwise not have been effected.

ABOLITION, THE FINAL GOAL

But the Conference did not confine itself to hearing descriptions of the special circumstances attending prostitution in Eastern countries, or to accounts of the steps taken in abolitionist territories, or to taking note of the different possible methods of abolition. It went a step further and declared itself in favour of abolition "as a final goal". This formula reflects the common ground which existed amongst the delegates.

Realising, however, that abolition pure and simple would be doomed to failure, the Conference established two desiderata : that a public opinion favourable to abolition should be formed in countries in which tolerated brothels still existed ; and that abolition should be preceded or accompanied by administrative, medical and social measures. It was on this latter point that great stress was laid by those delegates whose countries still upheld the system of regulation ; a delegate of an Eastern Power, quoting an English poet, warned the Conference against hurrying the East. But it was evident from his own statements and that of a number of other delegates that developments in the East in the social field were such that what had taken decades in the past was now becoming a question of years.

From an immediately practical point of view, the declaration in favour of establishing a League Bureau in the East might be considered the most important decision of the Conference ; but, from a general point of view, the declaration of principle regarding the abolition of tolerated brothels might well be held to be the most

important single declaration made by the Conference. It was characterised by the delegate of the Straits Settlements in his concluding speech, in which he endeavoured to gauge the value of the results achieved by the Conference, as signifying “the dawn of a new era in the East”.

VII. CLOSER COLLABORATION BETWEEN THE AUTHORITIES AND PRIVATE ORGANISATIONS IN THE EAST

The report of the Commission of Enquiry referred to the fruitful activities of the missions and private organisations, especially in the field of preventive and rescue work in connection with prostitution and traffic in women, and paid a tribute to the work of the associations of women in the countries in question.

It pointed out that missions and private organisations engaged in preventive and rescue work in connection with prostitution and traffic in Asia were to be found working in practically all the countries where the Commission carried out its enquiry. In many instances, missions and private organisations had been responsible for the inauguration of efficient Government measures introduced to combat prostitution and traffic. The report expressed the hope that the combined efforts of the organisations which helped victims of the traffic and of the authorities who combat the traffic with administrative measures would be effective in reducing it to a noticeable extent.

The importance attached by the Governments to the goodwill and collaboration of the organisations in this field, previous to the convocation of the Conference, was reflected by the fact that most of the Governments interested in the Conference had expressed themselves in favour of inviting missions and international and national voluntary organisations to attend the Conference.

From a number of statements made by representatives of voluntary organisations, it appeared that the opportunity of meeting in this conference was much appreciated by them and it was felt that the contact between private agencies and authorities afforded by the conference had strengthened the feeling of solidarity and would also help to increase in the future mutual social responsibility.

Indeed, the collaboration of the voluntary organisations was much appreciated by the Conference and, when it later adopted a resolution welcoming the practical co-operation of these organisations, this was due in no small measure to the co-operation which the Governments received at the Conference.

RÔLE OF VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS IN THE EAST

In considering the rôle to be attributed to voluntary organisations in the East, the differences between these associations and those existing in Europe and in America must be kept in mind. While some international bodies are actively engaged in certain countries, they still have very little influence in others. While national, regional or local organisations are actively at work in some countries, they are practically non-existent elsewhere. This is to some extent due to the differences in social, economic and political development reflected in the difference in the position of women in the different countries. Again, the problem differs to some extent in those parts of the East which are under foreign rule as compared with self-governing communities, where

the women of the country concerned have to frame their own activities and find ways of collaboration with the authorities. Accordingly, the problem of the relation of voluntary organisations with the authorities should not be considered as a whole for the entire East.

This inference is clear from the replies to the questionnaire received by the League Secretariat from different Governments, in which the latter were asked to give information as to recent developments in collaboration with the local authorities and voluntary organisations.

The Netherlands Government, for instance, stated that the private organisations operating in the Netherlands Indies were chiefly concerned with giving women their proper place in society and preparing them more thoroughly for family life. The questions of the suppression of the traffic in women and of prostitution were therefore of secondary importance for them. Moreover, those organisations did not at present want Government intervention in matters with which they were dealing themselves.

Wherever private organisations are influenced by British or American ideas or have the personal help of British (and in some cases American) social workers, the collaboration resembles more closely that existing in Europe. From the answers received from a number of Indian Provinces, it would appear that the different vigilance associations have considerably developed of late years ; that the associations keep in very close touch with the police and that women representatives have been selected for full time duty with the police force.

The hope was expressed by other countries (*e.g.*, Siam) that certain existing women's associations may interest themselves in the traffic in women and prostitution. The report from Indo-China, on the other hand, stresses the spirit of absolute co-operation between the authorities and private organisations wherever such private or semi-official organisations exist.

In nearly all parts of the East, the Salvation Army helps the authorities in its usual way, and these themselves give full support to the officers of the Army.

BEST TYPE OF CO-OPERATION

Before formulating its recommendations on the collaboration between voluntary organisations and the authorities, the Conference discussed very fully the problem of "ideal" co-operation between the two. This discussion may be summarised as follows :

The rôle of the welfare organisation is threefold : (1) to reflect and stimulate public opinion ; (2) to do social work which cannot be undertaken by the State ; and (3) to advise Governments on certain definite subjects of which voluntary organisations have special experience.

At this point, it was noted by the representative of the Salvation Army that social work was a matter for the State, but that officials could certainly never deal with all the details of such work ; they must have recourse to the services of the private associations, and the latter must bring their conduct into line with the principles adopted by the Government. In his opinion, it was not for the private organisations to force doors which the authorities considered should be closed to them.

A suggestion was made by the representative of the Salvation Army that there should be organised collaboration between the voluntary bodies and the authorities in the sense that a Bureau should be opened or an official be appointed for each competent administration, to establish and maintain liaison between the department in question and the private organisation. As, however, a definite organisation of collaboration would not have accorded with the actual situation in all the countries, the suggestion was not retained in this form; it was suggested that the League of Nations Bureau to be established should deal with the question.

The representative of the Salvation Army also pointed out that he had found the co-operation between the voluntary organisations and the Japanese Government particularly satisfactory; the latter asked the voluntary organisations almost every year for an account of their programme of work.

The Conference eventually adopted a resolution recommending that "Governments should welcome practical co-operation with organisations established in their territories, in the belief that such action will be of value in securing progress along the right lines"¹.

The suggestion that all the Governments should consider the possibility of organising periodical consultation of this kind was noted by the Conference, which, however, did not make any definite recommendation.

¹ See Annex 4, page 84.

VIII. THE EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN OFFICIALS

The report of the Commission of Enquiry had stated as follows :

“ With regard to the composition of the staff of authorities which are specially concerned with combating traffic in women and children, be it central authority, or police, or another department of Government, the Commission believes that the collaboration of women as officials is very helpful, especially in cases where the victims of traffic for whose benefit they are functioning are distrustful of men officials and make it difficult for them to gain their confidence.”

From the answers to the questionnaire and the statements made at the Conference, it appeared that, in the majority of the countries represented at the Conference, women officials were employed in some capacity by the Governments. This applies especially to China, India, the Federated Malay States, the Straits Settlements, Hong-Kong, Japan, the Philippines and the Netherlands Indies ; whilst, on the other hand, there appeared to be no women officials in Indo-China, Siam, Portuguese India or Macao.

It was evident from the discussion on this item of the agenda that the question of the possibility of the employment of more women officials by the authorities responsible for the welfare of women and children was closely related in the minds of the delegates to the

question of the collaboration of authorities and voluntary organisations, in the sense that the extent to which the voluntary organisations of a country collaborated with the authorities also reflected the general social development of the country. In other words, the countries in which the voluntary organisations were active were those in which women officials were likely to be employed by the Governments, as is proved indeed by the fact that a good many of the women to be found in Government employment were originally representatives of voluntary associations.

There was no dissentient voice at the Conference as to the usefulness of employing women officials, and it was pointed out that certain duties could best be performed by them, such as timely intervention and useful action in the case of girls beginning to engage in prostitution. It was further pointed out that women can be usefully employed in connection with the immigration services when the women officials belonged to the same race and spoke the same dialect as the women they had to examine.

Again, women probation officers, police-women, women judges in children's courts and the employment of women in administrative work connected with the protection of certain groups of women, women Customs and excise officers (*i.e.*, almost the whole range of work undertaken by women in Europe) have been suggested for the East. Whilst there was general agreement in principle, the difficulties of the social structure and development led to differences of view on the practical side of the question. The French delegate, for instance,

speaking on behalf of Indo-China, pointed out that, on account of social conditions and of the position of women in Indo-China, the assistance of women officials would not give good results at present. He was prepared, however, to consider the incorporation of women for administrative work on behalf of women and children.

Another practical difficulty was raised by the delegate of the Straits Settlements, who pointed out that it was not only a question of numbers, but also of quality—a point which found expression in the resolution adopted by the Conference. In the opinion of this delegate, some authorities were anxious to employ more women provided they could find fully qualified candidates; but they were hard to find.

The resolution referring to this point recommended that Governments should consider the possibility of employing a larger number of women officials on work connected with the welfare of women and children “as women with the necessary attainments and training become available”.

IX. WOMEN REFUGEES OF RUSSIAN ORIGIN

From what had been reported to the League Secretariat in answer to the questionnaire, and from what was said at the Conference, it appeared that the problem of women refugees of Russian origin scarcely existed in any of the countries represented at the Conference, except China and the foreign concessions and settlements of that country. It was therefore dealt with as a question chiefly of interest to the Chinese Government and the countries possessing extra-territorial rights in China.

It will be remembered that, in 1934/35,¹ the League of Nations, acting on the recommendation of its Assembly, made further enquiries into the position of the women of Russian origin stranded in the East. From these enquiries, which were carried on with the help of a great number of authorities and voluntary organisations, it appeared that the situation had grown even more serious since the Commission of Enquiry into Traffic in Women and Children in the East had made its investigations on the spot in 1930/31. The chief feature of the development since that time was considered to be not so much "the absolute increase in professional or casual prostitutes of Russian origin as migration of the women from Manchuria to Shanghai and other big cities of Central and Southern China". From supplementary information submitted to the League Committee on

¹ League of Nations document : "Position of Women of Russian Origin in the Far East", A.12.1935.IV.

Traffic in Women and Children, it appeared that the key to the whole situation was in fact to be found in Manchuria, especially in Harbin and Mukden, and that it was specially important to deal with these women individually on the spot, and as soon as possible before they penetrated further into China. Apart from Manchuria, however, the situation in Shanghai must be considered as needing chief attention.

In the conclusions of the League memorandum of 1935, it was stated that : "While the situation of the individual women of Russian origin may be equally bad in other big towns, it is only in Shanghai that the question has assumed the dimensions of a social mass problem. Here it... calls for collective effort."

Generally speaking, the situation seems to have remained stationary during the last two years, though with a tendency to deteriorate rather than to improve. In Shanghai and other towns with foreign concessions and settlements, a slight increase in the number of women refugees of Russian origin seems to have taken place. This, however, is probably due rather to the influx of women of Russian origin from "Manchukuo" than to an absolute increase in the number of such refugees in this part of the world.

The Chinese delegate pointed out that China had lately adopted strict measures in respect of Russian immigrants, in order to avoid anything that might aggravate the situation. Any Russian desiring to enter China had to present some credentials to the effect that he was a relative of some Russian already domiciled in China, or that he would be employed.

It was generally recognised that the problem arose mainly through the impossibility of assimilating this foreign population into the Chinese population and that, therefore, the granting of the right of citizenship to them was not likely to solve this problem, as it would solve it in Europe.

Since they or their parents have been deprived of their original nationality, they were at present without proper civil status.

Information with regard to the social background of these women is somewhat contradictory. It had been assumed, on the basis of information received by the League within the last year, that the majority of women of Russian origin stranded in the East came from middle-class and to some extent from upper-class families. One delegate, however, who had special knowledge of the situation in Shanghai, pointed out that women who came to the Employment Bureau of the Y.W. C. A. in Shanghai were "mostly of the peasant type from Siberia. . . were unemployable as they had no training in any useful work in cities and knew no language but their own".

The discussion, in which a number of persons experienced in dealing with the problem took part, confirmed on general lines the previous findings of the League on this subject. In particular, it confirmed the fact that the private relief organisations were giving a great deal of assistance, but that the problem had assumed such proportions that the demand for relief had gone beyond the scope of their resources. Furthermore, there was a lack of cohesion and co-ordination among the organisations.

In the circumstances, the Conference decided to approve the line taken by the League, the Assembly of which in 1935 had adopted a resolution authorising the Secretary-General to secure the services of a competent person who could act as agent of the League of Nations, and had requested the Council "to appoint the selected person as agent of the League of Nations for the purpose of encouraging and co-ordinating efforts to improve the position of women of Russian origin who are engaged or likely to become engaged in prostitution" ; it was understood that this appointment should not, however, involve in the present circumstances any financial charge upon the League. The Conference therefore decided to back the League's appeal for funds. It adopted a resolution describing the question of women of Russian origin in the East as "a challenge to the social conscience of right-thinking people", appealing to the voluntary organisations and impressing upon them "the absolute necessity for raising funds of an amount which will enable an agent of the League of Nations to be appointed in the Far East to take special charge of the co-ordinative measures necessary to secure the future of these women of Russian origin"¹.

This recommendation, it will be noted, does not go beyond the scope of a similar resolution adopted by the League Assembly in 1935.

A new element was introduced into this question during the deliberations of the Advisory Committee

¹ See Annex 4, page 85.

on Social Questions, when the suggestion was made that the head of the League Bureau in the East should temporarily undertake the work originally intended to be assigned to the special agent of the League mentioned in the Assembly and Conference resolutions.

ANNEX 1

ANNEX 2

CENTRAL AUTHORITIES

By the term “central authority” is to be understood the “authority charged with the co-ordination of all information relative to the procuring of women and girls for immoral purposes abroad”, within the meaning of the 1904 International Agreement for the Suppression of the White Slave Traffic.

The situation with regard to central authorities in the Eastern countries (Middle and Far East) is as follows :

UNITED KINGDOM. — *British colonies and protectorates :*

Ceylon. — Inspector-General of Police, Colombo, and the Deputy Inspector-General, Criminal Investigation Department.

Straits Settlements } The Secretary for Chinese Affairs,
Federated Malay States } Singapore.

Unfederated Malay States :

Brunei. — The Chief Police Officer, Brunei Town.

Johore. — Protector of the Chinese at Johore.

Kedah. — The British Adviser, Kedah.

Kelantan. — The British Adviser, Kelantan.

Perlis. — The British Adviser, Kangar, Perlis.

Trengganu. — Commissioner of Police, Trengganu.

Hong-Kong. — Inspector-General of Police, Police Headquarters, Hong-Kong.

CHINA : Ministry of the Interior, Nanking ; the other responsible local authorities are the police services of the various provincial, municipal or district governments.

FRANCE. — *French Colonies and Protectorates* : Ministère de l'Intérieur, Direction de la sûreté générale, Contrôle des recherches judiciaires, Paris (Minister of the Interior, Central Police Department, Criminal Investigation Section, Paris).

INDIA :

Bombay. — Secretary to the Government, Home Department, has been appointed as the central authority ;

The Commissioner of Police, Bombay, is responsible for measures concerning the prevention of traffic in women and children in Bombay City.

Madras
Bengal } Commissioner of Police, Madras City and Calcutta.

United Provinces
Bihar
Central Provinces
Orissa
Delhi } No central authority.¹

Punjab
North-West Frontier Provinces } This is considered a question for the Government of India.

Burma. — Authorities responsible for measures concerning the prevention of traffic in women and children are the police and the Vigilance Society.

Sind. — Ordinary police force responsible for measures concerning the prevention of traffic in women and children.

IRAQ : Director-General of Police, Baghdad.

JAPAN : Addresses of central authorities in the home territory :
Ministry of the Interior, No. 1 Sakuradacho Kojimachi-ku,
Tokio.

¹ The Government of the United Provinces states that such questions are dealt with by the Police Department of the Government of the United Provinces, in consultation with the Judicial and Education Departments.

For the prefectures of police and all the offices of the prefectures of Hokkaido, Kyoto, Osaka, Saitama, etc. :
1201 police stations and 24 maritime police stations.

Addresses of the central authorities in the dependencies and mandated territories :

- (1) *Chosen* : Police Section of the office of the President of Chosen, Keijo (Chosen).
- (2) *Taiwan* : Police Section of the office of the President of Taiwan, Taihoku (Taiwan).
- (3) *Karafuto* : Police Section of the prefecture of Karafuto, Toyohara (Karafuto).
- (4) *South Sea Islands* : Police Section, Korrór, Palao.

NETHERLANDS :

Netherlands Indies. — The Government Bureau for the Suppression of the Traffic in Women and Children and of Obscene Publications, Batavia.

PORTUGAL :

Portuguese India. — Director dos serviços de Administração Civil, Goa.

Macao. — Head of the Police, Macao. (Special branch dealing with women and girls.)

PHILIPPINE ISLANDS : Commissioner-General of Immigration in the Department of Labor, Washington.

SIAM : The Director of Gendarmerie and Police, Bangkok.

ANNEX 3

This annex aims at giving the present state¹ of signatures, accessions and ratifications of the various international instruments concluded with regard to the traffic in women and children—*i.e.*, the International Agreement for the Suppression of the White Slave Traffic, 1904; the International Convention for the Suppression of the White Slave Traffic, 1910; the International Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in Women and Children, 1921; and the Convention for the Suppression of Traffic in Women of Full Age, 1933.

It should be noted that the 1904 Agreement and the 1910 Convention were concluded before the foundation of the League of Nations, although many of the ratifications were only effected after that date. The 1921 and 1933 Conventions were concluded under the auspices of the League. Ratifications of these two instruments are deposited with the League, while ratifications of the first two and declarations relating thereto are deposited in the archives of the Government of the French Republic.

¹ September 1st, 1937.

POSITION REGARDING ADHESIONS TO THE AGREEMENT OF 1904 AND THE CONVENTIONS OF 1910, 1921 AND 1933 RELATING TO THE SUPPRESSION OF TRAFFIC IN WOMEN AND CHILDREN

TERRITORY	1904 AGREEMENT	1910 CONVENTION	1921 CONVENTION	1933 CONVENTION
<p>UNITED KINGDOM :</p> <p><i>Hong-Kong</i></p> <p><i>Straits Settlements</i></p> <p><i>Federated Malay States (Perak, Selangor, Negri, Sembilan, Pahang)</i></p> <p><i>Unfederated Malay States (Johore, Kedah, Perlis, Kelantan, Trengganu, Brunei)</i></p>	<p>The United Kingdom acceded for Hong-Kong</p> <p>The United Kingdom acceded for the Straits Settlements</p> <p>The accessions of the United Kingdom do not include these Malay States</p>			<p>Signed by the United Kingdom ¹</p> <p>Signed by the United Kingdom ¹</p> <p>Signed by the United Kingdom ¹</p>
CHINA	Adhered		Ratified	Signed
FRANCE — <i>Indo-Chinese Union</i> (Cochin-China (Colony), Cambodia, Annam, Tonkin, Laos (Protectorates))	France's accessions included colonies but not protectorates of Indo-China		France's definitive accession did not include colonies or protectorates	Signed by France ¹
INDIA	Adhered		Ratified, reserving the right at its discretion to substitute the age of 16 years or any higher age that may be subsequently decided upon for the age limits prescribed in paragraph (B) of the Final Protocol of the Convention of May 4th, 1910, and in Article 5 of the present Convention	Not signed

JAPAN	Acceded ² (not including Chosen, Taiwan, the Leased Territory of Kwan- tung, and the Japanese portion of Saghalien Island)	Ratified (not including Chosen, Taiwan, the Lea- sed Territory of Kwan- tung, the Japanese por- tion of Saghalien Island and the Japanese Mandat- ed Territory in the South Seas)	Not signed
NETHERLANDS — <i>Netherlands Indies</i>	Netherlands acceded on behalf of Netherlands Indies	Netherland's ratifications included Netherlands Indies	
PORTUGAL — <i>Macao</i>	Portugal acceded on behalf of Macao	Ratified by Portugal	Signed by Portugal ¹
SIAM	Acceded	Ratified with reservation as to age limit prescribed in paragraph (B) of the Final Protocol of the 1910 Convention, and Article 5 of the 1921 Convention, in so far as concerns the nationals of Siam	Not signed
U.S.A. — <i>Philippine Islands</i>	The acces- sion of the Uni- ted States in- cluded the Phi- lippine Islands	Not acceded to by the United States of America	Not signed by the United States of America

¹ In application of Article 10 of the 1933 Convention, the signatories of this Convention may, at the time of their signature, ratification or accession, declare that they do not assume any obligation in respect of all or any of their colonies, protectorates, overseas territories, territories under their suzerainty or territories for which a mandate has been entrusted to them.

² These territories became parties to the 1904 Agreement under Article 8, paragraph 3, of the 1910 Convention.

Accession to the 1910 Convention necessarily entails accession to the 1904 Agreement¹.

The information given in the table on pages 72 and 73 covers all the countries and territories which were represented at the Conference.

¹ Paragraph 3 of Article 8 of the 1910 Convention states :
“Accession to the Convention shall necessarily entail, without special notification, a concomitant accession to the Agreement of May 18th, 1904, in its entirety, which shall take effect on the same date as the Convention itself throughout the territory of the acceding State”.

ANNEX 4

TEXT OF RESOLUTIONS

I.

The Conference,

Being convinced that a closer co-operation between the authorities which, in each country, are entrusted with the duty of dealing with the international traffic in women and children is the most essential factor of successful action against this evil ; and

Wishing to ensure a more effective co-ordination of the steps already taken or to be taken in this connection by the Governments concerned :

Adopts the following resolutions :

1. The Conference recommends that a Bureau of the League of Nations should be created in the East to receive regular reports from all participating countries in regard to traffic in women and children and to circulate such reports to all participating countries.

The reports would be held to be confidential and not to be published outside the official circles of the countries concerned.

They should contain information concerning the following four classes of individuals :

(a) Men and women convicted of trafficking in women and girls ;

(b) Men and women convicted of trafficking in children ;

(c) Men and women deported or banished from the territories of participating countries for offences referred to in (a) and (b) above, whose conviction in court has been impossible for some good reason, but whose guilt has been established to the satisfaction of the Government concerned ;

(d) Men and women who are wanted in connection with the offences referred to in (a) and (b) above, but who have made their escape before the warrant of arrest issued against them could be executed.

With regard to each man and woman whose name is sent by the Government of a participating country to the Information Bureau, it is desired that the following data should be given :

Full name and any known aliases.

Sex.

Age.

Birthplace.

Nature of offence for which the conviction has been obtained or on account of which the man or woman has been deported or banished, together with the length of any sentence of imprisonment he or she is serving for this offence.

Photograph of the culprit.

Finger-prints of the culprit, if available.

. The Conference recommends that it should also be the duty of the Bureau to suggest, for the consideration of the Governments concerned, any measures which might facilitate the collection and distribution of information, and generally to promote collaboration between participating countries in such ways as may appear desirable to these countries.

The Information Bureau should make annual reports on its work to the League of Nations.

2. The Conference,

Noting that the Commission of Enquiry into Traffic in Women and Children in the East has drawn attention to the lack of co-operation between the police authorities of China and the police authorities of the foreign concessions and settlements on the coast of China in the fight against traffic in women and children, and that the Chinese delegation and the French delegation desire that closer collaboration should be brought about between their respective police authorities :

Recommends that the League of Nations should approach all interested Governments with a view to ensuring closer co-operation between the police authorities of all Governments concerned and with a view to the holding of local Conferences, where necessary, for the consideration of more effective measures for the prevention of traffic in women and children.

3. The Conference recommends that adequate provision should be made, by legislation, by inter-

national arrangements or otherwise, to enable the proper authorities to arrest traffickers on board vessels when actual attempts are being made to land their victims.

II.

The Conference,

Having taken note with great satisfaction of the efforts made by the Governments of various States taking part in its discussions with a view to dealing more effectively with the traffic in women and children, not only by the adoption of more stringent measures against traffickers, but also by striking at the fundamental causes of the traffic :

Adopts the following resolutions :

1. The Conference,

Having noted the measures taken at the port of Hong-Kong for the examination of female and minor emigrants and the provision of photographs for their identification :

Expresses the hope that similar measures may be adopted at other ports in the East at which it is reasonably suspected that traffic in women and children is taking place.

2. The Conference recommends that the Hong-Kong Government be requested to consider the extension of the provisions in force regulating the control of emigrants to cover the case of female and minor passengers on other than "emigrant ships".

3. The Conference recommends that special measures should be taken by Governments, both

by control at frontiers and by supervision within their territories, for the protection against traffic of women and children who belong to or accompany travelling troupes of entertainers.

4. The Conference recommends that Governments should make arrangements or, if necessary, regulations under which their national shipping should collaborate with port authorities generally in order to prevent traffic in women and children, and especially to secure that reasonable precautions are taken by steamship companies to prevent the evasion by female and minor emigrants of any examination instituted with a view to the protection of such persons by the authorities at the ports of departure or arrival of the ships.

III.

The Conference,

Recalling the resolutions concerning the abolition of licensed or tolerated houses adopted by the Traffic in Women and Children Committee of the League of Nations in 1934 ;

Considering that the Assembly, when adopting the report of the Fifth Committee in 1934, invited Members to give their earnest consideration to the resolutions of the Traffic in Women and Children Committee :

- (1) Declares itself in favour of abolition as a final goal ;
- (2) Recommends that educational measures be taken for the formation of a favourable public opinion in those countries in the East in which tolerated brothels still exist ;

(3) Recommends that abolition should in all cases be anticipated or accompanied by administrative, medical and social measures in order to guarantee the permanence of its success.

IV.

The Conference,

Having noted with approval the part that the voluntary organisations have played in forming the more enlightened public opinion which has influenced the policies followed by Governments in social questions to-day ;

Having heard statements setting forth some of the beneficial activities of a number of these organisations ;

Understanding that the organisations are willing to give their co-operation in ever greater measure in future and to extend their activities :

Recommends that Governments should welcome practical co-operation with organisations established in their territories, in the belief that such action will be of value in securing progress along the right lines.

V.

The Conference,

Having learned with interest of the success which has attended the appointment of women officials in a number of countries in the East :

Recommends that Governments should consider the possibility of employing a larger number of women officials on work connected with the welfare of women and children as women with the necessary attainments and training become available.

VI.

The Conference,

Recalling that the Assembly of the League of Nations in 1935 adopted a resolution authorising the Secretary-General of the League of Nations to endeavour to secure the services of a competent person (preferably a woman), resident in the Far East or in a position to proceed there, who could act as agent of the League of Nations, provided that such an appointment involved no financial charge upon the League ;

Noting with great appreciation the efforts that have been made by the voluntary organisations to achieve this end, but regretting that these efforts have had so far only a partial success ;

Realising that this problem of the future of women of Russian origin is of the greatest importance, that it is a challenge to the social conscience of right-thinking people and that it has been especially brought to the attention of this Conference by the Assembly of the League of Nations :

Desires to impress on the voluntary organisations and on other bodies and individuals interested in their work the absolute necessity of raising funds of an amount that will enable an agent of the League of Nations to be appointed in the Far East to take special charge of the co-ordinative measures necessary to secure the future of these women of Russian origin.

*Resolution on the Printing of the Conference Minutes
and of a Special Report*

The Conference,

Considering that this is the first international meeting of Government representatives of Eastern countries and of other experts convened to deal with the very important social problem of combating traffic in women and children ;

Recognising that the information placed before the Conference is of great value for future work in this sphere ;

Conscious of the necessity of enlightening and stimulating public opinion by the distribution of suitable material and information :

Requests that the Minutes of the Conference be printed for reference and for the use of the authorities and that a report be prepared by the Secretariat of the League of Nations suitable for distribution to a wider public.

Resolution of Thanks to the Netherlands Government, the Government of the Netherlands Indies and the League of Nations.

The Conference wishes to express to the Netherlands Government its deep appreciation for the invitation to hold the Conference of Central Authorities in Eastern Countries at Bandoeng, and to express its gratitude to the Government of the Netherlands Indies for the generous assistance afforded by its officials to the Conference.

The Conference also wishes to convey to the League of Nations the expression of its gratitude for the work done in combating the traffic in women and children.

[Communicated to the Council *Official No.: C.256, M.152.1938.IV.*
and the Members of the League.]

Geneva, August 2nd, 1938.

3

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

ADVISORY COMMITTEE
ON SOCIAL QUESTIONS

THE RECREATIONAL CINEMA
AND THE YOUNG

Series of League of Nations Publications

IV. SOCIAL
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THE RECREATIONAL CINEMA AND THE YOUNG

INTRODUCTION

Within little more than a generation, the cinematograph has developed from an ingenious toy into an important institution in the life, not only of every urban community, but also to an increasing extent of all but the remotest rural areas. Its development has been so rapid that it is still difficult to assess its cultural and social influence. That this has been great and is worldwide in character are commonplaces. The cinema has become in a short time one of the most popular forms of indoor entertainment, and it is not surprising that many of the problems which have arisen have not yet been finally or satisfactorily solved. One of the most important of these problems is the place which the cinema should fill for the young, whose minds are more impressionable and more open to its influence than those of adults. Recognising the importance and the international character of the problem, the former Child Welfare Committee of the League of Nations from its inception took an interest in the question of the cinema and the young.

One important aspect of the subject is the use of the cinema for purposes of instruction, and while this lies outside the terms of reference of the Advisory Committee on Social Questions, it maintained liaison with the International Educational Cinematographic Institute of Rome

while that body was in existence. The cinema as a medium of recreation is possibly of even greater importance, and this report, which is concerned exclusively with the recreational aspects of the question, is the result of enquiries started by the former Child Welfare Committee in 1934 and reviewed by the Advisory Committee on Social Questions in 1938.

The present report is based on information collected from the Governments of forty-six countries,¹ both Members and non-members of the League of Nations, from a number of correspondent members of the Advisory Committee on Social Questions² and from the International Educational Cinematographic Institute of Rome, and on the full discussions which took place in the former Child Welfare Committee in 1936,³ and the Advisory Committee on Social Questions in 1937⁴ and 1938,⁵ and in the Fifth Committee of the Assembly in 1936⁶ and 1937.⁷ At the discussion in 1936, the former Child Welfare Committee was greatly assisted by the attendance of two experts whose collaboration it invited—Mr. A. C.

¹ Union of South Africa, Argentine Republic, Australia, Austria, Belgium, Brazil, United Kingdom, Bulgaria, Canada, China, Czechoslovakia, Danzig, Denmark, Ecuador, Egypt, Estonia, Finland, France, Guatemala, Hungary, Iceland, India, Iran, Iraq, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Monaco, Nicaragua, Norway, Netherlands, New Zealand, Poland, Portugal, Roumania, Siam, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, United States of America, Yugoslavia.

As regards Canada and the United States of America, data were obtained from various sources.

² International Council of Women, the World Young Women's Christian Association.

³ See document C.204.M.127.1936.IV, pages 18, 23-26.

⁴ See document C.235.M.169.1937.IV, page 20.

⁵ See document C.147.M.88.1938.IV, pages 13 and 14.

⁶ See document A.67.1936.IV, page 3, and League of Nations *Official Journal*, Special Supplement No. 160, pages 24 and 38.

⁷ See document A.65.1937.IV, page 2.

Cameron, one of the Governors of the British Film Institute, and Mr. Edgar Dale, Associate Professor, Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, representing the Payne Fund of New York City, which has carried out an important investigation into the question of the cinema and the young in the United States of America; and, in 1938, the Advisory Committee on Social Questions had the advantage of the presence of Mr. Oliver Bell, Director of the British Film Institute. Mr. Bell not only made a valuable contribution to the discussion but also gave two practical demonstrations in the League cinema of typical films shown at children's performances in the United Kingdom.

While recognising that only tentative conclusions are possible at present, the Advisory Committee on Social Questions thought that the publication of this report, which was prepared for the 1938 session by the Rapporteur, Mr. S. W. Harris, the United Kingdom delegate, and has been edited by him in the light of the discussion which took place, would serve a useful purpose as a résumé of the existing position and as a means of stimulating interest in the subject. There have been a number of valuable enquiries and experiments in different countries which it was felt ought to be better known, and the Committee hoped in particular that the constructive aspect of the question might receive greater attention than in the past. The Committee was unanimously of the opinion that measures for the protection of children and young people from the harmful effects of the cinema are essential, as has been recognised by the establishment of systems of censorship in almost every country. But, while censorship can eliminate what is obviously unsuitable for public entertainment, it cannot make a bad film into a good one or remedy the deficiencies which exist at present in the cinema as a means of recreation for the young. The question of censorship was studied by the former Child Welfare Committee,

which published a report on the subject in 1935¹ and there are no grounds for fearing that sight will be lost of the need for measures of protection of this kind. The more positive approach has, however, received less emphasis, and the Committee felt that this offered the most hopeful line of future development.

FREQUENCY OF ATTENDANCE

Though, in many countries, no statistics are available as to the number of children and young people attending the cinema, it is generally agreed that the habit of cinema-going is well-established amongst the young in the large towns of most countries, while it appears to be on the increase in rural districts.

The extent of the practice receives striking illustration in such enquiries as have been made. Thus it is estimated that, in 1929, there were in weekly attendance at cinemas in the United States 11 million children under 14 and 28 million persons under 21. In one study group, it was found that the average attendance in an age range of 8-19 was once weekly and that 27% of the boys and 21% of the girls attended more frequently. In another group, 90% were found to attend regularly, 64% on an average once or twice weekly.

An enquiry by the London County Council in 1931/32, which covered over 21,000 school-children, showed that 30% attended the cinema once weekly, 9% twice a week, 48% at irregular intervals and 13% not at all. Enquiries in certain other parts of the United Kingdom have shown a considerably higher proportion of children attending once, or more than once, weekly. In the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, children are said to go to the cinema

¹ See document C.187.M.104.1935.IV, Appendix I and II, pages 18-24.

five or six times a month, and, in Denmark, persons under 18 are estimated to represent about a third of the total attendance. In the Netherlands, the majority of film enthusiasts are said to be young people.

There is evidence that similar conditions exist in other industrialised countries, though, in the absence of more precise information, it is difficult to generalise, and the extent of attendance at the cinema in different countries is necessarily affected by differences in social and economic conditions. An enquiry in 120 Japanese elementary schools, for example, showed that only 3.9% of the boys and 1.1% of the girls attended the cinema regularly. These considerations apply with particular force to thinly populated rural districts, and there are, of course, large areas where the cinema is still a novelty. In practice, the problem is largely a problem of urban civilisation.

EFFECT OF ATTENDANCE

The effect of regular attendance at the cinema upon the young is a subject upon which a wide range of opinions has been expressed, not always based upon scientific investigation. A number of enquiries have, however, been made, the most notable being that under the auspices of the Payne Fund of New York, which has been responsible for an investigation into the whole question of Motion Pictures and Youth.

As regards children of elementary school age, the enquiry of the London County Council in 1931/32 referred to above describes the following points as well-established :

“ (i) The morally questionable element in films is ignored by children of school age, and, in fact, bores them. It may do harm in particular cases, but there appears to be no widespread mischief.

“ (ii) The younger children for a time imitate in their play what they have seen on the films, but these

external evidences of film influence are usually fugitive and confined to play.

“ (iii) Some children absorb film knowledge which seems to be kept in a mental compartment used in school only when an appropriate stimulus is applied.

“ (iv) The one distinct evil that is mentioned with such frequency by inspectors and teachers, and with such specific examples as to leave little doubt of its existence, is that children are often frightened at the films, and that the fear remains with them and causes dreams. The enquiry indeed brought out no other point on which there was definite evidence of harm.

“ (v) As a means of enlarging the children’s experience (not by any means always in an undesirable way) and of giving clear cut knowledge of certain kinds, the cinema is an effective instrument.”

The general conclusion is of sufficient interest to be quoted :

“ My general impression, after reading a fairly large mass of evidence carefully, is that there is no need for serious alarm. Boys do imitate the dashing or the desperate film hero, and girls do worship him or pine to be ‘ her ’. But is there anything new about this? The film is no worse than the old time ‘ blood ’ universally read by the boys only a few years ago. It is no more falsely sentimental than many of the feminine equivalents of the ‘ blood ’. What man of fifty has not been a pirate in his youth? These children at least seldom see anything on the film in which virtue and right are not merely ultimately, but immediately triumphant; that is, at the end of twenty minutes. Evil, on the films, never pays. The crook is always frustrated, and the amateur, if not the professional, detective is always successful. It is quite evident that the children expect this to happen; and that the vindication of the

virtuous, the oppressed or the sorely tempted satisfies their elementary ideas of justice. I think it very likely that the war films 'Journey's End', 'The Victor of Verdun' and the like, which, I understand, do purport to show the violences and cruelties of war, do more real mischief by frightening the children through their realistic detail than all the 'romances' or 'crook' films, which the children (or most of them) know to be false to life."

The influence of the cinema upon the adolescent appears to be less simple. As is pointed out by Professor Blumer of Chicago in the Payne Fund report on "Movies and Conduct", the adolescent "is confronted with a new life to whose demand he is not prepared to respond in a ready and self-satisfying way, and he is experiencing a new range of desires and interests which are pressing for some form of satisfaction." Professor Blumer's conclusion is that the effect of the cinema upon the adolescent is primarily emotional, awakening in him a "variety of impulses", "a medley of feelings", and "a multiplicity of daydreams", which may not be adequately controlled or co-ordinated. This opinion is confirmed by that of an experienced Netherlands investigator, Dr. van Staveren, whose view is that while the emotions roused by films in the average adult are transitory, with growing children during the physical crisis they experience in puberty "many perceptions and emotions temporarily housed in the subconscious mind" may be stimulated, and "from this mysterious region of the young mind the reaction suddenly emerges, sometimes much later, and without any direct attributable cause, and is expressed in unexpected words or acts or behaviour". He adds that, in certain cases, "the gestures they take from the pictures, the expressions they learn from the dialogues, and their enthusiastic admiration for favourite films and film stars, show how deep is the effect of this suggestion on

young people.” The Payne Fund studies provide abundant evidence of the truth of this statement. Dr. van Staveren’s conclusion that “it is certainly harmful both physically and mentally for young children and young people during the years of puberty to visit the cinema frequently or even regularly” is not, however, supported by the Payne Fund enquiry or by the general opinion of experts.

As will be seen, opinion is more divided about the effect of the cinema on adolescents than about its effect on younger children, and the question is one which requires further investigation. It is to be hoped that the example of the Payne Fund and of the British Film Institute, which is undertaking an enquiry into the subject, will be followed by others.

The Payne Fund investigators, Dr. van Staveren and others have also drawn attention to the physical consequences of attendance at the cinema, which may be harmful particularly to very young children and in cases of frequent attendance. Most attention has been given to the undoubted risk of eyestrain and to the effect upon children’s sleep of seeing certain types of films in the evening. This is, however, a subject upon which it would be unwise to generalise, as much depends upon the circumstances of the individual cinema, the general health of the children, and the frequency and times of attendance. Modern ventilation and lighting minimise, if they do not altogether remove, such risks of physical ill-effects as may exist.

JUVENILE TASTE IN FILMS

There is some danger that the question of children and the cinema may be considered too much from the adult point of view and without regard to the taste of the children themselves. It is too easy to take as a starting-point the view of adults as to what is good for children. It is obvious that this is a false method of approach, and that, in the

first place, an attempt should be made to discover what children like in the cinema, and that the question of improving or guiding their taste should be considered in the light of the information thus obtained. This does not, of course, mean that they should be allowed to see whatever films they prefer, including those which are positively harmful or unsuitable, but that the best results will be achieved by providing them with films which are not only suitable for them, but also appeal to them.

Enquiries have been made into the taste of children in a number of countries and the conclusions show remarkable unanimity. It is generally agreed that children no less than adults know definitely what they do like and equally definitely what they do not like, and they are usually more vocal than adults in expressing their opinion.

A distinction must, of course, be made between children and young people of different ages, and some experiments in providing films for them have broken down because of failure to make allowance for this. There is, for example, a marked difference between the taste of the young children and of adolescents, and the tastes of boys are naturally different in certain respects from those of girls.

This point is illustrated in the Polish reply which gives an interesting account of an experiment in showing to boys and girls of different ages a film which was regarded as specially suitable for the young. It appears to have been received with some scorn by the older members of the audience, partly because a leading part in the film was taken by a young child. As the reply states, the older children "want a different kind of intellectual food, more varied and more complex" than that which is suitable for young children.

As regards the younger children, the London County Council enquiry came to the following "broad conclusions", which, according to the United Kingdom reply, are supported by evidence from other parts of the country, and

were substantially confirmed by a conference representative of over a hundred interested organisations which was arranged by the British Film Institute in November 1936.

“ (i) Infants and young children prefer comic films of the ‘ cartoon ’ order, of which ‘ Mickey Mouse ’ is the most typical and the most popular.

“ (ii) The comic film remains fairly popular at all age ranges; and even where it is not the first preference, it is the comic element (or what is nearly the same thing, the unexpected or incongruous) which interests the children. For instance, in the very popular ‘ Cowboy ’ or other adventure films, it is a comic incident such as firing a revolver shot near the toes of the camp cook ‘ to wake him up ’ which appeals to the boy and girl of all ages.

“ (iii) For the rest, after allowance has been made for the personal factor in the enquiry, it remains true that the order of preference for the classes of film differs not only according to sex but to some extent according to district. It is not possible therefore to set out with complete accuracy any generalised order of preference. It is possible, however, to give some reliable indications of the probable truth :

“ 1. Cowboy films are popular at all ages, but they are more popular with the boys than the girls, and with the younger rather than the older children.

“ 2. War and adventure are very popular with the boys. War is rather more popular with boys of 8-10 than with those of 11-14. With girls, war films are definitely unpopular; but adventure films are popular.

“ 3. What go under various names as ‘ mystery ’, ‘ detective ’, or ‘ crook ’ films are high in the order of popularity for boys, and popular, but to a considerably less extent, among girls.

“ 4. Comedy or farce films, as such, are not placed very high in the order of preference for children of 11-14, though they like the comic element in detective or adventure films.

“ 5. Topical films, nature films, travel and animal films seldom occur high in the order of preference. Sometimes they are definitely placed last. Such films are relatively unpopular where, as in the commercial picture house, they are shown side by side with sensation or adventure.

“ 6. ‘ Romance ’ or ‘ love ’ stories are definitely disliked by the boys. Frequently they are placed high in the order of preference by girls 11-14, and, where in oral questioning they are reported to be placed low, the enquirer always gives the warning that the answers are far from trustworthy.”

These conclusions are generally supported by the replies from other countries, and it seems to be agreed that comedies of the less sophisticated kind, including animated cartoons, are the most popular films with young children. The older children share this taste, though their preference, as is natural, is usually for films of adventure which satisfy their desire for healthy excitement. There is common agreement that below the age of adolescence children dislike the more sophisticated type of comedy and films where a love interest predominates, though an exception must be made for some girls. The tendency to greater sophistication which has shown itself recently in certain of the animated cartoons is not popular with young audiences.

It is also agreed that children like screen presentations of their favourite stories, though they resent any departure from a strict interpretation of the original and any attempt on the part of adults to use the recreational cinema for classroom purposes, or any sign of condescension. The Canadian reply quotes the opinion of a teacher that “ from

the experience of teachers, it would appear that children resent the writing down for them of stories known through reading what might be described as the classic novels and plays, 'David Copperfield' being quoted as extremely popular because it followed the book so closely".

As has been said, children like films of adventure, and their desire for excitement is natural and by no means unhealthy. There are, however, some films of a terrifying nature, dealing, for example, with crime or horrors, which are not suitable for the average child, and which may be definitely harmful to the more sensitive children.

Sometimes, too, films which appear to adults to be highly suitable for children fall into this category. Some scientific films which illustrate the life history of insects, for example, have been found to frighten rather than to edify. As a well-known psychologist remarked: "A child is much more likely to be disturbed by the life of the caterpillar than by 'Mrs. Warren's Profession'."

The younger children in particular are liable to be frightened by such films. It is safe to say that the majority of children do not like films of an "horrific" character, which, as a dramatic critic is quoted in the Canadian reply as pointing out, may be "quite capable of causing serious derangement for months in the nervous system of a sensitive and emotional child".

PROTECTION FROM UNSUITABLE FILMS

There are two main ways in which children may be protected from undesirable films: positively, by the provision of an adequate supply of suitable films and by educating their taste so that they prefer such films to others, and negatively, by censorship and restrictions on admission. The former method will be considered later in connection with the provision of special performances and suitable films.

Ideally, the positive is preferable to the negative method, but, in practice, most countries have recognised the necessity of protecting the young by placing legal restrictions on their admission to films regarded as unsuitable. In some countries, including not only those where there is no censorship but also a number of others, children below a certain age may not be admitted to cinemas. This age varies from 5 years in Iran and Portugal to 18 years in certain parts of Switzerland. In a few countries, such as Japan and India, there are no legal restrictions either by way of age-limit or censorship, and the protection of children from harmful influences falls to parents, schools and voluntary organisations. In federal countries, such as the United States of America and Switzerland, there are local differences. In Uruguay, children between the ages of 5 and 16 are only permitted to attend day-time performances of educational or recreational films approved by the Children's Council, but there appears to be some difficulty in enforcing this regulation. In other countries (*e.g.*, Sweden and some of the Swiss cantons), children may not be admitted to performances which end after a certain hour unless they are accompanied by their parents, and, in some cases, admission is denied irrespective of whether the films have been passed by the censors as suitable for exhibition to children.

In the majority of countries, the method of censorship is used. As is to be expected, the form taken by the censorship varies considerably. In most cases, the censors are appointed by the Government, but, in others, the responsibility for censorship is placed on the local authorities, and, in certain cases, the censorship is exercised by voluntary organisations. A distinction must also be drawn between countries where children are forbidden to attend any film which is not passed as suitable for exhibition to them, and those, such as the United Kingdom, where discretion is left to the parents to decide whether they will

take their children to see such films, and children may only be admitted if accompanied by an adult. The relative merits of these systems is the subject of some controversy. In favour of the first system it is argued that it cannot safely be left to the discretion of the parents to take the decision. On the other side, it is pointed out that films which may be unsuitable for some children—*e.g.*, very young or particularly sensitive children—may be entirely suitable for others, and that the parents are in the best position to judge whether a film is suitable for their own children.

A difficult question is the age to which this form of protection should extend. Some children develop more quickly than others, and no age-limit can be entirely satisfactory. In the opinion of Dr. van Staveren, there is much which could be said in favour of twenty-five or thirty, and there are even—he adds—films which are not without danger for old gentlemen! Most countries take 16 years as the age-limit; in a few cases, it is as low as 12, in others, it is as high as 18. Elsewhere, there are intermediate age-divisions—*e.g.*, in the Netherlands, 14 to 18.

There seems to be general agreement as to the type of films which are not suitable for exhibition to children, though there are differences in the rigour of the censorship. The instructions given to the Belgian censors may be taken as typical. It is their duty to eliminate from family programmes the following types of film: films representing criminal acts (scenes of brigandage, robbery with violence, etc.) or acts of violence and cruelty (murder, suicides, executions, tortures, etc.) and films which, though not definitely pornographic, appear likely to awaken premature emotions in young people; and also everything which is calculated to trouble the imagination of children, to upset their equilibrium and moral well-being. The Danish censors are required to pay special attention to what is “calculated to have a harmful effect on children’s minds

and their notions of right and wrong”, and the Danish reply mentions scenes depicting the ill-treatment of animals, torture, atrocities and rape as amongst those to which exception would be taken.

In Denmark, the censors are said to reject as unsuitable for children about 20 to 25% of the longer films; in Belgium, 30% have been rejected over a period of about sixteen years; in Czechoslovakia, the percentage of rejections was 43% in 1934; in the Netherlands, 46% of the feature films which were passed by the censorship in 1933 were forbidden for exhibition to persons under 18. A useful procedure which is followed in some countries is for scenarios to be submitted to the censors before production.

SPECIAL PERFORMANCES

The cinema is both a medium of recreation and a medium of education. Where Governments have concerned themselves with the recreational aspect of the cinema, their activities have usually been limited to the measures of protection against undesirable films which have already been described. Interest by public authorities in the provision of films for children and of special performances has usually been restricted to educational films.

Much has undoubtedly been done in providing special performances of films of an instructional or educational character and in stimulating the production of such films. This enquiry is not directly concerned with the subject of instructional films, though the division may sometimes be a slender one between “educational” and “recreational” films. In some films—*e.g.*, films of travel or natural history, or films based upon classics—the educational and the recreational may merge. On the other hand, films designed to aid classroom instruction cannot be regarded in any ordinary sense as recreational, nor can the large

majority of the films shown in the commercial cinemas be regarded as educational.

In most countries, the education authorities, either independently or in collaboration with the cinematograph trade, arrange performances of "educational" or "cultural" films for children. In certain countries, the arrangements are made by private organisations.

Much interesting information has been supplied by the different Governments on this subject, but, while these performances may be said in one sense to be recreational, they do not usually appear to include fictional films, though sometimes specially selected films based on well-known stories may be shown.

Special performances of a definitely recreational character seem to be much less common, and, in most countries, no official interest has been taken in such performances. In some countries, however, commercial cinemas are beginning to appreciate the advantages of providing special matinee performances for children at reduced prices. These matinees are usually given on Saturday mornings and are greatly appreciated by the children. The importance of selecting suitable films is not always recognised. An example of several such enterprises in the United Kingdom is the Saturday morning matinees given by the cinemas of one large circuit. The average programme consists of an episode from a serial, a specially chosen feature film (often a "Western"), a Mickey Mouse cartoon and a current news reel, if it is suitable. The films to be shown are specially selected and the tastes of the children are considered. In connection with these performances, Mickey Mouse Clubs have been started. The main object of these clubs, which are very popular, is to increase the interest of the children, but incidentally they serve other purposes by encouraging good conduct and by teaching children to make small contributions to local charities. Many of the clubs develop other recreational activities.

In the United Kingdom and elsewhere, special performances of selected recreational films are also organised by education authorities and voluntary bodies, but the number of these performances is small, and quantitatively they are not important, however valuable they may be as experiments. The reply from the International Women's Organisations refers to such performances in children's clubs, parishes, etc., in France, in Yugoslavia, where they have been organised by committees representative of the parents and the schools, and in Lithuania. In Japan, special children's days have for several years been organised at selected cinemas in various of the great cities, and the parents are encouraged to send their children to the cinema only on these days. The co-operation of the teachers has been obtained, and though the scheme was not particularly successful at first, it is said to be more successful now, thanks to their assistance. The Bulgarian reply mentions three special cinemas for children, under the direction of the Ministry of Public Instruction, but financially self-supporting, and there are references to similar cinemas (usually primarily educational in intention) elsewhere. In a few countries (*e.g.*, Roumania and Italy), the cinemas are required by law to give special performances (again with an educational object) or to include in their ordinary programmes specially selected "educational" films suitable for children. The French reply describes weekly performances given by special children's cinemas in Paris and in certain provincial towns. These performances are said to have been started five years ago, and their success to have been immediate. Admission costs 2, 3 and 5 francs, and the children are consulted as to the character of the programmes, which usually consist of a short documentary, a Mickey Mouse, a long comedy or adventure film and special news reels.

The reply from the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics contains much interesting information on the subject of special performances. There is said to be a network of

special cinemas for children, numbering about 150 at the time of the reply, and special performances also organised in the "Pioneers and School-children's Palaces", schools, clubs, and in ordinary cinema theatres, where special times are set apart. The needs of the smaller communities are met by travelling cinemas.

The organisation of the children's cinemas and the special performances is described in the following extract from the reply :

"When opening a children's cinema, special attention is paid to its equipment.

"In addition to the theatre itself, children's cinemas have much subsidiary accommodation; a large hall for games and musical programmes, a library and reading-room, a room for quiet table games ('attractions', draughts, chess, etc.), a refreshment counter and, lastly, a special cinema room.

"In the latter, children are (by means of exhibits) made acquainted with the history of the cinema, the process of producing films, cinema apparatus and new technical cinema devices. They can see there portraits of leading cinema personalities (producers, scenario-writers, operators, actors) and also sets of photos from the best films.

"Apart from the technical staff, children's cinemas have also a special staff of from five to fifteen teachers, depending on the number of spectators accommodated by the theatre. Children's performances are conducted as follows :

"The children arrive at the theatre and, before the performance begins, can amuse themselves as they like : read in the library, play in the play-room, look at the exhibits in the special cinema room, or join in whatever is going on in the large hall.

"During this time, all kinds of activities are being conducted in the hall : musical performances, reading

of literary extracts, singing games, dancing marionette shows, etc.

“ Usually, this programme in the hall is so organised that, in addition to the pleasure it gives, it prepares the children for understanding the film to be shown that day.

“ For instance, if a historical film is being shown, the programme will broaden the children’s ideas of the period in which the action is taking place. If it is a modern film dealing with life, not in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics but in some other country, the programme will broaden the children’s ideas of that country so that the various subjects dealt with in the picture will be clear to them, etc.”

SPECIAL FILMS

The rich children’s literature of the world, examples of which are to be found in every language, has found as yet no parallel in the cinema. There are no counterparts on the screen to the great children’s classics, to the fairy tales of Hans Andersen or (with the exception mentioned below) of Grimm, to the animal stories of Kipling, to the stories of adventure which are part of the heritage of the boys and girls of every nation. The nearest parallel is perhaps to be found in some of the animated cartoons. Mickey Mouse, for example, has become an international figure and is mentioned in the replies from several countries of a most diverse character. Mr. Walt Disney’s more ambitious experiment in expressing in cartoon a fairy story of Grimm may lead to important developments in this direction. The American cowboy film in which, as the reply for Yugoslavia says, is seen “ the struggle between good and evil, justice and injustice, and in which justice finally triumphs ” also possesses a universal appeal and satisfies the desire for excitement and adventure which is common

to children of every nationality. But even the animated cartoon and to a lesser extent the "Western" are primarily produced for adult audiences, and, as has been explained already, the modern cartoon is often characterised by a sophistication which is beyond the understanding of the average child.

With these limited exceptions, and with the exception of a few films based upon the children's classics, and a few films deliberately produced for children in which children's casts have been used, little has been done to produce special films for children. Mention however must be made of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, where a special section of the Central Department for Industrial Cinematography is responsible for the production of films for children. A regular staff of scenario-writers, operators, actors, etc., is employed, and the yearly programme consists of twenty or thirty films. The needs of children of different ages, including children of pre-school age, is taken into account, and the subjects are discussed by a conference representative of all the Soviet Republics and are approved by the Central Department for the Educational Cinema.

The films already produced have been of a varied character, the subjects including travel and exploration, animal life, children in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and other countries, the lives of remarkable persons, and the works of popular children's authors. Among films based on the latter the following may be mentioned: "Tom Sawyer", by Mark Twain; "The Children of Captain Grant", by Jules Verne; "The New Gulliver", by Swift; "Riki-Tiki-Tavi", by Kipling, and "The Tale of the Angler and the Fish", by Pushkin.

It would be unwise to minimise the difficulties of providing an adequate supply of children's films, but there is no reason to think that they are insuperable. The production of special films for children will not be commercially prac-

licable until the costs of production can be substantially curtailed, and there is scope for experiment in this direction. Illustrations of the type of films which would appeal to children and need not be expensive to produce are films based upon children's stories, films of animal life, and films representing the life of children. Economy of expenditure need not involve the sacrifice of artistic values, and, as the Soviet reply points out, it is important that such films should not fall below a good æsthetic standard.

“ A juvenile film must be as perfect an artistic production as any other work of art.

“ Any attempt to address children otherwise than in the real language of art, to ‘ talk down ’ to the child’s intellectual level—*i.e.*, any conscious or deliberate simplification—makes the juvenile film stereotyped and false.

“ A juvenile film should be simple with the simplicity of a real work of art, but not simplified.

“ If a film is to be easily comprehensible to a juvenile audience, its author should take account of the experience of life and the stock of associations possessed by children of the age for which his film is designed.

“ While basing himself on a child’s experience of life, the film author should nevertheless not produce his film only for that level. He should always be slightly ahead of the child, and every film should be to the young spectator a new experience, a further step forward which he has to make.”

At the same time, it is important that full use should be made of suitable films which already exist. The life of the ordinary commercial film is usually short, but it may retain its usefulness for children’s performances for many years. In the United Kingdom, the British Film Institute, recognising this, has got into touch with the trade, and it has published a list of more than a hundred films (both

“ feature ” films and “ shorts ”) which are suitable and available at cheap rates for children’s performances. A supplementary list has recently been issued, and it is hoped that it may later be possible to establish a library of suitable films which could be hired at a cheap rate for such performances and would not compete with the ordinary commercial performance. An alternative suggested by Dr. Dale and referred to in several replies is that suitable films could be reproduced in substandard form, and this has to some extent been done in certain countries. A possible development which would help to promote international understanding and good-will would be the interchange of the films between different countries. This would be especially valuable to the non-producing countries, which are dependent on supplies of films from abroad, and would be assisted if special Customs facilities could be given as under the Convention for facilitating the International Circulation of Films of an Educational Character.¹

TEACHING OF FILM APPRECIATION

The holding of special performances and the production of special films are admirable objectives so far as the needs of the younger children are concerned, but they will not solve the problem of the older children and adolescents who will continue to attend the ordinary cinema, so far as they are allowed to do so, and will continue to see the same films as their parents. The Swiss reply points out the foolishness of treating the question of children and the cinema apart from that of the cinema in general. No one who is familiar with the ordinary cinema can fail to recognise that, at the present time, the public are presented with films of widely different quality, some good, some indifferent

¹ This Convention came into force on January 15th, 1935, in accordance with its Article XVIII.

and some thoroughly bad. The practical question, therefore, is what can be done under these circumstances to safeguard the position of the young in the ordinary cinema. The answer to this question would appear to be found in some method of encouraging the young to discriminate between what is good and what is bad. There can be no doubt that public opinion must in the long run exercise a powerful influence on the character of the films which are exhibited, because the producers will always pay attention to box office receipts. The young people of to-day are the future patrons of the cinema, and if their taste can be formed so as to encourage the production of films of good quality, there could be no better way of bringing about a general raising of the standard.

As a former Governor of the British Film Institute has pointed out : " It is in the public cinema that the film has its strongest hold on national interest, and therefore its greatest cultural and social influence on children and adolescents. If therefore the standard of public taste is to be raised, we must begin with the children."

The first step in this direction is the critical examination and classification, by some competent authority, of the films which are being exhibited. In some countries, this need has been recognised. For instance, in Canada, a monthly review of current films is published by the Canadian Welfare Council under the title *Motion Pictures and Youth*. In Belgium, a similar service is performed by La Centrale Catholique des Films, which, through a periodical review, advises the public on the moral and educational value of films. In the United States of America, considerable use is made by the public of information bureaux organised in connection with many public libraries. In the United Kingdom, the British Film Institute has for some time published a monthly bulletin, the object of which is to assess the quality of all the films which are exhibited. The type of information which is supplied may be illustrated

from the description of the bulletin which the representative of the Institute gave to the Committee in 1936 :

“ The bulletin gives an outline of the story of the film and assesses its technical qualities. Indication is also given of the general positive suitability of each film. Attention is drawn to any sequences or incidents which might be harmful or objectionable to any well-defined body of opinion or type of audience, and particular care is taken to indicate, for example, incidents which might be frightening or objectionable to children. The general suitability of any film is graded as follows : (a) for adults only; (b) for adults and adolescents over 16; (c) for family audiences; (d) specially suitable for children under 16. It is believed that the reviews give sufficient information about the film to enable a local director of education or teacher, for example, to decide in advance and without specially seeing the film, in the light of his knowledge of his own particular area or school, which films are most suitable for, and which films would be best not seen by, the children in his area or school.”

Category (c) contains films to which parents can take or send their children in the knowledge that they contain no scenes or characters which would be likely to frighten or disturb children; category (d) films which children will enjoy because they contain elements likely to appeal to them and are free from any frightening or disturbing elements. An attempt is made in the reviews to appraise the artistic qualities and entertainment value of the film, and attention is drawn to special points of interest. Thus, in a recent issue, a note is added to the review of a film classed (c) that “ nervous children might be frightened by the train smashes ”, and to a (b) film “ that it is not suitable for children owing to the scene of terror in the airliner when it is out of control ”.

These services are very valuable, and it is to be hoped that they will be imitated in countries where they do not yet exist. A similar service might with advantage be performed by Press critics.

The next step lies in the effective use of all the information in regard to the character of the films which has been obtained. One of the most hopeful ways of teaching film appreciation to young people may be found in the schools. It is very satisfactory to learn that, in several countries, efforts are being made in the schools to cultivate an intelligent appreciation of films amongst the children and to teach them to discriminate between the good and the bad. In the United States of America, for example, seven States have given official approval to the inclusion of the teaching of film discrimination in the school curriculum, and, with the aid of a grant from the Payne Fund, a bulletin on the subject has been circulated to over 5,000 teachers and administrators of schools. An interesting experiment has been the formation of Young Reviewers' Clubs, the members of which themselves criticise the films to which they are taken. A similar movement has been inaugurated in the United Kingdom, and has been largely stimulated by the activity of the British Film Institute. In several areas, the teaching of film appreciation has been taken up in the schools. The pupils are invited to discuss and criticise the films they have seen, and when a really good film is being exhibited in the neighbourhood they are told of it and encouraged to see it. There are also other directions in which informed criticism of films may lead to improvements in quality. Serious inaccuracies have, for example, occurred in certain historical films, the dramatic quality of which has been high, and the effect of such films may be seriously to warp the child's view of past events and the great figures of history. Damage may also be done by films which give a misleading picture of other races or nations. One of the Payne studies examined the effect of certain films on the

attitude of children towards nationality, race, crime, war and other subjects. It was shown that the change of attitude which was brought about by an individual film was in some instances considerable, and that films " have definite, lasting effects on social attitudes of children, and that a number of pictures pertaining to the same issue may have a cumulative effect on attitude ". Watchfulness on the part of organisations interested in the healthy development of the cinema and of teachers and parents is essential in order that pressure may be put upon producers to be scrupulously careful in avoiding any tendencies to misrepresentation.

CONCLUSION

The present enquiry will have been justified if it only serves to draw attention to a problem which is common to the whole world. It has already led to considerable discussion and to attempts in different countries to supply the needs which enquiry has revealed. It has shown the necessity for positive as well as negative measures in dealing with the problem of the recreational cinema and the young; and for close co-operation between the cinematograph trade, public authorities, teachers, interested social organisations and parents. At the same time, it has emphasised the importance of a balanced approach to the question. It is necessary to take into account, on the one hand, the needs and desires of children and young people of different ages, and, on the other, the way in which the cinema may satisfy those needs and desires. As the Swiss reply points out :

" The urge to the cinema is entirely natural. It springs from the urges towards the unusual, the adventurous, the extraordinary, the heroic, which are to be found in every healthy young person. The film gives him what he seeks. To combat the bad influences of the cinema, the only way is to satisfy

this desire for experience and this quest for heroism in a healthy manner. It is necessary to provide what is worth while and uplifting in a romantic form and without intending a moral. Nothing will be achieved by mere prohibitions . . .”

The importance of making the best possible use of the cinema as a medium of recreation and education for the young will not be disputed. At the same time, a sense of proportion should not be lost. As Dr. Dale pointed out, there may be a tendency to over-emphasise the importance of the influence of the cinema on the mental and moral make-up of young people. The film must be considered in relation to all the other amusements and activities of youth, such as games, camping, art, music, which contribute to a full and wholesome recreational life. It is just as unwise to exaggerate the place of the cinema in the leisure of the young as to regard it as an unmitigated evil from which they must be protected at all costs.

[Communicated to the Council *Official No. : C. 6. M. 5. 1938. IV.*
and the Members of the League.]

Geneva, November 15th, 1937.

4

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

**ADVISORY COMMITTEE
ON SOCIAL QUESTIONS**

**ENQUIRY
INTO MEASURES
OF REHABILITATION
OF PROSTITUTES**

**SOCIAL SERVICES
AND VENEREAL DISEASE**

Series of League of Nations Publications

**IV. SOCIAL
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FOREWORD.

The present volume, dealing with the social services which are provided in connection with the treatment for venereal disease, is part of a study on the rehabilitation of prostitutes undertaken by the Advisory Committee on Social Questions. The question is therefore treated with special attention to the usefulness of these services in reincorporating prostitutes in the normal life of the community.

As the provision of social services during a cure for venereal disease is a comparatively new feature in social work, it was considered that an account of what has already been done, drawn up on an international basis, would be particularly useful at the present time.

The Advisory Committee was of the opinion that the early publication of this information would be of great practical value. The League of Nations Assembly of 1937 agreed with this view, stating that "an early publication of this information will be of great service to countries contemplating the creation or extension of such services".

The present volume, which will be followed shortly by a volume on the antecedents of prostitutes, constitutes a part of the final study on rehabilitation of prostitutes.

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INTRODUCTION.

In 1935, when a preliminary report on the rehabilitation of prostitutes came up for discussion, the League of Nations Committee on the Traffic in Women and Children decided to set on one side for the moment the study of preventive measures and to concentrate first on the problem in its relation to adult women. Mr. Cohen, General Secretary of the Jewish Association for the Protection of Girls, Women and Children, was appointed Rapporteur, and three questionnaires were drawn up; it is the second of these which has provided the greater part of the material for this report.

The principal object of the second questionnaire was to discover what social services were provided in connection with treatment for venereal disease and how far these services undertook the work of rehabilitating prostitutes. The questions asked were briefly these :¹

(1) What system is adopted for the treatment of venereal disease in your country and how is it financed?

(2) How far do prostitutes avail themselves of facilities for treatment?

(3) What social services are provided in connection with medical treatment and how far are they instrumental in rehabilitating prostitutes?

This questionnaire was sent to Governments of States Members of the League, to some non-member States and to the associations represented on the Committee.²

¹ For the full text of the questionnaire, see Annex 1.

² For the Governments and voluntary organisations which replied to the questionnaire, see Annex 2.

Most of the replies were received in January and February 1936 and were incorporated in a report issued in March 1936 as Part II of the enquiry into the rehabilitation of adult prostitutes. This was considered to be a preliminary report, and its circulation was therefore restricted. The present study is a re-arrangement of the material contained in the March report of 1936 supplemented by the answers and additional information which have since been received. Some other sources have also been drawn on; in every case, this is mentioned in a footnote.

The arrangement of the material follows the order of the questionnaire, and the report is therefore divided into three parts. The first part deals with the methods used for providing treatment for venereal disease and the legislation governing this treatment. It describes the way in which countries which have replied to the questionnaire administer and finance their schemes for treatment and it also contains two sections on the important points of compulsory and confidential treatment.

The second part attempts to answer the question how far do prostitutes avail themselves of these facilities for treatment.

The third part deals with the social services which are combined with treatment for venereal disease. It gives first a summary of the answers received; this is followed by a fuller description of the systems which are particularly interesting, and the report ends with the conclusions which can be deduced from the experiments which have so far been made.

I. LEGISLATION AND ORGANISATION.

Before the war, laws on the treatment of venereal disease or extensive facilities for its prevention and cure were the exception and not the rule. To-day, for several reasons, the position is reversed. First and most important are two

medical discoveries made in the decade before the war. Schaudinn found the cause of syphilis in 1905 and Ehrlich its cure—the arsenical compound known as salvarsan—in 1910. But there are other reasons too : a rise in the number of cases of venereal disease during the war, the general increase in medical services for the community, a growing public interest in all questions of health and illness, and an awakened interest in this problem in particular.

As a result, there are now laws or regulations on the treatment of venereal diseases in nearly all European countries and some of their dependencies, in several Asiatic countries, in the United States of America, the British Dominions, in Egypt and Liberia and in several South-American republics.

GENERAL ORGANISATION.

In every country covered by this report, the State, as part of its health services, makes special arrangements for the treatment of venereal disease. Of course, private practitioners and institutions also give treatment, but, since the cure is expensive both because of its length and because of the medicines used, without State help the cost would often be more than the poorer patients could afford.

There are various ways in which the State fulfils its responsibility. The arrangements may either be entrusted to a Government department, to the local authorities or to private practitioners and institutions. The most common system is for the work to be shared between central and local authorities and for the central authority to act as a supervisory body. This system is followed in about two-thirds of the countries mentioned in this report. Sometimes the organisation is purely local or purely central; the anti-venereal clinic in Brussels is managed and financed entirely by the municipality; in Uruguay, a department for sexual hygiene in the Ministry of Health itself administers all the

hospitals and dispensaries which give treatment for venereal disease.

The State, through the local authorities, co-operates with private practitioners and hospitals in a great many of the English-speaking countries and in parts of British India. In the United Kingdom, the United States of America, Australia and Ireland, physicians receive a subsidy for treating venereal disease free or cheaply. The subsidy may take the form of medicines provided free. In the Union of South Africa, New Zealand and some Indian provinces, hospitals giving treatment receive Government grants. Treatment may also be restricted to qualified doctors. In many of the countries covered by the report, it is an offence for any person but a qualified or registered practitioner to treat venereal disease or to provide the medicines needed.

Usually it is the State alone which makes provision for free or cheap treatment on a large scale, but there are a few exceptions. In two Central-European countries—Czechoslovakia and Hungary—this is also done by insurance institutions under social insurance schemes. In Hungary, the Institute of Social Insurance, to which about 10% of the population belongs, provides venereal clinics for its members. In Czechoslovakia, under a social health insurance scheme organised by communal and humanitarian associations, consultation centres are opened, and people who cannot afford to pay are treated free of cost. The Czechoslovak Red Cross has helped particularly in administering this scheme.

There are three countries where private organisations take a substantial part in the work. In Latvia, the White Cross has organised free treatment in three towns. In Venezuela, the Red Cross has provided a service for the treatment of these diseases and receives a State subsidy. The third country is the Netherlands, where the arrangements are particularly interesting, since, for once, the work

of private organisations is as important as that of the State. In the Netherlands, there are communal policlinics in the large cities where patients can be treated free, but apart from these, the whole work of providing the treatment is in the hands of associations called *Kruis vereenigingen*. These associations have branches in nearly every commune. Their work covers social hygiene in general, but each of the eleven provincial sections has a special committee for venereal disease which sets up consultation centres and clinics. Private practitioners send their patients to these clinics and can ask to have laboratory tests made. The clinics can also arrange to have a patient sent to hospital if necessary. The *Kruis vereenigingen* are subsidised by the State, and the Public Health Department exercises a certain supervision over their work.

FINANCE.

Since, as a rule, the services are State organised, it is naturally public money which pays the expenses. The central Government plays a larger part in financing than in organising. In several countries the whole cost of providing free treatment is carried by the national budget, and in nearly half the reporting countries the expenses are shared by the national and local budgets. In at least four of these, the national budget provides the larger part of the money spent. Only four countries—Norway, Belgium, Japan and the Argentine—state that the main burden falls on the local budget. From the answers of the remaining dozen countries, it does not appear whether the money is drawn from national or local sources.

The system of subsidising private practitioners, hospitals and associations is followed in parts of the United States of America, the British Commonwealth of Nations, the Netherlands and Venezuela.

It is exceptional for the money to be drawn from sources

other than public funds; in Poland, however, the social insurance institutions make a contribution to the State to cover part of the cost of treatment. In France, private organisations provide part of the funds for the anti-venereal campaign.

It is difficult to tell how often the medical services are seriously hampered by lack of funds. Many of the State Health Departments in the United States of America complain that their work is restricted for this reason, chiefly through the Federal Government reducing its grant; ¹ the health authorities of Cuba state that the credits voted in the national budget are not sufficient, particularly for propaganda and the treatment of in-patients.

The amount paid out of public money for venereal disease treatment declined in many countries during the depression. This was partly a measure of economy, but a theory ² is also put forward—supported with statistics of clinics, chiefly in France and Austria—that the incidence of venereal disease increases in times of prosperity and decreases in times of poverty, following with a time lag of a year or two the rise and fall of the production index. The reduced amount spent on treatment during the slump may therefore be also partly explained by a reduced number of patients.

FREE TREATMENT.

Treatment is given free to patients who cannot afford to pay in nearly all the countries covered by the report: there are two exceptions—China and India.³ In China, the bulk

¹ *Journal of Social Hygiene*, Vol. 21, No. 2, February 1935. "Notes on the American Social Hygiene Scene."

² *Wiener Medizinische Wochenschrift*, Vol. 87, No. 4, January 23rd, 1936.

³ To avoid repetition, the word India is used throughout to signify the eleven provinces of British India from which replies were received (Madras, Bombay, Bengal, Assam, Bihar and Orissa, Coorg, Central Provinces, Delhi, North-West Frontier Provinces, Punjab and United Provinces) and Burma.

of the cost is borne by the authorities, but the patient pays a small fee. In two Indian provinces, treatment is sometimes free but there are reservations; in Bengal, treatment is free as far as resources permit; in the Central Provinces, patients have to supply expensive drugs if these are required. In Coorg, treatment is at the patient's expense. In Burma, well-to-do patients are asked to pay the actual cost of medicines.

Of the remaining countries, some give free treatment only to the destitute; in others, treatment is free in all State or State-subsidised institutions. Fourteen countries or dependencies¹ state that only the poor are treated free; it should be remembered, however, that many better-off patients obtain cheap or free treatment through health insurance schemes. Several countries say simply that treatment is free, but fourteen² state expressly that in the public hospitals and institutions treatment is free to all regardless of the patient's ability to pay. Two Scandinavian countries, the Netherlands and five English-speaking countries are included in this group.

In Finland, free treatment is given, as a rule by the State.

SPECIAL POINTS.

Sometimes minors are separated from adults or given different treatment. In Portugal, Finland and Chile, minors are treated separately. The Czechoslovak answer states that this is done as far as possible. In Austria, very young children are kept apart from adults. In Poland, the

¹ The United States of America, Austria, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Greece, Hungary, Latvia, the Netherlands, the Netherlands Indies, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Siam, and Yugoslavia.

² The Union of South Africa, Australia, the United Kingdom, Hong-Kong and Malaya, Canada, Chile, Denmark, Ireland, the Netherlands, Sweden, Turkey, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, and Uruguay.

differentiation is very strict; minors are either treated separately or handed over to reformatories or special institutions where the resident medical officer carries out the treatment. In Australia and Cuba, minors receive a different treatment.

Besides the ordinary clinics and dispensaries, a great many maritime countries have special seamen's clinics. An international agreement respecting facilities to be given to merchant seamen for the treatment of venereal disease was signed in Brussels in 1924. It provides that clinics shall be set up in ports and that seamen of all nationalities shall be treated free. It also tries to standardise treatment as much as possible. Fifty-nine countries or dependent territories are bound by the provisions of this agreement.

COMPULSORY TREATMENT.¹

On the points of legislation and organisation so far described, the differences between country and country have been minor ones. But two points remain to be dealt with, and these are at once the most controversial and the most interesting—compulsion and secrecy.

If the countries covered by the report are divided according to their legislation on compulsory treatment, they fall into three main groups; first, the countries where treatment is compulsory for any person suffering from venereal disease; second, the countries where it is only compulsory for prostitutes; third, the countries where it is not compulsory at all. But in each of the first two groups, the legislation differs a great deal, both in the powers it gives the authorities to insist on examination and treatment and in the penalties for any breach of the law.

¹ For this section, the information supplied by replies to the questionnaire has been supplemented by that contained in *Les Législations anti-vénéériennes dans le monde*, edited by Dr. CAVAILLON, published by l'Union internationale contre le péril vénérien.

Before examining the different kinds of legislation on this subject, it is important to know the causes which make it difficult to enforce treatment for venereal disease and which perhaps partly account for this variety in statutory opinion.

One cause is the nature of the illness itself. Most acute contagious diseases can be diagnosed by simple laboratory tests, and generally one or two tests are sufficient; the patient has to stay in bed and is generally ill enough for the doctor to be called in, and treatment is not normally very long or very expensive.

None of this is true of venereal disease. The laboratory tests required for diagnosis are more complicated; the onset of the disease is not violent and the patient often fails to recognise the symptoms, so that in practice it is considered impossible to penalise anyone for having failed to apply for treatment; complicated and costly laboratory apparatus is needed, and sometimes a series of bacteriological and serological examinations has to be made; treatment is long and expensive. For compulsory treatment to be successful, the State must therefore spend large sums of money on drugs and laboratories. At the same time, a rapid fall in the number of cases is unlikely. The infection is easily spread, both because so many infectious people escape treatment and because even the people who are treated are generally out-patients and are not isolated. The penalties for transmitting infection are often severe, but in practice it is extremely difficult to prove that the illness has been caught from one particular person.

The other cause of the difficulty of enforcing treatment is the social stigma attached to these illnesses in most countries. Any form of compulsion must entail notifying the police or public health authorities, since neither the doctor nor the hospital can force a patient to be treated against his will. But the fact that his case will be notified makes the patient fear that the treatment will not be secret and, in consequence, doctors are often unwilling to notify the names of their

patients and the public unwilling to visit doctors who they think will report them.

These two factors—medical and social—operate to exclude a large proportion of venereal-disease cases from the knowledge and control of the public health authorities, even when the powers granted to them are very wide. Rigorous laws by themselves, therefore, are not enough; only if the public co-operates actively can the authorities really come to grips with their task.

It has been said that the countries covered by the report are divided into three groups by their attitude to compulsory treatment.

1. The first group, consisting of the countries where treatment is compulsory by law for everyone, is the biggest of the three, and as regulated prostitution declines, it continues to recruit new members. It is uncommon for a country to abolish a system of regulation, and the medical control that went with it, without introducing some form of compulsory treatment.

There is of course a good deal of variety in the strictness of the legislation. Under some Acts, it is a punishable offence for anyone suffering from venereal disease not to apply for treatment. As an example of the stricter kind, the following extract will serve; it is taken from the Turkish Act of 1930.¹

“ Any person suffering from any form of syphilis . . . gonorrhoea or soft chancre shall apply for treatment to a doctor authorised to practise in Turkey.

“ Every practitioner shall report in writing at the end of each month to the Director of Health and Public Assistance of the district in which he lives the names and ages of every patient suffering from syphilis, the length of the illness and whether the patient has already

¹ Dr. CAVAILLON, *op. cit.*, page 596.

been treated by another doctor. This information shall be sent to the Ministry of Health and Public Assistance.

“ Directors of Health and Government medical officers shall be entitled to require all persons who are suspected of suffering from venereal disease or who are likely to infect other people to undergo a medical examination and to produce a health certificate. The said persons may be examined by, and produce a certificate from, their private doctor if they so desire.

“ Persons discovered to be suffering from venereal disease and liable to transmit infection may be forced to undergo treatment, and may be quarantined and treated in a hospital, in order to prevent the spread of infection. In this case, compulsory measures may be used.

“ If a person suffering from venereal disease is lost sight of before his treatment is completed, the doctor treating him shall inform the Director of Health and Public Assistance in writing. The Directors of Health are empowered to ascertain whether the said patient is receiving treatment from another doctor or in another official institution and, if necessary, to ask the patient himself for an explanation; they may also arrange for persons to be brought for treatment if they are not already being treated. ”

The other countries whose legal provisions are nearly as severe are the Union of South Africa, Australia, Bulgaria, Chile, Cuba, Curaçao, Czechoslovakia, Estonia, New Zealand and Roumania.¹ Doctors are not generally obliged to report every case by name. Usually, there is a clause stating that only cases in an infectious stage are to be

¹ A decree was issued in Austria in 1918 making it a punishable offence not to apply for treatment, but it has not been put into effect.

reported. In Australia, doctors are obliged to report to the authorities the number of cases in an infectious stage being treated without giving names or addresses. These are only sent later, if the patient breaks off his treatment.

In the Union of South Africa, Cuba and Estonia, the law provides that only persons in an infectious stage who discontinue treatment are to be reported. In Czechoslovakia and Roumania, doctors are only obliged to report cases likely to spread infection.

The penalty for failing to apply for treatment is generally a fine. It is £20 in Australia; in Czechoslovakia, the penalties are a fine of 50 to 10,000 crowns or 30 days' imprisonment.

The Acts in force in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the Scandinavian countries, the United States of America, Canada, Italy, Germany, Liberia and five Swiss cantons¹ have slightly less severe provisions which make treatment obligatory only after the illness has been diagnosed by a doctor; it is not a legal offence to have failed to apply for treatment. The difference is, of course, more apparent than real, since in practice it is hardly possible to prosecute anyone for not suspecting themselves to be suffering from venereal disease. These Acts generally permit the authorities to examine any person they suspect, but sometimes this right is limited. The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics Act of 1927 states :²

“ Any persons who are suspected on good grounds of suffering from venereal disease in an infectious stage and who refuse to submit voluntarily to medical examination may be obliged by the public health authorities to undergo one or several examinations. . . .

“ Only the following categories of persons may be

¹ Vaud, Neuchâtel, Geneva, Saint Gall, Lucerne.

² Dr. CAVAILLON, *op. cit.*, page 601.

submitted to compulsory examination and treatment by the Public Health Service :

“ (a) Persons whose illness has been discovered by the medical authorities;

“ (b) Persons living in conditions rendering them liable to infect their neighbours;

“ (c) Persons working under conditions which in the opinion of the health inspectors render them liable to infect the domestic staff or the persons working with them, etc.”

In Germany,¹ the authorities have the right to oblige any suspected person to produce a health certificate, but only in exceptional circumstances can they insist on the examination being made by a doctor of their choice.

The right of examination is also limited in the Scandinavian countries. In Sweden, the public health authorities are entitled by law to examine only those people who are suffering from venereal disease or who are accused of having infected another person. In Denmark, the police can insist on the examination of any person who breaks the law forbidding prostitution or the incitement to prostitution. In Norway, venereal disease is assimilated to other contagious diseases—that is to say, when a doctor discovers an infectious case, he is required to take the necessary measure to prevent infection being spread.

In all three countries, cases of venereal disease must be notified, but not by name unless there is any reason to fear that the sick person will infect others. In Denmark, cases are reported immediately to a central laboratory and a blood sample is also sent; no local laboratories are allowed to make the necessary tests.² The results of the test are indexed under the patient's initials and date of birth. In

¹ *Deutsches Polizei-Archiv*, Vol. 5, March 10th, 1927, page 71.

² *Journal of Social Hygiene*, Vol. 23, No. 4, April 1937.

Sweden, it is the doctor's duty when he discovers an untreated case of venereal disease to find out from whom and in what circumstances his patient contracted the disease. This information is sent to the public health authorities, together with the notification of the case, to enable them to trace the source of infection. This is also the practice in Denmark,¹ although there is no legal provision making it compulsory.

In Finland, the law empowers the local authorities to take the proper steps to prevent the spread of venereal disease and to supervise especially persons engaged in prostitution. The public health authorities cannot themselves enforce treatment; but they can apply to the police to use forcible measures.

The position in the United States of America cannot be summed up in a word, as the law varies from State to State. In 1918, the Federal Public Health Service drew up a general programme against venereal disease and sent it to the States Governments in the form of suggestions for legislation. Since the Acts in most States are based on this plan, they have a general resemblance to each other, but at the same time the powers they confer on the authorities vary between fairly wide limits. In many States, all cases must be notified and suspected cases can be examined; but in others, the only legal obligation is that treatment once begun must be continued.

In spite of the severe laws in some States, at the Conference on Venereal Disease Control held in Washington in December 1936 the notification of cases of syphilis was said to be incomplete and unsatisfactory throughout the country, and the Conference reached the conclusion that infectious venereal disease patients who lapsed from treatment should be reported by names and addresses. There are about 800 clinics and health centres which give treatment for venereal disease, but the American Social Hygiene

¹ *Journal of Social Hygiene*, Vol. 23, No. 4, April 1937.

Association states that 60% of the persons treated by licensed physicians are treated as private patients and only 40% in hospitals, clinics and institutions. The opinion was expressed at the Conference that doctors were unwilling to co-operate with the authorities partly because they feared that records might not be handled confidentially.

The Act passed last December in the Argentine ¹ makes treatment compulsory in the contagious stage and empowers the public health authorities to detain in hospital any person who fails to undergo regular treatment or who constitutes a danger to the community. It is the doctor's duty to try to ascertain for purely medical purposes the source of infection. There is no provision giving the public health authorities the right to examine suspected persons.

Four countries—Bulgaria, Estonia, Italy and Turkey—stand really midway between the first and second groups, since their legislation combines compulsory treatment for the whole community, with special measures for prostitutes. Under the new Italian Regulations of 1923, doctors are only required to notify cases of venereal disease occurring in a civil or military establishment where people are assembled in fairly large numbers. It is a criminal offence for any person who knows that he suffers from a venereal disease to infect another person, but there is no clause on the compulsory examination of suspects. On the other hand, there are special provisions on the examination and treatment of prostitutes. The medical officers are instructed to supervise licensed houses and to examine the prostitutes who frequent them. Other prostitutes who come regularly to be examined receive a special health card on which the date and result of the examination are entered. Examination is never compulsory in any case, but women living in or habitually frequenting brothels who refuse to be examined are presumed to be ill and are removed to hospital. Any

¹ Law of December 17th, 1936, No. 12331.

case of venereal disease is immediately reported to the public health authorities. The patient is either removed to hospital or may provide for her own treatment if the health authorities permit.

The Estonian regulations make treatment compulsory for everyone suffering from venereal disease; at the same time, registered prostitutes are medically examined at fixed intervals by the medical officers.

Although these are the only "compulsory" countries with legal provision for treating prostitutes differently from the general public, in practice, even in countries without regulated prostitution, this difference is often found, since the authorities have the power to take special measures against persons suspected of spreading infection, and it is on prostitutes that this suspicion usually falls.

In Finland and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, for instance, there are special organisations of women on the look-out for prostitutes in the streets and restaurants or other places where they are known to gather. In Finland, these women's organisations are attached to the police force; in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, they are usually factory workers recruited by the prophylactoria institutes for rehabilitating prostitutes.

The police in Prague keep a fairly complete list of the women practising prostitution in the city by recording the names of all prostitutes taken in police raids. The hotels, bars and night-clubs which they are known to visit are raided fairly often, and any prostitutes found in them are medically examined. In Cologne, the police keep lists of prostitutes filed under names and streets, so that sources of infection can be traced more easily.¹ At Brisbane, prostitutes have to be medically examined every fortnight.²

¹ *The Shield*, Vol. 4, No. 1, June 1935, page 16.

² Information received from the Women's International Organisations.

2. The second group consists of the countries where treatment is only compulsory for prostitutes.¹ The law lays down in most cases that prostitutes must submit to a periodical medical examination, and if found to be suffering from venereal disease, they are detained in hospital till they are no longer infectious. Legislation of this kind is found only in countries with a system of regulated prostitution, but this does not necessarily mean that only registered prostitutes must be examined. There is often a clause giving the public health or police authorities powers of supervision over clandestine prostitutes as well. The following two paragraphs are given as an example from an Order issued in 1927 by the Minister of the Interior in Hungary :

“ The police shall exercise supervision over places where they suspect clandestine prostitution to be carried on. If women with no regular income and suspected on good grounds of engaging in professional clandestine prostitution are brought before the head of the legal police or his representative, they shall submit to a medical examination and, if discovered to be suffering from venereal disease, they shall be treated in a public hospital.²”

“ Any woman who is suspected on good grounds of engaging in clandestine prostitution and who refuses to submit to the required medical examination or who is recalcitrant shall be sent immediately to hospital.”

Sometimes provision is made for the medical examination of any man found by the police with a clandestine prostitute. This is rarely carried out, however, if the man's position is

¹ Legislation of this kind is in force in Belgium, Danzig, Egypt, France, Greece, Guatemala, Hungary, Iraq, Japan, Latvia, Mexico, Poland and Uruguay.

² Dr. CAVAILLON, *op. cit.*, page 421.

such as to convince the authorities that he would himself apply for treatment if he were ill.

Usually, some system is followed by which prostitutes examined by the health authorities or police medical officers are given a card showing the date and result of each examination. In Italy, this card has to be given up if a prostitute is sent to hospital, and it is replaced by a certificate giving her the right to free treatment in certain clinics and hospitals. The original card is only returned when the doctor is satisfied that the cure is complete.

The law generally provides that examination shall take place twice a week; the exceptions are Mexico and Egypt, where the examinations need only be made once a week. Sometimes, in Greece for instance, free (unregistered) prostitutes may be examined by their own doctors if they wish. The medical examination is usually free, but in Latvia there is a small fee which is increased for prostitutes who do not come voluntarily to be examined.

The opponents of the system of regulation have based one of their chief arguments on the assertion that the compulsory examination of prostitutes is quite inefficacious as a sanitary measure, and this for two reasons : the examination is cursory and it is not always accompanied by the necessary laboratory tests; the period of incubation for gonorrhœa may be so short that the prostitute can become infected herself and infect others in the interval between two examinations.

In some European countries during the war, men visiting licensed brothels were also examined. This practice was followed in houses for soldiers and was rarely continued after the war. There are a few instances of its being adopted also in high-class establishments.

As a result of the movement away from regulated prostitution, the countries which discriminate against prostitutes in respect of compulsory treatment are growing fewer from year to year; at least three of them—France, Egypt and

Uruguay—are considering legislation to abolish licensed houses. The Bill which is now before the French Parliament would remove the discrimination against prostitutes and would give the health authorities much wider powers to deal with venereal disease.

Under the new Bill, doctors have the right to notify the health authorities of cases of venereal disease which are liable to spread infection, but they are not obliged to do so. Men or women whom the public health authorities have sound and definite reasons to suspect of spreading infection can be asked to produce a health certificate signed by a doctor chosen by the person himself from a list of doctors approved by the public health authorities. The public health authorities alone have not the right to insist on treatment, but they can prosecute anyone who refuses to supply this certificate or, under Article 334 of the Penal Code, anyone engaging in prostitution. Treatment can then be made compulsory by a decision of the court. There are penalties for failing to complete a course of treatment.

3. The countries in the third group have no laws obliging anybody either to begin or to continue treatment. In all these countries, though, there are facilities for treatment organised or subsidised by the State, and in many of them efforts are made by propaganda and instruction to persuade people to come for treatment.

This is the smallest group consisting of only eight States : the United Kingdom, China, India, the Netherlands, Portugal, Siam, most of Switzerland and Venezuela. Treatment is also voluntary in some of their dependencies : the Netherlands Indies, Hong-Kong and Malaya.

In the Netherlands, although there is no legal obligation to do so, the venereal-disease clinics try to trace the source of infection; a central register is kept containing information on all the cases treated.

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CONFIDENTIAL TREATMENT.

The second interesting point, and one which is bound up with the question of compulsion, is how far treatment is kept private. Doctors have, of course, a general obligation of professional secrecy, but if the patient suffers from venereal disease, he attaches far more than the usual importance to this secrecy. Because of the social prejudice which has been spoken of earlier, fear of exposure may easily prevent people with illnesses of this kind from applying for treatment. This feeling has a precedent in the former anxiety of sufferers from tuberculosis to conceal their illness, a feeling strong enough at one time to deter people from visiting clinics which were known to be exclusively for tubercular patients.

The need for secrecy in treating venereal disease is now generally recognised and the replies from nearly every country state that treatment is confidential.¹ Many laws impose penalties for violation of secrecy by doctors or officials—for example, those in the Union of South Africa, Australia, Canada, Czechoslovakia, Estonia, Germany, Turkey. The Czechoslovak Act of 1922 states that :

“ All those in attendance on a person suffering from venereal disease shall observe secrecy on the nature of the illness and on all accompanying circumstances. Any infringement of this provision shall be punishable under the Penal Code.

“ The same duty binds all persons who are in any way responsible for the enforcement of this Act.”²

Some of the United States of America, Australia, Denmark, Estonia and Norway have all adopted a system intended to give patients a greater guarantee of secrecy. Each case

¹ Treatment is stated to be not always or entirely confidential in Syria, Bengal, the United Provinces and Venezuela.

² Dr. CAVAILLON, *op. cit.*, page 560.

(or each infectious case) is notified in full, except that the name and address are replaced by a number. Only the doctor need know the patient's name if he completes his treatment, but if he breaks it off, the doctor must or may report him to the authorities. In Denmark, the extra precaution is taken of not entering the patient's name and address on the prescription.¹

Perhaps as important as the method of notification is the arrangement of the clinics and special institutions where treatment is given. The tendency at first was to set up clinics exclusively for venereal diseases, but these suffered from the same handicap as the tubercular clinics before them, and it is now becoming more common to find special departments for venereal disease in general hospitals and polyclinics. This system was recommended in the United Kingdom as early as 1916. The circular² issued in that year to the county and county borough councils contains the following sentence :

“ . . . But in all cases it will be important to arrange that the clinics are not specially designated as for venereal diseases and that nothing is done to distinguish the patients who attend for treatment of these diseases.”

The general instructions to the public health authorities in France also recommend that treatment should be given in mixed clinics, so that people shall not be deterred by the fear of being seen entering the building. The report from the Netherlands Society of Moral Public Hygiene states that it is of the utmost importance that venereal clinics should be located as near as possible to other clinics, so that patients

¹ *Journal of Social Hygiene*, Vol. 23, No. 4, April 1937.

² Circular issued by the Local Government Board on July 13th, 1916, to councils of counties and county boroughs.

may visit them without arousing suspicion. The seven clinics in Copenhagen are situated just off the main street in blocks of offices.

The question of confidential treatment is one of the chief battle-grounds of the supporters and adversaries of compulsory treatment. If there is compulsion, then there must be some system of notification, and the opponents of compulsion assert that this lessens confidence in the secrecy of the treatment and deters people from coming voluntarily to be examined. This is, of course, a serious charge, since venereal disease is so difficult to detect that, even in countries with compulsory treatment, a vast amount of the disease must remain hidden unless people come to be treated of their own accord. A fact sometimes quoted in support of this assertion is the number of wrong names and addresses notified. In New South Wales, for instance, out of 1,472 cases reported to the health authorities in 1936 for having failed to continue treatment, 45% were found to have given wrong names and addresses.¹ But not all "compulsory" countries have had this experience. In Denmark, where the percentage of patients who complete their treatment voluntarily is high, only 2% of the delinquent patients are said to be untraceable.² Nevertheless, the opponents of compulsion believe that, provided there are sufficient facilities for free treatment and that these are well advertised, a greater proportion of infected people will be reached in countries with a voluntary, rather than with a compulsory, system.

The supporters of compulsion, on the other hand, point to the immense waste of time and money involved in treatments being begun and not completed, which can always happen in countries without legal provision for the use of compulsion. They do not deny that secrecy is important,

¹ *The Shield*, Vol. 5, No. 2, July 1937, page 55.

² *Journal of Social Hygiene*, Vol. 23, No. 4, April 1937.

since even under a compulsory system force is only resorted to in exceptional cases; the great majority of the patients begin and complete their treatment voluntarily, and therefore no system can be successful that alienates the confidence of the general public. Nevertheless, they believe it possible to guarantee secrecy to the normal patient and at the same time to retain the power to enforce treatment in exceptional cases, and they do not see how any serious attack is to be made on these diseases unless dangerous cases can be isolated.

At present, one of the obstacles to applying the system of notification completely in many countries is the opposition of the medical profession. It has been noted in the paragraph on the United States of America, and there is no doubt that it is also present in other countries, particularly in those where personal liberty is tenaciously guarded.

II. EXTENT TO WHICH FACILITIES ARE USED BY PROSTITUTES.

The difficulty of distinguishing between the professional prostitute and the promiscuous woman who occasionally or regularly supplements her income in this way makes it extremely difficult to discover exactly how much the facilities for the cure of venereal disease are used by prostitutes. Even in countries where prostitution is regulated, the major proportion of prostitutes do not undergo the routine examination, and the number examined cannot therefore be regarded as an indication of the extent to which all prostitutes are treated. The following statement is therefore a general appreciation rather than an appraisal based on statistical facts.

To take first countries without regulated prostitution; most of these, whether they have voluntary or compulsory treatment, do not consider themselves in a position to state to what extent the facilities for the treatment of venereal disease are used by prostitutes, as they make no distinction between prostitutes and other persons receiving treatment.

The answer from the New Zealand Government may be taken as typical; it states that, as prostitution is clandestine, there is no means of differentiating between prostitutes and other women attending clinics.

A few countries, however, consider it possible to give information on this point. The answers from Norway, two Indian Provinces (Assam and Delhi) and Burma state that very few prostitutes come voluntarily to public clinics for treatment. This is also true of Scotland, apart from Edinburgh and Glasgow. The report from the United Kingdom, on the other hand, states that "from such general information as is available, it would appear that, in the larger towns, women who are prostitutes make use of the treatment centres to a good extent". In the Punjab, Madras and Bengal, prostitutes attend venereal-disease hospitals in fairly large numbers. In Bombay, comparatively few availed themselves of facilities for treatment in the past, but they are now coming in larger numbers. The University Dermatological Clinic in Zurich states that, of the 350 odd cases of venereal disease treated annually as in-patients, 70% to 75% are prostitutes, and of the out-patient cases, 70% are prostitutes. The reports from other Swiss clinics show a much lower percentage.

In the countries with regulation, the position is rather different, as they all have organised a compulsory medical inspection for registered prostitutes which is generally made twice, sometimes once, a week. Prostitutes found to be infected are usually sent to hospital, many of them to special hospitals. Treatment is generally free, but sometimes it is free only to indigent prostitutes, and sometimes it is the keepers of the licensed house or of the establishment where the girl is working who have to pay the cost.

Usually, some attempt is made in the regulationist countries to supervise clandestine prostitution as well. In some countries, raids are carried out systematically, as has been already mentioned, partly to safeguard public health, partly

also to deter women who are on the way to becoming prostitutes. After two or three arrests in the course of raids, they would be registered as prostitutes, which they usually wish to avoid. The system of raiding or other police measures to control prostitution is also sometimes practised in countries with no regulation.

The question whether many clandestine prostitutes in regulationist countries come for treatment of their own accord has received conflicting answers. The French reply states that prostitutes frequently have recourse to the general clinics, which they prefer to the services organised exclusively for them. Austria also states that in many cases prostitutes submit to medical treatment even when not compelled to do so, "because at present the whole population realises the seriousness of venereal disease". There are similar answers from Belgium, Poland, Siam, Latvia and Uruguay. In Czechoslovakia, on the other hand, it is generally necessary to resort to legal penalties.

As a whole, then, the answers to the questionnaire on this point do not present a homogeneous picture. Some countries do not find it possible to estimate how many prostitutes come for treatment, and the answers which have been received from the others are conflicting, even from clinics in the same country. An important point is raised in the report from Switzerland, which states that prostitutes are less inclined to visit public dispensaries than private doctors. This is doubtless true of a great many countries. A large class of prostitutes whose incomes are above a certain level escapes much supervision and control. These better-off prostitutes with a regular clientele are known to make arrangements with private doctors to be examined at more or less fixed intervals. In countries with regulated prostitution, the preference for treatment by private doctors might be due, as one report put it, "to a vague fear of the law"—*i.e.*, to the fear that treatment at a clinic might lead to being denounced to the police and consequently registered.

III. SOCIAL SERVICES.

GENERAL SUMMARY.

The part of this report which described the organisation of medical treatment showed that, although there is divergence of opinion on some points, the necessity of sufficient cheap treatment is so unanimously admitted that in every country covered by the report the duty of providing it has been assumed by the public authorities. There is not by any means the same wide recognition of the need for social help; both in the quantity and the nature of the social services accompanying treatment, the contrasts between the reporting countries are striking.

Twenty-two countries,¹ nearly half the total number, have replied that there are no such services or that no information can be given. In British India, there are no social services in ten of the eleven reporting provinces, nor in Burma. The answer from Hong-Kong and Malaya states that there was such a service in the past, but that it was abandoned after two years' trial, "because of the great difficulty experienced". In a further six countries² and in one Indian province,³ the clinics and hospitals supervise and follow up cases entirely for medical purposes. In the Brussels dispensary, attempts at rehabilitation have been made, but "advice was consistently rejected". Two replies—from Belgium and Portugal—state that the medical results are good.

In the United States of America, the social services provided are used chiefly for medical ends. The reply

¹ The Union of South Africa, Australia, Cuba, Egypt, Finland, Hong-Kong and Malaya, Greece, Guatemala, Iraq, Ireland, Italy, Liberia, Mexico, Norway, the Netherlands Indies, Roumania, Siam, Sweden, Turkey, Venezuela, and Yugoslavia.

² Belgium, Canada, Chile, China, Portugal, and Uruguay.

³ Bombay.

transmitted by the Department of Labor states that clinics, hospitals and health centres vary greatly in their social services and after-care, but that even the best of them concentrate on improving the health of the patient and protecting the health of the public. "They make little or no direct effort to improve the patients' morals or to provide vocational training."

The remaining answers all give examples of social services of some kind but varying considerably in their nature and organisation. Sometimes they are accessory to treatment in a hospital or clinic, and are given either by special members of the staff or by outside workers who have made an arrangement with the hospital for this purpose. Many hospitals in the United Kingdom employ assistants called almoners, who interview patients and put them in touch with social institutions who could help them. A similar method is followed by Swiss clinics at Zurich and Lausanne. The Hungarian reply states that the staff of the clinics concerns itself with the material and moral welfare of the patients.

Training in work is also given in some hospitals,¹ partly to keep in-patients occupied, as many of them do not have to stay in bed. This method has been developed particularly in Estonia, where at one time there were two workshops attached to hospitals in Tallinn and Tartus (see page 56). At the special hospital for venereal disease at Klosterneuburg, in Austria, the patients also receive some professional training, but as a general rule this hospital accepts only minors and women who are not, strictly speaking, prostitutes.

The outstanding example of an independent organisation working in co-operation with a hospital is the system followed in France under which assistants employed by the *Service social à l'hôpital* are attached to the staffs of hospitals

¹ In the United Kingdom, Estonia and France.

and clinics. Analogous systems are followed in Poland and Czechoslovakia. The Polish reply states that social welfare workers and representatives of social organisations are allowed to co-operate when treatment is given; in Czechoslovakia, social institutions provide workers to help patients and indigent prostitutes undergoing treatment. Social workers are also attached to the clinics run by the Anti-Venereal Disease Association. Their work consists of visiting the patient at home and giving information about social institutions which might prove helpful. Four countries—the United Kingdom, Danzig,¹ Denmark and Hungary—state that patients in the hospital wards are visited by voluntary social and religious associations. In Danzig, this work is also done by qualified visiting sisters of the city. In the hospitals for venereal disease controlled by the London County Council, lessons on general subjects are given by outside teachers.

Because of the length of the treatment and the number of out-patients, one of the forms which social service can most usefully take is the provision of good and cheap accommodation. Five countries mention that this has been done—Austria, the United Kingdom, Bulgaria, Latvia, and the Netherlands.² In London, hostels are attached to some of the big public hospitals to take in girls and women suffering from venereal disease (see page 39). In some of these hostels, prostitutes are excluded, but this rule does not seem to be always rigorously applied. In Vienna, the Federal Police Directorate maintains a home which provides food and lodging free of charge to prostitutes who have left hospital, and there are also homes for girls and women kept by the municipality and private relief institutions. The report states that, “ in view of the unfavourable

¹ Information received from the International Bureau for the Suppression of Traffic in Women and Children.

² Information received from the Women's International Organisations.

economic conditions, the results obtained in the matter of rehabilitation may be regarded as satisfactory”.

In Latvia, the White Cross organisation has founded a home for prostitutes where indispensable medical treatment is given, and the Bulgarian Government stated in 1937 that a home would shortly be reopened where vocational training and education would be given to young prostitutes during treatment.

All the social services so far described have been grouped round the hospital. In the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, on the other hand, social and medical care are given simultaneously in special institutes (see page 49).

In the United States of America, the United Kingdom and France, some prisons and correctional institutions give treatment for venereal diseases. This system takes on a particular importance in the United States, as in many parts of the country prostitution is legally an offence and women can be brought before the courts on this charge and sent to prison or an institution. The report from the Department of Labor describes the House of Detention for women in New York, which is one of the larger gaols with an average of about 500 inmates. The hospital occupies one floor of a modern twelve-storey building, and is equipped for surgical work for the treatment of venereal diseases. “The top floor of the building is given over entirely to space for recreational activities. Here are located an outdoor tennis court, basketball court, and space for shuffleboard, and a large indoor recreation room in which there are a piano and tables for use in playing table games. The staff of the institution includes persons to organise and direct the recreational programme for the women. There is a large power sewing-machine shop in which industrial work is done, making clothing for inmates in this institution and in other correctional institutions in New York City. In the performance of maintenance work, there is opportunity for training in cooking and other phases of domestic service.

Classroom work in academic subjects is provided, and the services of a psychiatrist and psychologist are available for the mental hygiene programme.”

This brief review has shown how social services are distributed throughout the reporting countries, but it has not described in any detail the services themselves. They fall into two groups: those which provide assistance to each patient at home or at hospital through a social worker and those under which this assistance is given in an institution. Some outstanding and interesting experiments along these two lines will now be described more fully.¹

INDIVIDUAL SOCIAL ASSISTANCE.

1. *The United Kingdom.*

There are no institutions in the United Kingdom whose sole work is to rehabilitate adult prostitutes. But there are several ways in which the medical help given by hospitals and clinics is supplemented by social assistance and advice. This assistance is offered to all patients, but since the prostitutes who are being treated also benefit by it, the system is described here. Whenever it is possible to say how much use prostitutes make of these services, this has been done.

Three kinds of social services are provided for women suffering from venereal disease. The first is the Almoners' Department attached to many of the big voluntary hospitals. The post of almoner was created early in this century to safeguard the hospital's economic interests. The almoner's duty was to assess how much each patient could afford to

¹ In the following section, the information on social services supplied by the questionnaire has been supplemented in respect of the United Kingdom, France and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics by notes made by members of the Social Questions Section of the League Secretariat who visited these countries between 1935 and 1937.

pay. From this beginning, the almoner's work gradually developed into giving social assistance to any of the hospital patients who stand in need of it and into deciding which patients shall be treated free of charge. The other social services provided are the hostels attached to hospitals and the training given in the hospital itself during the course of treatment.

Before passing on to a description of these three services, it should be mentioned that an important change has recently been made in the system of treating venereal disease in London. The London County Council now administers a single scheme for providing treatment; since 1930, it has taken over work previously done by three different bodies : the Poor Law infirmaries, the borough and county councils and the voluntary hospitals. The London County Council has at present four hospitals—three general and one special—which give treatment to women with venereal disease. These four units have ninety beds between them.

(a) *The Almoner*.—In the big public hospitals, there are special almoners for the venereal-disease departments who are well placed for helping prostitutes and for preventing women from going on the streets. The following extract shows the attitude and work of a lady almoner attached to a venereal-disease department in a large general hospital in London.

“ The aim of the almoner working in a venereal-disease clinic is to establish friendly relations with the patient at the earliest moment. This may be achieved at the first visit, or it may be only after several visits that the patient will sufficiently overcome her pride and reticence to tell her story. The social stigma attached to these diseases makes it impossible for the patient to discuss her difficulties with friends or relations, and the secrecy ensured in the clinics gives a

feeling of complete confidence. Frequently, the patient does not realise that she needs help, but in the confidences reposed in the almoner the need for social as well as medical help is often obvious, and suggestions can be made easily and are frequently accepted, the patient realising that when put in touch with social agencies no breach of confidence will be made.

“To meet the needs of these patients satisfactorily, it is often necessary to ask for the co-operation of many social agencies (always maintaining secrecy regarding the diagnosis), moral welfare workers, clubs of all types, educational facilities and homes and hostels. Possibly the medical hostels for the treatment and care of girls suffering from venereal disease enter most largely into the question of rehabilitation. The need for maintaining the confidential nature of the work renders the building-up of social services far more difficult. No girl can be referred by the almoner to an outside social organisation or to the care of an outside social worker without her express consent. It is interesting to note, however, that the tactful almoner finds very little difficulty in obtaining such consent when she can offer to the patient acceptable social assistance.”

This account shows that the almoner's social work is not so much to give practical help to the women themselves as to act as the link between them and the social and charitable institutions which might be useful to them. From the medical point of view her work is important, since she exerts her influence to persuade the patient to continue treatment and to discover the source of the infection.

The success of the almoner's work has induced many of the local treatment centres to arrange for social work to be done by their senior nurse. Some of the local authorities in England and Scotland have on their permanent staff a visiting nurse who is fully trained in the diagnosis and

treatment of venereal disease and who appreciates the importance of discretion. This nurse follows up defaulting cases and keeps in touch with social agencies who could give help.

(b) *Hostels*.—There are seven hostels attached to the public hospitals in London where women recommended by the treatment centres are given free or cheap board and lodging. Voluntary committees set up these hostels and administer them. They have a double purpose: firstly, a medical one, to isolate cases which might spread infection and to shorten the illness by daily treatment, rest and good food; secondly, a social one, to give some general education and training in work, to help the women to find employment when they leave, and to keep in touch with them later if they wish it. The hostels are financed partly by the local authorities, partly by voluntary contributions.

On the whole, it is the young girls and the most hopeful cases for rehabilitation which are sent to the hostels. Efforts are made to persuade the more recalcitrant to accept in-patient treatment in a hospital. Not many adult prostitutes seem to find their way into the hostels; some, in fact, do not usually accept prostitutes, although the practice varies. One report, speaking of conditions of admission, states that "there are no rules regarding previous mode of life, age, religion or social position. The present attitude of mind is the deciding factor." Another report by a hostel committee says: "The greater number of those admitted are wage-earners who are for the time being unfitted to earn their living. They would not willingly enter a larger institution nor are they so ill as to need a bed in hospital. Conditions often make it impossible for the girl to stay at home, though the parents willingly contribute towards her expenses in a hostel. Whatever the circumstances, these girls all need help to start them on the road to recovery."

The time spent in the hostels is occupied partly by medical treatment, partly by classes on general subjects,

partly by housework; the women do all the cooking, laundry, sewing and cleaning. The standard of life in the hostels is high compared to institutions of the same kind in other countries. Persons in charge of rehabilitation institutions in other countries have sometimes expressed the opinion that too much comfort is dangerous, since when the girl leaves the hostel she finds it hard to adapt herself again to worse conditions. The English experts do not share this view. The opinion of the matron in one London hostel was that the treatment of servants in the average middle-class family in England was good enough to justify the standard of life in the hostel. She also believed that the atmosphere in the hostel helped to make social adjustment easier.

The rules are fairly liberal and the girls are not cut off from the outside world. They are allowed to receive visitors and go for walks or to the cinema.

The hostel management tries to find work for the women when they leave or else offers them training for work which they prefer to their previous occupation. Most of them go into domestic service. It also keeps in touch with them afterwards and they are welcomed to the hostel in their free time. Many make use of this opportunity, but a few, although they realise and are extremely grateful for the help they have received, prefer to break the connection and take up life once more in an entirely new environment.

(c) *Training in Hospitals.*—It has been mentioned that, as a rule, the more hopeful cases are recommended to the hostels. If the voluntary hospitals or rescue workers come into contact with women suffering from venereal disease whom they believe to be professional prostitutes, they try to persuade them to accept in-patient treatment at a hospital. In London, the women are offered a bed at one of the London County Council hospitals with special units for venereal disease.

Besides women sent by voluntary hospitals and rescue workers, these London County Council hospitals contain girls on probation sent from remand homes and pregnant women sent for confinement by venereal-disease hospitals or their out-patients' department. The majority are either prostitutes or domestic servants on the borders of prostitution. The women are kept, if possible, until they are completely cured—that is to say, long after the time when they could safely be discharged and treated in the out-patients' department. This is directly opposed to the system followed in France, where the local authorities are advised by the Minister of Health to keep prostitutes in hospital only as long as they are infectious and then to transfer them immediately to the out-patients' department. The reason given for the London County Council's methods is that women who are willing to remain as in-patients in the wards will not come back regularly for treatment once they have left. The Council therefore prefers to incur the extra expense of keeping them at the hospital. The patients stay, of course, only as long as they wish, but they show no desire to leave before their treatment is over, provided they are kept occupied and interested.

The amount of social care given to the patients varies from hospital to hospital. There are no social assistants working in these wards and at present the training of nurses in the United Kingdom does not generally include the theory or practice of social welfare work. Some of the nurses discover for themselves the best way of handling their patients and help to train them by giving them small household tasks and small responsibilities in the ward.

Besides any training in work given by the hospital staff, the London County Council also arranges for classes to be held in the wards by outside teachers. Reading, writing, arithmetic, religion, English, sewing and knitting are taught for two hours each week. The teachers have no special social training, but much experience of the women in these

special wards, and they have no difficulty in handling their pupils. A report made in 1936 stated that these classes had only been held for the last year or so. Their success is shown by this comment by a London County Council official :

“ The improvement in the conduct, discipline and outlook of the women has exceeded all expectations. From being idle and quarrelsome, they have become industrious, with few exceptions amenable and anxious to learn how to make garments for themselves and their infants.”

Any women who were not sent by rescue workers are put in touch by the hospital with social or religious workers who will visit them during their stay and help them to find work or training when they leave. The hospitals do not undertake any social after-care themselves, although they keep in contact with their patients as long as they need to continue treatment.

2. *France.*

The Service social à l'hôpital.—In more than thirty hospitals and clinics in France which treat venereal disease, the patients are given help and advice by a section of the *Service social à l'hôpital*, whose workers, as its name suggests, are attached to hospitals as social assistants. The *Service social* does not only deal with venereal disease; it has six different sections. A brief description will be given of its aims and of its general organisation in Paris; this will be followed by a more detailed account of the anti-syphilitic section, which more than any other undertakes the work of rehabilitating prostitutes.

The *Service social* is a highly developed and well-established organisation with over twenty years' experience behind it. The first experiments, inspired by an American example,

were made in Paris in 1914. The work was taken up again after the war, and in 1921 an Association was founded for its support. At that time the *Service social* employed twenty-three assistants working in thirteen hospital units. The appearance of the *Service* was greeted by the medical profession with some mistrust, but this did not persist. At present, the social assistant's value is so widely appreciated that the demand exceeds the supply. At the beginning, voluntary subscriptions provided the whole of the *Service's* resources. They still provide a part, but since 1933 the financial position has been made more secure by a State grant which varies according to the number of hospitals covered by the *Service*. The *Service* has therefore been recognised by the *Assistance publique* and indeed collaborates with it, but it is still an autonomous organisation which draws up its plan of work in complete independence.

In 1935, the *Service's* budget amounted to 2,200,000 francs and it employed roughly 150 assistants. The main part of its work is still connected with hospitals—there are about 120 hospital services—but its outside activity is increasing every year. Social assistants belonging to the *Service social à l'hôpital* are now attached to police headquarters in Paris, and others are employed by housing societies, workmen's compensation funds, schools and child welfare services.

The six sections of the work are : children, maternity, tuberculosis, general medicine, surgery, dermato-syphilography. These sections work independently of one another and each is presided over by a committee which directs its work and manages its finances. The general aim of all the workers is the same; it is to overcome every moral, social and economic obstacle, to remove every anxiety about relations or work which impede a proper execution of the doctor's instructions. They realise that in the great majority of cases sick people will derive no lasting benefit from a consultation or a stay in hospital unless a change is made in the hygiene of their home, their working conditions, their food

and often also in their thoughts and feelings, and so they try to bring about this change by explanations to the patient and his family and, if necessary, by helping them to re-organise their way of life.

The social assistants are recruited from the nurses' training colleges, which are authorised to grant State diplomas. Often they have also attended a social service college, but this is not considered so indispensable as the training in nursing.¹ This is not the system of training adopted in every country—in the United States of America, social workers are generally graduates in social science—but the organisers of the *Service social* attach great importance to their method, as the following extract from one of their pamphlets shows :

“ We think that the assistant attached to the *Service social à l'hôpital* is only qualified for her task when she has been trained in public health nursing or hospital nursing. Not that she is called upon to give medical attention; this is not her rôle; but this kind of training is essential if she is to understand or to gauge the social aspect of the illness, to know hospital life from inside and to collaborate with the doctor in an understanding way. Of course, there may be exceptions; excellent assistants have come from the social service schools and during a prolonged auxiliary stage have acquired sufficient hospital experience, but the general rule is good, it is founded on common sense and proved by experience and we will keep to it.”²

¹ A plan is at present being considered, under which general nurses and assistants in the *Service social* would be taught the same groundwork. Every person employed in social work would then be required to possess the diploma of an assistant in the *Service social*.

² “ *Le Service social à l'hôpital*, ” edited by Dr. LOUSTE (*L'Hygiène sociale*, No. 98, May 10th, 1933).

This, then, is the general organisation of which the section for venereal disease forms a part. The special work done in this section is described by a circular of the Ministry of Health issued in 1929 on the rôle of social assistants in the campaign against venereal disease and summarised with a few alterations in a pamphlet issued by the *Service social*. The work is treated under five headings :

- (1) Instructing the patient in the nature of the illness;
- (2) Ensuring regular and continuous treatment;
- (3) Tracing the source of infection;
- (4) Tracing any persons who have been infected;
- (5) Giving social help and advice.

The assistant sees the patient immediately after the doctor's diagnosis. It is most important that she should have the opportunity of talking to the patient privately, and during this first conversation it is her duty to explain the nature of the illness and the risks to which the patient may expose other people and particularly his family. She must also reassure him on his chances of recovery, but stress the importance of continuing treatment until the cure is complete and not merely until infectious symptoms have disappeared.

At this and later meetings, the assistant tries to gain the patient's confidence and to encourage him to describe his home and work and explain the history of his illness. She also discovers how she can communicate with him—whether by letter to his home or office or by a visit—so that she can get in touch with any patient who fails to appear for treatment. If this occurs, it is impressed on her that she must use great discretion and take no action which might arouse the suspicions of the patient's family and fellow-workers. Several illustrations are given. The assistant is advised to use writing-paper with no heading and to draft her letter in general terms; for instance, she might ask the patient to call at the consulting-rooms at a certain time or even simply to

call at the office to give some information of a personal nature. Should any other person keep the appointment, she should simply say that they needed information about one of his or her friends. She should not visit the patient's home unless he consents and then only with the doctor's approval.

The assistant is asked to make a particular effort to discover the source of infection and to persuade the patient to bring his companion to be treated. If the name is known but the person in question refuses to come, the matter is left in the doctor's hands. The patient is also urged, especially if he is married, to agree to the examination of the people whom he may have infected.

Most of the work of rehabilitation done by the social assistants is included under the last heading : social help. In the circular of the Ministry of Health, this part of the work is defined as the continuance of medical supervision to prevent a recurrence of the illness and the utilising of every means to assist the patient and his family, especially putting them into touch with the competent social services. A paragraph is devoted to the assistant's work with prostitutes; her duties are recognised to extend to all prostitutes whom she may encounter, but she is advised to concentrate her energies on minors and women who have lately taken up the profession.

In practice, the social assistant comes into contact with prostitutes both at hospitals and clinics and at the Prefecture of Police. Women whom the police have arrested for living on prostitution are brought to the prefecture and undergo a medical examination with blood tests. Those found to be infected are sent to special hospitals for compulsory treatment, and any who have been arrested three times are registered as prostitutes. The social assistants attached to this police health inspection concern themselves both with the women who are quarantined and—even more—with those who are found to be uninfected, and are dismissed.

The police raise no difficulties; on the contrary, they accept this intervention willingly and help to facilitate the social assistant's work.

The social assistant has no fixed method of rehabilitation. The advantage of a system which leaves so much to individual enterprise is of course that it can be infinitely adapted to suit the patients instead of the patients being required to adapt themselves to a system. Still there are indications of the course the social assistant usually follows. She does not often make a direct attempt to induce the registered prostitute to change her profession, but there is no doubt that the medical and economic help she is able to give have indirectly a reforming influence. With minors, prostitutes who wish to alter their life or other cases which seem hopeful, her first step is to acquaint herself fully with the woman's history and circumstances. Instead of promising help immediately, she then makes some small test of the woman's sincerity, as, for instance, asking her to come back in a few days' time. Once convinced of the genuineness of the woman's desire to reform, she takes whatever course of action seems most hopeful. She may try to reconcile the woman with her family or to convert an irregular relationship into a marriage; she may send her to a home or a rehabilitation institution, or put her in touch with employment agencies; finally, she may herself undertake to find her work. If she follows the last course, she sometimes takes the risk of vouching for the woman's good character to her future employer.

The social assistant plays in many ways the same part as a lady almoner in a hospital in the United Kingdom; both act as a link between their patients and the work or social help they need. But whereas the almoner was originally employed to safeguard the hospital's economic interests and the social side of her work only developed later, the

Service social was organised from the first for the social purpose which it now fulfils. It is therefore not surprising to find that their rôles, though similar, are not identical. In France, the mediation of the social agency is more often dispensed with, and the assistant herself puts in many cases her patients directly in touch with an employer. This may be partly due to differences in the organisation of social work in the two countries; in France, a greater charge is undertaken by the State, and this probably restricts the activity of voluntary organisations.

It is of great importance for the social assistant's work that suitable free accommodation should be available for former prostitutes while they are looking for employment. Generally speaking, this is lacking in France. The social assistant herself is given a small amount of money for social work, but not enough to meet every demand. Consequently, there is a real danger that women will be forced to return to prostitution as an alternative to starvation before there has been time for the efforts of the assistant to lead to any result.

There are no figures to show the level of success reached by the social assistants. The French answer to the questionnaire gives an idea of the extent of their work by stating that in 1934 the *Service social* was instrumental in the treatment and rehabilitation of 2,673 registered and clandestine prostitutes. The general opinion seems to be that once a woman has definitely taken up a life of prostitution it is most difficult to effect a change, but there is a more optimistic estimate of the chances of success with young girls and women who have not been long on the streets.

INSTITUTIONAL TREATMENT.

I. *The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.*

In a circular issued in December 1922, the People's Commissar for Public Health declared: "In a workers' State, there is no place for prostitutes". The Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics has therefore set itself the task of suppressing prostitution, and it has undertaken the rehabilitation of prostitutes as one of the means to this end. It is a peculiarity of the system followed in the U.S.S.R. that rehabilitation is always combined with treatment for venereal disease. There is no attempt to reform prostitutes unless they are proved to have venereal disease, and it is exceptional for them to receive medical treatment alone. Special institutes have been set up under the control of the People's Commissariat for Public Health to give this combined medical and psychological treatment. These institutes, or prophylactoria as they are called, have three objects: to cure venereal disease, to educate prostitutes, to train them to work and to enable them to earn their living.

The forerunners of the prophylactoria were the workshops¹ (Artells) for unemployed women set up by the venereal-disease clinics after the issue of the 1922 circular. This experiment was not altogether successful. The women had generally no professional qualifications and it was hard also to sell the goods produced. The experience gained led, however, to the creation of the labour prophylactoria. At first, many women who were not prostitutes visited these institutes daily for training or employment in the workshops, but as unemployment fell their numbers decreased. The percentage of prostitutes in the Moscow prophylactorium increased from 26.9% in 1924 to 62% in 1934.

¹ Information received from the Jewish Association for the Protection of Girls, Women and Children.

An official report from the U.S.S.R. in 1936 stated that there were eighteen institutes of this kind—one in Moscow and seventeen in the rest of the country. The People's Commissar for Public Health is in charge of their general policy. On administrative matters, the decision rests with the management or with the "soviet" (council). This council consists of members of the local soviet and of the local health services (mostly factory workers), representatives of past and present pupils, and representatives of the prophylactorium staff, doctors, management, social workers, etc. The council attached to the big Moscow prophylactorium contains thirty-five members and meets every ten days. It makes suggestions on the work of the institute and receives the report of the management on the different branches of activity, production, finance, education, medicine. When breaches of discipline occur, the offenders come before the council.

The credits for the foundation and upkeep of the prophylactoria are supplied by the social insurance and public health organisations. The expenditure is heavy at the beginning: later, expenses are stated to be partly offset by the sale of goods produced in the workshop. The prophylactoria are also helped by Government concessions: they buy their new materials cheaply, pay no tax on the output of their workshops and usually pay no rent for their buildings.

The report states that the prophylactoria are free institutions which no one can be compelled to enter. Prostitutes find their way to them by various paths; generally, it is through the clinic which discovers their illness and which offers them the choice between treatment in a hospital or in a prophylactorium; sometimes, they come of their own accord; some are brought by brigades of rescue workers organised by the prophylactorium itself, which keep a watch on stations, streets and restaurants. Often, these rescue workers enlist the help of former prostitutes.

The length of the treatment varies from one to two years; the average stay is eighteen months (the period which most social workers consider the indispensable minimum). The days are divided between treatment, study, manual work and leisure.

Medical treatment is given in the morning. Like hospitals, these institutions have special rooms for venereal-disease treatment and are visited by doctors who apply the treatment.

Three or four hours each day are spent at lessons. Those who are illiterate or nearly so should have reached before they leave the level of children who have finished their third year at school. Those who came with knowledge equivalent to the third or fourth class in a primary school should have reached the level of the fifth or sixth before they leave. For girls under 17, there is a special primary school which they attend every day. No woman is sent to a factory or to other work without a certain minimum of general and political knowledge. Besides their ordinary classes, the women may also choose to be taught special subjects—art, music, acting, physical training. The high level of the musical training has been remarked by visitors.

The largest part of the day—about 6½ hours—is spent in the workshops. The U.S.S.R. authorities in their account of the prophylactoria state “the pupils in the prophylactoria become workers”, and this part of the rehabilitation treatment—acquiring the habit of working and the love of work—is considered the most important. The work has also a medical purpose. As a result of comparing cases in hospitals and in the prophylactoria, the Soviet experts believe that to keep the women employed favours their chances of recovery.

Simple processes are taught: machine-knitting, box-making, dyeing, and, as a rule, there is no attempt at specialised training. It may be given though to women who show aptitude for a particular subject. Most of the

girls prefer, when they leave, to go into factories as unskilled workers and to specialise later. The women are paid for their work at piece-work rates. Part of what they earn is deducted by the institute for board and lodging; the remainder, said to be on an average about 50 roubles a month, is theirs to use as they like.

Most of the prophylactoria give only industrial training, but as an experiment a little agricultural colony has been set up on 100 hectares about 20 kilometres outside Moscow. The greater part of the land was uncultivated before. The farm grows a great deal of fruit and keeps cows, horses, pigs and poultry. It is also equipped with agricultural machinery, so that some of the women who have handled tractors on the farm leave the institute as skilled workers. This colony has only been in existence since 1935, but at the time the report was written in 1936 its record was already encouraging. None of the girls had asked to leave, and many of the most troublesome inmates in the industrial prophylactorium had taken to farm work with enthusiasm. The agricultural colony is chiefly suited, of course, to women who were brought up in the country, and when they leave they are sent to the big collective farms.

Treatment, study and manual work thus fill up most of the day. This is the time-table of the Moscow prophylactorium :

- Breakfast, between 6 and 7 a.m.;
- Medical treatment and study, 8 a.m. to 1 p.m.;
- Lunch, 1 to 2 p.m.;
- Work in the apprentices' workshops and in the factory, 2.30 to 10 p.m.;
- Interval for dinner, 5 to 6 p.m.;
- Tea, 10 p.m.;
- Bed, 11 p.m.

There is, however, a spare hour or so each day and every sixth day is a holiday. While the infection lasts, the

women are supervised, but once it is over, they can use their leisure as they please. It is interesting to learn that they are not separated from their friends and relations or the outside world, whereas in most rehabilitation institutions outside the U.S.S.R., prostitutes are cut off as completely as possible from the outside world.

This liberal attitude towards free time is one facet of a general absence of compulsion. No one can be compelled to enter one of these institutes or to remain in one when she is no longer infectious. Generally, the council fixes the punishment for any breach of the rules. The punishments are not heavy, but owing to the fact that the girls have a feeling of loyalty to the institute a simple reproof is deeply felt. A recent visitor was struck by the obvious distress of a girl in the agricultural institute who had been orally reprimanded for avoiding work. At the Kiev institute, punishment is inflicted by a decision of the whole body of inmates.

Once the period of treatment is at an end, the women are helped by the institute to find suitable work. The social workers attached to the prophylactorium keep in touch with each girl until they are sure she has settled down to a working life.¹

The files of the labour prophylactoria aim at giving complete information on the subsequent life of their patients. The records of the Moscow institute show that, of the 3,810 people treated there in eleven years, 56% had found employment in factories, 32.5% had left of their own accord and 10% had been expelled for breaking the rules. Of the 2,143 women who found industrial work, 90% remained for a long time in the same undertaking, some from five to seven years. The reports of the management on these workers were very favourable; 41% were "shock" workers drawing a special bonus for good work, 21% were

¹ See Annex 3.

active social workers and only 10% did not stay in industry. About half of these returned to the institute for a second course of treatment. These are the figures for all women who left the prophylactorium. The results achieved with former professional prostitutes show a rather lower average.¹ Whereas 49% of the non-prostitutes placed in industry were "shock" workers, only 29% of the former prostitutes reached this level. Of the first group, 5% were indisciplined workers, 20.2% of the second; 2.6% of the first group were habitual idlers and 8.3% of the second.

Out of the 450 girls who left the Kiev prophylactorium, only twenty-five are said to have returned to prostitution, less than 6%. It is stated that this figure would be lower but for initial mistakes and that half of the failures occurred in the first two years of the institution's work.

Side by side with the work of the prophylactoria has gone an important decrease in venereal disease and prostitution. As in most other countries, the number of cases of syphilis shows a striking reduction compared with the period before the war. In the last twenty years, prostitution has shrunk from a major to a minor problem; before the war, Moscow had 20,000 prostitutes. In 1934, it was believed to have 400. A supplementary proof of this decrease is the closing-down of many of the prophylactoria for lack of patients. In 1928, there were thirty-three of these institutes. Since then, four have been closed in Moscow and sixteen in the rest of the U.S.S.R.

This account of the work of the prophylactoria brings to light two characteristics which differentiate the method followed in the U.S.S.R. from any other.

The first is the existence in Soviet Russia of a single, carefully planned and comprehensive system for rehabilitating prostitutes. From the beginning, it is the State

¹ Information received from the Jewish Association for the Protection of Girls, Women and Children.

which has fought the battle against prostitution; it has evolved this system as one of its weapons, with the result that the usual combination of hospitals, homes, reformatories, charitable societies is replaced by a series of institutes run on the same lines and under the control of one authority. In the opinion of the Soviet officials, not many prostitutes escape treatment. The officials believe that no woman can be a prostitute for long without contracting venereal disease, and that she will then be reported by one of her clients and her illness discovered. The large numbers treated in the prophylactoria and the fact that half of these institutes have been closed since 1928 for want of patients seem to show that the proportion which remains untreated is small.

The second characteristic is the attitude of the authorities towards prostitution. Whereas the rehabilitation of the professional prostitute is generally regarded as an extremely difficult proposition and social workers are often advised to concentrate their energies on preventing women and girls from going on the streets, in the U.S.S.R. the authorities assume that, given medical and psychological help and opportunities for employment, the prostitute will naturally give up her old life and become a worker.

The question immediately arises how far the success which is claimed for this system is due to the special conditions in the U.S.S.R. An answer is difficult, because till now the system has not been imitated by any other country. That the conditions in the U.S.S.R. favour this system is at once apparent. In the first place, the practice of prostitution does not bring any great material gain. Women cannot obtain by prostitution luxurious lodgings and clothes, while factory workers belonging to a "shock brigade" have every advantage Soviet society can bestow. Secondly, there are plentiful opportunities for employment and therefore there is no difficulty in finding work for prostitutes who have finished their treatment. Nor is

there any social prejudice against former prostitutes. Women do not consider it a disgrace to admit they were once in a prophylactorium. Consequently, the question which is so important in other countries—whether employers shall be informed of these women's previous history—becomes more or less negligible.

There is, moreover, the fact that an all-powerful State can grant the labour prophylactoria economic concessions and thus guarantee them a market for their goods.

The system of the prophylactoria is clearly a logical part of the social structure of Soviet Russia; it is an open question whether the system as it stands could be used outside the special conditions for which it was created.

2. *The Estonian Experiment.*

No other country has carried out so completely as the U.S.S.R. the idea of combining social and medical treatment in one institution, and few have even experimented along these lines. Estonia is one of the few, and the following account from the social welfare authorities forms an interesting contrast to the preceding description :

“ At the Third Hospital of the City of Tallinn (Skin and Venereal), a workshop was set up in 1921 for teaching dressmaking, with the object of rehabilitating prostitutes during their treatment in hospital. The workshop was maintained by the Estonian Union of Women, which provided the necessary equipment and engaged an experienced instructress to manage the workshop. At the beginning this workshop, organised as an experiment, was much frequented by prostitute in-patients. After a few days, however, interest flagged, and most of the women gave up. An attempt was then made to render work in the workshop compulsory. The prostitutes retorted by damaging the machines and taking away materials. This was

bad enough : but the expense of maintaining the workshop could be met only to a very small extent by the sale of the work, and there was even considerable difficulty in effecting sales. Under these circumstances, the Estonian Union of Women was obliged to give up keeping the workshop, which was open for only about one month.

“The causes of the failure of this experiment were primarily psychological. The large majority of the prostitutes dislike work, or at all events permanent work, and felt that they earned too little for such toilsome labour. Consequently, their main object, particularly at times when prostitution offers an easy livelihood, is to regain their freedom as soon as possible.

“Another difficulty experienced was that of selling the products of the workshop. Many persons refused to buy, when they heard where the articles had been made, from fear—as a matter of fact unfounded—of contagion.

“It should be noted, however, that, as prostitution now no longer offers an easy livelihood, schemes have been put forward for renewing at Tallinn the experiment which previously failed. These plans include a workshop for the teaching of dressmaking in order to enable prostitutes to earn a respectable living.”

A workshop for sewing and linen mending has also been attached since about 1926 to the Venereal Disease Hospital at Tartus. Unlike the Tallinn workshop, it is still open, but the results are not encouraging.

“Experience during the last ten years has shown that it is impossible to put more than three or four in-patients to work at dressmaking or more than four at cleaning and housework, in spite of the fact that on the average twenty patients have been well enough in health to do this work.

“As a rule, every in-patient capable of so doing is invited to go and work in the workshop. Practically all refuse, on the pretext that they are not well enough, that they do not

know how to do such work, etc. An endeavour was made to compel the inmates to work in the workshop. The work was done so badly that the attempt had to be abandoned. The general rule in the hospital is that only prostitutes previously engaged in such work do dressmaking.

“The in-patients also put forward the same pretexts to avoid cleaning and work in the kitchen. In-patients declared by the doctor to be fit to work are, however, obliged to clean the ward or the corridors as ordered by the sister.

“It is quite usual, however, for the better-off patients to get poorer patients to do their work for them in return for a small sum of money, chocolate, etc.”

IV. GENERAL REMARKS AND CONCLUSIONS.

The number of countries where social service is combined with treatment at venereal-disease clinics and hospitals is still comparatively small.

The preceding chapter shows that many countries where the social services are otherwise highly developed have stated in their answer to the League questionnaire that no service of this kind is available. These negative replies, however, do not exclude the possibility of individual institutions providing assistance of one kind or another. They simply mean that there is no organised general service of this kind: nevertheless, there may be, as in Sweden, facilities for practitioners to refer their patients to social agencies and institutions, or similar arrangements.

In countries where social services exist, they have been seen to take different forms. There is, for instance, the system prevailing in the general hospitals in the large cities of England, which provide social service for all their patients through the Almoners' Department; the French *Service social à l'hôpital*, inspired by similar ideas but coming into closer contact with the social surroundings of the patients

and thus intervening more directly than the almoner usually does in Great Britain; and then the second outstanding type of combination of venereal-disease treatment and social service as constituted by the system built up in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, of which a full description has been given. The transition from the first to the second type is marked by an institution like the special hospital at Klosterneuburg (Austria), which combines treatment of venereal disease with a certain amount of training for professional life, and by special hospitals for the treatment of venereal disease which have an agency attached to them like certain London municipal hospitals.

Generally speaking, these social services act in three ways. In the first place, they are concerned with the health of the patient and of the public. Social workers have the concrete task of ensuring regularity of treatment, preventing the spread of the disease, discovering sources of infection and the far wider and less well-defined duty of bringing about a change in the patient's conditions of life and often in her mental outlook as well. Throughout their work, they must be particularly tactful, discreet and resourceful, on account of the special character of the illness with which they have to deal. There is evidence on many sides to show how successful this medico-social work has been, particularly in cases of venereal disease; how greatly it has saved time and money by reducing both the number of patients treated over and over again for the same disease, the cases where treatment is begun and not completed and the needless spread of infection. The following quotation will serve as an example of the value attached to social work by venereal-disease clinics. It is a statement published by the Massachusetts Department of Health in 1928.

“The State Department of Public Health is so convinced of the importance of social service as a function of the venereal-disease clinic that it will look

with disfavour upon the establishment of any new clinic which does not provide for it and with distrust upon any existing clinics which continue to ignore social service.”¹

Secondly, the social services act as an information centre and a clearing-house between their patients and the institutions, agencies and associations which might help them. The importance of this work can easily be underestimated. In a modern State, there is often a tendency, on the one hand, for the number of institutions to become so large as to confuse the potential user and, on the other hand, for matters such as health insurance, relief and unemployment benefit to become more and more complicated. Both these causes make it difficult for an ordinary person to discover by herself what help is available, especially if, as may easily happen, she finds herself in new surroundings.

Thirdly, the social service may take the form of a direct endeavour to induce the patient to change her way of life, the kind of service in fact with which the present report has been primarily concerned. Evidence on these attempts has not yet accumulated over a sufficiently long period of time or over a sufficiently wide area for any method to have proved itself unquestionably the best. Nevertheless, the facts contained in this report suggest a few guiding-lines for future planning.

(1) Whatever scheme is adopted it must clearly be in keeping with the traits of the national character. The English system recommends itself to a nation deeply imbued with the spirit of individual liberty and preferring the elasticity of personal effort to hard-and-fast rules. The system applied in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics suits a country in which social life is controlled by the

¹ Quoted in a speech by Mrs. Fahmy to the Alliance of Social Workers in Alexandria, April 6th, 1937.

State. These two systems could not be interchanged with any prospect of success.

(2) The element of time plays an important rôle. An attempt at rehabilitation which is restricted to the contagious period of the patient's illness is not likely to be altogether successful. It is a question of national tradition and psychology, rather than of principle, whether the work of rehabilitation should be continued after the contagious period of the illness in the form of after-care by a social agency or by a prolonged stay in an institution.

(3) When treatment is given in an institution, the likelihood of producing a lasting change in these women's character and outlook is increased if, during the period of rehabilitation, they are not completely cut off from the world to which they will subsequently return and if their mode of life inside the institution is not totally different from what it will be when they leave. This assertion is based on less evidence than the former two, but it seems justifiable to ascribe part at least of the prophylactoria's success to the way in which their patients are allowed to readapt themselves gradually to a normal life.

(4) The social workers should be temperamentally suited to the work and specially trained for it. It has been observed on many occasions that there is a special type of woman attached to such services who manages to win the entire confidence of the prostitutes, usually extremely distrustful of interference and advice. Natural talent alone has been successful in the past and may suffice for a time; but, obviously, in the long run, workers must be prepared for this difficult work by systematic training.

* * *

The attempt to combine treatment for venereal disease with social services constitutes a comparatively new development in social work, as it presupposes extensive and

highly specialised social services. To utilise these services for rehabilitating prostitutes is a still further extension of their functions. Attempts in this direction are of course still in an experimental stage, but more and more social workers consider that this is one of the most hopeful ways of approaching the problem of rehabilitation, as in their opinion it has a more practical psychological basis than most of the other efforts. Those in favour of a further development of these methods argue that a frame of mind is created in the women in question, during the treatment of venereal disease, in which the idea of changing their mode of life may more easily enter and take serious shape. Some of these women have had for many years no opportunity of meeting any person who would understand their position or give them disinterested help as the social assistants try to do.

This new approach to the problem is not only important for the work of rehabilitation properly speaking, but it is bound to prove of value in helping women on the borderline of prostitution; for it is there, as experience shows, that they are most likely to become victims to their first infection with venereal disease. The combination of social services and venereal-disease treatment can therefore have an effect in preventing prostitution as well as in rehabilitating prostitutes.

Though the outcome of some experiments has been discouraging, on the whole the reports have been more optimistic than might have been expected from the general experience of rehabilitation. It can be safely said that the methods applied in the different countries merit a fuller study than has been possible in the past. The present document is an attempt to supply all those interested with the necessary material.

ANNEX I.

QUESTIONNAIRE. ¹

1. What system is adopted for the treatment of venereal diseases in your country and how is it financed? (In answering this question, please indicate whether the treatment is based on statutory provisions and whether it is (*a*) voluntary, (*b*) free, (*c*) confidential, (*d*) available for both sexes, and (*e*) whether any difference is made as between adults and minors.)

2. Can any information be given as to the extent to which these facilities are used by women engaged in prostitution?

3. Is any provision made for social services in connection with the treatment of venereal disease (such as trained workers, follow-up of cases, residential accommodation during treatment, training for employment and after-care)?

Please give a description of any such social services, how they are financed and how far they appear to have been successful in the rehabilitation of prostitutes.

¹ Part II of Questionnaire on Rehabilitation (document C.T.F.E. 670), sent in June 1935 to Governments of States. Members of the League, to some non-member States and to the associations represented on the Committee on the Traffic in Women and Children.

ANNEX II.

Countries whose Governments replied to the questionnaire :

*Afghanistan	Ireland
Union of South Africa	Italy
United States of America	Japan
Australia	Latvia
Austria	Mexico
Belgium	Norway
United Kingdom	New Zealand
Hong-Kong and Malaya	Netherlands
Bulgaria	Netherlands Indies
Canada	Curaçao
Chile	Surinam
China	Poland
Cuba	Portugal
Denmark	Roumania
Danzig	Siam
Egypt	Sweden
Estonia	Switzerland
Finland	Turkey
France	Czechoslovakia
Greece	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
Guatemala	Uruguay
Hungary	Venezuela
India	Yugoslavia
Iraq	

In a few cases, the material was collected at the Government's request by a semi-official or voluntary organisation.

* Countries which sent no information for this part of the final report.

A separate report for Poland was submitted by the Polish Committee for combating Traffic in Women and Children.

Voluntary associations which replied to the questionnaire :

Women's International Organisations;

*International Union of Catholic Women's Leagues;

*International Federation for Aid to Young Women;

Jewish Association for the Protection of Girls,
Women and Children;

International Bureau for the Suppression of Traffic
in Women and Children;

*International Catholic Association for the Protec-
tion of Young Girls.

* Associations which sent no information for this part of the final report.

ANNEX III.

At the Kiev institute, a record is drawn up after a certain time giving the answers to the following questions :

Address.

Name.

Has the girl a room with others or does she live alone?

How does she work?

What work does she do?

Does she take part in social work?

How much does she earn?

What does she do with her earnings?

Is she well nourished?

Has she got in touch with the regional dispensary (which is obligatory)?

Does she live with a man? Is she married? Is she thinking of marrying?

Does she visit theatres and cinemas? With whom? Who pays for these visits?

Does she follow any course of study? If so, where?

When did she leave the prophylactorium?

Is she popular with her colleagues?

Does she belong to any association, trade union or to the party?

Most of the questions are answered with the help of the girl herself and researches are said to be made in a way that will not harm or humiliate her.

[Communicated to the
Council and the Members
of the League.]

Official No.: C. 73. M. 28. 1938. IV. 3
[C.Q.S./P.E./C.I.38.]
Legislative and Administrative Series No. 37.

Geneva, January 31st, 1938.

5

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

CHILD WELFARE INFORMATION CENTRE

**Summary of the Legislative and Administrative
Series of Documents of the Child Welfare
Information Centre to December 31st, 1937**

Series of League of Nations Publications

IV. SOCIAL
1938. IV. 3.

INTRODUCTION.

The Child Welfare Information Centre has undertaken the publication of a series of documents under the description : Legislative and Administrative Series. As far as its resources allow, it endeavours to keep the Advisory Committee on Social Questions and the authorities appointed by the Governments as correspondents informed of the legislative and administrative progress made in the different countries in the sphere of maternal and child welfare.

The Information Centre does not, however, profess to issue a complete collection of the laws, decrees, ordinances and circulars of the various countries as they are enacted. The Governments have not been asked to supply particulars of new legislative measures at the time of their enactment, and some of these must therefore escape the notice of the Information Centre, particularly in the case of countries not speaking either of the official languages of the League of Nations.

The sources from which the Information Centre has drawn its material are the following :

(a) The material obtained from certain Governments which supply it either with the text of new laws on their enactment, or even with all parliamentary papers relating to draft laws from their introduction onwards;

(b) The *Chronology of International Treaties and Legislative Measures*, published every two months by the League of Nations Library;

(c) Particulars obtained from Press cuttings or extracts from periodicals, which are used as the point of departure in the search for the relevant texts.

Laws on educational matters falling within the province of the Intellectual Co-operation Organisation are not as a rule distributed, unless they deal with changes introduced into the educational system to counteract the evil effects of unemployment among the young.

Similarly, legislation dealing with the apprenticeship and employment of children is not included in the Legislative and Administrative Series, as these are matters for the International Labour Office.

Administrative measures are too numerous to be translated and reproduced in the official languages of the League; such being the case, only a very few such measures, bearing on matters in which the Committee for Social Questions, and previously the Child Welfare Committee, have displayed particular interest, have been selected.

* * *

The attached summary of the Legislative and Administrative Series is the first to be published by the Information Centre; it comprises all the texts distributed between February 10th, 1936, and December 31st, 1937, with the exception of ministerial instructions for the application of the measures concerned. In future, a summary will be published at the end of each year.

The summary is designed to facilitate the consultation of the documents. The short summaries of laws of which it is made up are not intended to serve the same purpose as the full publication of the texts, which will always be necessary for legal studies. They nevertheless constitute a table of reference and a guide to the policy followed in certain countries in child welfare matters. They also show which questions have aroused most interest on the part of legislative bodies—and such interest is frequently a reflection of public opinion—and the similarity or dissimilarity, as the case may be, of the methods adopted by various countries in dealing with the same problems.

* * *

The texts have been classified according to the subjects with which they deal (in Appendix 1, however, the documents are also classified by countries).

1. ABORTION.

Of the two enactments reproduced in the Legislative and Administrative Series, the Danish law authorises abortion in certain cases and subject to certain conditions,

while the decree of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics prohibits abortion except in certain cases, and lays down the conditions under which it may then be carried out.

2. CENTRALISATION OF CHILD WELFARE WORK.

There is a tendency towards the centralisation or co-ordination by an official authority of all or certain branches of maternity and child welfare work. In 1936 and 1937, measures on these lines were introduced in the following countries, among others :

The Argentine Republic and Costa Rica, which set up Maternity and Child Welfare Services attached to the National Health Department and the Department of Public Health and Social Welfare respectively;

The Canton of Geneva (Switzerland), which set up a Child Welfare Office with extensive powers; and France, which set up a Central Council for Child Welfare to co-ordinate work and undertake investigations in this field.

3. CIVIL STATUS OF CHILDREN.

Several countries have dealt with the position of children born out of wedlock, but only one has introduced legislation defining the status of the legitimate child. All the measures introduced are designed to improve the lot of children born out of wedlock, by facilitating legitimation and acknowledgment, or by granting them the same legal status as legitimate children.

In Belgium, a bar to marriage was abolished through an amendment to the Penal Code; in the recitals, it is stated that one of the objects of this measure is to permit the legitimation of a category of children in whose case this was previously impossible.

Colombia increased the facilities for the acknowledgment of children born out of wedlock by an amendment to the former law, with retroactive force for the previous seven years.

Denmark enacted, on one and the same date, a law defining the status of legitimate children and a law regarding children born out of wedlock, who are placed in the same legal position in relation to their parents as legitimate children.

4. EDUCATION AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING.

In Germany, it was made compulsory for girls to undergo training in domestic work prior to their admission to the higher scientific classes of secondary schools.

In Belgium, powers were taken to extend the period of compulsory school attendance in order to ensure that children unable to obtain work on reaching the school-leaving age should not be left without occupation.

Brazil introduced compulsory instruction in scouting in schools of all grades.

Finland and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics introduced measures for the development of kindergartens.

French Equatorial Africa took steps to promote the study in schools of the principal agricultural products of each district.

5. OFFENCES AGAINST THE MORALS OF OR TAKING ADVANTAGE OF THE WEAKNESS OF CHILDREN.

Germany and France introduced legislation to protect children from kidnapping and abduction. The German law provides for the death penalty in cases of the kidnapping of children under the age of 18 for the purpose of exacting ransom; the French law provides different penalties according to the age of the child concerned, the motive behind the offence and its consequences. Abduction followed by the death of the child is punishable by death.

Under the Finnish child welfare law, certain occupations are prohibited to children and, in Italian East Africa, a decree was introduced for the protection of native boys under 14 years of age.

In the French Settlements in India, the marriageable age was raised for both sexes.

In Germany, a new development was the creation of courts for the protection of young people, with jurisdiction over all offences against minors.

6. LEISURE AND RECREATION.

This matter would not appear to have received any great attention on the part of Governments: the only

measure published in the Legislative and Administrative Series provides for the organisation of an annual native children's fête in French Equatorial Africa.

7. MAINTENANCE CONTRIBUTIONS.

By its law regarding children born out of wedlock, Denmark lays down rules for the compulsory maintenance of such children, while another law provides for the payment and enforcement of maintenance obligations. The purpose of both these laws was clearly to ensure proper maintenance and to prevent an evasion of obligations by those concerned.

A decree enacted in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics increases the penalties for default in payments due for the maintenance of children.

In France, the law was amended so as to relieve children of maintenance obligations in respect of parents legally divested of the paternal power. This measure introduces the principle of the relationship between the performance by parents of their duties to their children and the children's obligation to assist necessitous parents.

8. PLACING OF CHILDREN.

In Belgium, a law was passed providing for the punishment by the correctional courts of persons guilty of offences against the legislation regulating the placing, for payment, of children under 7 years of age.

In France, steps were taken to facilitate the temporary placing of a wider range of children in case of need and to provide for greater variety in the methods of placing assisted children under 13 years of age.

In Switzerland (Canton of Geneva), a public Foundation was created for the placing of children.

9. MATERNITY AND INFANT WELFARE.

This matter received attention in a number of countries : Chile, Finland, Sweden and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics provided for the grant of insurance benefits, the increase of the existing benefits, or State grants, for mothers and infants; under the Finnish law, such grants

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are transferred to the child in the event of the mother's death.

Chile and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics developed their system of pregnancy leave, Chile and Scotland reorganised their maternity services and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics provided for the extension of its maternity services and crèches.

It should be observed that the Chilian Health Code requires mothers to nurse their children up to the age of five months, except in case of disease.

France introduced decrees modifying and defining in greater detail the conditions attaching to maternity allowances and family bounties, and also the system of supervision and inspection in regard to children below the age of 3, who are under the protection of the public authorities.

10. CHILD WELFARE.

The Child Welfare Law enacted in Finland deals with delinquent children and the protection or care of orphans or deserted children under 18 years of age, of children suffering from deficiencies or disease and therefore requiring special care which they do not receive at home, and of children not receiving the necessary care and education, failing to attend school, or refractory to school discipline. The authority responsible for the measures provided for is the Welfare Board of the commune.

11. PROTECTION OF SPECIAL CATEGORIES OF CHILDREN.

A. *Neglected or Delinquent Children.*

The treatment of neglected or delinquent children has been the subject of more legislative or administrative measures than any other aspect of child welfare, and there is an increasing tendency to place the emphasis on preventive and educational measures.

(a) *Juvenile Courts.*

Juvenile courts of jurisdictions were set up in Tanganyika Territory, Algeria and Roumania.

In Canada, the Juvenile Delinquents Act of 1929 was amended, so as to change the procedure in juvenile cases, to regulate the position and duties of probation officers and to increase the severity of the law in regard to adults who contribute to delinquency on the part of the children.

(b) *Placing.*

(i) *As a Preventive Measure.*—Measures were introduced in Southern Rhodesia (British colony), Finland, France, Indo-China (French colony) and Roumania authorising the placing of neglected or delinquent children.

(ii) *As an Educational Measure.*—An amendment to the French law authorises the temporary placing—which in certain cases may be transformed into permanent placing—of refractory or depraved children who are wards of the public assistance authorities.

Under a new Swedish law, the courts are authorised to substitute the placing of adolescents from 15 to 18 years of age in a general educational school approved and controlled by the State for sentences of imprisonment or hard labour.

(iii) *As a Measure of Paternal Correction.*—In France, the imprisonment of minors as a measure of paternal correction was abolished; henceforth, it will be superseded by placing in a Government or private educational institution selected by the President of the Court.

(c) *Supervision.*

In France, measures of educational supervision or assistance may be ordered by the Court, on the application of the Public Prosecutor, in respect of children whose parents fail to make proper provision for their material or moral welfare.

(d) *Institutions for Neglected and Delinquent Children.*

In France, a decree was introduced dealing with appointments to vacancies on the administrative and supervisory staffs of institutes of supervised education, reformatory schools and schools for children in need of protection against moral danger.

(e) *Criminal Responsibility.*

The new Roumanian Penal Code provides that the treatment of delinquent minors shall differ according as to whether or not they are deemed to possess criminal responsibility.

B. *Children born out of Wedlock.*

Measures were introduced in France affording increased protection for unacknowledged children born out of wedlock from the point of view both of their material and of their moral welfare.

12. FAMILY WELFARE.

The family welfare measures introduced were, in the main, of a financial character.

In Belgium, the system of family allowances was extended to new classes of beneficiaries.

In France, the allowances for family charges were increased.

In the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, a system of State assistance to mothers of large families was introduced, and the divorce laws were amended.

1. ABORTION.

Denmark.

Law regarding Pregnancy, etc.—Law No. 163, of May 18th, 1937 (*Lovtidenden A*, No. 21, of May 31st, 1937) (document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I./22, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 20).

This law, which comes into force on April 1st, 1938, authorises abortion in the following cases : serious danger to the life or health of the woman; pregnancy caused by rape or in the circumstances defined in Article 210 of the Penal Code, obvious danger that the child will be afflicted with serious and incurable mental or physical disease.

Except in case of disease, the woman must prove that she has been informed of the danger of the operation and of the assistance available to mothers. If under the age of 21, she must obtain the consent of her parents or guardian, and if between the ages of 18 and 21, in some cases, of an *ad hoc* guardian. If she "is unable to understand the significance of the operation", an authorisation must be obtained from a guardian appointed by the Social Welfare Committee. If the woman is married, her husband shall, save in exceptional circumstances, be given an opportunity of stating his views. The abortion shall be carried out by a doctor in a hospital, during the first three months of pregnancy. Persons guilty of offences against the law—doctors, pregnant women, persons improperly inciting to abortion, fathers refusing assistance and inciting to abortion, etc.—are liable to imprisonment for terms of from three months to twelve years.

Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

Prohibition of Abortion.—Decree of June 27th, 1936, I (*Isvestia*, of June 28th, 1936) (document C.P.E./C.I./9, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 4).

This decree prohibits abortion, except in the case of serious danger to the life or health of the woman, or of

serious hereditary disease in the parents; in such cases, it must be carried out in a hospital or maternity home.

The penalties for those carrying out an illegal abortion, or inciting a woman to submit to it, vary from one to three years' imprisonment; the woman is publicly censured and, on a second offence, becomes liable to a fine of 300 roubles.

2. CENTRALISATION OF CHILD WELFARE WORK.

Argentine.

Creation of a Maternity and Child Welfare Service.—Law No. 12341 (*Boletín Oficial*, of January 11th, 1937) (document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I./8, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 11).

The law provides for the creation of a maternity and child welfare service attached to the National Health Department : its functions are to promote the development of the personality of the child and to take charge of measures for combating morbidity and mortality among children and the protection of women as mothers or future mothers.

The Department studies the social hygiene of childhood and circulates information regarding it, keeps a list of the institutions active in that field and creates new institutions where necessary, with a view to ensuring that each group of the population has at least one maternity and infant health centre equipped with the services enumerated in the law.

Regulations giving effect to Law No. 12341, setting up a Maternity and Child Welfare Service.—Decree No. 101341, of March 11th, 1937 (*Boletín Oficial*, of April 3rd, 1937) (document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I./8, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 11).

These regulations define the functions of the maternity and child welfare service in great detail. The service is to consist of six divisions : (1) *Social hygiene of childhood*, which is in charge of research, enquiries and propaganda and of the application of measures adopted with a view to securing the child's development from the physical, mental,

moral and social standpoints; (2) *eugenics, maternity and infancy*, which is responsible for all aspects of the welfare of mothers or future mothers and of children from conception to the age of three years; (3) *pre-school age, school age and adolescence*, which is in charge of medico-social work for the benefit of children and young people from 3-18 years of age—physical education, holiday colonies, mental hygiene, etc.; (4) *deserted children—sick and abnormal children—prevention of child desertion*, which cares for children and mothers found begging and is to set up centres for the observation and classification of deserted and delinquent minors, both in the Federal capital and in the national territories and provinces availing themselves of the benefits provided for by Law No. 12341; it will also see that the official institutions organise similar centres in the provinces in which the Maternity and Child Welfare Service is unable to do so (this division will also study the organisation and methods adopted by the establishments for delinquent children or for physical, psychical or mental abnormals); (5) *inspection and legislation*, which supervises all institutions dealing with mothers and children, prevents the sale of alcohol and tobacco to children under the age of 15, regulates the admission of children to places of entertainment and inspects the milk supply; (6) *social service*, which supervises the social services of all institutions for the assistance and protection of mothers and children and is to set up a Practical School of Puericulture and a school of Child Welfare Social Service; it is also responsible for the inspection of food and medicaments intended for children.

Costa Rica.

Creation of a Maternity Section.—Decree No. 14, of June 26th, 1937 (*La Gaceta*, No. 141, of June 26th, 1937) (document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I./29, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 28).

This decree provides for the creation of a Maternity Section attached to the Department of Public Health and Social Welfare. The Section, the head of which must be a doctor, is responsible for the supervision and regulation of all maternity hospitals and centres, and of the Department of Visiting Midwives. It is further required to teach

the fundamental principles governing the health of the mother, and to establish the necessary maternal welfare centres in the various cantons, according to their financial possibilities. In future, no public or private maternity centre may be established without its authorisation.

France.

Establishment of a High Council for Child Welfare.—Decree of September 30th, 1937 (*Journal officiel*, of October 1st, 1937) (document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I./26, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 25).

This decree establishes a Council to ensure the co-ordination of the various services, organisations, institutions and associations, whether public or private, concerned with the protection or supervision of children, and to study all questions submitted for its consideration by the Ministry of Public Health or any of the other Ministries responsible for questions relating to child welfare. It will be under the chairmanship of the Minister of Public Health and consists of thirty-five members, from amongst whom the Minister will choose ten members to form a permanent section. The secretariat will be directed by a permanent secretary-general with a vote on the Council.

Switzerland.—Canton of Geneva.

Establishment of a Child Welfare Office.—Law of July 2nd, 1937 (*Feuille d'Avis officiel* of the Republic and Canton of Geneva, of July 9th, 1937) (document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I./10, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 13).

The purpose of the office set up by this law is to ensure the protection and physical and moral welfare of children and young people, and, in general, to promote their development. It consists of a School Medical Service, with a Dental Clinic, a School Observation Service for Abnormal Children, a School Social Service for Poor Children, together with various social institutions, a Vocational Guidance and Apprenticeship Service, a Service for the Protection of Minors to assist the guardianship authorities and the courts, and a Guardian, who may be appointed guardian, when necessary, in place of the parents or persons enumerated in Article 380 of the Civil Code.

3. CIVIL STATUS OF CHILDREN.

Belgium.

Removal of a Bar to Marriage to permit of the Legitimation of Children.—Law of April 16th, 1935 (*Moniteur*, of April 18th, 1935) (document C.P.E./C.I./3, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 2).

This law amends Article 298 of the Civil Code (under which a guilty spouse was prohibited from marrying the co-respondent in case of divorce, when the marriage was dissolved on grounds of adultery). The new law permits the marriage of the adulterous spouse with the co-respondent, but not until three years after the divorce. The court can reduce this period "for special reasons", either when pronouncing the dissolution of the marriage or subsequently.

Colombia.

Acknowledgment of Illegitimate Children.—Decree No. 221 (*Diario oficial*, of Colombia, of May 12th, 1936) (document C.P.E./C.I./13, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 5).

This decree amends Article 269 of the Civil Code, which provided for acknowledgment by public deed, or before a judge and two witnesses (now three witnesses), or by will. The decree further provides for acknowledgment by personal declaration at the time of the registration of the birth, and acknowledgment on the marriage of the parents, and in these two respects has retroactive force as from March 26th, 1929.

In its old form, Article 269 also provided that if the natural child were acknowledged by one parent only, the latter was not "compelled" to name the person by whom he or she had had the child. Under the new text, the naming of the other parent is prohibited.

Denmark.

Law regarding Legitimate Children.—Law No. 132, of May 7th, 1937 (*Lovtidenden A*, No. 19, May 22nd, 1937) (document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I./21, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 21).

This law, which comes into force on January 1st, 1938, lays it down that all children shall be deemed legitimate

who are conceived in wedlock, or whose parents contract marriage subsequently, even if the marriage was dissolved by death or divorce, or was annulled before the birth of the child. Subsequent marriage of the parents legitimates a child whose father had, of his own accord, acknowledged paternity or had been recognised as its father by a judicial decision. The husband of the mother is presumed to be the father of children conceived during or before marriage, in the absence of proof to the contrary.

In the event of the separation or divorce of the parents, or of the decease of one of them, the chief authority may fix the amount payable for the maintenance of the children.

Law regarding Children born out of Wedlock.—Law No. 131, of May 7th, 1937 (*Lovtidenden A*, No. 19, of May 22nd, 1937) (document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I./30, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 29).

This law, which comes into force on January 1st, 1938, provides that children born out of wedlock shall enjoy the same legal position in relation to their parents as legitimate children. They may bear the name of either parent, and have a right of option in this respect between the ages of 18 and 22. The mother's husband may also give them his name.

Affiliation proceedings may be instituted by any woman who has become pregnant out of wedlock, in or after the sixth month of pregnancy. Such proceedings may also be instituted at any subsequent date, at the instance of the mother, of the child (through his guardian), or of persons or institutions bearing the cost of the child's maintenance.

The mother is required, under penalty of a fine, to declare the father's name, unless specially exempted. The doctors and midwives must transmit such declaration to the authorities. The putative father is then summoned to appear before the authorities and required to acknowledge or deny paternity; in the latter alternative, the papers are sent to the competent court. Should the mother claim compensation, the court may be called upon to decide the matter, even if there has been an abortion or if the child is stillborn. Court proceedings may also be instituted by a person desiring to retract an acknowledgment of paternity.

For the purposes of the law, paternity is deemed to be established on the production of evidence of intercourse during the period of conception, unless there are grounds for presuming that, at that time, the mother also had intercourse with some other person who might be the father of the child, or unless circumstances exist which preclude the defendant from being the father. Even when paternity is not established, the court may declare it to be "possible" in respect of one or even of several defendants, who are then required to contribute to the child's maintenance.

4. EDUCATION AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING.

Belgium.

Raising of the School Age.—Royal Decree No. 192, of July 31st, 1935 (*Moniteur*, of August 1st, 1935) (document C.P.E./C.I./3, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 2).

This decree empowers the Minister of Education, after consultation with the local councils, to extend the period of compulsory school attendance until the end of the school year in which the age of sixteen is attained. The pupils shall be admitted, according to their aptitudes, knowledge and needs, to a primary, occupational or technical training establishment. The parents remain free to choose between State and private institutions. The decree shall not apply to children continuing their education or to those proving that they "are in regular employment or have a permanent occupation".

Brazil.

Compulsory Training in Scouting.—Law No. 342, of December 12th, 1936 (*Diario Oficial* of the United States of Brazil, No. 293, of December 18th, 1936) (document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I./4, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 8).

This law provides for theoretical and practical training in scouting in elementary, secondary, vocational and teachers' training schools as a means of promoting the physical and moral development of the pupils.

Finland.

State Subsidies for Kindergartens.—Constitutional Code of Finland, 1936, No. 80.—Ordinance of January 17th, 1936 (document C.P.E./C.I./13, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 5).

This ordinance indicates the procedure to be followed by municipal or private kindergartens which wish to receive an official subsidy and the conditions which they must fulfil for their request to be taken into consideration.

France.—Colonies.

EQUATORIAL AFRICA.

School Agricultural Days.—Order of June 4th, 1936 (*Journal officiel* of French Equatorial Africa, of June 15th, 1936) (document C.P.E./C.I./13, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 5).

This order provides for the introduction in all schools of French Equatorial Africa of "days" for the study of the principal agricultural products of each district. The "days" are to be devoted to a visit to the plantations, to demonstrations and talks on methods of cultivation and agricultural equipment and a lecture on the agricultural activities and organisation of the district. All the pupils will be required to write an essay, for which prizes will be awarded.

Germany.

Compulsory Domestic Training.—Ordinance of the Reich Ministry of Science and Education of November 4th, 1935 (document C.P.E./C.I./13, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 5).

As from Easter 1937, no girl will be admitted to the higher scientific classes of secondary schools until she has passed an examination in domestic work. Such instruction is to be given at home with the co-operation of the school.

Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

Extension of the System of Kindergartens.—Decree of June 27th, 1936, V and VI (*Isvestia*, of June 28th, 1936) (document C.P.E./C.I./9, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 4).

This decree provides for the creation by January 1st, 1939, of large numbers of kindergartens in urban and rural districts.¹

As an exception to the rule that all kindergartens shall be placed under the management and administration of the Commissars of Education, the kindergartens serving "economic institutions and undertakings" are in future to be managed by the People's Commissariats of such undertakings, though the People's Commissars of Education will continue to be responsible for general educational administration, the efficient organisation of the kindergartens and the training of teaching staff.

5. OFFENCES AGAINST THE MORALS OF OR TAKING ADVANTAGE OF THE WEAKNESS OF CHILDREN.

Finland.

Child Welfare.—Law No. 52, of January 17th, 1936, (*Författningssamling Finlands*, No. 51-60, 1936) (document C.P.E./C.I./14, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 6).

This law, which deals with child welfare in general, expressly forbids children under 16 years of age to appear as itinerant singers, musicians, dancers or acrobats, or to engage in hawking without the permission of the local Welfare Board. Girls under 18 years of age are prohibited from serving the public in cafés or public places except under the immediate supervision of their parents and with the permission of the Welfare Board.

¹ The financial provisions in connection with these measures are to be found under Section VII of the same decree, which it has been impossible to summarise.

France.

Kidnapping or Abduction of Minors.—Law of January 14th, 1937, amending Article 355 of the Penal Code (*Journal officiel*, of January 15th, 1937) (document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I./5, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 9).

This law provides that the kidnapping of children under the age of 15 and the kidnapping of persons between 15 and 21 years of age shall be punishable with penal servitude for life, whenever the offence was committed with a view to extorting a ransom. The penalty will be reduced if the minor is found alive before sentence is passed. The penalty for the kidnapping of a child will be death, if the offence results in the child's death.

France.—Colonies.

POSSESSIONS IN INDIA.

Fixing of Marriageable Age.—Decree of July 30th, 1937 (*Journal officiel*, of August 7th, 1937) (document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I./16, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 17).

This decree fixes the marriageable age at 16 years for males and 14 years for females, unless special authority is obtained from the Governor. This provision even applies to natives belonging to the Brahmin and Moslem religions. Breaches of this decree entail the annulment of the marriage, and persons convicted of having acted as intermediaries with a view to promoting the marriage are liable to imprisonment for a period of from six days to one month together with a fine of from 500 to 5,000 francs or to one or other of these penalties.

Germany.

Kidnapping of Children for Ransom.—Law of June 22nd, 1936 (*Reichsgesetzblatt* 1936, I, page 493) (document C.P.E./C.I./13, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 5).

This law provides for the death penalty in cases of the kidnapping of children under 18 years of age for the purpose of obtaining a ransom.

Courts for the Protection of Young People.—Order of the Ministry of Justice, dated August 9th, 1937—3230-IIIa4-904 (*Deutsche Justiz*, page 1206) (document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I./25, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 23).

This order provides for a special division of every regional court to deal with the protection of young people : it will have jurisdiction over all offences against minors—moral offences, ill-treatment, serious breaches of the labour laws, etc.

Offenders are to be proceeded against with the utmost severity.

Italy.

ITALIAN EAST AFRICA.

Protection of Native Boys under 14 Years of Age.—Decree No. 7571, of April 6th, 1936-XIV (document C.P.E./C.I./13, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 5).

Under this decree, native boys under 14 years of age may not be removed from their homes. Children between the ages of 10 and 14 may only be employed in the neighbourhood of their homes. Offenders are liable to a term of imprisonment not exceeding one month or to a fine not exceeding 500 lire.

6. LEISURE AND RECREATION.

France.—Colonies.

EQUATORIAL AFRICA.

Annual Native Children's Fête.—Order of June 4th, 1936 (*Journal officiel* of French Equatorial Africa, dated June 15th, 1936) (document C.P.E./C.I./13, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 5).

This order lays it down that a Native Children's Fête shall be organised each year in the chief place of each region, and shall comprise children's processions, round dances and games, amusements and children's theatre, baby shows, puericulture demonstrations, distribution of bonuses to large families and relief.

7. MAINTENANCE CONTRIBUTIONS.

Denmark.

Law regarding Children born out of Wedlock (Maintenance).

—Law No. 131, of May 7th, 1937 (*Lovtidenden A.*, No. 19, of May 22nd, 1937) (document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I./30, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 29).

This law, which comes into force on January 1st, 1938, deals with children born out of wedlock, and the corresponding maintenance allowances.

The cost of the maintenance, upbringing and education of the child is divided between the child's parents according to their financial capacity. When paternity has been established by acknowledgment or judicial decision, or when it has been declared "possible" by judicial decision, the Chief of Police informs the Prefect and supplies him with full particulars of the parents' financial position. The Prefect fixes the amount to be paid, half-yearly in advance, for the maintenance of the child, and the allowance to be paid to the mother in respect of pregnancy and confinement, and for her maintenance two months before and one month after the birth of the child or to cover the cost of an abortion. Amicable arrangements in respect of maintenance contributions must be submitted to the chief authority. The various maintenance allowances are legally due to the child itself, who is entitled to recover against the estate of the parent liable in the event of death.

When the contributions are to be paid jointly by several persons, the names of those persons may not be disclosed. Payment is made through the State Child Welfare Board, which alone is entitled to act. The liability of such persons ceases if one of them marries the mother and takes the child into his home, so long as the mother lives with him. If he acknowledges the child, the other persons concerned are finally relieved of all liability.

Payment of Maintenance Contributions.—Law No. 133 of May 7th, 1937 (*Lovtidenden A.*, No. 19) (document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I./20, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 19).

This law requires persons liable for maintenance contributions to declare any changes of residence, under

penalty of two months' imprisonment. It provides for the recovery of contributions by distraint or the attachment of wages, employers being required to notify the police if the persons concerned leave their service. The law provides for a penalty of from two to 120 days' imprisonment during a single year, according to the sums owing, if the maintenance contributions are at least three months in arrears and cannot be collected by civil process. However, the poverty and conduct of the delinquent must be taken into consideration. Maintenance debts are extinguished by prescription at the end of one year. The debtor may not leave the country without giving security. Should he attempt to do so, he may be arrested for debt.

France.

Maintenance Allowances to Parents.—Decree of October 30th, 1935, amending Article 1 of the Law of July 24th, 1889, relieving children whose parents have been deprived of the parental power from the payment of maintenance allowances to parents or other ascendants (*Journal officiel*, of October 31st, 1935) (document C.P.E./C.I./2, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 1).

The last paragraph of Article 1 of the Law of July 24th, 1889, is amended so as to provide that the children of parents legally deprived of the paternal power are relieved, failing a judicial decision to the contrary, of the obligations enumerated in Articles 205, 206 and 207 of the Civil Code (the first two of these articles regulate the obligations of descendants to ascendants in the matter of maintenance and the third article provides that these obligations are mutual).

Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

Reinforcement of the Criminal Penalties for Non-payment of Alimony.—Decree of June 27th, 1936, VIII (*Izvestia*, of June 28th, 1936) (document C.P.E./C.I./9, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 4).

The maintenance contribution is fixed at a quarter of the defendant's wages for one child, a third for two children and one-half for three children. In the collective farms,

the amount is automatically deducted from wages. Non-payment is a criminal offence, involving a maximum penalty of two years' imprisonment and any costs incurred in tracing the person liable.

8. PLACING OF CHILDREN.

Belgium.

Boarding-out for Breast-feeding or Care.—Law of March 5th, 1935 (*Moniteur*, of March 17th, 1935) (document C.P.E./C.I./3, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 2).

This law provides for the punishment by the correctional courts (a term of imprisonment of from eight days to twelve months and/or a fine of from 26 to 100 francs) of offences against the provisions of the Law of September 5th, 1919.

(Law of September 5th, 1919: Persons desiring to receive a child under seven years of age for nursing or care in return for payment must obtain an authorisation from the municipal authority (*Collège des bourgmestre et échevins*), which is issued on production of a declaration by the Committee of the infant welfare centre of the commune, certifying that the home will be visited each month by the Medical Officer and that the foster parent undertakes to comply with the instructions issued by the welfare centre.)

France.

Protection of Children in receipt of Assistance.—Decree of October 30th, 1935, amending the Law of June 27th, 1904, concerning the services in charge of assistance to children (*Journal officiel*, of October 31st, 1935) (document C.P.E./C.I./2, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 1).

This decree extends the definition of temporary custody of children, so as to make it possible for the services in charge of assistance to children to receive, if only temporarily, any child "which is left without protection or means of subsistence, through the removal to hospital,

serious illness, or decease of its father, mother or other ascendant ”.

Wards of the public assistance authorities under 13 are no longer to be placed exclusively in families living in the country, but may, according to the needs of their upbringing and education, be sent either to families living in the country or placed in child-rearing centres, institutions and societies under the control of the Ministry of Public Health.

This decree also specifies at what moment the payments to the foster parent are to be discontinued and when the child is to be apprenticed.

Switzerland.—Canton of Geneva.

Official Child Welfare Foundation.—Law of July 2nd, 1937 (*Feuille d'Avis officielle* of the Republic and Canton of Geneva, of July 9th, 1937) (document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I./11, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 14).

This law establishes a public Foundation for the placing of children, particularly of those who, for educational reasons, cannot be brought up in their own homes. It sets up institutions and provides for their supervision, gives advice to the authorities, and has the right to inspect and report on all public or private establishments dealing with education and re-education, and also the families in which children are placed.

The Foundation is set up for an unlimited period; its property is independent of that of the State; it is self-governing, under the supervision of the Council of State.

9. MATERNITY AND INFANT WELFARE.

United Kingdom.—Scotland.

Provision of Maternity Services.—Act of May 6th, 1937 (Maternity Services (Scotland) Act, 1937) (document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I./33, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 33).

Under this Act, the Scottish local authorities are required to make arrangements for the provision to women, by whom or on whose behalf application is made, of certified midwives, medical treatment during pregnancy and child-birth, and a medical examination at least once after the

expiry of one month after childbirth, and also, where necessary, of the services of an anæsthetist and an obstetrician. The local authorities are required to draw up schemes for the provision of such services after consultation with the existing organisations, which may make representations to the Department of Health. The final decision rests with the Department.

The local authorities are required to fix the fees for the services provided, in accordance with a scale of fees approved by the Department; the authorities pay such part of the fees as cannot be recovered from the persons concerned. Provision is also made for the payment of compensation to midwives ceasing to practice or required by the local authorities or by the Department of Health, on appeal, to cease to practise. The sum payable by way of compensation under the Act may be paid in the form of an annuity. Compulsory courses of instruction are arranged for practising midwives.

Lastly, unqualified persons are prohibited, under penalty of a fine, from acting as maternity nurses for gain.

Chile.

Maternity and Child Welfare.—Health Code, Articles 40-47 (document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I./1, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 24).

The above articles provide for technical health supervision over all public or State-aided maternity and child welfare establishments. The State makes itself responsible for the protection of mothers from conception until six months after confinement, and for the protection of children from birth until the school-leaving age. During these periods, the destitute mothers and children are cared for free of charge.

Under the Code, mothers are required to nurse their children until the age of five months, save for reasons of ill-health. Wet nurses are required to hold a medical certificate and to advise the health authorities in advance.

Preventive medical care is to be provided for school-children. A dental service is to be set up in all large centres.

Insurance Benefits during Pregnancy.—Law No. 4054.A, 25.

This law stipulates that the Compulsory Insurance Fund shall provide medical treatment during pregnancy and

during and after confinement. It shall pay 50 % of wages during the two weeks before and following confinement, and thereafter 25 % until weaning.

Leave of Absence during Pregnancy.—Law regarding persons in private employment.

Under this law, women are entitled to leave of absence with full pay during the month preceding and the month following confinement, without prejudice to their right to sick leave, as required.

Finland.

Maternity Relief.—Law No. 322, of September 24th, 1937 (*Finlands Förfatningssamling*, No. 322-327, of September 25th, 1937) (document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I./28, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 27).

This law provides for the payment of maternity relief out of State funds to indigent women whose income, together with that, if any, of the husband, does not exceed 8,000 marks (10,000 marks in some localities). The earnings of children or other members of the family living at home are not included in this figure. Maternity relief amounts to 450 marks for each child. Should the mother die, it is granted to the newly born child. Application has to be made before the birth to the Welfare Board of the commune. The Board grants and pays relief out of the communal funds. The commune is reimbursed by the State on application. Payment may only be made after the seventh month of pregnancy and before the end of the fourth month following childbirth. Maternity relief is not subject to distraint.

France.

Maternity Allowances.—Decree of October 30th, 1935, fixing the term for applying for maternity allowances at three months (*Journal officiel*, October 31st, 1935) (document C.P.E./C.I./2, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 1).]

Article 4, paragraph 2, of the Law of June 17th, 1913, to secure proper rest for pregnant women, is amended so as to reduce the period during which applications for assistance must be made to three months after confinement.

Between paragraphs 1 and 2 of the single article of the Law of October 24th, 1919, for the protection of nursing mothers, a paragraph is inserted making it possible to apply for the nursing grant alone. Such applications, which are subject to the same conditions and the same procedure as applications for maternity allowances under the Law of June 17th, 1913, must be submitted within three months after confinement.

Bounties for encouraging the Birth Rate.—Decree of October 30th, 1935, amending the conditions governing the award of bounties for encouraging the birth rate (*Journal officiel*, of October 31st, 1935) (document C.P.E./C.I./2, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 1).

Article 2, paragraph 3, of the Decree of April 30th, 1920, is amended by the introduction of a proviso that, to secure the ministerial approval without which there can be no State grant towards expenditure, departmental and communal regulations must include a provision making heads of families who are liable for income tax ineligible for such bounties.

Infant Welfare.—Decree of October 30th, 1935, amending the Infant Welfare Law of December 23rd, 1874 (*Journal officiel*, of October 31st, 1935) (document C.P.E./C.I./2, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 1).

The decree enumerates the classes of children who are to be subject to the protection of the public authorities until the completion of their third year. It describes how supervision and inspection is to be exercised and provides for supervision over any person or institution undertaking the nursing, weaning or care of one or more children. This supervision will apply to employment exchanges for wet nurses, persons undertaking the conveyance of children, midwives and other agencies habitually engaged in the placing of children.

Sweden.

Maternity Allowances.—Royal Ordinance No. 338, of June 11th, 1937 (*Svensk Författningssamling*, No. 290-291, of June 8th, 1937) (document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I./32, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 31).

This ordinance provides for the payment out of State funds of maternity allowances of 75 crowns to women

whose income, together with that, if any, of the husband, does not exceed 3,000 crowns. There are certain exceptions. The decision rests with the Central Sickness Insurance Fund of the place in which the woman is resident, to which application must be made before the sixtieth day after childbirth. In case of need, it may make an advance of 40 crowns as from the seventh month of pregnancy. Supervision is exercised by the Inspectorate of Sickness Insurance Funds, which may, of its own accord, re-open the examination of any case.

Maternity Relief.—Royal Ordinance No. 339, of June 11th, 1937 (*Svensk Förfatningssamling*, No. 290-291, of June 8th, 1937) (document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I./31, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 30).

This ordinance provides for the relief out of State funds of women "manifestly in need" of it, on account of pregnancy or childbirth. Such relief, the amount of which may not exceed 300 crowns, is granted by the maternity relief committees, on the recommendation of the Child Welfare Council. The committees also decide what form relief shall take. Decisions are carried into effect by the Child Welfare Council. Appeals against decisions of the Maternity Relief Committee may be lodged with the General Directorate for Social Affairs.

Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

Increase of Material Aid to Women in Childbirth.—Decree of June 27th, 1936, II (*Isvestia*, of June 28th, 1936) (document C.P.E./C.I./9, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 4).

This decree increases the grants payable from the State Social Insurance Fund for the purchase of layettes and for the feeding of the new-born children. The same grant shall be paid by the State to the co-operative mutual aid funds for uninsured working women.¹

Women officials are entitled to the same leave of absence in respect of childbirth as working women—fifty-six days before and fifty-six days after childbirth. The decree

¹ The financial provisions in connection with these measures are to be found in Section VII of the same decree, which it has been impossible to summarise.

makes it an offence to refuse to employ women on account of their pregnancy, or to reduce their wages, and prescribes their transfer to less strenuous work.

Extension of the System of Maternity Homes and Crèches.—

Decree of June 27th, 1936, III, IV (*Isvestia*, of June 28th, 1936) (document C.P.E./C.I./9, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 4).

The decree provides for a substantial increase in the number of beds in maternity homes and also for new mid-wifery centres and crèches, as from January 1st, 1939.¹

10. CHILD WELFARE.

Union of South Africa.

Note.—It seems essential to mention here that a new general law on Child Welfare was promulgated in the *Union of South Africa* during 1937 (Children's Act, 1937). This law has not been translated into French nor distributed by the Child Welfare Information Centre, because of its length. It fills a pamphlet of 116 pages, for a copy of which the Committee on Social Questions is indebted to the generosity of the Government of the Union of South Africa. It contains the text of the law in English and Afrikaans and is on sale at *Cape Times, Limited*, Keerom Street, Cape Town.

The Act provides for the appointment of commissioners of child welfare; for the establishment of children's courts; for the protection, welfare and supervision of certain children; for the establishment or recognition of certain institutions for the reception of juveniles; for the treatment of juveniles after their reception in such institutions; for contribution by certain persons towards the maintenance of certain children; and for the adoption of children; it also amends the law of criminal procedure in so far as it relates to juveniles, and provides for matters incidental to any of the aforesaid subjects.

Finland.

Child Welfare.—Law of January 17th, 1936, Chapters 1-6 and 8 (*Finlands Författningsamling*, Nos. 51-60-1936)

¹ The financial provisions in connection with these measures are to be found in Section VII of the same decree, which it has been impossible to summarise.

(document C.P.E./C.I./14, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 6).

This law introduces measures for the protection and care of certain categories of children under 18 years of age—viz., orphans or deserted children; children who on account of deficiencies or disease require special care which they are not receiving from their parents; children who are not receiving the necessary care and education, who fail to attend school, or are refractory to school discipline; and, lastly, delinquents.

The responsible body is the Welfare Board of the commune. This body exercises general supervision over all children. It may take various measures with regard to the protection, supervision and placing of children. It may declare that the parents' right to custody of the child is forfeited. Decisions to this effect are reached after the parents have been heard, and are submitted to the Ministry of Social Affairs. Appeals may be lodged with the Supreme Administrative Court, but do not necessarily stay the application of the decisions concerned.

Protective measures will usually cease to apply to children who have completed their sixteenth year; in some cases, they continue to apply until completion of the twenty-first year.

Children are placed with families, or in children's homes or education institutions. The cost is borne by the child and its parents. If necessary, the State contributes a third and, in special cases, a half.

11. PROTECTION OF SPECIAL CATEGORIES OF CHILDREN.

(a) NEGLECTED OR DELINQUENT CHILDREN.

United Kingdom.—Colonies.

SOUTHERN RHODESIA.

Adoption and Protection of Children by the State.—Proclamation of April 16th, 1936 (Colony of Southern Rhodesia, *Government Gazette*, 14 : 329, April 24th, 1936) (document C.P.E./C.I./13, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 5).

This proclamation declares Chapter IV of the Children's Protection and Adoption Act of July 5th, 1929, applicable to natives.

Act of July 5th, 1929, Chapter IV: This chapter deals with the Government industrial schools which the Government may establish for the detention of destitute and waif and stray children "to prevent them falling into crime and for training and educating them".

The children liable to be sent to these schools include in particular children found wandering, children whose parents are undergoing imprisonment or are unfit to look after them, children who frequent the company of prostitutes or criminals, or who cannot be controlled by their parents or habitually refuse to attend school, children under the age of 14 years found begging or engaged in street-trading in contravention of the laws, children who are charged with any crime or offence, or who have broken any provision of a contract of apprenticeship.

United Kingdom.—Mandated Territory.

TANGANYIKA TERRITORY.

Ordinance relating to Children and Young Persons.—
Ordinance No. 3 of April 17th, 1937 (document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I./14, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 16).

This ordinance sets up courts for children and young persons under 16 years of age. These courts are distinct from the ordinary courts, and their proceedings are held *in camera*, both the parents and children being heard. A minor who is apprehended may, save in certain specific cases, be released with or without recognisances. The court may make a probation order, order the child or young person to be handed over to a fit person or institution, order the parents to pay a fine instead of the child or young person, or send the child to an approved school up to the age of 18 years. No child under 12 may be sent to prison. Children from 12 to 16 may only be sent to prison in exceptional circumstances, and must not be allowed to associate with adult prisoners.

The following may be summarily brought before a court: children found begging, wandering or without visible means of subsistence, children whose parents have criminal habits, children who frequent the company of thieves or

prostitutes, or who are ill-treated or neglected. In such cases, the court may commit the child to the care of a duly qualified person or approved school.

Canada.

Amendment of the Juvenile Delinquents Act.—Chapter 41 of the Statutes of 1935 (document C.P.E./C.I./13, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 5).

This law amends Articles 5, 32 and 33 of the Act of 1929 and provides that trials of children shall be summary, probation officers being placed under the control of the judge of the court with which they are connected. It is further provided that it shall not be a valid defence of "adults liable who contribute to delinquency" that the child did not in fact become a delinquent.

Finland.

Protection of Neglected and Delinquent Children.—Law of January 17th, 1936, Chapter 3 (*Finlands Författnings-samling*, No. 51-60, 1936) (document C.P.E./C.I./14, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 6).

This law, which deals with child welfare in general, also applies to delinquents, beggars, vagrants, children found in a state of intoxication and children engaging in prohibited occupations.

Up to the age of 21, such children may be placed in families or in special establishments by order of the Communal Welfare Board.

France.

Juvenile Courts.—Decree of August 21st, 1935, extending to Algeria the provisions of the Law of July 21st, 1912, on Juvenile Courts (*Journal officiel*, September 4th, 1935) (document C.P.E./C.I./2, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 1).

The provisions of the Law of July 22nd, 1912, are extended to Algeria. The rules for its application were to be

laid down by decree before its entry into force on the appointed date : January 1st, 1936.

Approved Schools.—Decree of October 26th, 1935, concerning the recruitment of the administrative and supervisory staffs of institutes of supervised education (“ approved schools ”) (*Journal officiel*, of October 27th, 1935) (document C.P.E./C.I./2, Legislative and administrative Series No. 1).

As from the promulgation of the decree, one post in every three falling vacant on the administrative and supervisory staffs of institutes of supervised education (“ approved schools ”), reformatory schools and schools for children in need of protection against moral danger is to be reserved for candidates of either sex satisfying the requirements laid down in the Decree of September 21st, 1927, and holding the State diploma for social service assistants, or the diploma for the teaching of backward children, or producing evidence that they have attended a training class or school, as prescribed in the Regulations.

Right of Paternal Correction.—Decree of October 30th, 1935, amending Articles 376 *et seq.* of the Civil Code (*Journal officiel*, of October 31st, 1935) (document C.P.E./C.I./2, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 1).

Imprisonment of minors as a measure of paternal correction is abolished. If the child is under 16 years of age, the father may ask for him to be placed in an institution by order of the court. For that purpose, the President of the court, when applied to by the father, selects a Government or private institution to take charge of the child’s moral re-education. The President of the court is authorised to fix, at his discretion, the duration of the measures ordered by him. A widowed mother may, on re-marriage, apply for her child to be placed by order of the court, but only with unanimous authorisation by the family council. If the minor is between the ages of 16 and 21, the father may apply for a placing order to the President of the civil court, who, if the application is supported by the Procurator of the Republic, may order the child to be taken into custody and dealt with in the manner prescribed for children under 16 years of age.

Protection of Neglected and Delinquent Children.—Decree of October 30th, 1935, concerning child welfare (*Journal officiel*, October 31st, 1935) (document C.P.E./C.I./2, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 1).

Minors of 18 years of age or under, who are orphans, who have been deserted by or have left their relations, and who are workless and homeless, or who derive their livelihood from immorality or prohibited occupations, shall be, either at their own request or by order of the authorities, sent as a preventive measure to some institution specially approved for the purpose, or to the public assistance authorities.

Afterwards, the President of the juvenile court sitting in chambers shall order all such measures as may be appropriate for the minor's protection.

Supervision of Neglected and Delinquent Children.—Decree of October 30th, 1935, amending Article 2 of the Law of July 24th, 1889 (*Journal officiel*, October 31st, 1935) (document C.P.E./C.I./2, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 1).

Article 2 of the Law of July 24th, 1889, is supplemented by an additional paragraph which indicates that, " apart from the cases referred to in Article 1 and the first six paragraphs of Article 2, measures of educational supervision or assistance may, when the health, safety, morals or education of the child are endangered or insufficiently safeguarded through the fault of the father or mother, be taken by the President of the court, on the application of the Public Prosecutor's Department. Such supervision or assistance shall be carried out by the staff either of social services or of institutions approved by the administrative authority or the court, or by qualified private persons, such as social or child welfare workers. "

Treatment of Refractory or Depraved Wards of the Public Assistance Authorities.—Decree of October 30th, 1935, amending the Law of June 28th, 1904, concerning refractory wards (*Journal officiel*, October 31st, 1935) (document C.P.E./C.I./2, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 1).

The Law of June 28th, 1904, on the education of refractory or depraved wards, is amended as follows :

Whenever a ward of the public assistance authorities gives cause for very grave dissatisfaction through acts of immorality, violence or cruelty, the civil court, sitting in chambers, may decide, in accordance with a report by the Inspector of Assisted Children, and at the request of the Prefect in the Departments, or of the Director of Public Assistance in Paris (Department of the Seine), that the minor shall be entrusted for a period of six months to a qualified society or institution, or, failing this, may be handed over to the penitentiary authorities. If, on the expiry of the six-month period, the ward's reform is not complete, he may be left in the care of the society or institution, or of the penitentiary authorities, by a further decision of the court similarly arrived at.

France.—Colonies.

INDO-CHINA.

Protection and Rehabilitation of Abandoned Minors.—

Decree of April 22nd, 1937 (*Journal officiel* of the French Republic, April 25th, 1937) (document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I./13, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 15).

This decree provides for the placing in special establishments, as a preventive measure, of minors under 18 years of age who have left or been deserted by their parents, or who are orphans, and who are workless and homeless, or are deriving their livelihood from immorality or prohibited occupations.

After an investigation and a medical examination, the competent judge may return such minors to their parents, place them under the care of private individuals, a charitable institution, or an establishment capable of giving them the necessary attention, or lastly place them on probation. Such decisions are subject to appeal and may be rescinded whenever the minor's interests so demand. In case of disobedience to the decision concerning him, a minor may be brought before the juvenile court.

Roumania.

New Criminal Code.—Articles 138 to 154 (in force as from January 1st, 1937 (document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I./2, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 7).

This Code fixes 19 as the age at which majority is attained for the purposes of the criminal law; below that age there is no criminal responsibility, except in cases where

a minor over 14 years of age is deemed to have acted with due understanding. In all cases, the court ascertains the facts and conducts an enquiry into the circumstances of the child and his family.

The court may take one of the following measures of a reformatory or educative character in respect of a child or young person who has acted without due understanding—he may be reprimanded, placed in the care of his family, a relative, or a person of good repute, committed to a welfare institution or reformatory, or placed on probation. Such measures shall cease when the minor reaches the age of 21.

If the minor has acted with due understanding, recourse may be had to measures of security: probation or reformatory training—or of punishment and admonition: imprisonment or simple detention. The last two penalties are to be carried out in the special reformatory establishment for that purpose.

Minors may be released for good conduct.

New Code of Criminal Procedure.—Articles 556 to 575 (January 1st, 1937).

This Code establishes a “court” for minors. A single judge with special knowledge of such work is responsible both for the preliminary investigation and judgment. The judge’s jurisdiction is exercised either at the instance of the Public Prosecutor’s Department or of his own motion, on information received. He may have enquiries made into the circumstances of those concerned and may decide upon preventive measures; his decisions are rendered *in camera* and are subject to appeal.

The judge may also order preventive measures in respect of minors in moral danger. It is the duty of all persons to notify him or the Public Prosecutor of minors who are exposed to the risk of becoming beggars, vagrants or prostitutes (Articles 574 and 575).

Sweden.

Compulsory Education.—Law of March 13th, 1937 (*Svensk Författningssamling* of March 19th, 1937) (document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I./23, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 26).

This law authorises the courts to order the placing in educational establishments of delinquents between the ages

of 15 and 18 who have incurred a penalty of imprisonment or hard labour, or are being prosecuted for further offences while under the benefit of a suspension of sentence (*sursis*) or have forfeited such benefit.

The decision, which has immediate effect, entails the placing of the minor as a pupil in a general educational establishment approved and supervised by the State and providing instruction and apprenticeship training. Such establishments are under the management of an administrative board, which has the power of placing the pupil outside the establishment or finally discharging him (after two years), or again of releasing him provisionally on probation after a period of one year. The latter decision is revocable. All minors are discharged as of right on reaching 21 years of age.

If the minor is the subject of fresh charges while under a placing order, the prosecution may be suspended.

In case of conviction for a fresh offence, of a serious nature or committed after the issue of the placing order, the court may rescind such order and impose the ordinary penalty.

(b) ILLEGITIMATE CHILDREN.

France.

Protection of Natural Children.—Decree of October 30th, 1935, amending Article 389 of the Civil Code and authorising the appointment by the court of a delegate to watch over the moral and material interests of natural children (*Journal officiel*, of October 31st, 1935) (document C.P.E./C.I./2, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 1).

The following addition is made to paragraph 12 of Article 389 of the Civil Code, as amended by the Law of July 2nd, 1907 :

“ Should the natural child not have been acknowledged either by his father or by his mother, the court may, even in cases in which guardianship has been regularly provided for, designate, whether of its own motion or on the motion of the Public Prosecutor, a delegate whose duty it shall be to watch over the child's moral and

material welfare. The said delegate shall propose all such measures as shall be desirable for the minor's personal well-being and the conservation of his property to the Procurator of the Republic, who, should he so think fit, shall move the court with a view to their application.

“Should the natural child be acknowledged by one or other of his parents after the appointment of the delegate, the latter shall *ipso facto* be relieved of his duties.”

12. FAMILY WELFARE.

Belgium.

Family Allowances to Employers and Independent Workers.

—Law of June 10th, 1937 (*Moniteur*, of June 13th, 1937) (document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I./12, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 12).

The new law lays down general principles the application of which will be provided for by a Royal Organic Decree and in Royal and Ministerial Decrees.

France.

Allowances for Family Charges.—Decree of July 16th, 1935, increasing the rate of allowances for family charges (*Journal officiel*, July 17th, 1935) (document C.P.E./C.I./2, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 1).

Scale of increases :

The grant :

For the third child is increased from 1,560 francs to 1,980 francs;

For each child after the fourth is increased from 1,920 francs to 2,460 francs.

In this way, the increase in family allowances will benefit the head of a family of four children to the extent of 960 francs.

Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

Amendments to the Divorce Legislation.—Decree of June 27th, 1936, VIII (*Isvestia*, of June 28th, 1936) (document C.P.E./C.I./9, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 4).

The decree provides that all divorces are to be mentioned on passports. The fee for the registration of a divorce is to be 50 roubles for the first, 150 for the second and 300 for subsequent divorces.

State Assistance to Mothers of Large Families.—Decree of June 27th, 1936, II (*Isvestia*, of June 28th, 1936) (document C.P.E./C.I./9, Legislative and Administrative Series No. 4).

The decree states that mothers having six children shall, for each subsequent child, receive an annual grant of 2,000 roubles for five years as from the birth of the child. Mothers with ten children shall receive a grant of 5,000 roubles at the birth of each subsequent child, and from the second year onwards an annual grant of 3,000 roubles for the next four years.

These provisions also apply to families having a corresponding number of children at the date of the decree.¹

¹ The financial provisions in connection with these measures are to be found under Section VII of the same decree, which it has been impossible to summarise.

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[Communicated to the Council
and the Members of the League.]

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[C.Q.S./P.E./C.I.39.]

Geneva, June 15th, 1938.

6

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

CHILD WELFARE INFORMATION CENTRE

**Summary of Annual Reports received from
Governments between the Close of the First
Session and the Close of the Second Session
of the Advisory Committee on Social
Questions (May 1st, 1937-May 5th, 1938)**

Series of League of Nations Publications

IV. SOCIAL
1938. IV. 5.

INTRODUCTION.

Under a resolution adopted by the Child Welfare Committee at its session in 1933 and approved by the Council on May 22nd, 1933, Governments are asked to supply each year a report on the legislative and administrative measures which have been taken or have been under consideration during the year, with reference to any aspect of child welfare.

The result of the analysis of the reports received by the Secretariat between the close of the first and the close of the second session of the Advisory Committee on Social Questions (May 1st, 1937-May 5th, 1938) is contained in the present document.

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UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA.

A new general law on child welfare was promulgated in the Union of South Africa during 1937 (Children's Act, 1937). The Act provides for the appointment of commissioners of child welfare; for the establishment of children's courts; for the protection, welfare and supervision of certain children; for the establishment or recognition of certain institutions for the reception of juveniles; for the treatment of juveniles after their reception in such institutions; for contribution by certain persons towards the maintenance of certain children; and for the adoption of children; it also amends the law of criminal procedure in so far as it relates to juveniles, and provides for matters incidental to any of the aforesaid subjects.

The text of the Act fills a bilingual pamphlet (English and Afrikaans) of 116 pages,¹ for copies of which the Committee on Social Questions is indebted to the generosity of the Government of the Union of South Africa.

¹ On sale at "Cape Times, Limited", Keerom Street, Cape Town.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

ANNUAL REPORT OF DEVELOPMENTS IN CHILD WELFARE IN THE UNITED STATES DURING THE YEAR JULY 1ST, 1936, TO JUNE 30TH, 1937.

The year ended June 30th, 1937, showed a continuance of the economic improvement started earlier, but large numbers of persons were still unemployed. The Federal funds for unemployment relief were being used for employing men on work projects, leaving to the States and local communities the responsibility for providing for those who could not be employed. There was, however, a steadily mounting Federal contribution to the States for old age assistance, aid to dependent children and aid for the needy blind under the Social Security Act. For many families, the better employment conditions or the public-assistance grants stabilised the family incomes, with resultant benefits to children.

MAJOR TRENDS DURING THE YEAR.

Births and Maternal and Infant Deaths.

The birth rate for the United States in 1936, according to provisional figures issued by the Bureau of the Census, was 16.6 per 1,000 population, as compared with 16.9 for 1935 and 17.1 for 1934. The 1936 rate is the lowest birth rate since the establishment of the birth-registration area in 1915, except the rate for 1933 (16.5).

In 1935, there were 1,392,752 deaths of persons of all ages in the United States, of which 120,138 (8.6 %) were deaths of infants under one year of age. In addition, there were 77,119 stillbirths. The infant mortality rate of 56 per 1,000 live births was the lowest so far recorded for the country as a whole. A slight rise in the infant mortality rate is indicated by provisional figures for 1936 (57).

For the sixth consecutive year, the maternal mortality rate showed a slight decline in 1935 (58 per 10,000 live births). Preliminary figures issued by the United States

Public Health Service for twenty-five States for the year 1936 indicate that the trend to a lower maternal mortality rate continued during that year. The decline seems to have been due largely to an increase in prenatal care. However, the 1935 rate in the United States was higher than in all but three of the twenty-three other countries for which information is available for 1933, 1934, or 1935.

Maternal and Child-health Services.

The programme for maternal and child-health services financed jointly by the Federal, State and local Governments was extended and strengthened during the year ended June 30th, 1937. As early as November 1936, all the forty-eight States, the District of Columbia, Alaska and Hawaii were receiving Federal grants for this purpose as authorised by the Social Security Act (passed in 1935). During the year ended June 30th, 1937, the Federal Government paid to the States \$2,989,014.72 for maternal and child-health services, and State or local Governments expended in addition \$2,191,001.70 as a part of this programme.

By June 30th, 1937, all the States had bureaux of maternal and child health as major divisions of their health departments, headed by physicians who in all but four States give full time to the direction of the programme.

Other specialists employed in the State programmes included pediatricians, obstetricians, public-health nurses, dentists, nutritionists and health educators. Local maternal and child-health services expanded rapidly during the year, especially in rural areas. The services rendered included public health nursing service in homes, clinics and conferences; medical examinations and consultations for mothers and children; immunisation of children; preventive and educational dental services; supervision of midwives; nutrition service; and mental-hygiene services.

Federal aid to the States for public-health nursing is available under title VI of the Social Security Act, administered by the United States Public Health Service, as well as under title V, administered by the United States Children's Bureau. The efforts of both Federal agencies have been directed toward a unified programme of public-health nursing with adequate emphasis on maternal and child health activities, which usually constitute a major

portion of the work of the local public-health nurse. A census of public-health nurses conducted by the two Federal agencies as on January 1st, 1937, showed a total of 19,834 nurses employed full time. Of these, 11,840, or 60 %, were employed by public agencies, including health departments and boards of education. Of the 11,049 public-health nurses employed by local public agencies, 4,233, or 38 %, were serving rural areas.

Beginning with July 1st, 1936, the States were asked to report State and local activities in the maternal and child-health field. Although the figures for the first year are incomplete, the following selected figures indicate the extent of maternal and child-health work conducted as a part of the State maternal and child-health plans :

Visits to medical conferences for maternity service	123,315
Visits to medical conferences for child-hygiene service	513,651
Health examinations of schoolchildren	2,044,996
Immunisations for smallpox	1,346,766
Immunisations for diphtheria	771,292
Public-health nurses' home visits	4,541,656
Inspections by dentists and dental hygienists	961,877
Midwives under planned instruction	11,561

Most of the States have provided staff-training programmes, including stipends for physicians and nurses to enable them to obtain specialised training in maternal and child-health service and in public-health administration. In some States, field-training centres have been established. Brief courses of lectures and demonstrations in obstetrics and pediatrics for physicians in active practice in rural territories and in the smaller cities have been arranged in co-operation with State and local medical societies.

One outstanding fact revealed by the experience of the first year of operation of the maternal and child-health programme was that although there has been marked extension of child-health and prenatal service, the State agencies have not been able, with the funds available, to provide to any extent for better care of the mother and child at the time of birth. The year's experience has made it increasingly evident that there is urgent need in many areas for the provision of more adequate maternal care,

including prenatal, intranatal and postnatal care and care of newborn infants by qualified local physicians, assisted by public-health nurses with special training. Inability to obtain such care is due to many factors, among them the low economic status of the family, distance from physicians and hospitals, poor transportation facilities and the inadequate obstetric training of many physicians. In recognition of this need, the Children's Bureau's general advisory committee on maternal and child-welfare services made recommendations (April 7th and 8th, 1937) to the Chief of the Children's Bureau proposing the extension of the maternal and child-health programme under the Social Security Act by the provision of public funds to make available increased and improved maternity care and care of the newborn and training in these fields for physicians and nurses.

Services for Crippled Children.

Marked progress was made during the year ended June 30th, 1937, in the programme of services for crippled children financed jointly by the Federal, State and local Governments. By June 30th, 1937, forty-two States, the District of Columbia, Alaska and Hawaii, were receiving Federal grants for this purpose as authorised by the Social Security Act. During the year, a total of \$2,011,606.04 of Federal funds was paid to the States for this programme, and an equal amount of State and local funds was expended for services for crippled children (not including funds spent by private organisations).

At the close of the year ended June 30th, 1937, the State programme for services for crippled children was administered in nineteen States by the State health agency; in thirteen by the State welfare agency; in seven by a State crippled children's commission; in four by the State department of education; in one by a State university hospital; and in one by an inter-departmental committee representing the State departments of health and public instruction and the State orthopedic hospital. Local health, welfare and school agencies, and individuals, assist in locating crippled children, in conducting diagnostic clinics and in arranging for after-care services.

Definite progress was made during the year towards providing a registration system to give accurate information

concerning the number and location of crippled children in need of care in each State. By June 30th, 1937, reports for 99,722 crippled children were on file in the official State agencies of thirty-six States, Alaska and Hawaii. In most States, the number on the State registers represents children who are under the care of the State agency only, who are crippled as that term is defined in the State programme and whose condition has been established through medical diagnosis.

The total number of diagnostic clinics held and the number of such clinics held in areas not previously served increased during the year. Such clinics are often used for re-examination of crippled children and for such treatments as adjustment of braces.

Children are sent for surgical and medical care to hospitals as close to their homes as possible. Both public and private hospitals that meet acceptable standards have been utilised. Surgical, medical and hospital care is purchased as a service rendered to individual children. To ensure adequate service, the State agencies have been setting up standards for the selection of surgeons and other professional personnel, for hospital facilities and equipment and for convalescent care.

Both convalescent and after-care services for crippled children have been slower in development than surgical services and hospital care. Convalescent facilities are nowhere adequate, and in some places they are almost non-existent. Most rural communities lack facilities for medical and nursing care and for physical therapy in the home. Facilities for after-care are being extended through the use of community resources for providing care in institutions for convalescents, in foster-homes and in the child's own home.

Child-Welfare Services.

During the year ended June 30th, 1937, the programme for child-welfare services under the Social Security Act advanced rapidly with the setting up of local demonstrations in rural areas in forty-four States and the District of Columbia. Federal grants totalling \$969,827.23 were made to such States. Financial contributions to the programme from State and local resources take various forms, including payment of salaries in part or in full, payment

of travel and office expense, and provision for maintenance in boarding-homes or elsewhere of children who come within the programme and who are in need of financial assistance.

Federal funds are being used almost entirely for the salaries of State and local workers. In most States, local services are developed on a demonstration basis, in the hope that they will stimulate greater community support and more adequate community organisation for child-welfare work and provide a basis of practical experience that can be utilised in extending such services throughout the State. The local child-welfare worker is called upon to advise the juvenile court with regard to serious problems of child behaviour and family relationships; to deal with grave problems arising from neglect and social inadequacy on the part of parents; to make investigations and provide supervision for children for whom foster-care in family homes or institutions is necessary; and to help to stimulate and co-ordinate the development of community services for family welfare, public health, medical care, problems of school attendance and adjustment and recreational activities. To assist the local worker, supervisory and consultant services from the State staff are needed, and also assistance in bringing the community work and specialised State services for children, such as institutional care for the delinquent or the mentally handicapped, into close and helpful relationship.

By June 30th, 1937, Federal funds for child-welfare workers were providing all or part of the salaries of 130 full-time professional workers and 66 part-time professional workers on the staffs of State departments of public welfare; and of 264 full-time professional workers and 40 part-time professional workers assigned to local demonstration units or working in districts in which some service was rendered for individual children. The total number of local rural areas served by child-welfare workers was 303. In addition, State workers were giving some service to individual children in districts covering approximately 628 counties as a part of their effort to develop interest in the establishment of local child-welfare programmes.

Progress reports of local child-welfare workers are bringing to light instances of inadequate relief and lack of medical care which reveal the basic social and economic

conditions affecting children and their families. Special demonstration services for Negro children—for whom in general facilities have been less adequate than for white children—have been developed in several States.

Aid to Dependent Children.

By June 30th, 1937, the Social Security Board had approved plans for aid to dependent children in thirty-five States, including the District of Columbia.¹ Three of these plans were to become effective on July 1st, and in one State no payments were made in June. Under the Social Security Act, the Federal Government pays a third of the amount paid by the State or county governments for dependent children living in the home of a relative, up to a maximum Federal contribution of \$6 a month for the first child and \$4 a month for each additional child. The total amount of Federal grants paid to the States during the year ended June 30th, 1937, was \$13,900,596.48.

In the thirty-one States making payments for aid to dependent children in June 1937, 425,065 children in 170,768 families were aided during the month. The national average monthly allowance was \$30.64 per family in June 1937. It should be noted that this national average covers a range of State averages from \$60.91 in Massachusetts to \$10.31 in Arkansas. The average allowance per family in eighteen States was over \$29; in eight States from \$20 to \$29; and in five, below \$20.

Child Labour.

The statistics collected by the Children's Bureau since 1921 of employment certificates issued for 14- and 15-year-old children and for minors 16 and 17 years of age, although by no means inclusive of all areas in the United States, indicate that child labour follows the ups and downs of industrial activity. The only years when there has been a material decrease in child labour during a period of

¹ Between July 1st and October 5th, 1937, five additional State plans for aid to dependent children were approved, bringing the total approved State plans to forty, including those of the District of Columbia and Hawaii. The latest available estimates based on reports for past months indicate that in November approximately 501,800 children in 201,300 families were receiving assistance through these co-operative Federal-State plans.

upswing in general employment were those during which the 16-year minimum for employment set in the codes of fair competition under the National Industrial Recovery Act (1933-1935) practically eliminated the employment of children under 16 years of age in industry and trade. There was a sharp increase in the number of 14- and 15-year-old children leaving school to go to work during the year immediately following the invalidation of the N.R.A. codes. Continuing this trend, in the localities in the reporting area where no changes in legal regulation occurred the number of first regular employment certificates issued for 14- and 15-year-old children in the last half of 1936 increased by 48 % as compared with the latter half of 1935 in the same area (3,732 to 5,523).

Legislation in two States (New York and Rhode Island), effective in the autumn of 1936, placed the minimum age for entrance to employment at 16 years, which caused a sharp reduction in the number of employment certificates issued in these States. Reports for 16- and 17-year-old minors, which were received from a smaller area than reports for 14- and 15-year-old children, showed an increase of 29 % (60,251 to 77,847) in the number of first regular employment certificates issued for boys and girls 16 and 17 years of age in the calendar year 1936, as compared with the corresponding period of 1935 for the same group of States and cities.

During the early part of 1937, the child-labour amendment was ratified in four States, making a total of twenty-eight States whose legislatures have ratified the proposed child-labour amendment to the Federal constitution, which seeks to give Congress power to limit, regulate and prohibit the labour of persons under 18 years of age. Action by thirty-six States is necessary to complete ratification, and as that number is approached, the opposition grows more active in the States that have not ratified.

A basic minimum age of 16 years for factory employment at any time and for any employment during school hours was established in North Carolina and South Carolina, bringing to ten the number of States with a 16-year minimum-age standard. Other gains in standards set by law for minimum age of employment, hours of work, street trades, workmen's compensation, minimum wages and home work were made in a number of States. Legis-

lative standards in all these fields vary greatly from State to State, and in order to give children adequate protection the establishment of basic Federal standards as a complement to State legislation is essential. More than thirty bills seeking to establish Federal child-labour standards were introduced in the 1937 session of Congress.

A basic minimum age of 16 years for employment and provision for setting a minimum age of 18 years for occupations, determined by the Chief of the Children's Bureau to be particularly hazardous or detrimental to health, were included in the Fair Labour Standards bill applying to employment affecting inter-State commerce, which passed the Senate on July 22nd, 1937, and which is pending in the House of Representatives during the special session of Congress opening November 15th, 1937.

It is anticipated as a result of recent decisions of the Supreme Court that the Court might now hold constitutional such Federal regulation of the employment of children and young persons. However, such legislation would relate only to employment affecting inter-State commerce, and would not extend to intra-state trade and service industries, concerning which Congress could legislate if the Federal child-labour amendment should become a part of the constitution.

The Sugar Act of 1937, passed by Congress and approved on September 1st, 1937, provides that, as a condition of payment of Federal funds to producers, no child under the age of 14 years may work in the production of sugar-beets or sugar-cane, and no child between 14 and 16 may work more than 8 hours a day, except a member of the immediate family of a person who owns not less than 40 % of the crop at the time the work is performed.

For a number of years there has been an increase in the use of boys to deliver newspapers under the so-called "little merchant" system in lieu of the old method of hiring boys to deliver newspapers. Under this system, the boy is required to buy his papers, the title of the papers passing legally to him, although the child is actually in the employment of and under the control of the publisher or newsagent. Among the disadvantages to the boy are the shifting of the bad debts of customers to the boy and the avoidance of responsibility by the employer under workmen's compensation acts in case of accident or injury

to the boy. Since the contracts between the newsboys and the publishers or newsagents are carefully worded to avoid the appearance of control over the boy and thereby the admission of the employer-employee relationship, the trend of court decisions interpreting such contracts appears to uphold the exclusion of the boys from the benefits of workmen's compensation. The State of Wisconsin this year (1937) has dealt with the problem by legislation. It has amended both its child-labour law and its workmen's compensation law to provide that a person selling or distributing newspapers or magazines is an employee of the publisher or newsagent for the purposes of these acts.

Present-day studies show a shift in the employment of young people from factories, where child-labour abuses first attracted public attention, to miscellaneous occupations in trade and service industries, in which child-labour is more difficult to regulate than in large industrial plants, and which are sometimes even now unregulated by State laws. Hours are often long. In a survey made in six States during 1936 by the Children's Bureau, nearly a fourth of the children under 16 were found to be working 60 hours a week or longer, and only about a third had a working-week of 40 hours or less. Earnings were low—the median weekly wage for children under 16 was only slightly over \$4, and nearly a fifth of the children earned less than \$2 for a week's work.

Migrant Families.

A preliminary report of an investigation of the social and economic needs of workers migrating across State lines was submitted to the Senate on July 3rd, 1937, by the Secretary of Labour. As a part of the investigation, visits were made by representatives of the Children's Bureau during the autumn and winter of 1936/37 to areas in twenty States. The social problems of three groups of migrant family workers were studied—migrant agricultural workers, the class of migrants that may be termed "depression migrants", and those migrating for reasons other than to find employment, including health-seekers. A large proportion of the present-day migrant population is composed of family groups with small children. Acute problems of housing, education, health and relief, and social and economic conflicts were found in every community

with which the migrants came in contact—problems which were intensified by the fact that migrants were usually isolated from the normal resources of the community both because of the unstable conditions under which they lived and because of community prejudices against them.

Other Legislation affecting Children.

During the year ended June 30th, 1937, laws establishing or reorganising State departments of welfare were passed in twenty-two States, with a marked trend toward unification of such State welfare services as public assistance, relief and child welfare. These laws provided for State administration of Federal grants for aid to dependent children and for child-welfare services under the Social Security Act. Eighteen States included in their laws provision for the establishment of county welfare agencies, and of these, eleven gave such county agencies specific responsibility for services to children. In eleven States, the State department of welfare was authorised to establish standards of training and experience for persons to be appointed to administer local welfare services.

Pennsylvania passed a law appropriating \$40,000 to the Department of Health for the use of the Land Grant College of Pennsylvania for research in nutrition for children. The State of Washington passed a law creating in the University of Washington a State institute of child-development research and service, with an appropriation of \$50,000 for the ensuing biennium.

Conference for Discussion of Public and Private Services for Child Welfare.

- Because of the need for clarification of certain aspects of the relationships and reciprocal responsibilities of public and private child-welfare activities, especially with regard to the expanding public child-welfare programmes, the Children's Bureau called a conference (April 9th and 10th, 1937) of seventy representatives of public and private agencies. The discussions dealt with the scope of State and local public child-welfare activities, the contribution of private child-welfare organisations, and co-operation between public and private agencies.

Juvenile Delinquency.

The juvenile-court statistics compiled annually by the Children's Bureau since 1927 included in 1936 courts serving areas representing 34 % of the total population of the United States, 66 % of the population residing in cities of 100,000 or more, and 20 % of the population residing in cities of less than 100,000 and in rural areas. In the area reporting in both 1935 and 1936, the total number of delinquency cases reported for 1936 (63,320) was 9 % less than the number reported for 1935. The figures for a group of twenty-eight courts serving large areas with 100,000 or more population for which reports are available since 1929, showed fewer cases of juvenile delinquency in 1936 than in any other year of the period.

There is active interest on the part of national organisations and community groups throughout the United States in the prevention of juvenile delinquency. The Children's Bureau receives many requests for information and advice regarding the adequacy of care provided for juvenile delinquents and the planning of community programmes for prevention and treatment of delinquency, juvenile court legislation and administration, and institutional methods of treatment of juvenile delinquents. The programme for child-welfare services under the Social Security Act in the areas where it is in operation offers an opportunity of discovering the problems of individual children and obtaining assistance for them, and for the co-ordination of effort on the part of community agencies to prevent juvenile delinquency. In St. Paul, Minn., a three-year demonstration of methods of prevention and treatment of behaviour problems of children was begun in the autumn of 1936 by the Children's Bureau in co-operation with five local agencies. The effort is to be made to obtain service for children from the neighbourhood agencies administering various types of service in order to reduce by prevention the number of serious delinquency problems requiring the attention of the juvenile court.

In the autumn of 1936, an advisory committee on training schools for socially maladjusted children was appointed to confer with the Children's Bureau, in response to the desire of superintendents of State institutions dealing with delinquent children for assistance in evaluating and

improving programmes of institutional care. Sub-committees are at work on a statement of the philosophy of institutional care and the principles underlying such care, and on the recording of financial, administrative and social data, and existing literature and current data are being assembled so that the Children's Bureau may serve as a clearing-house for information in this field.

TEN-YEAR GOALS SET.

On April 9th, 1937, the twenty-fifth anniversary of the establishment of the Children's Bureau as an agency of the United States Government was celebrated. In a statement issued at that time, Miss Katharine F. Lenroot, Chief of the Children's Bureau, summarised the gains made for children during the twenty-five-year period and set the following goals to be attained during the next ten years :

1. Reduction of the death rate per 1,000 live births in the first year of life from 56 to 35 or below; in the first month of life, from 34 to 24; reduction of the stillbirth rate from 36 to 26 or below.

2. Reduction of the maternal mortality rate per 10,000 live births from 58 to 38 or below.

3. Practical elimination, through immunisation, of small-pox and diphtheria; great reduction through more widespread use of measures now available or being developed in the number of deaths of children from whooping-cough, measles, scarlet fever and pneumonia; reduction in congenital syphilis through the programme being stimulated by the United States Public Health Service for the control of syphilis; definite progress in control of epidemics of infantile paralysis and in the prevention of crippling conditions resulting from this disease; prevention of and care for injuries to newborn infants.

4. Marked reduction in the number of undernourished children through improved economic conditions and widespread dissemination among the people of knowledge of ways in which good nutrition may be assured at moderate cost.

5. Elimination of child labour under the age of 16 years, and safeguards of employed youth 16 and 17 years of age

in industrial and commercial occupations and other occupations where children and their parents are especially subject to commercialised exploitation, through direct Federal legislation, administered in co-operation with State agencies, made possible by completion of the ratification of the child-labour amendment.

6. Widespread extension of educational and vocational guidance and junior placement service, built upon elementary and secondary school facilities and facilities for public recreation increasingly adequate to meet the needs of youth in a period of rapidly accelerated economic and social change.

7. Increased availability to rural as well as to urban children of public assistance when the economic ability of the normal breadwinner to provide for his family fails, and of case-work, child-guidance, recreational and other community services for the early discovery and remedial treatment of conditions leading to child dependency, neglect, emotional instability and delinquency.

8. Extension of services to crippled children, to include all physically handicapped children not otherwise able to obtain skilled medical, surgical, nursing and social care, these programmes being closely correlated with a sound programme of education and guidance adapted to the needs of each child.

9. Development of comprehensive State-wide and community programmes for the care of the mentally deficient, including discovery, diagnosis, special-class education, community supervision and, for those who need it, institutional or boarding-home care.

10. Changed public attitude towards juvenile delinquency, based upon increasing awareness of the conditions leading to its development and the types of service in community, court and training-school which are essential if children thwarted and handicapped by untoward family and neighbourhood conditions from their earliest years are to be given their fair chance in the world.

Note.—The information sent under the heading “ Youth and Unemployment ”, relating principally to youth ranging from 16 to 25 years of age, has been communicated to the International Labour Office.

A Bulletin published by the Children's Bureau on the occasion of the twenty-fifth anniversary of its foundation, was annexed to the report, and has been placed in the archives of the Secretariat. It contains information as to the history, organisation and purpose of the Children's Bureau.

ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

The following is a summary of Law No. 12341, setting up a Maternity and Child-Welfare Service,¹ which the Argentine Republic promulgated in the *Boletín Oficial* of January 11th, 1937.

A Maternity and Child-Welfare Service is to be set up under the National Health Department on the basis of the Existing Section for the Assistance and Protection of Children, it will be under the control of a technical director appointed by the Executive.

Object.

The Maternity and Child-Welfare Service will deal with the various causes of infant mortality and morbidity and afford protection to mothers and future mothers.

With this end in view it will :

Study all aspects of the social hygiene of childhood, keep a permanent register of the official and private institutions for the welfare of mothers and children, diffuse a knowledge of the principles of child and maternal hygiene, eugenics and puericulture, and set up, or induce public and private institutions to set up, the associations and services necessary to achieve the aim of the service—*i.e.*, the protection of mothers and children.

Types of Institution.

The law enumerates the types of institution deemed to be necessary (Article 5).

Field of Action.

The Maternity and Child-Welfare Service is to extend its activities to the whole Republic; it will draw up a general plan for child welfare and indicate the places in which the institutions regarded as necessary for the exe-

¹ Document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I.8—Legislative and Administrative Series, No. 11.

cution of the plan are to be set up. Each group of the population must possess at least one maternal and infant-health centre, together with the necessary services.

The law further provides that the Maternity and Child-Welfare Service will set up a model maternal and infant-health centre as soon as possible in the federal capital, and also a practical school of puericulture for doctors, health visitors, visiting and other nurses for children and women dieticians.

The Maternity and Child-Welfare Service is to supervise all the official and private institutions for the assistance and protection of mothers and children functioning in the Federal capital, in the national territories and in the provinces which avail themselves of the advantages of the Law No. 12341. The Maternity and Child-Welfare Service will not, however, supervise the institutions in the Federal capital for which the *Sociedad de Beneficencia* is responsible, as those institutions are financially independent.

It will, moreover, aid provincial, municipal and private institutions that afford assistance and protection in any form to mothers and children, provided it exercises supervision over such institutions.

The Maternity and Child-Welfare Service is empowered to inspect all such institutions and establishments as may directly or indirectly aid, protect, admit or employ minors. It can report any irregularities it notes to the competent authority. It may also supervise the use of the grants or subsidies accorded by the authorities for the purposes of the present Law.

Breast-feeding.

It is the duty of every mother, so it is stated in the Law, to nurse her child if her health permits. If she is unable to do so, she must obtain exemption from the authorities specified in the Regulations which give effect to Law No. 12341. No mother may nurse a child other than her own until the latter has reached the age of five months; she must, moreover, obtain permission in advance from the Maternity and Child-Welfare Service. The law then defines the conditions in which a woman may undertake to nurse a child other than her own, and lays down the penalties for any breach of the regulations.

Funds of the Maternity and Child-Welfare Service.

A sum of one million Argentine pesos is allocated each year to the Maternity and Child-Welfare Service, without prejudice to other appropriations under the Finance Act.

ADMINISTRATIVE MEASURES.

*Ministry of the Interior. Health Department. Regulations giving effect to Law No. 12341, setting up the Maternity and Child-Welfare Service.*¹ (Regulations No. 101341—*Boletín Oficial* of April 3rd, 1937).

The main points in the Regulations are the following :

The Section for the Assistance and Protection of Mothers and Children of the National Health Department is to be known as the *Maternity and Child-Welfare Service*. All the services of this Section, together with its staff and other elements, are to be incorporated in the new services.

The Maternity and Child-Welfare Service consists of the following six divisions :

Division I—Social Hygiene of Childhood.

This division is responsible for :

(a) Demographic research and health statistics and the study of all medical, health, and social problems affecting the child;

(b) Health propaganda and health education of the population;

(c) Application of the measures adopted by the Maternity and Child-Welfare Service with a view to securing the harmonious development of the child's personality from the physical, mental, moral and social standpoints.

Propaganda regarding hygiene and health education will be conducted by means of publications, pamphlets, bulletins, posters and all other kinds of printed matter, distributed through the schools, official or private institutions for social assistance and educational or recreational organisations. Provision is made for permanent

¹ Document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I.8—Legislative and Administrative Series, No. 11.

and travelling exhibitions on puericulture, campaigns for social hygiene for children, "child weeks", congresses and lectures and wireless broadcasts and films.

The Maternity and Child-Welfare Service will set up as soon as possible a *Central Children's Cinematograph Office* which will :

(a) Study all measures relating to the production and making of educational, instructive and recreational films for children and to the use of such films in schools and official or private institutions for social assistance and educational or recreational organisations;

(b) Make documentary films on all aspects of the life of the Argentine child, as well as films popularising modern ideas on social hygiene for children;

(c) Form a *childhood film library*.

Division II—Eugenics, Maternity and Infancy.

This Division is responsible for all aspects of the welfare of mothers, future mothers and children from conception to the age of 3. It will concern itself with :

(a) Eugenic, pre-marital, pre-conceptual and pre-natal instruction;

(b) All measures to ensure the normal development of pregnancy, labour and puerperium.

Among the measures to be adopted should be mentioned the organisation of pre-conceptual consulting clinics where pre-marital examinations will be made free of charge, the organisation of social service in official and private institutions for the care of pregnant women or women in childbed, the prevention of unlawful obstetrical assistance and of treatment by unqualified persons, the development of maternity insurance, facilities for breast-feeding by mothers, examination of wet-nurses, organisation and supervision of nursing centres, registration of births and supervision of young children.

Division III—Pre-school Age, School Age and Adolescence.

This Division will be responsible for :

(a) The permanent study of the environmental conditions of minors from 3 to 18 years of age;

(b) The application of the measures adopted for their physical, intellectual, moral and social welfare;

(c) The establishment of the necessary institutions for the normal development and welfare of minors;

(d) The technical direction and supervision of the existing child welfare institutions and services, or institutions and services to be set up in the future.

Among these services, which are named in the law (Article 39), mention should be made of kindergartens, puericulture centres, urban centres for the physical training of children, preventoria, holiday colonies, baths, local children's social centres, non-resident consulting clinics, children's wards and hospitals, country, seaside and mountain sanatoria and colonies for abnormal children.

The Maternity and Child-Welfare Service sees that every kindergarten and primary and secondary school has its own medical officer and social service. The medical officer and social service will take all the necessary steps to supervise and ensure the normal development of the child. The Maternity and Child-Welfare Service will carry out permanent inquiries into the conditions in which the physical training and recreation of children of both sexes in rural and urban districts are carried on, and keep personal physical training cards which will be placed on the child's personal file. It will see that all districts possess physical training grounds or recreation grounds for children.

It will encourage the establishment of seaside, country, or mountain colonies for children of school age and adolescents, for mothers, and for children under 6.

With regard to the mental hygiene of childhood, the Maternity and Child-Welfare Service will organise, with the existing social assistance institutions for mothers and children, services for the necessary preventive and corrective action, in order to study the causes of physical or psycho-sensory defects in children of pre-school and school age.

It will organise dental assistance for the benefit of mothers and children throughout the country and promote the extension of services for providing free baths for mothers and children.

Finally, the Maternity and Child-Welfare Service will itself take steps, or see that steps are taken, to introduce such prophylactic measures as may be deemed necessary for the prevention of infectious diseases of children, and will supervise the application of these measures. It will also arrange for vaccination against smallpox, inoculation against diphtheria, and such other forms of inoculation as are usual in preventive medicine. It will encourage the establishment, organisation or co-ordination of services for the assistance, protection and re-education of children incapacitated by disorders of the locomotory organs (infantile paralysis, etc.).

Division IV—Deserted Children. Sick and Abnormal Children. Prevention of Child Desertion.

The Social Service will do its utmost to prevent the removal of a child from its home for material reasons, and will, if necessary, provide assistance to this end. Should that be impossible, or should there be moral reasons why the child should not remain with his parents, the Social Service will endeavour to place him in an institution or a family where he will find conditions favourable to his normal physical, mental and moral development. Begging by children, and by women accompanied by children, will be prevented in every possible way.

The Maternity and Child-Welfare Service will set up in the Federal capital a *Centre for the observation and classification of deserted and delinquent minors who are suffering from disorders of the sensory system or other psychical disorders, or who are abnormal*, and will provide similar centres in the national territories and in provinces availing themselves of the benefits provided by Law No. 12341. In provinces where this is not possible, it will see that the official institutions organise similar centres. Children's magistrates, the police and other authorities taking action to rescue a minor or to deprive him of his liberty, will send him to the nearest centre for examination.

The Maternity and Child-Welfare Service will also study the organisation of and methods adopted by the establishments for the assistance, protection and upbringing of deserted or delinquent minors who are suffering from psychical disorders or disorders of the sensory system, or who are abnormal.

Division V.—Inspection and Legislation.

The Maternity and Child-Welfare Service will have the right to exercise technical and administrative supervision and inspection over all institutions for the assistance and protection of mothers and children, for physical training and for recreation, which are subsidised by the national, provincial, or municipal authorities and also over the use made of such subsidies. (Institutions under the *Sociedad de Beneficencia* shall not, however, be liable to such supervision and inspection.)

The sale of alcoholic beverages and tobacco to children under 15 years of age is prohibited.

Children under 5 years of age will not be admitted to public performances, cinemas, theatres, etc. (unless the performances are specifically intended for children). Children under 12 years of age will not be admitted to evening performances of any kind. They will only be admitted to day performances (cinemas, theatres, etc.) if they have obtained authorisation beforehand from the Maternity and Child-Welfare Service.

The Maternity and Child-Welfare Service will exercise supervision in the matter of milk hygiene.

Division VI.—Social Service.

This Division will be responsible for organising and supervising social service in all institutions for the assistance and protection of mothers and children, whether such institutions are attached to the Maternity and Child-Welfare Service or not. All such institutions must provide, within two years from the date on which Decree No. 101341 is published, social service in accordance with the rules laid down by the Maternity and Child-Welfare Service. This social service work will be carried out by a qualified staff. The Maternity and Child-Welfare Service will open a practical school of puericulture and a school of social service for children, both of which will be under the immediate orders of the Director and Sub-Director of the Service.

The Service will also supervise food and the sale of medicines and dietetic products intended for children or described in the directions for use as being for infants or children up to the age of 6; it will also supervise the adver-

tising of such products. Finally, the Regulations lay down that the technical staff (medical officers, assistants, dentists, midwives, etc., holding certificates issued by the schools of puericulture and of social service for children) and the administrative personnel for the posts to be created by the National Health Department will be recruited by open competition in accordance with the rules laid down in each specific case.

Official Institutions.

The important work done in the Argentine Republic by the official institutions of the *Sociedad de Beneficencia* of Buenos Aires and the *Patronato Nacional de Menores*, which are mainly responsible for the protection and education of children and adolescents, has been supplemented by the establishment under a national law of the Maternity and Child-Welfare Service.

According to the general register of children kept by the *Sociedad de Beneficencia* of Buenos Aires, which is responsible for centralising the administrative services for minors placed in the permanent care of the Society, minors in institutions in 1936 were distributed as follows:

The *Foundling Home*, which admits children up to 2 years of age, cared for 800 children; the *Institute for Assistance to Children*, which includes a kindergarten, a school for nurses, and a school for dental nurses, looked after 638 children between the ages of 2½ and 7; the *Otamendi Home* took 50 refractory or difficult children between the same ages; the *General Rodriguez Home* had 700 boys between the ages of 7 and 10, who were given an elementary education; the *Girls' Orphanage* and the *Unzué Home* looked after 690 and 350 girls respectively, their ages ranging from 10 to 18.

The *Youths' Orphanage* cared for 350 boys (over 10 years of age) who were taught various trades. The *Alvear de Lujan Institute* had 400 boys who followed theoretical and practical apprenticeship courses in agriculture.

In 1936, 1,590 minors were cared for by the various institutions under the *Patronato Nacional de Menores*, which provides for the complete education of the child and adolescent by the home (*hogar*) system.

The *Ricardo Gutierrez Home-Colony*, an estate of 920 hectares suitable for agriculture and stock-raising and

containing an industrial section for the teaching of seventeen different trades, with workshops provided with all the necessary equipment, had 600 pupils in 1936. The thirty-three homes of the Gutierrez Colony contained 990 adolescents in all (30 per home).

In 1936, the *Patronato Nacional de Menores* was able to carry out the whole of its extensive programme for the complete education of children and adolescents. Besides the Colony and homes mentioned above, the two following institutions under the Patronato carried on their work as usual :

The *Carlos Pellegrini Institution* for the higher education of gifted pupils and the *Institution for the Protection of Girls*, which has since 1932 provided moral and vocational training for deserted girls, and has for this purpose a rural settlement of 250 hectares.

The *Sociedad de Beneficencia* of Buenos Aires and the *Patronato Nacional de Menores* are both carrying out effectively and steadily the programme assigned to them when they were founded. In addition to State grants, they receive private donations. In this connection it should be noted that the steady growth of philanthropic activities in the Argentine has made it possible to set up new institutions such as the model *Rossell Institute for the Blind*, etc.

Such institutions have the support of public opinion throughout the country.

AUSTRALIA.

New South Wales.

The Child-Welfare Department reports that the Child-Welfare Bill has not yet been passed by Parliament.

The Government does not contemplate introducing any immediate legislation relating to the educational aspect of the protection and welfare of children and young persons. The question of raising the school age is still being considered by the New South Wales Government.

Note.—The information sent by the Department of Labour and Industry from the industrial point of view has been transmitted to the International Labour Office.

Victoria.

There was no new development during the year 1936 concerning protection and welfare of children and young persons.

South Australia.

The position in South Australia is much the same as that contained in the previous report furnished in September 1933.

Amendments in legislation have been more matters of detail than any introduction of a changed policy.

The question of National Insurance is at present being considered by the Commonwealth and State authorities.

A copy of the Report of the Children's Welfare and Public Relief Board for the year ended June 30th, 1937, was also sent; it has been placed in the archives of the Secretariat. It contains numerical and administrative information with regard to State children under control, industrial and probationary schools, reformatories, the Central Depot, the Convalescent Home, the placing of children.

AUSTRIA.

The Federal Chancellery states that it has been unable, on account of administrative reforms, to submit a report this year on the legislative and administrative changes made in respect of child welfare, but that the report which will be prepared for the 1939 session of the Committee on Social Questions will cover the activity of the two years 1936 and 1937.

BELGIUM.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

The provisions relating to the application of the Royal Decree of July 31st, 1935,¹ on the raising of the school-leaving age, have been extended by the Law of June 9th, 1937.²

The question of the compulsory raising of the school-leaving age to 15 years has been referred to and will be discussed by the Higher Council on Technical Education.

No other legislative or administrative measures affecting child welfare were introduced or brought under consideration in 1936.

¹ See document C.P.E./C.I.3—Legislative and Administrative Series, No. 2.

² The text of this law is deposited in the archives of the Secretariat.

BOLIVIA.

On June 14th, 1937, a Presidential Decree was promulgated establishing a *National Minors' Welfare Society*¹ (Patronato) with headquarters at La Paz. It is the duty of this body to exercise State tutelary protection over children and minors in general and in particular deserted children and children born out of wedlock.

The National Minors' Welfare Society is under the direct control of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare. It consists of a Director-General appointed by the Government and an Advisory Council composed of the President of the National Red-Cross Society, the Director-General of the Department of Health and Hygiene and the Director-General of Primary Education. The Director of the Welfare Society acts as President, and the President of the National Red-Cross Society is Vice-President.

There are departmental welfare committees under the National Welfare Society, which organises and lays down rules for their activities, subject to the approval of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare. They consist of a delegate of the Prefect, a delegate of the municipal Alcalde, a delegate of the Rector of the University or the Head of the University Division, and the President of the Departmental Red-Cross Society. The Director of each Departmental Welfare Society is selected from among the members by the Director-General of the National Welfare Society.

The functions of the National Minors' Welfare Society are the following :

- (a) To organise, direct and appoint the administrative staff of maternity clinics, crèches, home schools at which children are housed and boarded (escuelas hogares) and farm schools, free clinics and dispensaries for mothers and infants, reformatories for minors, school colonies and other similar establishments;

¹ See document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I.44; Legislative and Administrative series No. 39.

(b) To supervise private establishments for assisting minors—orphanges, homes, milk distribution centres, hospices and charitable institutions, recommending them to adopt certain principles of education, morality and hygiene and correcting those which in the Welfare Society's opinion are not compatible with a sound educational policy;

(c) To lay down regulations and statutes for the organisations under its control, subject to the approval of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare;

(d) To protect minors who are ill-treated whether by their parents, guardians, persons having charge of them, or other persons by referring such cases to the competent authorities or by undertaking, if necessary, the protection of such minors;

(e) To prevent children from acquiring evil tendencies through attendance at public performances unsuited to their age, or through acts that are contrary to morality, patriotism and good conduct; to report any cases of either kind to the competent authorities if the warnings, advice or suggestions of the Welfare Society produce no effect;

(f) To undertake the defence of delinquent minors, informing the Public Prosecutor's Department of all the circumstances of each case, or appointing counsel to defend minors through the Bar of each locality;

(g) To supervise minors' wards of penitentiaries and to work for the establishment of special reformatories;

(h) To put down begging by children through the gradual placing of beggar children and vagrant minors in schools and homes;

(i) To afford effective and adequate assistance to pregnant women who have been deserted and are without means for one month before and one month after delivery or until such time as they are able to resume their work;

(j) To find paid work for unemployed mothers and to take charge of their infants when this work is such as to prevent them from doing so themselves.

As regards deserted children, the Decree provides for

their being placed in families, but they still remain under the supervision of inspectors and visitors of the Welfare Society.

Mothers entering maternity clinics or attending children's hospitals need not disclose their identity and may not be compelled to do so.

Police and judicial authorities, private welfare and assistance establishments and any private persons rescuing a deserted child or learning that a child is materially and morally neglected, are required, on pain of disciplinary or penal proceedings, to inform at once the Welfare Committee for the area in which the child lives.

The Decree lays down certain educational principles which must be observed by establishments for promoting the welfare of children and young people.

One chapter in the Decree is devoted to the budget for the welfare of children and young persons. Among other measures, a tax of 5 % is levied on the amounts paid in fees and for board by the pupils at the educational establishments of the Republic. The whole proceeds of this tax are used to cover the cost of founding and maintaining the institutions under the control of the Minors' Welfare Society. A stamp of the value of one Bolivian peso has also been introduced "for assisting children in distress". Hotelkeepers are required, under penalty, to affix in their books one stamp per day for each person staying at or resident in the hotel.

UNITED KINGDOM.¹

1. LEGISLATION ON INFANTS, CHILDREN OF PRE-SCHOOL AGE, CHILDREN OF SCHOOL AGE AND ADOLESCENTS OF POST-SCHOOL AGE.

The most important legislation under this heading passed during the year was the Education Act, 1936.

This Act deals with four matters in particular.

A. It provides for the raising of the age of compulsory school attendance from 14 to 15 as from September 1st, 1939, with provisions for exemption between those ages for beneficial employment and in the case of exceptional hardship for the withdrawal of children to give assistance in the home.

B. It empowers Local Education Authorities during a limited period to make grants to managers of voluntary schools to assist the enlargement or improvement of existing schools for the benefit of senior children and under certain conditions to assist to build new voluntary schools for senior children.

C. It makes provision, subject to certain qualifications, for the appointment, dismissal and control by the Local Education Authority of teachers in voluntary schools to which grants are made by the Authority.

D. It makes certain changes with respect to the giving of religious instruction in public elementary schools.

In order that the changes made by the Act may be clearly understood, it may be convenient to set out the existing position with regard to the four matters with which the Act deals.

¹ All the documents (Acts, Circulars and Reports) mentioned in this report are being printed and published by His Majesty's Stationery Office and can be obtained at the following addresses: Adastral House, Kingsway, London, W.C.2; 120, George Street, Edinburgh 2; 26, York Street, Manchester 1; 1, St. Andrew's Crescent, Cardiff; 80, Chichester Street, Belfast; or through any bookseller.

(A) The Education Act, 1921, which governs school attendance, imposes a duty on Local Education Authorities to make and enforce bye-laws for the attendance of children at school between the ages of 5 and 14 subject to the qualification that in certain circumstances, and subject to the approval of the Board of Education, the lower age may be 6 or the upper age limit may be 15 years of age.

Bye-laws requiring an upper limit of 15 years of age may apply generally to all children or to children other than those employed in any specified occupations and may allow exemption from school attendance between the ages of 14 and 15 in any circumstances in which the Authority consider, after due enquiry, that such exemption is justifiable. In fact, the authorities who have raised the school-leaving age to 15—13 in all—have applied the bye-law to all the children in their areas and have made provision for exemptions.

(B) Under the Education Act, 1921, the buildings of all voluntary schools have to be provided by the managers on whom is also placed the responsibility for the repair and general upkeep. Neither the Board of Education nor Local Education Authorities are empowered by this Act to make grants in aid of the building or reconstruction of voluntary schools.

(C) Under the Education Act, 1921, the teachers in all voluntary schools are appointed by the managers subject to the consent in each case of the Local Education Authority, which consent must not be withheld except on educational grounds. The consent of the Authority is also required to the dismissal of a teacher from a voluntary school except in cases where dismissal is on grounds connected with giving religious instruction.

By Section 29, (5), (c), of the Education Act, 1921, the religious instruction given in a voluntary school must, as regards its character, be in accordance with the provisions, if any, of the trust deed—that is to say, broadly speaking, denominational religious instruction is given in Church Schools.

(D) By Section 28, (1) of the 1921 Act, the religious instruction given in a Council School must not be distinctive of any particular denomination, and, as already noted,

the religious instruction in a voluntary school must be in accordance with the trust deed.

Section 27, (1), (b), of the Act provides that parents may withdraw their children from religious instruction either in a Council or voluntary school but the children must not be withdrawn from school (*i.e.*, they must be on the school premises) during the period of religious instruction unless what is known as the Anson Bye-law is in operation—that is a bye-law which allows parents to withdraw their children from the school premises during the period of religious instruction if the Authority are satisfied that suitable arrangements have been made for the children to receive religious instruction of the kind desired by the parents in other premises.

Summary of the Provisions of the Education Act, 1936.

A. Section 1 of the Act substitutes 15 for 14 as the age-up to which Local Education Authorities must make bye-laws for the attendance of children at school and provides that in areas where the school-leaving age has already been raised by bye-law any provisions in the existing bye-laws for exemptions between 14 and 15 years of age "shall cease to have effect", new conditions for exemption being prescribed in the following sections.

The raising of the school-leaving age does not apply to any child born on or before September 1st, 1925. The "appointed day" is September 1st, 1939.

Section 2 imposes on Local Education Authorities the duty of granting exemption for beneficial employment to any child resident in their particular area after the end of the term in which he attains the age of 14, if they are satisfied that the parent desires the employment for the child and are also satisfied, after consultation with the Local Committee for Juvenile Employment, if any, and after consideration of the health and physical condition of the child, that the employment will be beneficial to the child. The particular employment has therefore to be considered in relation to the individual child.

In determining whether the particular employment will be beneficial employment for the individual child the Authority, whose determination is conclusive, must have regard to the prospective, as well as to the immediate,

benefit of the child and in particular must take into account :

- (a) The nature and probable duration of the employment, the wages to be paid and the hours of the work;
- (b) The opportunities to be afforded to the child for further education;
- (c) The time available to the child for recreation; and
- (d) The value in relation to the future career of the child of any training or other advantages afforded by the employment.

The Authority may require an undertaking from an employer in connection with (a), (b) and (c) above as a condition precedent to the granting of an employment certificate, and the certificate may be cancelled if any undertaking given by the employer and specified in the certificate is not observed by him.

An Authority is empowered to arrange that an employment certificate shall not take effect before the end of school term.

Provision is made that where a certificate relates to employment in the area of another Authority, the issuing Authority must, unless other arrangements have been made, give notice to that other Authority of their intention to issue the certificate, and that if the other Authority within seven days notify the issuing Authority that they would not regard the employment as beneficial for children residing in that area, the certificate shall not be issued.

An Authority may cancel an employment certificate if any undertaking given by an employer is not observed by him or if the child has failed to make use of opportunities for further education afforded to him in pursuance of such an undertaking.

Where an employment certificate ceases to have effect either because the child ceases to be employed or because the conditions have not been carried out or for any other reason, the child must return to school unless he attends a course of instruction approved by the Authority in lieu of school attendance.

Section 5 of the Act provides that Authorities may give permission for the withdrawal of a child from school after the age of 14 to give assistance in the home if they are

satisfied that, by reason of the home circumstances, exceptional hardship would otherwise be caused. Full powers of scrutiny and limitation are conferred on Authorities in this respect. They are required to have consideration to the health and physical condition of the child and they are empowered to impose such conditions as they think fit and the permission is to be confined, in the first instance, to the end of the school term then current. (It should be noted that release for home duties is permissive and not mandatory on the Authority.)

Section 6 applies the restrictions on the employment of children and on their taking part in entertainments, which are contained in Sections 18 and 22 of the Children and Young Persons Act, 1933, to all children under the age of 15 who are required to attend school.

B. Section 8 of the Act enables Local Education Authorities for the benefit of senior children (*i.e.*, children over 11 years of age), as a temporary measure, to enter into agreements with the managers of voluntary schools whereby they may give financial aid towards the enlargement and improvement of existing voluntary schools, including the provision of additional or substituted land for sites. Any work that is added must, to the Authority's satisfaction, be necessitated by the raising of the school-leaving age or effect improvements in the organisation of education in the area or provide accommodation required for practical or advanced instruction—all in relation to senior children.

Aid may also be given by Authorities to persons proposing to provide a new voluntary school for senior children. In addition to the requirements set out in the preceding paragraph, no agreement may be entered into with respect to the provision of a new voluntary school unless the Board are satisfied that the needs of the district can be more conveniently met by the proposed school than by the enlargement or improvement of an existing voluntary school of the same denomination, or that the proposed new school will be required for children who before the age of 11 attended a junior school of the same denomination.

The financial aid given by a Local Education Authority must not be less than half nor more than three-quarters of the cost of the proposed building or reconstruction.

The responsibilities of the managers of voluntary schools with regard to the upkeep and repair of the premises remain unaffected.

Section 9 provides that where a Local Education Authority enters into an agreement to grant financial assistance for the building or reconstruction of a voluntary school, the agreement may make provision for :

(a) The employment in that school of a specified number of teachers (called "reserved teachers") fit and competent to give the required denominational religious instruction; and

(b) The giving of religious instruction in accordance with any syllabus in use in Council Schools—*i.e.*, an "agreed syllabus".

(A number of syllabuses of religious instruction have been drawn up by Local Education Authorities in consultation with the various denominations, and with teachers, which are known as "Agreed syllabuses". Such syllabuses have been adopted for use in their Council Schools by the large majority of Authorities.)

Section 10 provides that where a grant is made by a Local Education Authority to a voluntary school :

(a) All the teachers must be in the employment and under the control of the Authority except that the "reserved teachers" will give the religious instruction in the school under the control of the managers;

(b) The Authority will appoint all the teachers in the school, but as regards "reserved teachers" appointments will be made only if the managers are satisfied as to their fitness and competence to give the required denominational religious instruction;

(c) The Authority will also have power to dismiss all teachers, but if the managers are of opinion that a "reserved teacher" has failed to give the required denominational religious instruction efficiently they may request the Authority to remove that teacher from employment as a "reserved teacher".

If any dispute arises between a Local Education Authority and the managers with regard to the appointment or dismissal of a "reserved teacher", the Board may appoint an impartial person to determine the dispute.

(If a voluntary school which has received financial aid from an Authority repays the grant in full the agreement (including the appointment and control of teachers by the Authority) shall cease.)

Sub-section 1 (*e*) makes provision for the carrying on of any voluntary school which has received a grant by the Authority if at any time the managers are unable or unwilling to carry it on as a public elementary school.

C. Section 12 provides that where an Authority is satisfied that a voluntary school is attended by children whose parents desire them to receive religious instruction of the kind given in Council Schools and are also satisfied that the children cannot, with reasonable convenience, attend a Council School such religious instruction must be given in a voluntary school at specified times and on specified days for the children whose parents desire them to receive it.

Section 13 provides that where the Authority are satisfied that a school, whether a Council or voluntary school, is attended by children whose parents desire them to receive religious instruction of a kind not given in the school and are also satisfied that the children cannot with reasonable convenience attend a school where such instruction is given, the Authority shall allow those children to be withdrawn from school as if the Anson Bye-law were in operation. That is to say, the parents may withdraw their children from the school premises during the period of religious instruction if suitable arrangements have been made for the children to receive the kind of religious instruction desired elsewhere.

(It should be noted that the above two sections apply to any school and are not confined to voluntary schools in respect of which building grants are made.)

The Employment of Women and Young Persons Act of 1936 places on a permanent footing with additional safeguards earlier provisions for the employment of women and young persons aged 16 and upwards in systems of day shifts.

The Education (Scotland) Act, 1936, deals in Sections 1 to 5 with the raising of the school-leaving age and in Section 8 with the provision of vacation schools and classes, play centres and other means of recreation and of holiday and school camps.

2. LEGISLATION REGARDING SPECIAL CATEGORIES OF CHILDREN, SUCH AS DELINQUENT CHILDREN, PHYSICALLY DEFECTIVE CHILDREN, MENTALLY DEFECTIVE CHILDREN, ETC.

Provision is made in Sections 6, 7 and 9 of the Education (Scotland) Act, 1936, for the education of physically or mentally defective or blind or deaf children.

3. LEGISLATION CONTEMPLATED REGARDING POINTS 1 AND 2 ABOVE.

During the year the following measures (which received the Royal Assent in 1937) were under consideration :

(a) The Physical Training and Recreation Bill, dealing with the physical training and recreation of those who have left school;

(b) The Education (Deaf Children) Bill;

(c) The Factories Bill. This important measure dealt, *inter alia*, with young persons employed in factories and proposed improved conditions;

(d) The Children and Young Persons (Scotland) Bill, consolidating the Children and Young Persons (Scotland) Act, 1908 to 1932;

(e) In Northern Ireland, legislation to make medical benefit available to young persons under sixteen who enter insurable employment was under contemplation.

4. INFORMATION REGARDING THE PRACTICAL APPLICATION OF LEGISLATION BY THE STATE, THE LOCAL AUTHORITIES AND THE PRIVATE ORGANISATIONS.

A. England and Wales.

Board of Education.

Circular 1452 of December 18th, 1936, contained " suggestions for procedure with regard to grants for non-provided schools under the Education Act, 1936, Sections 8-11 ".

Circular 1457, August 9th, 1937, contains " suggestions for procedure with regard to school attendance under the Education Act, 1936, Sections 2 to 7 ".

Extract of the Report of the Board of Education for 1936.

The year 1936 was one of considerable educational development.

In July 1936, the Board published their suggestions for the planning of buildings of public elementary schools.

In order to assist authorities in meeting the additional expense to which they will be put by the provisions of the Education Act, 1936, in preparing the schools for the additional age-group, and in making grants to voluntary schools, amendments were made in the elementary education grant regulations by which the rate of grant applicable to expenditure of a capital nature on educational reorganisation or development was temporarily increased from 20 % to 50 %.

The number of special places which might be awarded annually in secondary schools and all State scholarships was increased.

There has been a steady advance in the provision of special facilities in the infant departments of public elementary schools for children under the age of 5. During the year under review, such provision, amounting to 4,500 places, has been made or proposed in the areas of fifty-four Local Education Authorities. Progress in this direction is continuing. In May, the Board issued an educational pamphlet entitled "Nursery Schools and Nursery Classes" which sets out what is now being done for children under 5 years of age in nursery schools and in nursery classes in infant schools.

The Inter-Departmental Committee set up jointly by the President of the Board and the Minister of Transport in 1935 to consider the promotion of road safety among school-children, presented their report early in 1936. Considerable interest has been shown by local education authorities in the conclusions and recommendations of the Committee ¹ and a large number of authorities have already set up local children's safety committees on the lines recommended in the report; one of the most important functions of these local committees is to make periodical surveys of the whole area with which they are concerned

¹ See document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I. 34—Information Series, No. 7.

from the point of view of minimising the risk of accidents to school-children, and it is earnestly hoped that such committees may soon be extended to cover the areas of all local education authorities throughout the country.

From the point of view of physical education in schools and educational institutions, the year 1936 was an important one. In January, the Board issued Circular 1445,¹ which was a statement of their views designed to assist Local Education Authorities and others in preparing a comprehensive plan of development suited to the needs of their areas; this was followed in October by Circular 1450,¹ which deals with the question of the provision of clothing and shoes for physical training. The Board also issued in April a memorandum¹ on the planning, construction and equipment of gymnasia.

It is satisfactory to note the increased interest and attention which is already being given by Local Education Authorities to the development of facilities for physical education in the elementary schools throughout the country. During the twelve months following the issue of Circular 1445, proposals have been submitted to and approved by the Board for fifty-nine new gymnasia in senior schools, and it is rapidly becoming the general practice, save in the small schools, for a gymnasium to be included in the plans of all new senior schools. The provision of greater playground space for outdoor physical exercise and of playing-fields for organised games still receives attention.

Other activities calculated to promote the health and physical development of the children include the organisation of camp schools and holiday camps. During the financial year ended March 31st, 1936, thirty-four local education authorities sent parties of elementary school children to camp schools, and 33 to holiday camps, the visits of each party of children usually occupying from one to two weeks, and in some instances somewhat longer. The expenditure incurred by Local Education Authorities on this work amounted to over £31,000 in 1933/34, over £32,000 in 1934/35, and the estimated expenditure for

¹ A copy of these documents has been placed in the archives of the Secretariat.

1935/36 was £50,700, indicating a steady growth in the movement. In many cases, the amount spent by Local Education Authorities represented only a part of the total cost, the grants made from public funds being supplementary to sums obtained from voluntary sources—*e.g.*, contributions from parents and other private subscriptions. Various voluntary bodies also provide facilities of a similar nature, notably the National Council of Social Service, which annually provides camp accommodation for large numbers of elementary school children from the Special Areas.

In the secondary schools, the projects approved by the Board during the past year have included substantial improvements in the provision of gymnasias, shower-baths, swimming-baths and playing-fields. The same may be said of provision for technical schools, where during 1936 the Board approved twenty-two projects which included gymnasias.

Circular 1445 recommended that there should be a daily period of organised physical activity in every elementary school, whether of physical exercise, swimming or organised games. It is satisfactory that in the elementary schools this is becoming a regular practice; for the younger children, the daily period allotted to physical exercise is a short one, but for the older children it is becoming increasingly important that the time allotted should approximate to a full period. The Circular asks those responsible for secondary schools to ensure that physical training should never be crowded out of the curriculum by the pressure of other subjects.

In evening institutes and evening classes in colleges, the number of classes in physical exercises, dancing, swimming and other related activities has increased from 5,830 (with 164,112 class entries) in the year 1934/35 to 7,023 (with 191,203 class entries) in 1935/36.

Attendance at these classes can be greatly increased if local education authorities will encourage the formation of classes in physical training or of grouped courses of recreative physical activities without making it a condition of enrolment that the trainee should also attend a class or course in some other subject. At the same time, students attending a class or course of study should be encouraged to enrol also in a physical training class.

The School Medical Service and Other Provisions for Health and Well-being.

Generally speaking, the year 1936 has been one of progress in the health services for school-children. At the beginning of the year, the Board issued an administrative programme of educational development (Circular 1444) which covered the whole field of education and included special reference to the question of nursery schools and to the need for remedying certain deficiencies in the school medical services and in the provision of special schools.

With regard to the school medical service in public elementary schools, one of the chief points referred to in Circular 1444 was the need for increasing the school dental staffs. During the year, fifty-seven local education authorities have increased their dental staffs by the appointment of fifty-two whole-time and nine part-time dentists, but there remains much to be done before the school dental service can be regarded as wholly satisfactory.

The Circular also referred to deficiencies in the arrangements of many Local Education Authorities for the ascertainment, treatment and after-care of children suffering from crippling conditions. Since the issue of the Circular, eight new orthopædic schemes have been approved. There are still, however, over sixty authorities that have no arrangements for dealing with this important branch of the school medical service. The Board have also approved various other proposals for treatment, including ten for aural treatment and ten for artificial light treatment.

Nursery Schools.—During the year ended March 1936, fourteen new nursery schools with accommodation for 680 children were recognised and additional accommodation for 307 children provided in five existing schools. Since the issue of Circular 1444, the Board have received eighteen proposals for new nursery schools and six proposals for enlargement.

Nutrition.—The routine inspections held during 1935 which covered about a third of the elementary school-children, showed that the nutrition of 14.6 % was assessed as excellent, 74.1 % as normal, 10.6 % slightly sub-normal,

and 0.7 % bad.¹ In the country as a whole school medical officers found no evidence of any general deterioration in the condition of the children as a result of the economic stress of recent years; on the contrary, a large number of school medical officers in all parts of the country expressly stated that the nutrition of the children was being well maintained, and several gave figures showing that the average height and weight are substantially greater than they were 10 or 20 years ago. The returns showed, however, that in the most depressed areas, while there are comparatively few cases of definite malnutrition, the percentage of slightly subnormal nutrition is higher than elsewhere, and it is in those areas that there is a special need for the early discovery of such cases and for the provision of meals or milk at the cost of public funds in all cases where there is evidence that the condition is caused by lack, through poverty, of sufficient or suitable food.

The number of Local Education Authorities which provided meals or milk during the year ended March 31st, 1936, was 235, compared with 225 during the preceding year. At the end of 1936, 244 authorities were providing meals and/or milk under the law. Some provision of free meals and/or milk is made in nearly all the areas where such provision is clearly needed, but the character and extent of the provision vary greatly from one area to another.

The "milk in schools" scheme continued to operate throughout the year. The percentage of departments of public elementary schools operating the scheme at the end of March, 1936, was 81.7 %, compared with 78.7 % at the end of March, 1935. By October, 1936, the percentage had risen to 82.4 %, and by March, 1937, to 83.3 %.

In the rural parts of the areas administered by Local Education Authorities, there are still difficulties in making arrangements for suitable supplies of milk to be provided for the schools. Efforts are being made to overcome these difficulties.

Notwithstanding the high percentage of departments making arrangements for the supply of milk under the

¹ The figures for 1936 are almost exactly the same as for 1935 —viz., 14.6 % excellent, 74.2 % normal, 10.5 % slightly sub-normal, and 0.7 % bad.

“milk in schools” scheme, less than 50 % of the children avail themselves of the facilities offered. The reasons given for children not taking milk in school are varied, but the main reasons appear to be indifference on the part of parents and dislike of milk on the part of the children. Investigations do not confirm the suggestion that in most areas poverty is an important factor; on the contrary, some schools in very poor areas have a high percentage of children taking milk under the scheme.

School Canteens.—During the year, an enquiry was made into the provision of meals for public elementary school children at school canteens, which are primarily intended for children who have to travel a distance to school. Very little provision is made in the towns, but in a few countries the provision is fairly extensive. In the great majority of the areas, however, there is comparatively little provision, although some authorities state that facilities will be provided as reorganisation is carried out. This question, together with that of the nature of the meals provided, both in school canteens and in feeding centres, is also receiving the Board’s close attention, as in some cases the dietaries are inadequate.

Play Centres.—During the year ended March 31st, 1936, play centres were conducted in the areas of forty-two Local Education Authorities; 190 centres with a total average attendance of 53,525 children, were conducted by thirty-five Local Education Authorities, and 109 centres, with an average attendance of 18,800 children, by voluntary bodies.

In view of the educational value of the recreational and physical activities of play centres and in view of the dangers of the streets, the Board would welcome proposals for increasing the number of these centres. They depend for their usefulness on the supervision of skilled play leaders and they are especially valuable where they provide for both summer and winter activities.

The report of the Board of Education contains in Part 2 the statistics of public education for England and Wales for the year 1935/36; Table 19 contains the figures relating to medical inspection; Table 20 the figures relating to the provision of meals and milk; Table 25 is a summary of the figures relating to nursery schools for the year ended

March 31st, 1936. Tables 27, 28, 29 and 30 contain the figures relating to certified special schools.

Ministry of Labour.

The Unemployment Assistance Act, 1934, is now fully in operation.

The various types of courses of instruction for unemployed boys and girls which had to be provided by Education Authorities under the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1935, were continued during the year without alteration.

Although in some areas new Junior Instruction Centres were opened, there were reductions in most areas in the numbers of unemployed boys and girls in attendance, owing to the improvement in trade.

The following statistics show the number of courses of instruction and the average number of unemployed boys and girls in attendance during the week ended November 25th, 1936.

Junior Instruction Centres and Classes				Other educational institutions		
Number of centres	Number of classes	Average attendance		Number of institutions	Average attendance	
		Boys	Girls		Boys	Girls
194	17	15,830	9,277	292	997	1,326

During the course of the year, the Statutory Scheme was amended to enable Local Education Authorities to extend to the Junior Instruction Centres the full facilities of the School Medical Service of the Authority for medical inspection and medical and dental treatment. A memorandum and circular letter¹ were issued to Authorities, urging the importance of affording to boys and girls attending centres the advantages of the medical and dental treatment which is given in the public elementary schools.

Home Office.

The Departmental Committee on the hours of young persons in certain unregulated occupations continued its work. In January, 1936, a Committee was appointed to

¹ Copies of these documents are deposited in the archives of the Secretariat.

inquire into the methods pursued by adoption societies or other agencies engaged in arranging for the adoption of children and to report whether any, and, if so, what measures should be taken in the public interest to control their activities.

Ministry of Health.

Full particulars of the work of the Ministry of Health are to be found in the annual reports of the Ministry for 1935/36 and 1936/37. Information regarding maternity and child welfare is to be found in the annual reports of the Chief Medical Officer of the Ministry of Health for 1935 and 1936. The attention of the Committee is particularly directed to the Annual Report of the Ministry of Health for 1935/36, pages 27-33, 207 and 208, 213-217, 242-244 and 291-293; the Annual Report of the Ministry of Health for 1936/37, pages 7-18, 210-214, 246-248, 304-306; the Chief Medical Officer's report for 1935, pages 52-71, 202-205, 222-227 and 232-235; the Chief Medical Officer's report for 1936, pages 52-74, 137-139, 223-227 and 241-247.¹ The contents of all these documents is principally related to health and medical care. Therefore it does not seem necessary to enter into many details; some information of general interest only will be given.

The year ending March 31st, 1937, has seen not only the inauguration of a new service of domiciliary midwifery, which marks a further stage in the development of the maternity services and the conclusion of a comprehensive review of the problem of maternal mortality, but also the inclusion of the legislative framework of the maternity and child-welfare services in the Public Health Act of 1936.

The Midwives Act, 1936.—The outstanding event of the year has been the passage through Parliament of the Midwives Act, 1936. Under the Act it is the duty of the Local Supervising Authorities to secure the provision of an adequate number of wholetime salaried midwives to be available for attendance on women in their own homes :

¹ A copy of each of these four documents has been placed in the Library of the League of Nations.

and the authorities were required to submit their proposals for this purpose to the Minister not later than January 30th, 1937, and to carry them into effect not later than July 30th, 1937, unless in either case an extension of time was granted by the Minister.

The Act aims at making available the services of whole-time salaried midwives acting either as midwives taking the responsibility for the confinement or as maternity nurses under the direction of a doctor to all women who are confined in their own homes.

The service may be provided in one or both of two ways : by the employment by the Local Supervising Authorities of wholetime salaried midwives or by means of arrangements made by those authorities with voluntary associations or welfare councils who themselves employ wholetime salaried midwives devoting the whole or part of their time to midwifery and maternity nursing. The voluntary associations chiefly concerned are the County and District Nursing Associations, many of which at present undertake the greater part of the midwifery in rural areas, and those hospitals and institutions which have an extern midwifery service.

Taking the country as a whole it is found that, as might have been anticipated, the large majority of County Councils have made arrangements for the whole or part of the areas with the Nursing Associations which serve those areas, while the Authorities of more populous areas have, for the most part, decided to employ their own midwives. Altogether, sixty-nine Authorities propose to provide the service wholly by direct employment of midwives, thirty-eight by arrangements made with voluntary associations and welfare councils and fifty-eight by a combination of these methods.

Maternity Nursing.—The obligation which is placed on each Local Supervising Authority under the Act of 1936 is to secure a service of domiciliary midwifery and maternity nursing which is adequate for the needs of the area, and Section 6 provides that, when the Minister is satisfied that an Authority has secured the provision of such a service, he may make an Order prohibiting maternity nursing by unqualified persons for gain in the area of the Authority or in any county district comprised therein. Section 6 exempts from this prohibition certified midwives

and general trained nurses, and also those women who, before January 1st, 1937, received a certificate of training in obstetric nursing from the authorities of an institution recognised by the Minister for that purpose. A number of applications for such recognition have been received, and the Minister has promised to make an Order in due course granting recognition to those institutions which have satisfied him that prior to January 1st, 1937, they had given certificates in obstetric nursing only to those women who had received an adequate course of training. This Order will be issued before any Orders are made prohibiting maternity nursing by unqualified persons.

The Training and Supervision of Midwives.—Side by side with the inauguration of a new service of the domiciliary midwives, a complete review of the system of training of midwives has been carried out by the Central Midwives Board; it has now promulgated revised rules which have been approved by the Minister and will be brought into operation as soon as it has been possible to make the necessary arrangements for training-institutions to undertake the revised courses which will be required.

The importance of post-certificate instruction for the midwives has become increasingly recognised in recent years and a valuable provision of the Midwives Act, 1936, requires all midwives to attend courses of instruction at regular intervals which will be prescribed by rules made by the Central Midwives Board and approved by the Minister. The Board are at present engaged in framing rules for this purpose.

Infant Mortality.—Infantile mortality in England and Wales remains at a gratifyingly low level. The rate of 59 deaths of infants under one year of age per 1,000 births for the year 1936 is slightly above the record low figure of 57 in 1935, and compares with a rate of 59 in the preceding year, and a rate of 66 five years previously. The separate figures for the four quarters of the year, which always tend to be affected by climatic and other related factors, were 80, 54, 43 and 56, as compared with 68, 56, 44 and 60 in 1935. Had it not been for the high rate of mortality in the first quarter of the year, due mainly to exceptional weather conditions, the infant mortality rate for 1936 would have been the lowest on record.

Child Life Protection.

The principal statistics relating to infant life protection are given in Appendix II to the Eighteenth Annual Report of the Ministry of Health, 1936/37 (page 248).

As a result of the Public Health Act, 1936, the description of this service will, from October 1st, 1937, be altered to "Child Life Protection", and the statutory provisions relating to it have been repealed and re-enacted with minor amendments in Part VII of that Act.

Under the same Act, maternity and child-welfare authorities will in future be known by the simpler title of Welfare Authorities, and the Act will also remedy the anomalous situation which has arisen in certain areas owing to the provision of the maternity and child welfare services having been shared between the County Council and the District Council.

B. Scotland.

A Circular (No. 98) was issued on March 25th, 1936, by the Scottish Education Department to Education Authorities in Scotland, suggesting detailed methods by which physical education might be developed.

The report of the Committee appointed in 1935 by the Secretary of State for Scotland and the Minister of Transport to consider the promotion of road safety among school-children, and what forms of instruction in the matter were best adapted for children of different ages as a regular part of the school curriculum, was received during 1936.

C. Northern Ireland.

Establishment of Nursery Schools.

During the year 1936/37, the Ministry of Education for Northern Ireland obtained from the Parliament of Northern Ireland authority to grant aid to nursery schools. Such schools are intended for children over 2 and under the compulsory school-going age who are living in districts where the housing and general economic conditions are seriously below the average, and whose home surroundings, in consequence, leave much to be desired.

In order to be eligible for aid from the Ministry, a nursery school must be under the control of a properly constituted

committee and be conducted in suitable premises; it must be adequately staffed and the superintendent must have been suitably trained for her work, and the arrangements for medical inspection and for meals and rest must be satisfactory. If these conditions are fulfilled, the Ministry is authorised to undertake to pay the salary of the superintendent in accordance with the scale which would be applicable to her if she were principal of a public elementary school of the same size, on the further condition that the annual local contribution to the funds of the school (including any grant from the education authority, but excluding payments made by parents in respect of their children) amounts to not less than a sum to be prescribed by the Ministry.

On March 31st, 1937, there were only two nursery schools in operation in Northern Ireland—both of them in Belfast—but it is expected that at least two other schools will be brought into operation in the near future.

Education of Mentally Defective Children.

Part IX of the Education Act (Northern Ireland), 1923, made it the duty of an education authority to ascertain what children in its area were afflicted children (*i.e.*, blind, deaf and dumb, crippled, epileptic or mentally defective), and to make provision for the giving of suitable instruction to such of them as were capable of benefiting thereby, by establishing a school for such children, or by special classes in elementary schools, or by boarding them out in the neighbourhood of a special class or special school.

The existence in Northern Ireland of institutions for the education of blind, or deaf and dumb, or crippled children, made it easy for education authorities to carry out their duties so far as the education of children so afflicted was concerned. The position in regard to feeble-minded children was, however, quite different, as there was no institution in Northern Ireland at which such children could be educated. The setting up of a special school in the area of each education authority would obviously not have been justified by the numbers of educable feeble-minded children. It became clear, therefore, that the proper solution of the difficulty lay in the establishment by the Government of a central school, to which children could be sent by the education authorities.

The power necessary to enable the Ministry of Education for Northern Ireland to establish a school of the kind was given by Section 22 of the Education Act (Northern Ireland), 1930, and, in exercise of that power, premises were acquired in the Ormeau Road district of Belfast. A representative committee, consisting of members of education authorities, elementary teachers and officials of the Ministry and of the Medical Branch of the Ministry of Home affairs for Northern Ireland, was then set up to act as the managing body of the school.

The school—Haypark Special School—is designed to accommodate eighty boarders and forty day pupils. The whole capital cost involved in the purchase, adaptation and equipment of the building has been borne by the Government. The salaries of the teachers are paid by the Ministry of Education. All other expenses, including the cost of maintenance of the building and equipment, board of children and wages and board of domestic staff are met from the fees which the education authorities are required to pay for the children whom they send to the school. Parents are liable to contribute an agreed sum towards the expenses incurred by the education authority in respect of the education of their children at the school. Haypark Special School was opened on March 18th, 1936.

The selection of children suitable for admission to the school is entrusted to the school medical officers.

The children selected are those who, whilst not sufficiently intelligent to profit to any great extent from attendance at ordinary public elementary schools, are still quite intelligent enough to derive great benefit from the course of instruction which they will receive at Haypark Special School. This course has been specially planned to meet the needs of such children. It includes literary education in so far as the children are able to profit by it, but it provides a much greater amount of instruction in practical subjects than is given in an ordinary public elementary school. Children whose standard of intelligence is such that it is unlikely that they would benefit by a course of this nature are not admitted to Haypark Special School.

BULGARIA.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

1. No new legislation was enacted in the year 1936 in connection with the welfare of children of whatever age.

In conformity with the law providing for the amalgamation and re-inclusion in the budget of certain budgetary funds (*Official Journal* No. 278, December 10th, 1936), the Public Assistance Fund, created under Article 34 of the Legislative Decree on Public Assistance for the purpose of granting subsidies to associations working for the welfare of children and adults, was restored to the State budget; 50 % of the revenue of this fund at present figures in the general budget for those purposes.

2. No fresh legislation was passed in connection with special categories of children such as delinquent minors, crippled and defective children, etc.

Draft Laws.

3. No draft legislation was considered during 1936 in connection with points 1 and 2 above.

ADMINISTRATIVE MEASURES.

The authorities and organisations dealing with child welfare in Bulgaria pursued their activities during 1936 under the terms of the legislation described in earlier reports.

Public Assistance.

The Higher Public Assistance Board set up under the Legislative Decree mentioned above drew up a special budget for the management of the Public Assistance Fund in 1936. A sum of 39,441,392 leva was withdrawn from this fund for public assistance purposes in 1936; of this sum, 27,317,644 leva were used for assisting children and young people under the age of 18.

The Board, which is presided over by the Minister of the Interior and Public Health, includes representatives

of the Ministries of Finance, War and Education, the Director of Labour, a delegate of the Holy Synod of the Bulgarian Church, the Mayor of Sofia, the Director General of Public Health, delegates from the Bulgarian Red Cross, the Child Welfare Union and the Union for Public Assistance, the Head of the Public Assistance Service at the Ministry of the Interior and three individual members appointed by the Minister of the Interior.

The Board draws up the programme of public assistance and the budget relating thereto, and directs assistance activities throughout the country. It scrutinises all requests for help presented by municipal or private assistance organisations and transmitted to it by the regional public assistance boards. The regional boards also include representatives of various administrative services. They examine in the first place requests for assistance put forward by municipal public assistance boards, which in their turn include representatives of all the authorities and organisations officially concerned with the welfare of children and adults.

Apart from these communal, regional and Governmental bodies engaged in the work of public assistance, seven regional inspectors were appointed in 1936 to supervise all the various bodies receiving grants of any kind from the fund mentioned above. These inspectors were selected from among sixty-seven candidates specially trained at the Ministry of the Interior for the purpose.

The following table indicates the growth of the activity of public assistance institutions concerned with the education and welfare of children.

Education.

The Ministry of Education organised the Ninth Course for Women Adviser-Teachers, whose task is to endeavour to improve social and health conditions and to increase the degree of protection afforded to children in villages. A further course was organised for the purpose of training teacher-instructors for children's sport centres, the number of which is increasing yearly in Bulgaria.

The Tenth Children's Day was held on April 26th, 1936; 2,793 local committees took part, and organised lectures for children, processions, exhibitions and fêtes. An exhibition of paintings by children below the age of 14

Public Assistance Institutions and Number of Persons assisted out of the Public Assistance Fund in 1936.

Type of institution	Number of institutions	Number of children admitted	Sums allocated from the Public Assistance Fund (Leva)
1. Crèches.....	8	349	1,300,000
2. Orphanages	31	1,134	3,321,000
3. Homes for backward children	1	23	110,000
4. Homes for erring children ...	2	130	65,000
5. Homes for crippled children.	2	161	320,000
6. Homes for blind children....	1	89	20,450
7. Homes for deaf and dumb children	3	173	53,650
8. Health centres.....	39	67,112 ¹	231,000
9. Preventive establishments ..	3	350	350,000
10. Milk distribution canteens ..	3	330 ²	57,000
11. Lying-in hospitals.....	2	91	35,000
12. Dining centres	3,265	270,225	11,684,000
13. Children's day nurseries	56	3,136	789,000
14. Children's homes.....	38	1,072	529,000
15. Children's summer playing-fields.....	592	63,733	2,438,400
16. Summer holiday centres	380	24,262	3,384,000
17. Children's camps	30	2,281	529,600
18. Sorting centre for children...	1	285 ³	50,000

¹ Number of children for the whole year.

² Number of children assisted each day.

³ Number of children passing through the sorting centre.

was held in Sofia. A travelling child-welfare exhibition, which covers the fields of protection and education, was shown in twenty-two different centres and visited by 41,250 persons.

During 1936, two new organisations were created for the purpose of increasing the protection extended to defective children. One of these will deal with physically or mentally abnormal children, and has already made plans for a special institute for this purpose. The other is a committee for the protection of crippled children; it has already been responsible for opening the first orthopaedic consultation clinic in Sofia. It has also taken steps with a view to creating an orthopaedic section at the University Clinic and securing fuller statistics relating to crippled children.

There are three State institutions dealing with deaf and dumb children, and one with blind children, in Bulgaria; but only a proportion of the children for whom these establishments were created can be admitted—12 % of

deaf and dumb children, and 28 % of blind children. Maintenance and improvements were assured in 1936 through appropriations in the budget of the Ministry of Education. Pupils leaving these establishments find work in the special workshop-hostels set up for the purpose.

The first Balkan Child-Welfare Congress was held in Athens from April 5th to 9th, 1936. Bulgaria was represented by delegates from the Ministry of Education, the Child-Welfare Union and the Bulgarian Women's Union. The delegates submitted reports which are mentioned in the statement sent in last year, and organised a small exhibition illustrating child-welfare activities in Bulgaria.

CANADA.

SUMMARY OF SOCIAL LEGISLATION IN CANADA AFFECTING CHILD-WELFARE IN 1936/37.

DOMINION.

The Dominion Government has made provision for a youth-training scheme through which, on a basis of equal contribution to costs, a total of \$2,000,000 is being made available by the Dominion and each of the nine provinces for expenditure on co-ordinated schemes covering unemployed youths and young women.

A Royal Commission is examining the question of penal reform, with special reference to youthful offenders and juvenile delinquency; it will report during the present session of Parliament.

Some purely technical amendments to the Juvenile Delinquents Act, relating to administrative details, have been adopted.

PROVINCES.

Alberta.

The Hospitals Act was amended to provide for the hospitalisation at public cost of indigent expectant mothers.

The benefits of mothers' allowances were extended to women who have been deserted by their husbands for five years or longer, and the liability of local municipalities for the costs of mothers' allowances was reduced to 25 % of the total instead of 50 %.

The Marriage Act was amended, making 16 years the minimum age of marriage, unless to avoid an illegitimate birth; parents' consent is to be required for marriage up to 21 years of age, with provision for a hearing before a judge in case of the inability or refusal of parents or guardians to give their consent.

British Columbia.

The first measure of health insurance enacted in any Canadian Province was passed, but though the principle of health insurance was endorsed by a plebiscite in 1937, the measure is not yet in force.

The child-protection legislation was amended to make its application to children in their own families absolutely clear.

The mothers' allowance legislation was extended to increase grants on behalf of incapacitated husbands, and 100 % of the cost of the whole was assumed by the Province.

Manitoba.

The comprehensive Child-Welfare Act was entirely recast, consolidated and improved.

The Deserted Wives Maintenance provisions were extended to cover common law wives, and provision was made for providing private families with hearings in all cases.

New Brunswick.

A Parent Maintenance Act was passed, making the eighth province in Canada with this legislation.

Nova Scotia.

The laws bearing on child protection were consolidated, amended and strengthened.

Ontario.

The Children's Protection Act was amended to make commitment to Children's Aid Societies possible for a child born out of wedlock whose mother is unfit to care for him.

Quebec.

A comprehensive Department of Health was set up under a separate Minister, including in its scope the subjects of health, welfare and the care of the insane.

In 1937, mothers' allowances were enacted, making the seventh province in Canada to adopt this system.

Saskatchewan.

Child-protection legislation was extended to require the licensing, inspection and standardisation of rescue homes.

The Marriage Act was amended to prohibit the issuance of any licence to persons under 15 years of age except to avoid illegitimacy. The parents' consent is required up to the age of 21, but in cases of inability or refusal, an application may be made to a judge for permission to marry.

CHILE.

I.

The Compulsory Insurance Fund set up a Mothers' and Children's Section on August 12th, 1936.

The following measures were adopted :

1. *Extension of the Preventive Medical Service for Children up to the Age of Two Years.*—Children previously received medical care only up to the age of 8 months; this care was therefore discontinued at the very time when the child needed it most. On November 24th, 1936, a circular letter was sent to the provincial medical officers instructing them to carry out the above-mentioned decision.

2. *Statistics.*—At first, the Section had no reliable statistical data showing what steps needed to be taken to extend and improve its services, and it was obliged to ask for data regarding the number of children receiving medical care, morbidity and mortality. Statistics are now being compiled which will be complete enough to enable the work of this Section to be organised in such a way as to produce fruitful results in future.

3. *Clinical Cards.*—As the aim is to provide comprehensive medical care in future and to treat the mother and child not, so to speak, as separate units, but in conjunction, instructions were given for the preparation of clinical cards, to contain, in addition to the information collected and social data, particulars of family heredity, the course of pregnancy, childbirth and the puerperal period, and the progress of the new-born infant and the suckling.

4. *Central Card-index.*—To enable the quality of the medical work to be studied and supervised, a central card-index has been compiled with the help of which the Directorate can keep itself informed of the work of the services, thanks to an efficient system of cards. The card-index comprises all centres of any importance possessing *ad hoc* secretariats, and covers the medical care of mother and child and also the duties performed by the social services.

5. *Care of the Mother.*—Every expectant mother who visits a consulting clinic first of all undergoes an X-ray examination, a blood-test for syphilis, a urine test, etc. She is subsequently examined by the midwife or obstetrician, both during childbirth and during the puerperal period.

6. *Service for New-born Children.*—This service has been established for the purpose of preventing infant mortality. The paediatrist is required to visit babies within eight days of their birth; in some places, he is assisted by private nurses or district nurses, whose duty it is to see that the various health requirements are carried out and to register the child at the clinic.

7. *Feeding of Infants.*—Dried milk is distributed by the paediatrist according to the child's needs.

8. *Placing of Children in Families.*—An experimental service for the placing of children in families was established before any regulations were introduced. The first results are encouraging, and it will thus be possible to extend the system to various parts of the country in the near future.

9. *Establishment of New Centres and Training of Staff.*—There are at present about seventy paediatrists and about 150 midwives in different parts of Chile who are attached to the Mothers' and Children's Services. Two new centres will be established in the city of Santiago, and the extension of the services in the provinces is under consideration.

II.

The Directorate General of Public Health, under the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare and Assistance, states: "During the year 1936, the application for the establishment of a Mothers' and Children's Preventive Health Centre at Constitución was granted, and the possibility of enlarging the services by extending their activities to other towns was considered."

CZECHOSLOVAKIA.

DRAFT LAW.

The Ministry of Social Welfare has prepared a draft law on assistance to young people, regarding which an enquiry is at present being carried out amongst those concerned. The proposed law is intended to co-ordinate the regulations relating to the welfare of children and young people in the former Hungarian and Bohemian districts, and to fill up gaps in the present legal system of protection for children and young people. Its main objects are to improve the arrangements regarding protective education and assistance for the children of poor families; to organise and define the powers of the public authorities responsible for deciding the legal position of voluntary organisations; and to provide adequate funds for official and private child-welfare work.

ADMINISTRATIVE MEASURES.

The following measures were passed in 1936 :

(a) An Order by the Minister of Social Welfare, on March 26th, 1936 (No. 87 in the Laws and Decrees Series), fixing the date of the entry into force in Slovakia and Sub-Carpathian Russia of the Governmental Decree (No. 29/1930 in the Laws and Decrees Series) making effective the Law (No. 256/1921 in the same Series) concerning the protection of natural children and those entrusted to the care of third parties.

By virtue of the above Order of the Minister of Social Welfare, Governmental Decree No. 29/1930 in the Laws and Decrees Series came into force in Slovakia and Sub-Carpathian Russia on September 1st, 1936.

(b) A decree issued by the Ministry of Justice on October 23rd, 1936, No. 46533, concerning expenses connected with preventive detention, imprisonment and correctional (protective) education during 1937.

Protection of the children of the unemployed and unemployed young persons.

(c) In 1936, shelters were provided for unemployed young persons and labour associations. The organisation of those shelters and associations has not undergone any substantial modification.

There existed in 1935/36 :

- In Bohemia : 27 Czech and 22 German shelters;
- In Moravia : 16 Czech and 9 German shelters;
- In Silesia : 7 Czech and 6 German shelters;
- In Slovakia : 13 Czech shelters;
- In Sub-Carpathian Russia : 4 Czech shelters.

There existed in 1936/37 :

- In Bohemia : 29 Czech and 22 German shelters;
- In Moravia : 18 Czech and 10 German shelters;
- In Silesia : 10 Czech and 8 German shelters;
- In Slovakia : 12 Czech shelters;
- In Sub-Carpathian Russia : 6 Czech shelters.

In 1936, there were 14 Czech and 18 German labour associations in Bohemia; 7 Czech and 6 German labour associations in Moravia; 8 Czech and 6 German labour associations in Silesia; and 10 Czech labour associations in Slovakia. No such associations existed in Sub-Carpathian Russia.

In 1937, there were 7 Czech and 19 German labour associations in Bohemia; 6 Czech and 5 German labour associations in Moravia; 8 Czech and 7 German labour associations in Silesia; and 7 Czech labour associations in Slovakia.

(d) Mention should also be made of the health measures taken by the State on behalf of the children of the unemployed, and organised by the Ministry of Health and Physical Education. These measures affect 11,000 unemployed young persons and children of unemployed, most of them living in industrial districts where the population is largely German. The children are chosen, from the health and social points of view, on the recommendation of the official school doctors and the district social welfare boards, on which all classes of the population are repre-

sented. In addition to prescribed treatment and medical care, the children were given a six-weeks holiday free of charge in specially-chosen health colonies. Detailed instructions were drawn up with regard to the diet and hygiene of the children while in the colonies. The Ministry of Health and Physical Education saw that those instructions were carried out, and followed the children's progress during convalescence by means of regular reports.

The results of the scheme were excellent, and are due to the care taken in its preparation. The statistics compiled by the State Health Institute are to be published in the near future. The scheme was continued, so that by the end of 1937 more than 25,000 children will have benefited by a visit to the health colonies.

Note.—Copies of forms relating both to diagnosis and medical treatment, and to instructions regarding the diet and hygiene of the children in the health colonies, were attached to the Czechoslovak Government's report. They have been deposited in the archives of the Secretariat.

DENMARK.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

Denmark sent the Danish text of the laws listed below, which came into force on January 1st, 1938 :

Law No. 131 of May 7th, 1937, regarding children born out of wedlock.¹

Law No. 132 of May 22nd, 1937, regarding legitimate children.²

Law No. 133 of May 7th, 1937, on measures for obtaining and ensuring the payment of maintenance contributions.³

Law No. 134 of May 7th, 1937, amending the decree of May 21st, 1845, containing some changes in legislation on inheritance.⁴

Law No. 135 of May 7th, 1937, amending and supplementing the law on the administration of justice (paternity questions).⁴

Law No. 136. of May 7th, 1937, amending law No. 56 of March 18th, 1925, regarding the legal effects of marriage.⁴

Law No. 137 of May 7th, 1937, amending law No. 120 of April 20th, 1926, on the inheritance of married couples and undivided estate.⁴

Law No. 120 of May 7th, 1937, concerning apprenticeship.⁴

¹ Document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I.30—Legislative and Administrative Series, No. 29.

² Document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I.21—Legislative and Administrative Series, No. 21.

³ Document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I.20—Legislative and Administrative Series, No. 19.

⁴ These documents have been placed in the archives of the Secretariat.

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC.

The competent department is at present studying various draft regulations and laws relating to the protection of children, in particular orphans and delinquent children.

ECUADOR.

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Ecuador has forwarded the 1934, 1935 and 1936 annual reports of the "Child Welfare Society of Guayaquil", which deals more especially with children suffering from physical defects that prevent their normal development. This society is particularly active in the coastal region of Ecuador.

The above-mentioned reports have been placed in the archives of the Secretariat.

EGYPT.¹

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

Juvenile Courts.

Since 1905, there have been two Juvenile Courts in Egypt, one at Cairo and the other at Alexandria. They were set up by the two ministerial decrees issued by the Minister of Justice on March 28th and May 8th, 1905. It has not been thought necessary to establish any other Juvenile Courts, since the number of young offenders is very small outside those two centres.

These two courts have no special organisation, and their hearings are governed by the same rules as the Courts of Summary Jurisdiction, which have a judge specially appointed by ministerial decree of the Minister of Justice.

These courts deal with offences and misdemeanours committed by young offenders aged from 7 to 15 years at Cairo and Alexandria, when they come within the competence of the Court of Summary Jurisdiction. The offences and misdemeanours in question are those which are punishable with imprisonment for not more than one week and a fine not exceeding £E1. Under the Decree of October 19th, 1925, these courts also deal with certain crimes committed by young offenders if such crimes can be legally excused, or are committed under extenuating circumstances which would justify their reference to the Court of Summary Jurisdiction.

The procedure followed by these courts is the same as that of the Courts of Summary Jurisdiction. In addition, special instructions are given by the Public Prosecutor to his deputies attached to the Public Prosecutor's Office dealing with young offenders.

The great advantage of these Courts is that they are able effectively to combat juvenile criminality; experience has shown that their creation has resulted in the special-

¹ As this report is the first to be sent by Egypt, it contains a summary of the legal provisions in force in the country in respect of child welfare.

isation of judges and deputies of the Public Prosecutor's Department. The latter, who devote their whole time to cases of juvenile offenders and are fully aware of the object pursued, aim, in dealing with such cases, at the moral reform of the young offenders. As a result, there has been a marked decrease in the number of young offenders and recidivists, and in the number sentenced to imprisonment; it is often considered sufficient for the judges and members of the Public Prosecutor's Department to apply disciplinary methods, to give advice and recommendations to the young offenders and to the relatives in charge of them, and to define the latter's obligations. This procedure constitutes a very valuable preventive measure, which preserves young offenders from the promiscuity of prison and from contact with older criminals. As a result of this policy, the Government has had to increase the number of reformatories and industrial schools for young offenders.

Legislation regarding Young Offenders.

The legislation regarding young offenders is contained in various articles of the new Penal Code (No. 58 of 1937), which came into force on October 15th, 1937, and is applicable to all the inhabitants of the country in accordance with the Montreux Convention. Under this legislation, any young offender over 7 and under 12 years of age, who is guilty of a crime or offence, is either to be handed over, by decision of the court, to his parents or to the person exercising paternal authority over him, who will in future be responsible for his good behaviour, or to be entrusted to a reformatory or other establishment selected by the Government.

In case of minor offences, the court may either reprimand the child at the hearing or order him to be entrusted to one of the persons mentioned in the preceding paragraph. If the child has no parents and no other person exercising paternal authority, the court may order him to be placed in the charge of a trustworthy person, who will be responsible in future for his good behaviour, or in a charitable institution, for a period of not more than one week (Article 65 of the Penal Code).

The legislator, considering that children are amenable

to reform and improvement, and that their character might suffer if they were left in prison among criminals, held that children aged from 7 to 12 years could not be given ordinary sentences, but should be subjected to measures of reform and improvement. Accordingly, in drafting the new Code, care has been taken to abolish all corporal punishment. No public proceedings can be taken against children under 7 years of age (Article 64). As regards children of from 12 to 15 years, the court is at liberty to choose an educational or supervisory measure, or to sentence them to a milder penalty, in accordance with the provisions of the Code (Article 66). Lastly, children of from 15 to 17 years may not be sentenced to death or to penal servitude for life or for a period, but only to the milder penalties provided by law (Article 72).

Similarly, if a child over 12 and under 15 years of age is guilty of any breach of the law, the court, instead of inflicting the penalties provided by law for offences or misdemeanours, or the milder penalty laid down for crimes (Article 66), may order the child to be handed over to his parents or to the person exercising paternal authority over him, in accordance with the provisions of Article 65 of the Penal Code.

The court may also, in case of offences or crimes, order the accused to be sent to a reformatory or other establishment selected by the Government (Article 67).

The Code also deals with the responsibility incurred through the child's being entrusted to his parents, to the person exercising paternal authority or to a trustworthy person. The person to whom the child is entrusted is liable to a fine should the child commit a breach of the law within one year of his being entrusted to such person. In fixing this fine, it has been decided not to take account of the nature of the first offence for which the child was handed over, but solely of the nature of the second offence committed by the child.

Similarly, under Article 246 of the Native Criminal Procedure Code, sentences to pay reparation, damages and costs may not be executed by means of the imprisonment of the young offenders.

Lastly, under Article 324 of the Mixed Criminal Procedure Code, young offenders generally may not be sentenced to imprisonment in lieu of payment.

These measures bear witness to the desire of the Egyptian legislator to keep young offenders away from the prison atmosphere and from contact with criminals.

Vagrant Children (Law No. 2 of 1908).

Under this law, which was promulgated on May 9th, 1908, the following are considered vagrants: any child under 15 years of age found begging and with no fixed abode or means of support; any child whose father and mother are dead or in prison; and any child of bad conduct who escapes from the authority of his father, of his guardian, or of his mother if the father is dead, absent or incapable, or of the person exercising paternal authority over him.

By the terms of this law, vagrant children may be sent to a reformatory or other similar establishment selected by the Government, on the order of the Court of Summary Jurisdiction or of the Markaz. A child who has been sent to a reformatory or other similar establishment may be released by decision of the authorities in charge of the establishment; the child must in any case not be detained after he has reached the age of eighteen.

If the preventive detention of a child in one of the above-mentioned cases is deemed necessary, it must take place as far as possible in a reformatory or other similar establishment. A vagrant child may not be prosecuted for disorderly conduct without the authorisation of his father or, if the father is dead, absent or incapable, of his guardian, mother or the person exercising paternal authority over him. In that case the court may order the father, if solvent, or any of the persons enumerated above, to share in the cost of supporting the child. The latter may be released, even before attaining the age of 18, if a request to that effect is made by the person who authorised the prosecution, or that person's representative.

Law prohibiting Begging.

The Egyptian legislator protects children by punishing any person causing them moral or physical injury. Among the various measures which have been passed in this connection is the Law prohibiting Begging (No. 49 of 1933), which was promulgated on June 22nd, 1933.

By virtue of Article 6 of this law, any person inciting

children under 15 years of age to beg, or using or procuring for another person a child of that age for the purpose of begging, is liable to a term of imprisonment not exceeding three months. If the offender exercises paternal authority or guardianship over the child, or is responsible for looking after him, the sentence will be from three to six months imprisonment.

Provisions fixing the Age of Marriage.

Under Article 227 of the new Penal Code which came into force on October 15th, 1937, penalties will be inflicted on any person who, with a view to showing that one or other of the parties to a marriage has already attained the legal age for executing a marriage-contract, makes before the competent authority declarations which he knows to be incorrect, or draws up or produces documents which he knows to be incorrect, when the marriage-contract is based on the said declarations or documents. Likewise, penalties will be inflicted on any person with legal authority over a child who knowingly draws up a marriage-contract when one or other of the parties to the marriage has not yet attained the age required by law.

It should be pointed out that the above provisions were contained in Law No. 44 of 1933, promulgated on June 15th, 1933. When the new Penal Code was being prepared the legislator embodied them in Articles 226 and 227. The age of marriage was fixed at 16 for the wife and 18 for the husband by Law No. 56 of 1923. The intention, in fixing the marriage-age, was to protect young married persons and ensure the health of their offspring.

Measures against Abortion.

The provisions of Articles 260 to 264 of the Penal Code were enacted with the object of maintaining the birth rate. They stipulate that penalties are to be inflicted on any person wilfully procuring abortion either by blows or other violent means, or by the administration of medicaments, or by using or indicating means of procuring abortion, whether this is done with or without the woman's consent. Penalties are likewise to be inflicted on any woman who has knowingly consented to take medicaments, or to use the means indicated or allow them to be used, and with whom abortion actually takes place. If the

offender is a physician, surgeon, chemist or midwife, the law provides heavier penalties, up to penal servitude for a term of years.

Criminal and Indecent Assault.

Care has been taken to protect children by enacting that the penalties should be more severe when an assault is committed upon a child. Thus, by virtue of the second paragraph of Article 268 of the Penal Code, the penalty may be a sentence of penal servitude for the maximum period allowable by law, if the assault was committed or attempted with violence or threats upon a child under 16 years of age.

The provisions of the new Penal Code likewise provide for the punishment of persons committing an indecent assault without violence or threats upon a child under 18 years of age. (In the old Penal Code the age was 16; it has been changed to 18 in the new Code.)

Finally, heavier penalties are stipulated for an indecent assault without violence or threats committed upon a child under 7 years of age. In that case the penalty will be penal servitude for a term of years.

It was likewise sought to protect children by punishing any persons corrupting their morals by habitually inciting, aiding or abetting the debauchery or corruption of young people of either sex under 21 years of age. The penalty is heavier if the offender is an ascendant of the persons in question, is responsible for their education or supervision, has authority over them, or is their paid servant.

Kidnapping.

Egyptian law protects children against all forms of abduction. Penalties are provided for any persons guilty of abducting, unlawfully receiving, or concealing a new-born child, substituting one new-born child for another, or attributing a child to a woman who is not its mother. Egyptian legislation also protects children by punishing persons who expose or abandon, or cause to be exposed or abandoned, in a deserted place, children under 7 years of age. If a child is maimed or crippled as a result of such exposure or abandonment, the offender is liable to the penalties applicable to the wilful causing of bodily harm; if death results, the guilty person will be liable to the penal-

ties applicable to wilful homicide. Penalties are also provided for persons exposing or abandoning, or causing to be exposed or abandoned, a child under 7 years of age, even elsewhere than in a deserted place. Finally, the law provides special penalties for persons who abduct, or cause to be abducted, either by fraud or violence or without fraud or violence, a child under 16 years of age. If the abducted child is a girl, the penalty is more severe and takes the form of penal servitude for a term of years.

Egyptian law also deals with children of tender years, and provides penalties for persons in whose charge children have been placed, who do not give them up to those entitled to claim them (Article 284 of the Penal Code).

Similarly, Article 292 of the Penal Code provides penalties to be inflicted on the father, mother, grandfather or grandmother of a child, if they do not surrender it to any person having the right to claim it either *de jure* or by virtue of a legal decision concerning its custody, or if they abduct the child or cause it to be abducted, even without fraud or violence, from persons who have the legal custody of it.

Provision has been made in the new Penal Code for penalties to be inflicted in cases of family desertion (Article 293). A special new provision to punish such offences was added to the Code, which thus follows other modern legislation penalising such offences. The new text provides that a penalty shall be inflicted, after due warning, on any person sentenced by a court of justice to make maintenance payments to husband or wife, or to parents or relatives, or to pay an allowance for the custody, nursing or lodging of a child, who wilfully refrains from paying the amount in question over a period of three months, when financially in a position to do so.

As this offence is connected with the status of the family and cannot fail to affect family ties, it was found necessary to make prosecution conditional on the previous suit of the person concerned.

Labour Law.

Law No. 48 of June 22nd, 1933, approved by the Mixed Court of Appeal on May 3rd, 1933, governs the employment of children and young persons of both sexes in industry. It prohibits the employment in industry of children

under 12 years of age, and stipulates that they must not be allowed even to enter industrial premises. As an exception, however, the employment of children of from 9 to 12 years of age is allowed in certain specified industries which conform to the general conditions of hygiene and personal safety stipulated by the Labour Office. Such children may also be employed in other forms of work which are fully suited to their age and physical powers and serve to train them for a trade or profession.

The Law fixes a maximum working day of seven hours for children aged from 9 to 12. Children under 15 are not allowed to work more than nine hours a day, with one or more rest intervals; they must not be made to work at night. They must be given a weekly rest of at least twenty-four consecutive hours. Finally, the employment of young people under 17 in certain processes enumerated in the Law (Article 9) is forbidden, and the employment of young people under 15 in certain specified industries is likewise forbidden unless they possess a certificate showing that they are physically fit to work in those industries. The Law provides that in cases of infringement penalties shall be imposed on the manager and the owner of the establishment, business or works, and on the persons exercising legal authority over children or young persons, who have allowed them to work under conditions forbidden by law.

Reformatory Schools.

There are four reformatory schools in Egypt: Gizeh, El-Marg, the reformatory school for girls at Gizeh, and the Barrage reformatory school. The last-named institution was opened this year.

Public Establishments Law.

Law No. 1 of January 9th, 1904, concerning public establishments, prohibits minors, whose majority has not yet been announced, from opening or keeping public establishments, either in their own name or through an intermediary, and from being employed as directors or managers.

Compulsory Education Law.

Law No. 46 of June 19th, 1933, makes elementary schooling compulsory for children of both sexes from 7 to

12 years of age. The child's father or, failing the latter, the person in charge of the child, is responsible for seeing that he receives such education. Exemptions from compulsory school attendance can only be granted to children suffering from a physical or mental disease or infirmity which renders them incapable of receiving such instruction. The necessary State schools have been established in the provinces, and children receive elementary education there free of charge.

The Law also states the measures to be taken in cases where a child has not been sent to school, or fails to attend regularly without just cause. It stipulates that any infringement shall be punishable by a fine not exceeding 100 piastres, to be paid by the child's father or the person with paternal authority over him.

The " Meglis Hasbys " (Family Councils) Law.

The " Meglis Hasbys " in their present form were established by the Legislative Decree of October 13th, 1925. They deal exclusively with questions and disputes relating to the appointment of minors' guardians, trustees and deputy guardians; the dismissal of such persons, the confirmation of the appointment of legal guardians, and the extension of guardianship beyond the age of 21 where necessary; the prohibition of minors under 18 years of age from administering property; and, finally, the appointment of guardians *ad hoc* when the minor's interests are opposed to those of the guardian.

The provisions of Article 21 of the Decree limit the guardian's rights and make it obligatory for him to obtain the permission of the Meglis before executing deeds connected with the disposal of the property of the minor as mentioned in the Decree. By virtue of Article 9, the Department of Public Prosecutions is responsible for ordering and enforcing necessary measures for safeguarding the interests of children not yet born and minors.

Further, in accordance with the provisions of Article 23 of the Regulations governing the judicial organisation of the Mixed Courts, approved by the Montreux Convention, the Department of Public Prosecutions intervenes in all cases brought before the Mixed Courts which affect the interests of minors.

Illegitimate Children : Compulsory Assistance and Acknowledgment.

The relation of an illegitimate child to his mother is determined, but that is not the case with regard to his father. All rights resulting from maternity, whether they belong to the child or to the mother, thus concern both of them alone. They each have a right of succession with regard to the other, and if the mother is indigent she has the right to claim maintenance from her illegitimate child if he is in a satisfactory financial position. The child likewise possesses the right to maintenance, care and nursing from his mother. Finally, with regard to his relations on the mother's side, the illegitimate child has all the rights pertaining to legitimate filiation, as they have with regard to him.

As far as the illegitimate father is concerned, no right of inheritance or right of mutual assistance exists between him and the illegitimate child; just as there exists no other right or impediment between them, except the impediment preventing an illegitimate father from contracting marriage with his daughter.

The law concerning guardianship is applicable without distinction to all minors who are heirs to property, whether they are legitimate or illegitimate.

Proof of paternity is allowed, on condition that the child has not been the subject of an acknowledgment of paternity, and that it is in a position to have its filiation to its father allowed. No other condition is required if the father is alive. After the death of the putative father, proof of paternity must accompany any pecuniary claim. It is not admitted by itself, unaccompanied by a claim of right. If it is admitted, the illegitimate child is legitimated by the mere fact that a judgment has been given recognising its filiation to a specified person. The illegitimate child can also be legitimated through the father's acknowledgment of the child whose paternity was unknown and whose birth may be attributed to him, always on condition that he does not declare it to be an adulterine child.

The provisions governing procedure in cases of disputed paternity were amended by Law No. 25, 1929. By virtue of that Law, no claim for acknowledgment of paternity can be allowed in respect of a child of a married woman when

there is proof that she and her husband have not lived together since the date of the marriage. Likewise, no claim can be allowed in respect of a child born of a married woman a year after her husband has left her, nor in respect of a child born of a divorced woman or widow a year after the divorce or the death of the husband.

REPORT OF THE MINISTRY OF PUBLIC HEALTH.

I. *Child Welfare in Egypt.*

The Egyptian Government began to devote serious attention to maternal and child welfare as long ago as 1927, when it was decided to institute in the Ministry of Public Health a new section to deal with the following questions : the treatment of hereditary diseases in children, the improvement of the race from the health standpoint, and instruction for mothers on how to protect themselves against disease and to take care of their health so as to enable them to carry out their duties as mothers to perfection.

In that year the Government began to set up child-welfare centres, seaside sanatoria and children's clinics. It also increased the number of schools for midwives and equipped the general hospitals with sections for the treatment of children by specialists.

Pregnant women attend these centres, where they are carefully examined. If any of them on examination prove to be suffering from hereditary disease, they receive free treatment until they are cured. The child-welfare centre gives them lessons in cleanliness, and in the care, feeding and clothing of children. After caring for these women during their pregnancy, the centre arranges for their confinement at home and for the attention of well-trained midwives under the supervision of the director of the centre. During the first week after confinement, they are visited from time to time by the officials of the centre (midwives and visiting nurses). They are subsequently asked to visit the centre and to take their children there for vaccination against certain diseases, such as smallpox and diphtheria. The centre continues to give its attention and, in case of sickness, its treatment, to children up to school-age.

The Government also cares for foundling children and has set up five homes for them—three at Cairo, one at Alexandria and one at Assiut. These children are first

given into the charge of nurses under the supervision of the officials of the home. After weaning, they are admitted into the home.

In 1929, a seaside sanatorium was started at Alexandria for convalescent and anæmic children and those suffering from chronic diseases. This sanatorium is equipped with apparatus for ultra-violet and X-ray treatment.

The schools for midwives educate and train annually a large number of midwives who learn their profession with the most up-to-date methods, including everything connected with cleanliness and sterilisation.

There are forty-nine child-welfare centres, thirty-seven of them under the Ministry of Public Health and twelve under the provincial councils and municipalities; there are others under the control of certain benevolent societies. There are nineteen schools for midwives, of which six are controlled by the provincial councils and other organisations and are under the supervision of the Ministry of Public Health.

A plan for extending the system of child-welfare centres to the villages is being studied in the Ministry of Public Health and will be put into practice in the near future.

II. *New Child-Welfare Centres set up in Egypt in 1936.*

Two new mobile centres were set up in 1936. The work done by the child-welfare centres has increased greatly this year. They attended to 48,733 confinements, as compared with 44,327 during the previous year. The number of pregnant women who consulted the welfare centres this year is 264,527, as compared with 236,412 in 1935. The number of pregnant women admitted for the first time was 60,809, as compared with 51,604 in 1935.

Visits to children increased in number to 1,225,761. The number for the previous year was 1,075,104. There were 51,604 children brought to the centres for treatment in 1936, and 39,013 visits to homes by visiting nurses.

REPORT OF THE MINISTRY OF COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY.

Note.—The report of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry (Department of Labour), which deals with the labour conditions of children and young persons, has been forwarded to the International Labour Office.

REPORT OF THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION.

Egypt concerns itself with the child from the beginning of the period of pregnancy, in order that the child may be born under the best possible conditions and grow up sound and healthy from a physical as well as a moral point of view.

Procreation being one of the objects of marriage, the Government has taken measures to ensure the soundness of the race, and has enacted laws prohibiting early marriages, as these cannot produce strong or healthy children. Furthermore, husband and wife are required to present to the Registrar of births, marriages and deaths a medical certificate to the effect that they are not suffering from any disease. Everything possible has been done to prevent persons suffering from venereal disease from marrying, so as to avoid the transmission of the disease to their descendants.

Attention has also been directed to the care of the mother during pregnancy. A group of Egyptian women interested in education formed a Child-Welfare Association, whose first act was to found, in 1924, a maternity home which is open to all expectant mothers. The doctors attached to the maternity home examine these women, treat them when necessary, and offer advice, if so requested, with regard to treatment and diet before and after confinement.

The Government, learning that the activities of the Child-Welfare Association were confined to a small area owing to shortage of funds, approached the Association and suggested the transfer of the maternity home to the State. A special department was established at the Ministry of Health, known as the Child-Welfare Department, with ramifications all over the country.

Certain maternity homes have departments for the training of female health visitors, who visit the middle classes and, in return for a very small fee, assist women before and during confinement. There are private maternity homes for women of the upper classes. Some of the child-welfare centres have special departments for foundlings; the latter are brought up there until they are old enough to be admitted to the homes or institutions, where

they are taught a trade by which they can earn their living later.

There are a large number of these homes in Egypt, the most important being the Rod-El-Farag orphanage at Cairo, where the children are taught to read and write. They are also taught music and certain trades. This orphanage is under the direction and supervision of prominent persons who have made it their duty to see that these friendless children enjoy the happiness and care of which they would otherwise be deprived.

Child welfare has been greatly promoted by modern education, which enables girls to grow up into accomplished women knowing how to run a house and look after a family.

The propaganda department of the Ministry of Health has made a determined and successful effort to substitute modern methods of bringing up children for the superstitions and customs designed to protect them from the "evil eye" and other similar evils. The Ministry has also done much to promote the creation of gardens where children can have a breath of fresh air, away from the unhealthy atmosphere of the towns. Some of these gardens are reserved for children.

Many prominent people have realised that the Government could not cope singly with child welfare all over the country. With the object, therefore, of extending the benefits of hygiene to the provinces, a large number of private child-welfare associations have been founded, the most important of these being the Association for improving Village Living-Conditions. This Association aims at making the essential principles of hygiene known in the villages and teaching the children how to read and write. It has done a great deal to assist another association (the Guides), whose members visit working-class quarters with the object of raising the standard of education among working-class children and instilling the principles of nationalism and other ideas calculated to produce self-reliant and patriotic citizens. Thanks to the help of the Association for improving Village Living-Conditions, the Association of Guides has been able to establish itself in premises in a working-class quarter of Cairo.

Great attention has also been paid to social questions, and prominent people have founded various societies and associations to deal with such questions. Among the

principal of these may be mentioned : the International Association for Social Questions, the Association for Social Recovery (which comes under the Faculty of Science of the Egyptian University) and the Association for Social Reform.

The International Association for Social Questions began by studying one very important subject : vagrant and delinquent children and children in moral danger.

The Association has noticed two main causes underlying child neglect, both from an educational and from a general point of view—namely, the excessive number of divorces and the excessive number of remarriages in Egypt. As a consequence of this situation, many children are left to themselves, and often, driven by need, become vagrants and delinquents. The Association has put forward various proposals, which have been communicated to all the Ministries, suggesting that steps should be taken in the matter.

The Association for Social Recovery is engaged in purely practical work. Its first object is to protect neglected children from vice and poverty. It is the intention of the University, under whose auspices the Association was founded, to open a home for young vagrants, run on simple lines but ensuring cleanliness.

The Association for Social Reform organised a Congress on the Family in Cairo in 1926, whose work was divided into three branches :

- (a) The child;
- (b) The house and the household;
- (c) The problem of marriage.

A Congress on the Child was held in Cairo in 1937.

Mention may also be made of the Egyptian Association for Social Studies, which has made it its duty to direct public attention to social questions, and with this object founded a school which was opened in October 1937. The programme of studies includes several questions relating to children, such as vagrancy, unemployment, deficient children and social assistance for children.

From the point of view of health, the most outstanding efforts have been those of a group of students of the Faculty of Medicine, who organised the Health Week; so

far, they have concentrated on the health of mothers and children, arranging lectures on various aspects of this question.

The Egyptian Medical Association has also studied the diseases of children and child hygiene, on purely scientific lines. The American University has organised a number of lectures on maternal and child welfare.

In the case of children over 5 years of age, a distinction should be made between the following three categories :

- (1) Children of upper-class and middle-class or bourgeois families;
- (2) Children of families belonging to the lower classes;
- (3) Vagrants and young delinquents.

Children belonging to upper-class and bourgeois families attend kindergartens—run on very up-to-date lines—up to the age of 5. They are then sent to the elementary schools.

Children of the lower classes are sent to the *Maktabs*, who give them elementary instruction in reading, writing and arithmetic, and some training for agricultural life. Children of this category are poor, and an association has been formed to send them away for summer holidays. The association—a private one—is in receipt of a Government grant, but depends mainly on the generosity of individual supporters. In the holiday camps the children are given object-lessons and are taught things in connection with their ordinary occupations.

Vagrants and young delinquents are sent to Government reformatories, where they receive elementary instruction and are taught a trade by which they can earn an honest living.

ESTONIA.

The Estonian Government stated that it would not send an annual report on child welfare for the year 1936/37, because a draft law on maternal and child welfare was in preparation and no new regulations had been published.

FINLAND.

A radical reform of the system of public assistance and social welfare has lately been undertaken in Finland; it involves the renovation and extension of the whole system. Important amendments to the existing law on public assistance, a new Child-Welfare Act,¹ a law on social assistance, designed to put down vagrancy and drunkenness, and a law relating to welfare boards—*i.e.*, communal bodies responsible for organising, supervising and directing local social assistance work—were finally passed on January 17th, 1936, and came into force on January 1st, 1937.

Welfare Boards.

Under the above laws, each commune is responsible for its own social welfare work, under the supervision and direction of a State authority—namely, the Ministry of Social Affairs. A Welfare Board, comprising not fewer than six members, of whom one at least must be a woman, is established in every commune. Members are appointed for three years. As questions connected with child welfare are different in nature from those relating to social assistance for adults who are indigent, vagrants or drunkards, steps have been taken to give the Welfare Boards sufficient powers to deal with matters connected with child welfare. A representative of the teaching profession must sit on the Board as a member or substitute when matters connected with child welfare are discussed, and also, if possible, a person who is acquainted with questions of social hygiene. If the Board does not avail itself of the power given to it by Act No. 52, of January 17th, 1936, to set up a section to deal with child-welfare matters, it is stipulated that the Board must then instruct one of its members or employees or subordinates, who is specially qualified for the purpose, to prepare and submit to it matters of that kind. In the

¹ See the text of this Act in document C.P.E./C.I.14—Legislative and Administrative Series, No. 6.

capital and in large communes there may also be established with the authority of the Ministry concerned, a special independent board which shall be responsible for seeing that the provisions of the Child-Welfare Act are carried out. The law likewise confers on these special boards the right to co-operate, whenever necessary, with the Welfare Boards of other communes and, if possible, with other authorities and organisations concerned with child welfare.

Preventive action occupies the most important place among the measures which Communal Welfare Boards are entitled and obliged to take. The text of Act No. 52 of 1936 provides for such action in general terms only :

“ The Welfare Boards must arrange for the necessary advice to be given on the care and education of children and take steps to prevent and remove abuses arising in the commune in connection with such care and education.” (Article 6.)

The Act further stipulates that the commune shall, whenever necessary, establish and maintain institutions to assist and supplement home education, and to ensure co-operation with private organisations or associations whose activities have the same object.

Measures of Protection.

Measures of protection in the true sense of the term are applied to children under 16 years of age and young persons from 16 to 18 years who are in need of protection :

(a) Because their parents are dead or have abandoned them;

(b) Because they suffer from physical or mental disease, infantilism, sensory defects, infirmity or any other defect requiring special care and special education away from home, which the parents are unable to provide and which the children do not otherwise receive;

(c) Because they do not receive sufficient care and education owing to illness, ignorance, drunkenness or other defects in the parents, such care and education not being otherwise given to them;

(d) Because they are ill-treated at home or are threatened with physical or moral danger; or

(e) Because, through their own or their parents' fault, they commit a breach of the provisions of Chapter 7 of the Child-Welfare Act (wherein the lucrative occupations forbidden to minors are enumerated); because they fail to attend school in accordance with the Compulsory Education Act; or because they are, on account of their conduct, a cause of disorder in their school and cannot be corrected by the school disciplinary methods.

Children who are Delinquent or in Moral Danger.

The Welfare Board discusses matters relating to minors *in camera*. Further, the right is reserved to bring children under 15 years of age before the courts; this, however, is becoming increasingly rare. The court, instead of condemning them to a penalty stipulated in the Penal Code, sends them to a reformatory, where, however, a minor can only be kept till his majority—*i.e.*, his twenty-first year. *There are thus no special courts for minors.* On the other hand, the Welfare Board is bound to follow the enquiry and to be represented during the investigations and the session of the court. The Board must likewise furnish all information which it is able to obtain regarding the accused.

The measures which the Welfare Board can take in the above-mentioned cases, according to law, are as follows :

(a) It may treat the matter as coming under poor relief, if the poverty of the parents appears to be the main cause of the lack of care or other defects;

(b) It may give an admonition to the child or its parents, either before the Board or in any other suitable manner;

(c) It may take charge of the child until further notice, with the consent of the parents;

(d) It may order that the child be maintained in suitable employment, or take any other necessary measures for its physical or moral welfare;

(e) It may appoint a guardian.

If it be established that one or more of these measures do not produce the desired result, or if the latter is not achieved by guardianship, the Board will decide that the

community shall take charge of the child. Such decision, however, is not to be made by the court, nor by the Board sitting under the chairmanship of a magistrate, but by the Board itself at a meeting attended by its specialist members (a woman, a member of the teaching profession and, if possible, a social hygiene expert). The parents will be offered a hearing or given the opportunity of putting in a written statement. Other persons on whom the child may have been dependent, or who know the conditions in which it has lived, will be heard, and may be invited to submit written information.

The child may be taken from its parents and entrusted to the community by a mutual agreement, which must be drawn up in the form prescribed by the Ministry of Social Affairs, or, if the parents' consent is not forthcoming, by a decision taken by the Welfare Board by a two-thirds majority of the members present. Such decision must be notified to the parents without delay; if they have not complied with the Board's invitation, the decision must be communicated to them in writing. At the same time, they must be informed that they have the right to appeal to the Ministry of Social Affairs within thirty days. If, however, the Welfare Board considers that the execution of its decision cannot be postponed to a later date without danger, it may decide that the decision be put into execution immediately, without awaiting the Ministry's opinion. In urgent cases, the chairman of the Welfare Board or his representative may temporarily board out the child or young person in another family.

Boarding-out.

When the Welfare Board has taken charge of a child or young person, it must see that such person is boarded out in a private family or a children's home. The arrangement whereby a child is boarded out is made by written agreement, and the family that receives the child must be visited at least four times a year. If it would be difficult to board out the child with a family on account of its physical or mental condition, it must be sent to a special institution.

The law contains, further, provisions concerning the care to be given to "foster-children." By the term "foster-children", the law understands children who are

brought up in private children's homes or in the house of a person other than their parents or the specially-appointed guardian. The Board must be informed within eight days of the boarding-out of children. Previous permission is thus not required. The conditions under which foster-children are living must be inspected at least four times a year. The Welfare Board may prohibit persons or homes considered unsuitable from receiving or keeping foster-children.

Cessation of Protective Measures.

The cessation of protective measures is dependent on several circumstances. It generally takes place when the child reaches the age of 16. The Board may nevertheless decide, if it thinks fit, that protective supervision shall continue for a maximum period of three years from the time when measures of protection have ceased. Such supervision cannot, however, be extended to minors over 18 years of age. If the child has been taken from its family on account of an offence punishable by law, failure to observe the compulsory school attendance law, or misconduct, the Board shall continue to have charge of the child until it has reached the age of 21.

Child Labour.

The Child-Welfare Act likewise contains provisions designed to prevent the employment of children in occupations for which they are unsuited by reason of their age.

"Children may not appear as itinerant singers, musicians, dancers or acrobats or follow any other similar remunerative occupation.

"Children may not engage in hawking or other similar trades in public places without the permission of the Welfare Board, except for the incidental sale of natural products, which have been gathered or produced by the child or by members of the child's home.

"Children or young persons of the female sex may not serve the public in hotels, restaurants, cafés or similar public places, without the consent of the Board, except under the immediate supervision of the parents or guardian" (Article 30 of Act No. 52).

The permission of the Board is dependent on the influence of the occupation on the moral and physical development of the minor concerned.

Other Provisions of the Act.

In addition to the provisions mentioned above, the Act also contains rules for the conduct of child welfare institutions,¹ provisions regarding the share of expenses to be borne by the State and the communes respectively, and a statement of penalties for infringements of the law.

With regard to the information to be given to the Welfare Board, the law stipulates that members of the parish clergy, teachers, the police, communal authorities and midwives are bound to inform the Board without delay of cases in which the protection of children is necessary. The other inhabitants of the commune are likewise entitled to draw the Board's attention to such cases.

The Ministry of Social Affairs has drawn up general instructions for child welfare institutions, as well as the forms and regulations rendered necessary by the entry into force of the Act.

Information concerning Child-Welfare Legislation at present in force.

Concurrently with the Child-Welfare Act, the Act of July 27th, 1922, concerning children born out of wedlock, and the Decree of December 28th, 1927, regarding their supervision, continue in force, as also do the Act and Decree, both of June 5th, 1925, concerning adopted children.

The following laws contain provisions regarding State subsidies which may be granted to welfare institutions :

The Act of December 19th, 1922, on grants to communal and private educational establishments;

The Decree of June 21st, 1923, on the same subject;

The Act of July 1st, 1927, on grants to communal and private institutions for the care of persons suffering from mental infirmity;

¹ General educational establishments maintained by the State, and institutions maintained by communes or private persons, which are approved for the purpose by the Ministry of Social Affairs.

The Decree of the same date on the same subject;
The Act of November 11th, 1927, on grants to kindergartens;

The Ordinance of January 17th, 1936, on the same subject.

It must further be mentioned that an annual subsidy which figures in the national budget is granted for the following objects :

- (a) Vocational training for indigent young persons;
- (b) The maintenance of establishments for facilitating family education (crèches, homes for small children, and institutions which look after them at times when they would otherwise be left to themselves);
- (c) The Ebeneser School for Kindergarten Mistresses;
- (d) Holidays for children who do not attend elementary school;
- (e) Training of the staff and heads of the establishments mentioned above;
- (f) Certain handicraft centres and children's homes.

Maternity Relief.

Maternity relief has been organised in Finland from 1938 onwards. It will include both material care and financial aid. The former is governed by the Act of June 18th, 1937, on communal midwives. It stipulates that each commune with a population of not less than 5,000 must have at least one midwife, those of from 5,000 to 12,000 at least two midwives, and larger communes an additional midwife for every additional 7,000 inhabitants, unless the matter has already been settled in some other way approved by the Ministry of Internal Affairs, as is the case in the majority of towns.

The question of financial assistance for mothers in reduced circumstances is equally important. According to the Maternity Relief Act promulgated on September 24th, 1937,¹ which has come into force on January 1st,

¹ See the text of the Act in document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I.28—Legislative and Administrative Series, No. 27.

1938, mothers having an income ¹ of less than 8,000 marks (or 10,000 marks in a district where the cost of living is high), will be entitled to maternity relief. This will take the form of a single grant—namely, a payment of 450 marks for each child born. The Government had proposed that women working for wages should receive an additional 200 marks as compensation for loss of earnings during confinement, but the proposal was not approved by the Chamber, which considered that this question should be dealt with separately. Instead, the amount of maternity relief was raised from 250 to 450 marks for all classes of women. According to a statistical estimate of the number of confinements, the annual expenditure entailed by maternity relief has been calculated at 25 million marks. The amount would ultimately be somewhat lower. It was thought natural that the State should meet the cost, in view of the fact that the measure was a social one benefiting the whole nation. The assistance is granted and distributed by the Welfare Board of the commune in which the woman is domiciled, in accordance with the provisions of the Act and the Decree governing its application. The Act also provides that part of the assistance may be granted in kind.

If the Welfare Board is of the opinion that the object of relief is not met by payment of part of the assistance in cash, in view of drunkenness or extravagance in the family, or for other reasons, it may decide that the whole amount of the grant be paid in kind. In cases where there is very little or no need for assistance in kind, the amount is to be paid in cash, either so far as it has not been paid in kind, or in its entirety. The proportion between the amounts of assistance in kind and in cash is not fixed by the regulations for the application of the law, but is to be decided later on in the light of experience.

¹ The income for which the mother alone, or in case she lives with her husband, the two together, were last assessed for communal taxation.

FRANCE.

Social problems, in particular those connected with the child, have to be considered to-day in the light of new conditions to which old formulæ no longer apply. France has therefore definitely turned to a policy of prevention and co-ordination.

To give effect to this policy the following three bodies were set up under the Ministry of Public Health :

The General Inspectorate of Child Welfare Services;
The Supreme Council for Child Welfare;
The Supreme Council for Social Hygiene.

The last-named body will simply be mentioned here, as its scope is wider than that of child welfare.

THE SUPREME COUNCIL FOR CHILD WELFARE.

The Supreme Council for Child Welfare was set up by a Decree of September 30th, 1937.¹

It answers national requirements and, in the international sphere, gives effect to the desire expressed by the League of Nations in October 1936.

It establishes the necessary liaison between the various ministerial departments and private social organisations. This is a delicate task, as fourteen Ministries are concerned with the problem of child welfare.

Further, by ensuring collaboration between the chief competent persons, the Council contributes to the practical solution of the complex problems connected with the protection of children.

Owing to the permanent liaison existing between the various national and international organisations, it is able to examine, under the best possible conditions, all the questions submitted to it, to bring about useful changes and ensure that they are put into immediate effect.

The Council has a permanent General Secretariat at the

¹ See document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I.26—Legislative and Administrative Series, No. 25.

central administrative office of the Ministry of Public Health. It has three technical advisers, who deal with the problems from the medical, educational and judicial point of view respectively.

The principal questions treated are :

The Children's Code.—The Supreme Council for Child Welfare considered that one of its first main tasks was the codification of the laws, decrees, circulars and regulations concerning children.

This code will form an invaluable study and source of documentation on child legislation in France. It will include all the legislative measures affecting children adopted by the various Ministries, and will appear in a special edition during 1938.

Medico-social Protection in Schools.—Numerous draft laws and parliamentary and congress reports have, for the past century and a-half, been devoted to the problem of school medical inspection, but so far they have not led to any practical results; no measures have been adopted whereby the protection of school-children could be organised on rational and methodical lines for the whole of France.

Some experiments have, however, been made. In Lyons, for instance, the municipal authorities have set up school dispensaries for the treatment of poor children.

Children should be prepared in time for the future requirements of life. Teachers should have a thorough knowledge of the physical and mental aptitudes of their pupils. Lastly, the medical-card system should be introduced for all school-children. This system is already in use in the case of public assistance wards and delinquent minors, who are provided with an "individual health booklet" (*carnet de santé individuel*) and a "compulsory health booklet" (*carnet de santé obligatoire*) respectively.

A draft law was passed by the Chamber in 1928; it was taken up again later. Other draft laws were also brought in in 1937.

These drafts deal with the essential aspects of this important problem. The Child Welfare Council worked for their adoption and contributed information derived from recent studies.

However, as the Council wished to get rid of the restricted

character and inquisitorial implications of the term "inspection", it decided that the name "medico-social protection in schools" would better describe the aims and spirit of the new institution.

Guardianship of Illegitimate Children.—The problem of guardianship should be considered in connection with the principle of assistance to deserted mothers and the need of educating the children.

The question has been under examination since 1932. A draft law on the subject was submitted to the Senate, and, in October 1935, a decree-law was enacted, thus affording evidence of a determination to take an interest in the fate of illegitimate children.

A new draft law instituting the compulsory and automatic guardianship of illegitimate children was brought before the Chamber on March 16th, 1937. This draft law, which has for its aim the effective protection of children, provides for a form of guardianship which would cover both their property and person.

As the Child Welfare Council recommended that this draft law should be adopted without delay, a Rapporteur to the Chamber was appointed.

Determination of Paternity.—This question is being specially examined at the moment; even now, something practical might be done by utilising the results of research work on blood groups.

Women Police Assistants.—In order to ensure the application of the Law of July 24th, 1889, amended by the Decree-Law of October 30th, 1935, relating to protection and assistance in intermediate cases (children whose parents do not deserve to be deprived of their paternal power but who are in need of guidance), the Child Welfare Council asked that the organisation of a Welfare Women Workers' Corps, under the Health Department of the Préfecture de Police de la Seine, should be strengthened.

Measures are being considered, and will be applied shortly, to increase the number of women police assistants. At present, there are four in Paris and three in Lyons, besides a few in other towns.

Protection of Domestic Servants and Employees under Age.—Moral neglect is one of the most frequent causes of

prostitution among minors between the ages of fourteen and eighteen. Statistics show that 89% of the prostitutes under eighteen were previously employed as domestic servants.

The Permanent Section of the Child Welfare Council has recommended that steps should be taken to impose on *masters and employers a legal obligation* to report when employment terminates. Minors could thus be effectively protected, as they could be sent back to their families or passed on to homes or employment centres. This question is being examined in collaboration with the Labour Department.

Admission of Children to Cinemas.—The Child Welfare Council has set up a committee to study, in conjunction with the Department for National Education, the conditions for the admission of children to certain performances.

It has asked that the physical and mental effects of films on children should be borne in mind.

Medico-educational Institutions for Defective Children.—The value of such institutions has been recognised, and their number is to be increased.

The Council has accordingly submitted a plan for examination, and the possibilities of financing it are being studied in conjunction with the various départements.

The Council has also recommended that separate institutions should be set up for boys and girls.

Centres for the Prevention of Pathological Sterility.—The Council, considering it desirable to encourage births in families capable of rearing their children under favourable conditions, is endeavouring to promote the creation of consultation centres to deal with involuntary sterility and proposes to set up a laboratory and a main centre in Paris.

The creation of such centres was recommended in a circular of December 6th, 1937, issued by the Minister of Public Health.

An enquiry is being conducted in all the départements, after which appropriate measures may be enacted.

The efforts of certain départements in this direction have already met with success.

* * *

The Child Welfare Council decided to outline a general child welfare policy for France, and at once appointed

Rapporteurs to prepare a programme based on the best and most practicable forms of model organisation.

The Council also set up a *National Committee for the Protection of Public Assistance Wards and Ex-Wards*.

The object of this Committee is to lend material and moral support to wards or ex-wards, to create ties of friendship and mutual helpfulness between them, and to organise meetings, parties, the distribution of toys, etc., through the intermediary of local associations.

Among other questions examined by the Child Welfare Council are the following :

- Holiday colonies;
- The nutrition of children of school age;
- Hygiene of school premises;
- Medical guardianship of children;
- Shelters and sorting centres;
- The detection of venereal disease in delinquent minors;
- The status of the new personnel in supervised education establishments;
- The supervision of private associations;
- The re-establishment in society of discharged minors;
- The treatment and training of abnormal children;
- The re-education of difficult wards;
- Family allowances and allowances to mothers;
- The employment of women doctors and women social workers in the colonies.

* * *

OTHER MEASURES CONCERNING CHILD WELFARE ADOPTED IN 1937.

During the year 1937/38, numerous instructions were issued to the prefects by the Minister of Public Health. These instructions specified the improvements regarded as necessary as a result of the inspections carried out and were intended to promote action to improve the material and moral condition of deserted children.

The special aim of these instructions was the medical organisation of the Service for Assisted Children. The preventive system must henceforward be extended as widely as possible, and, for this purpose, the medico-social services should be organised and co-ordinated on a rational and methodical basis.

The important question of the education of difficult or depraved wards is also under consideration. The prefects are asked to follow closely the progress of minors in reformatories so as to be able, if necessary, to modify the measures adopted for their benefit and to exercise constant supervision over such reformatories, both as regards the children's material conditions of life and the results obtained by the medico-educational treatment which the reformatories must provide.

The instructions also emphasised the need for flexibility in the regulations for the Child Welfare Service, and stressed the important social duties of public assistance inspectors, who are responsible for providing, under the best possible conditions, the thousands of children under their guardianship with the education and care of which they have been deprived owing to the fault or disappearance of their families.

In this connection, it is of interest to note that women are now eligible for public assistance inspectorships. A draft law to that effect was introduced by the Minister of Public Health and passed by the Chamber on March 25th, 1937, and by the Senate on December 31st, 1937.

Until then, women could only rise to the rank of assistant inspector in the Public Assistance Inspectorate. The experience of the past fifteen years proved that women assistant inspectors had the competence and the authority required for a head inspectorship, such qualities depending, not on sex, but on the moral and professional standing of the person concerned.

Women were found to be particularly qualified for dealing with children, and especially with children in distress.

The following are some of the measures adopted to protect children :

Order of May 18th, 1937, on the cost of children's visits to holiday colonies and open-air societies (*Journal officiel*, May 19th).

Instruction of May 18th, 1937, respecting the organisation and working of holiday colonies and camps subsidised by the State (*Journal officiel*, May 19th).

Circular of March 1st, 1937, regarding the supervision of holiday societies.

Circular of June 2nd, 1937, regarding the application of the regulations concerning the organisation and working of holiday camps and colonies.

Various circulars of February 26th, March 26th, April 14th and 26th, 1937, concerning sanitary and social co-ordination.

Decree of June 19th, 1937, regarding the placing of assisted children (*Journal officiel*, July 8th).

Order of April 28th, 1937, fixing the maximum amount of the grants payable to maternal welfare organisations for the prevention of infant mortality (*Journal officiel*, April 29th).

Order of July 3rd, 1937, concerning the approval of societies or institutions applying for permission to receive public assistance wards (*Journal officiel*, July 8th).

Circular of January 10th, 1937, concerning the expenditure of the Infant Welfare Service.

Circular of March 8th, 1937, respecting the organisation of milk donors' centres (*Journal officiel*, March 13th).

Circular of May 29th, 1937, regarding the preparation of statistics on assisted and protected children.

Circular of April 13th, 1937, relating to the fixing of the cost per day in preventoria for patients entitled to free medical assistance, and Circular of June 15th, 1937, concerning the admission to preventoria of patients entitled to free medical assistance.

Circular of April 17th, 1937, respecting the authorisation of private preventoria.

Circular of March 8th, 1937, respecting free milk in schools.

Circular of March 15th, 1937, concerning an enquiry into the prevention and punishment of abortion.

Circular of March 1st, 1937, regarding the detection and treatment of congenital syphilis (*Journal officiel*, March 4th).

Circular of February 10th, 1937, regarding the conditions of appointment of visiting nurses and welfare workers (*Journal officiel*, February 17th).

Decree of June 19th, 1937, respecting the placing of assisted children (*Journal officiel*, July 8th).

Decree of July 26th, 1937, regarding departmental inspection of public assistance (*Journal officiel*, August 4th).

Decree of July 30th, 1937, respecting the application of the Law of March 11th, 1932, on family allowances (*Journal officiel*, August 3rd).

Order of July 5th, 1937, regarding the formalities to be complied with by societies or institutions seeking approval in order to receive public assistance wards (*Journal officiel*, July 8th).

Circular of July 15th, 1937, regarding sanitary and social co-ordination (holiday colonies and schools for nurses).

Circular of August 2nd, 1937, containing instructions to prefects regarding the compulsory absence of school-children who have been in contact with diphtheria patients.

Circular of August 9th, 1937, concerning school medical inspection.

Circular of September 14th, 1937, concerning the training of future teachers.

Circular of September 16th, 1937, concerning sanitary and social co-ordination.

Circular of September 15th, 1937, respecting child welfare.

Decree of September 30th, 1937, setting up a Supreme Council for Child Welfare (*Journal officiel*, October 1st).

Decree of September 30th, 1937, appointing technical advisers, a woman Secretary-General and a woman Administrative Secretary to the Supreme Council for Child Welfare (*Journal officiel*, October 1st).

Circular of November 3rd, 1937, on the working of departmental committees on natality.

Circular of November 15th, 1937, concerning the administration of monies belonging to public assistance wards.

Circular of November 30th, 1937, concerning the national encouragement of large families.

Decree of December 1st, 1937, regarding the Statute of the staff of the Public Assistance Departmental Inspectorate (*Journal officiel*, December 7th).

Circular of December 4th, 1937, regarding the authorisation of preventoria.

Circular of December 6th, 1937, regarding the period of treatment in preventoria.

Circular of December 6th, 1937, regarding centres for the prevention of involuntary sterility.

Circular of December 30th, 1937, regarding the encouragement of large families.

Decree of February 18th, 1938, instituting ordinary and higher diplomas for male or female hospital nurses and welfare workers of the State Welfare Service (*Journal officiel*, February 19th).

Circular of February 1st, 1938, regarding the national encouragement of large families.

Decree of April 22nd, 1937, regarding child welfare in Indo-China (*Journal officiel*, April 25th).

Decree of December 10th, 1936, setting up departmental committees for school buildings (*Journal officiel*, January 16th).

Decree of March 17th, 1937, regarding the examination for the certificate of competence to teach backward children (*Journal officiel*, March 20th).

Law of January 14th, 1937, amending Article 355 of the Penal Code prohibiting the abduction or seduction of minors (*Journal officiel*, January 15th).

Decree of June 20th, 1937, setting up a permanent secretariat to ensure liaison between the services, councils, commissions, committees and organisations dealing with the prevention of crime, the protection of adolescents sent for trial, and social penitentiary societies (*Journal officiel*, June 23rd).

GREECE.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

The principal measures taken during the years 1936 and 1937 were as follows :

1. Law of September 29th, 1936.—Article 7 provides that the employment books of minors aged from 14 to 16 shall be issued by the Inspectorates of Labour and not by the Mayors' Offices. Before the said books are issued, the applicants must be examined by the inspector of occupational health.

2. Law No. 759 of 1937, which fixes 14 as the minimum age for domestic service.

3. Law No. 869 of 1937, which provides for the formation of a Prisons Society. This Society's activities will extend even to the small communes. Its aim will be to study the prevention and punishment of crime in Greece and to provide aftercare for discharged prisoners, especially minors.

ADMINISTRATIVE MEASURES.

1. During 1936, the Greek Ministry of Justice took steps to increase the financial credits of the educational establishments for neglected minors.

2. In a circular of the same year, the judicial authorities were recommended to suspend sentences involving loss of liberty passed on minors detained in the said establishments in respect of offences committed previously to their entering these establishments.

3. Pending the entry into force of the law setting up juvenile courts—the text of which has been referred to an *ad hoc* commission for revision—the Ministry of Justice instructed the judicial authorities in the capital to try penal cases concerning minors separately, as from November 1936.

4. In 1937, the Ministry of Justice had a special establishment built for the accommodation of the children of

women prisoners. The feeding and educating of these children have been entrusted to the Child-Welfare League.

5. During the same year, the Ministry of Justice founded a Minors' Aid Society at the Piraeus. The buildings of this Society, which are nearly ready, will hold about 700 neglected minors.

WORKING AND ORGANISATION OF THE SCHOOL HEALTH SERVICE IN GREECE.¹

The School Health Service was founded in 1911 and is under the exclusive authority of the Ministry of Education. It is composed of two main branches: the Central Service having its head office at the Ministry of Education, and the External Service.

According to the various laws and decrees issued up to date the tasks of the School Health Service are:

(a) To indicate the hygienic conditions under which new schools can be built and can work;

(b) To take care of the health of the pupils;

(c) To supervise the establishment and working of new school kitchens;

(d) To issue various printed documents in order to spread a knowledge of hygiene as widely as possible;

(e) To establish and organise special pedological centres, for the purpose of promoting by suitable action the physical as well as the intellectual development of the pupils.

The External Service is carried on by two classes of officials:

Seventeen (at present) first-class school physicians-in-chief (also called Inspectors of School Hygiene);

Fifteen second-class and thirty third-class school physicians appointed after an examination passed before professors of Athens University.

¹ This summary, transmitted by the Greek delegation accredited to the League of Nations, was prepared by M. Emm. LAMPADARIOU, Professor of Pedology and School Hygiene at Athens University, Director of the School Health Service at the Greek Ministry of Education, Athens, June, 1937.

Important services are rendered by these three classes of officials :

1. Both inspectors of school hygiene and school physicians, being in close co-operation with the technical service of the Ministry of Education, have greatly contributed to the improvement of the hygienic conditions of over 1,000 school buildings, while their advice has been taken into due consideration before commencing the construction of new school buildings, of which over 3,168, representing a total value of 1,476,000,000 drachmas, were built during the period 1928-1932.

2. They have supervised the general state of school health, and thanks to the effective steps taken at their suggestion the percentage of infectious diseases has been decreased to the lowest possible rate.

3. They have paid special attention to the health of teachers, removing all those who were infected by tuberculosis or other contagious diseases, while on the basis of their decisions no one may in future be appointed as teacher in a public school without producing an official certificate attesting his perfect health and bodily soundness.

4. They have undertaken the medical examination of pupils, especially in the large towns such as : Athens, Patras, Salonica, etc. This medical examination is undertaken at the beginning of the school year and its results are entered on a separate card constituting the individual " bill of health " of the pupil.

5. Scientific and systematic vaccination and revaccination against smallpox is applied to over 100,000 children per year; it is carried out at the beginning of the school year. Last year anti-diphtheria and anti-scarlet-fever vaccination was also successfully adopted.

Great attention has been devoted to school help and assistance.

New school baths and new school dispensaries have been installed throughout the country, and still more important Law No. 484 (16/31 Oct. 1936) has established at Athens (Alexandrou Soutsou St. No. 20) the Athens Pedological Centre including a first-rate pedological laboratory, school hygiene museum, school pictures room, dental, ophthalmological, orthopedic and laryngological departments,

special school kitchens department, professional orientation, etc.

As regards open-air schools, their number is now very limited since, owing to Greece's mild climate, lessons can be and are given during the greater part of the year in the open air or out of doors.

The service of school kitchens, where poor pupils can obtain an abundant and nourishing meal for only one drachma per pupil per day, has been more or less generalised throughout the country. To show the satisfactory results achieved, we may mention the fact that the number of participants during the last school-year (1936/37) totalled 36,000 pupils.

HUNGARY.

ADMINISTRATIVE MEASURES.

Homes and Institutions.

At the end of 1936, the Hungarian State homes for children were housing a total of 40,788 minors. This is an increase of 2,168 compared with the year 1935. At the end of June 1937, the number admitted was 42,166—an increase of 979 since the beginning of the year. The slower rate of increase is explained by the economic situation.

During 1936, 12,476 children left State institutions. Altogether, therefore, 53,264 minors were cared for, for varying periods, in children's homes, making 2,623 more than the year before; the increase is not so marked, however, as in 1935, when it amounted to 2,839.

The proportion of children born out of wedlock sent to the homes shows a decrease compared with the preceding year (44.3 %, compared with 45.5 %). 54.4 % of the children admitted to the homes are boys.

The gradual withdrawal of assistance to war orphans continues. The number of children (war orphans and disabled servicemen's children) maintained in these institutions at the expense of the Ministry was 196 at the end of 1936 (compared with 440 the year before).

The Szekesfehervar Technical School and the Vác Technical School for the leather industry, which formerly came within the province of child welfare, have been administered since July 1st, 1936, by the Ministry of Public Worship and Education, which is the authority responsible for all educational institutions. The Ministry has arranged for the admission to the homes of the same number of children as were maintained by the two institutions in question before the transfer.

An institution for difficult girls, a convalescent home and a school health centre for tuberculous children have replaced the Ikervár and Tokay auxiliary educational institutions, which have now been closed.

Accommodation is provided for tuberculous children in the convalescent homes and open-air schools (forest schools). Provision is made for country holidays, for poor and delicate children, in mountain and other resorts maintained by the Government and the public authorities and to some extent by private supporters.

Welfare of Children of Pre-school Age and Training of Staff for Infant Schools.

Under Law XXIII of 1936, the welfare of children of pre-school age has, since November 14th, 1936, been placed almost entirely in the hands of the Minister of the Interior. This became necessary in view of the Government's intention of proceeding more energetically with the physical education of children from 3 to 6 years of age and in particular with welfare measures affecting them; the plan is to develop the institutions responsible for such children within the framework of the general social welfare and health programme. With this aim in view, nursery-schools will, as far as funds permit, gradually be equipped with day-nurseries in which meals will be provided for the children. This work of reorganisation and the creation of new nursery-schools and day-nurseries will necessarily require Government assistance. The question of the cost of maintaining the homes and the provision of meals can only be solved by a small contribution from those concerned, with the assistance of the communes, public bodies and private charity.

Nursery-school teachers will also have to be trained for their new duties. This will mean further training for the existing nursery-school teachers and the substantial reorganisation of training methods.

Pending final arrangements, advice based on experience is now being collected, though certain temporary arrangements and alterations of an urgent character, presenting no particular difficulty, have already been introduced. The Minister of Public Worship and Education (who is responsible for the training of nursery-school teachers) has increased the time devoted to the teaching of physiology in the curriculum of training colleges for nursery-school teachers from one to two hours a week. He has extended the health curriculum relating to children from 3 to 6 years

of age, and that of rural hygiene, and has completely reorganised the practical health work. Such teaching is now in the hands of a woman doctor, who has been appointed in place of the doctor previously responsible for this course. She can thus no longer practise, but will devote her full time to hygiene in nursery schools.

In virtue of these provisions, health now occupies a place equal in importance to that of other subjects in the training curriculum of future nursery-school teachers. Nursery-schools attached to training-colleges will be converted into nursery-schools with day-nurseries, and pupils will thus have practical opportunities of learning how to prepare food. With these same objects in view, the examination regulations have also been altered. In future, at the end of their fourth year, students will have to take a compulsory examination in domestic science, nutrition in day-nurseries and hygiene.

Plans of work, which all the counties and municipal authorities will be required to put into practice will be ready by the spring of 1938, regulating in detail all welfare work for children of pre-school age. These plans will form the basis for the national plan to be drawn up by the Ministry.

Nutrition.

At the beginning of 1937, child-welfare work was further extended by the institution of two important activities, the systematic feeding of children and the free distribution of sugar.

A credit of 50,000 pengös was allocated for food, two-thirds of which were used for feeding 3,000 children for 75 days in eleven counties; the remaining third was expended on food for tuberculous children throughout the year in districts where anti-tuberculosis measures were being taken on an organised basis, thus stimulating private generosity. The work was carried out under the direction of the Prefects, with the assistance of the public health doctors. They first made sure of the friendly support of the local population, as the principle adopted was not to take the place of local charity, but to systematise and supplement it. Meals were given to children from 3 to 12 years of age whose parents were indigent and whose state

of health made outside help necessary, the first condition being established by a local commission, the second by means of medical inspection. To ensure the judicious use of funds, detailed instructions were circulated concerning the composition of the meals, with reference to calories, vitamin and other requirements, together with a detailed statement of the cost, which might vary.

Satisfactory results were obtained everywhere, and the experiment has proved very encouraging. It is proposed to reduce the State grant by half in districts where the system has already been in operation and to discontinue it altogether the following year, when local support is sufficient to cover the costs.

Free sugar was again distributed in the spring of 1937 as a protective measure in safeguarding the children's health. Ten wagon-loads had been distributed in 1936, when the work was under the direction of the Prefects, and there were no definite rules, except that a child was allowed two half-kilogramme rations during the year. Thirty wagon-loads of sugar were available in 1937, and the scale of activities was extended accordingly. Definite rules now exist regarding distribution. Children under 2 years of age receive a half-kilogramme a fortnight, and according to reliable statistics it should be possible to supply sugar for about eight months to 15 % of the children under 2 years of age who are in need of assistance owing to poverty or ill health.

The public health doctor gives vouchers to the mothers when they bring their children to be examined. This examination is of value from the point of view of the children's physical development and of the care bestowed on them, while the fact that the mothers get into the habit of bringing their children to be seen by the doctor helps to promote and popularise preventive measures for the welfare of infants. The doctors responsible for distributing the vouchers receive special instructions concerning the feeding of infants and young children and, in particular, the use of sugar in their diet.

In two districts, milk is now being distributed free, as an experiment, to nursing mothers, infants and young children. The results are awaited before organising this work on a larger scale.

Work of Private Organisations.

The health protection service, organised under the auspices of the Green Cross, also plays a prominent part in child welfare, as the following figures indicate : in 1937, 4,370 expectant mothers, 85,930 infants under one year of age, and 55,906 older children were examined, the total number of medical examinations being 146,206. School doctors examined 44,284 scholars and 1,892 pupils in nursery-schools. School dentists examined 20,282 children, and treated 9,507 of them. Social workers visited 289,693 families, their visits totalling 384,819, among which 15,504 were made to expectant mothers, 13,331 to women in childbed, 123,036 to infants, 122,340 to small children; 36,484 visits were paid to school-children.

The national organisation for the protection of mothers and infants has been extended by the Stéphanie Federation, though it has not been possible to increase the State grant. The Federation's dispensaries have increased by 21, doctors by 61, and women social workers by 37; 104,014 infants and 89,864 young children were treated, and 1,498,042 visits were paid by social assistants.

Infant Mortality.

The following infant mortality figures are of interest :

Percentage of infant mortality.

	In 1935	In 1936
In the whole national territory	15.4	14.0
In areas without dispensaries	16.2	15.6
In areas with dispensaries	14.8	12.8
Among children enjoying protection	10.5	9.1

INDIA.

The Government of India have no new developments to report in regard to legislative or administrative measures taken in India for the protection of children and young persons during 1936.

IRAN.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

The *Civil Code* contains numerous articles dealing with child welfare; its provisions are particularly detailed with regard to the exercise of the paternal power and the duties of parents in the matter of their children's education.

In the month of *Ordibehecht* 1316 (May 1937), a special law was enacted concerning guardians by judicial appointment. The law provides that, when proceedings in criminal matters can only be commenced on the complaint of the person aggrieved, and when such person is a minor having neither parents nor guardian, the Public Prosecutor shall select an *ad hoc* guardian to act until the appointment of a permanent guardian by the judicial authority. Pending such appointment, the Public Prosecutor shall take whatever steps may be necessary to collect evidence and establish the facts with a view to safeguarding the minor's interests, but the institution of proceedings is left exclusively to the discretion of the *ad hoc* guardian. The duty of instituting proceedings also devolves upon the *ad hoc* guardian in cases in which a minor's parents or guardian have committed, or are implicated in, the offence. The *ad hoc* guardian's duties are naturally of a purely temporary character, and cease with the appointment of a guardian by the court; once this has been done, it is the appointed guardian who represents the minor in legal proceedings.

As regards the penalties to which delinquent minors are liable under the *Criminal Code*, it should be emphasised that, in all cases, the legislature's primary concern has been moral reform and education rather than punishment. Minors of from 15 to 18 years of age, guilty of offences punishable by imprisonment, are, for example, committed to reformatories.

In addition to the above-mentioned laws, the country's industrial legislation contains various regulations for the protection of young children employed in modern factories and workshops.

DRAFT LAW.

The Ministry of Justice has prepared a draft law which will shortly be submitted to the Legislature. The draft law provides for highly important changes in the Criminal Code, and would materially improve methods of dealing with young offenders; the criminal responsibility of minors, for example, is never deemed to be complete, full and entire responsibility not being incurred until the attainment of majority under the Civil Code. Article 196 of the draft law provides that delinquent minors under 18 years of age may not be sentenced to imprisonment, but are to be sent to the educational institutions which will be created for the purpose. Under Article 197 of the draft law, if a court takes the view that a minor under 12 years of age who has committed an act of a criminal character is a danger to society, it may, after consideration of the child's family circumstances, the environment in which he has been living, and any other personal factors, send him to an educational institution.

Under the draft law, the measures to be applied in the case of delinquent minors are as follows :

- (1) Admonition of the delinquent with a warning to the parents, who are to be required to give a formal undertaking to pay proper attention to their child's conduct and education;
 - (2) Should the parents be of unsatisfactory moral character, the child shall be entrusted to the care of another family willing to take charge of him;
 - (3) Placing of delinquents in educational institutions created for the purpose;
 - (4) Sick or weakly delinquent minors shall be confided to the care of a suitable health or other institution, according to the circumstances of each case.
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IRAQ.

I. LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

Employment of Children.

The Iraq Government has issued legislation under the Labour Law (No. 72) in 1936 prohibiting the employment of young persons under the age of 15 years in industry.

II. OFFICIAL AND PRIVATE PRACTICAL MEASURES.

The child-welfare work in Iraq is undertaken by the Government and by charitable institutions.

A. Work undertaken by the Government.

The Iraq Health Service has continuously developed special health centres for the care of the health of infants in the three large towns of Baghdad, Basrah and Mosul. In the other towns and villages, the treatment and care of infants is carried out at the ordinary Health Service institutions. The Iraq Health Service is also endeavouring to train doctors in special methods of treatment and care of infants.

The Iraq Health Service has a special hospital of fifty beds at Baghdad, with its own out-patient department for the treatment and welfare of infants, and also has specialists in children's diseases (doctors of both sexes) whom it is proposed to appoint to the Liwa headquarters and other health institutions to meet the need for such special services outside Baghdad.

During the year 1936, 50,841 patients attended the out-patients department of the special children's hospital at Baghdad, and 299 in-patients were admitted to this hospital. In addition to treatment, the staff of the said hospital teach and advise mothers on the methods to be followed for the nutrition and welfare of their children. At Basrah and Mosul, where no special Government

buildings exist at present for the treatment of infants, the Health Service has supplied the centres belonging to the Child-Welfare Society with doctors, nurses and medicines for the treatment and care of children until the necessary buildings are erected for the purpose. The Health Service has also appointed health visitors in the three large towns mentioned above. Their duties are restricted to the visiting of homes, enquiring about the health of babies and infants, giving any first-aid that may be required, and simple instructions to mothers on prevention of disease, feeding, cleanliness and all matters concerning the care of infant health.

In 1936, the Health Service also began the distribution of pasteurised milk to the poor and needy infants attending the Health Institutions at all the Liwa headquarters for the purpose of the prevention of disease. By this means the medical officers of the Health Service are able to inspect infants brought for this purpose and give the required instructions to the mothers on the hygiene, clothing and cleanliness of the infants.

Furthermore, the Iraq Health Service broadcasts talks on child welfare by its specialists. This is a valuable means of education now that radio sets are becoming so common in Iraq. The public eagerly listen to such broadcasts, which reach that part of the population which is illiterate.

The Training of Special Staff.

The increasing number of female students at the Royal College of Medicine at Baghdad will enable Iraq in the near future to organise the care of the infants and women under the supervision of female Iraqi doctors. The schools for nurses and midwives will produce a greater number of trained workers for this field, so that in the future it is hoped that in every small village in the country there will be an official trained nurse for the care of the infants and women.

The School Medical Service.

The medical inspection of all school-children and the treatment of minor ailments thus discovered is being

extended and improved year by year, and the teaching of hygiene and of mothercraft is also receiving more attention in the syllabus.

B. Work undertaken by Charitable Institutions.

(i) *The Child-Welfare Society.*

The Child-Welfare Society of Iraq, established in 1928, has continued to give the necessary assistance to infants and to increase the scope of its preventive work such as giving advice, providing for the circumcision of the poor and distributing clothes to them. This Society has two branches, one at Basrah and the other at Mosul. Each of these two branches does the same work as is done at the headquarters at Baghdad.

A modern hospital for the treatment and protection of infants was erected by this society at Baghdad, but owing to insufficient funds the building was handed over to the Iraq Health Service. The work of this hospital is described above under "Work undertaken by the Government".

(ii) *The Iraq Red-Crescent Society.*

This Society has a special branch for infant welfare at Baghdad. A British trained nurse was engaged for this work.

During 1936, 1,563 infants attended the infant welfare branch in 248 days. The staff of this branch made 6,258 visits to the homes of babies for treatment and instruction. During this year 1,030 lbs. of dried milk, 1,469 cakes of soap and 1,257 pieces of clothing were distributed.

The Society also has a special branch for the training of girls in first-aid and also in child-welfare. Its work is gradually developing, and the attendance increases considerably year by year, owing to the improvement noticed by the mothers in the health of their infants.

In addition to the above institutes, there are in Iraq other charitable institutes and orphanages maintained by charitable or religious societies, such as the Islami, the Dominican Mission and the Jewish communities. Each of these institutes and orphanages has doctors and nurses for treatment and instruction in child welfare and hygiene.

III. THE BOY-SCOUT MOVEMENT.

This movement is very popular and receives strong official support, and in consequence it is developing rapidly throughout the country, with beneficial effects upon child health.

IV. THE HOUSING OF THE POOR.

Schemes for the housing of the poor are constantly under consideration. It is believed that the development of such schemes will assist in the protection of infant life.

V. PLAYGROUNDS FOR CHILDREN.

The provision of such special playgrounds in the larger towns is now spreading to the smaller municipalities.

CONCLUSION.

Iraq is aware of the importance of child health and infant protection, and is steadily developing this branch of its public-health work.

IRELAND.

The following information is extracted from the Report of the Department of Local Government and Public Health for 1935/36. As a good deal of the information contained in that report deals with medical and health questions, it has been thought sufficient to publish only some extracts of general interest, and reference is made to the pages of the report for more detailed and local information. (In the footnotes indicating the pages to be consulted, the Report of the Department of Local Government and Public Health for 1935/36 is referred to as "the report".)

MEDICAL AND MIDWIFERY SERVICES.¹

Adequate midwifery and medical services are available under the Medical Charities Acts for attendance on necessitous mothers during confinements. Furthermore, in any case of emergency connected with childbirth in which a mother is not entitled to the benefit of the arrangement above-mentioned, a midwife may, under the provisions of Section 22 of the Midwives (Ireland) Act, 1918, call in a medical practitioner, and the local supervising authority under that Act is bound to pay a fee to such practitioner.

Under the maternity schemes of local authorities, provision is made for attending to the health and physical welfare of expectant and nursing mothers, and for the employment of a midwife or doctor in the cases of necessitous women who are not entitled to benefit under the National Health Insurance Acts, or who are not in receipt of assistance from the poor-law authority.

The midwives employed by local authorities under the Medical Charities Acts are only part-time employees of these bodies and are free to engage in private practice, subject to the condition that their primary duty is in relation to expectant mothers eligible for assistance under

¹ See pages 84 and 85 of the report.

the Medical Charities Acts. There are in addition other qualified midwives practising in Ireland. All persons who attend midwifery cases for gain must have qualified as midwives and be registered with the Central Midwives Board. They must also, at the beginning of each year, give notice to the local supervising authority of their intention to practise their profession in the administrative area of such authority.

Each Board of Health and County Borough Council is vested with authority for the exercise of supervision in its administrative area over all persons practising as midwives as laid down in the Midwives (Ireland) Acts, 1918 and 1931. Such supervision is exercised by the county medical officer of health in each county, and by the medical superintendent officer of health in each county borough.

Regular inspections of the midwives and their equipment are made by each county medical officer of health, medical superintendent officer of health, or deputy inspector of midwives.

Each midwife in the discharge of her duties as midwife is bound to conform to the rules laid down by the Central Midwives Board regulating the practice of midwifery. Each local supervising authority is bound to report to the Board malpractice, negligence, or misconduct on the part of midwives in their district, and to suspend any midwife from practice if such suspension appears necessary to prevent the spread of infection.

Particular attention is being paid by county medical officers of health to the supervision of midwives, and the closest attention by the midwives to the rules laid down for their practice is being insisted upon.

ILLEGITIMATE INFANTS.¹

The number of illegitimate births registered during the year—viz., 1,946—shows a reduction on the number registered in the previous year, but in recent years the number of these children has unfortunately shown a tendency to increase, the average number of births registered in the decennium 1925 to 1934 being 1,842. The mortality rate

¹ See page 86 of the report.

in the case of such infants—viz., 260 per 1,000 births—is greatly in excess of the rate for legitimate infants, which is 62 per 1,000, but nevertheless shows a reduction in the illegitimate death-rate for the decennium 1925 to 1934, which was 287. The provision of suitable homes for unmarried mothers, in connection with which arrangements can be made for the care of the infants for a certain period by the mothers, and later the provision of suitable foster-mothers, is an attempt to solve the problem of reducing this high infant mortality, and is being encouraged.

Recoupment from the National Maternity and Child-Welfare Grant is available in respect of homes of this type when approved by the Minister for the purpose, and is also payable in respect of the cost of maintenance of the children when boarded out by approved agencies.

FREE MILK SCHEME.¹

The provision by the Oireachtas of a further grant of £90,000 for the supply of milk to necessitous children enabled the schemes of the sanitary authorities to be continued during the year. Having regard to the difficulties experienced in securing reliable figures of comparative distress, it was decided to distribute the grant amongst these authorities on the basis of their expenditure on the provision of milk in the previous year. An exception was made in the case of Dublin County Borough, to which, in view of the special circumstances of the city, a special sum of £30,000 was allocated from the grant. The conditions governing the issues from the grant were the same as in the previous year. The supply of milk was confined to children under 5 years of age whose parents or guardians were eligible for home assistance, or who were unable from their own resources to provide such children with an adequate supply of milk, and the existing scale of maximum daily allowances was continued—viz., one child, 1 pint; two children, 1½ pints; three or more children, 2 pints.

As in previous years, the arrangements for the supply of milk were supervised by the county medical officers of

¹ See page 87 of the report.

health in the county health and urban districts, and by the medical superintendent officers of health in the county boroughs. The schemes were administered on lines which were generally satisfactory as regards the elimination of waste and abuse. Greater activity was shown by the sanitary authorities in extending the benefits of the schemes to all eligible children, the aggregate expenditure during the year exceeding that for the previous year by £12,206. Attention was again drawn to the necessity of conserving the major portion of the grant for the winter period, when the need is greater. In a few areas where the rate of expenditure during the summer months was excessive, it was found necessary to discontinue the supply of milk towards the end of the year, but steps have been taken to avoid a recurrence of this defect and to ensure the continuity of the scheme during the whole year.

The purity and wholesomeness of the milk supplied continued to receive special attention.

MATERNITY AND CHILD-WELFARE SCHEMES.¹

In Dublin City, the need for extension in the various activities of the maternity and child-welfare scheme becomes year by year more imperative, owing in a large measure to the new housing schemes which tend to draw that section of the population which is mainly dependent on the welfare services further from the hitherto congested portions of the city. Existing centres in slum districts which are gradually being abandoned will require to transfer their activities to areas such as Crumlin, Kimmage, Cabra, etc. This will not only mean a change of location, but will probably result in an increase in the number of clinics. The staff administering the scheme consists of one whole-time medical officer, two part-time officers and twenty-three nurses under a superintendent and an assistant-superintendent nurse. Valuable help is given by district nurses in training as help visitors and by voluntary workers.

Clinics are held weekly at the twelve baby clubs and sub-centres in the city and at the Carnegie Centre in Lord

¹ See pages 89 to 94 of the report.

Edward Street, Dublin. At the baby clubs, mothers receive a short talk on some aspect of mothercraft from one of the health visitors, and a medical officer sees cases requiring attention.

Where necessary, the pre-natal mother is referred to the maternity hospital of her district for special treatment. A total subsidy of £150 is made annually to the three hospitals in respect of the clinics held in connection with the Dublin County Borough Maternity and Child-Welfare Scheme. Mothers requiring convalescent treatment are referred to Linden and Stillorgan Convalescent Homes. Children under 5 years suffering from malnutrition, mild rickets, etc., are sent for a few weeks to Cheeverstown Convalescent Home and to the Sunshine Home at Stillorgan.

Necessitous expectant mothers may obtain from the St. John Ambulance Brigade Welfare Department a daily meal over a period of three months previous to confinement, which may be continued for a further three months subsequent to confinement. Baby clothes are also provided by the Brigade, and a special allowance of nourishment may be had while the mother is confined to bed.

A special clinic is held at the Carnegie Centre on Saturday morning for the detailed examination of certain children, such examination being impossible at the ordinary welfare clinics owing to the large numbers attending. Where necessary, these cases are referred to a specialist or to a special hospital department.

SCHOOL MEDICAL SERVICE.¹

Under the Public Health (Medical Treatment of Children) (Ireland) Act, 1919, it devolves on local authorities to make arrangements for the medical inspection of children attending elementary schools in their areas, and for attending to the health and physical condition of such children in accordance with regulations to be made under that Act. The Act provides for recoupment to each local authority of an amount not exceeding one half of the expenses properly incurred in the execution of the Act.

Regulations entitled the Public Health (Medical Treat-

¹ See pages 94 to 100 of the report.

ment of Children) (Ireland) Order, 1920, made under the Act, prescribe that the number and duties of officers to be appointed under the Act shall be subject to the approval of the Minister, and provide for the payment of recoupment from the National School Medical Service Grant to local authorities. They also outline the general procedure to be observed in carrying out the medical inspection of school-children and for the provision of medical and surgical treatment for such children when required.

School medical inspection schemes now in operation provide for the appointment of school medical officers, school medical nurses, dental and ophthalmic surgeons, and facilities have been provided under practically all the schemes for the treatment of diseased tonsils and adenoids, defects of nose or throat, dental defects, defective vision and other ailments of the eye. Diseased tonsils and adenoids are treated at such local authority or voluntary hospitals as are approved by the Department. Dental defects are treated by the surgeon dentists employed under the schemes at the dental clinics, or where more serious dental operations are necessary, at the county hospitals. In the county boroughs, agreements are usually made with a dental or general hospital for treatment in certain cases.

Errors of refraction are generally dealt with by the ophthalmic surgeon, and glasses are provided. Other eye defects are dealt with at eye hospitals.

Very definite indications are forthcoming of the improvements in the health and physical condition of school-children in areas in which the beneficent effects of the schemes have had opportunities to materialise.

The reports of the school medical officers continue to record the need for improvement in the general sanitary and hygienic conditions of many of the rural schools.

One medical officer reports that unsuitable schools are being replaced from year to year, but the process of replacing them is a slow one.

In Dublin County the continued and increasing overcrowding of schools is referred to as a very disturbing feature, and the provision of additional schools to relieve it is reported to be urgently required.

On the other hand, progress in regard to provision of new schools or classrooms or improvements in such premises is reported in some areas.

SCHOOL MEALS.¹

Children attending national schools were supplied with meals under the provisions of the Education (Provision of Meals) Acts, 1914 to 1930, in districts administered by forty-nine local authorities, comprising four corporations, thirty-nine urban district councils and six town commissioners.

Whilst the type of meal provided varies according to the sum made available for the purpose from the rates, a substantial meal of good quality (comprising milk or cocoa with bread or buns and butter or jam) is supplied in most of the districts. A hot meal of Irish stew, soup, etc., is provided in many towns.

Every opportunity is taken by the Department to impress on local authorities administering schemes the value to growing children of a daily ration of milk of good quality; and to urge them to make milk the principal constituent of the meals when it can be obtained at a reasonable price.

The necessity for ensuring the purity of the milk supplied was also impressed on local authorities.

REGISTRATION OF MATERNITY HOMES ACT, 1934.²

The number of homes registered under the Act is 214. Of these, 76 are under the control of local authorities.

BOARDED-OUT CHILDREN.²

In addition to the children in institutions and in receipt of home assistance, there were 2,304 boarded-out on March 31st, 1936. This number is greater than that of the preceding year, when 2,253 were returned as in this class.

The number of boarded-out children in each public assistance area is set out in Appendix LVI to the report.

The children are visited periodically by special inspectors of the Department. There were eighty-nine children hired out.

The report of the Department's Inspector of boarded-

¹ See pages 100 to 103 of the report.

² See page 163 of the report.

out children, printed in Appendix LVII to the report, deals with the activities of these authorities under the Children's Acts, 1908-1934.

Everything possible is done to ensure that every child who should come under the operation of the Acts is registered and inspected regularly by an officer of the local authority concerned. Several prosecutions for infringements of the Acts have been made during the year, and convictions obtained. As in previous years, the number of children registered in Dublin remains very high. There were 1,491 children on the register in the Dublin area on March 31st, 1936. Of the forty-nine deaths, thirty-eight were infants under one year old, and eleven were children of one year old and upwards. Twenty-one deaths took place in Dublin hospitals, seven in foster-homes. Only two of the latter occurred in a foster-home in a rural area.

JAPAN.

Japan has sent, among others, the following documents :

I. Extract from *Imperial Ordinance No. 7, of January 10th, 1938*,¹ *setting up a Ministry of Social Welfare* comprising the following five offices :

Office of Public Health ;
Office of Hygiene ;
Office of Prophylaxis ;
Social Office ;
Labour Office.

The ordinance defines the respective activities of these offices and the duties of their staffs.

II. The text of *Law No. 59, of March 31st, 1938, on Social Institutions*.²

The law enumerates the types of institution to which it applies, but adds that exemptions may be granted by imperial ordinance. It lays down rules regarding the foundation, management and working of social institutions.

¹ See document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I.48—Legislative and Administrative Series, No. 43.

² See document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I.50—Legislative and Administrative Series, No. 45.

LATVIA.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

The law on prisoners was promulgated in 1936 (*Valdibas Vestnesis*, No. 140, June 26th, 1936). Part II of the law concerns penitentiary establishments for minors.

Chapter I.

Chapter I of Part II contains general provisions: penitentiary establishments are to be founded, with the object of educating and reforming minors and preparing them for an active and useful life. They must see to their moral, physical and intellectual training and, in addition to general elementary education, must provide vocational training to enable them to earn their own living.

There are three categories of penitentiary establishments for minors—*educational, educational and reformatory, and reformatory*. These may exist side by side, in the form of separate divisions of a single institution. Penitentiary establishments, for each sex, are to be set up and maintained by the State or the municipal authorities; in the latter case, permission must be obtained from the Ministry of Education.

These three types of penitentiary establishments are intended for minors of the following categories :

A. The *educational* establishments receive :

By order of the Court :

(1) Minors up to 18 years who have committed offences under threat of punishment and are not deemed responsible for their acts.

(2) Minors between the ages of 12 and 18 years enjoying conditional exemption from penalties.

(3) By decision of the judicial authorities or the authorities responsible for judicial enquiry, minors between the ages of 12 and 18 years whom it is considered

advisable to place in an educational establishment, as a means of preventing any attempt to evade judicial action.

(4) By decision of the Ministry of Education, minors under 18 years, neglected by their parents or teachers, are in moral danger, and minors who have no fixed domicile and are addicted to vagrancy or begging.

(5) With the consent of the Ministry of Education, minors under 18 years whom their parents or guardians wish to place in an educational establishment for purposes of reform.

B. The *educational and reformatory* establishments receive :

(1) By order of the Court, minors between the ages of 12 and 18 years who have committed offences for which they are deemed responsible.

(2) By decision of the judicial authorities or the authorities entrusted with judicial enquiry, minors between the ages of 12 and 18 years whom it is considered advisable to place in an educational and reformatory establishment as a means of preventing any attempt to evade judicial enquiry or action.

(3) By decision of the Ministry of Education, inmates of reformatories who have mended their ways.

C. The *reformatory* establishments receive :

(1) Minors between the ages of 12 and 18 years who have committed crimes for which they are held responsible.

(2) By decision of the judicial authorities or the authorities entrusted with the judicial enquiry, minors between the ages of 12 and 18 years whom it is considered advisable to place in a reformatory as a means of preventing any attempt to evade judicial enquiry or action.

(3) By decision of the Ministry of Education, inmates of educational and reformatory establishments who are not amenable to discipline.

When being taken to a penitentiary establishment, to court, or before the authorities carrying out the judicial

enquiry, minors must be kept apart from other prisoners, and must be under the escort of persons specially selected for that duty or of police officers.

Chapter II.

Chapter II of Part II of the law on prisoners concerns the administration of penitentiary establishments.

Every establishment is placed under a Director, who is responsible for maintaining order and for the proper running of the establishment. He is assisted, when possible, by a pedagogic council, which discusses and settles questions relating to training and teaching.

The pedagogic council consists of the Director of the establishment (who acts as chairman), the teachers and the instructors, and also the doctor, if there is one attached to the establishment. The pedagogic councils, and the Directors in those establishments in which it has not been possible to set up Pedagogic Councils, possess "parental" rights as regards the choice and use of educational methods. Procurators, deputies and judges have the right to visit penitentiary establishments in virtue of Article 65 of the law on prisoners.

Chapter III.

Chapter III concerns training and reform.

The theoretical and practical educational syllabus is drawn up by the Ministry of Education. The Director of the establishment may grant minors (other than those who have been convicted of offences) leave of absence up to three days, not counting travelling, to visit trustworthy persons. In exceptional cases, the Director, after consulting the Pedagogic Council, may grant up to seven days leave, but for longer periods permission must be obtained from the Ministry of Education.

The Pedagogic Councils decide questions relating to apprenticeship, whether industrial or agricultural; the term of apprenticeship may not be prolonged after the inmates have reached their majority, and they must remain all the time under the supervision of the Pedagogic Council.

The Councils of the educational and reformatory estab-

lishments and those of the reformatory establishments may set pupils at liberty if their conduct has been irreproachable (Article 54, Chapter 3, of the Penal Code). They still remain, however, under the supervision and guardianship of the penitentiary establishments throughout their period of probation. All minors leaving penitentiary establishments remain under the latter's supervision and guardianship for three years after release. This does not apply to minors of 18 years of age and over sentenced to imprisonment or more serious penalties.

Welfare societies or tutors may be appointed as guardians over former inmates of penitentiary establishments, though the latter are still responsible for supervision. If a minor released on probation fails to comply with the conditions, he may be sent back to the penitentiary establishment by decision of the Pedagogic Council.

Chapter IV.

Chapter IV of Part II of the law on prisoners concerns provisions regulating the upkeep of penitentiary establishments. These establishments may accept gifts or legacies and various grants.

Penitentiary reform establishments acting in a "parental" capacity are entitled to make the following maintenance charges for minors entrusted to them :

(1) If the minor is not in receipt of social assistance, his parents, or he himself, if he has private means, shall be required to pay a sum ranging from a third to the whole amount of the maintenance costs.

(2) If the minor is supported by welfare authorities, a third of the cost of maintenance shall be paid by the community or municipality which agreed to his being placed in the institution.

Penitentiary establishments are exempt from all taxes or contributions. Those supported by the municipalities receive grants from the Ministry of Education in proportion to the number of minors in the establishment, excluding cases of "paternal" reform, according to a scale fixed by the Ministry of Education and the Finance Ministry with reference to local conditions.

The law provides that the Ministry of Education, in

agreement with the Ministry of Justice, shall publish more detailed provisions concerning penitentiary establishments and their functioning.

Note.—The Latvian Government annexed to its report on changes in legislative and administrative measures concerning child welfare in 1936 the text of the education law in force at present (*Valdības Vestnesis*, No. 156, July 17th, 1934). This text has been communicated to the Intellectual Co-operation Section and placed in the archives of the Secretariat.

ADMINISTRATIVE MEASURES.

Schools, educational establishments and special homes are maintained by the Government and the municipalities for children who cannot be sent to ordinary schools on account of some physical or mental disability or defects in their home upbringing.

Among the institutions for physically abnormal children may be mentioned the *schools for the deaf and dumb*, with special classes for children with weak hearing, *schools for the blind* and for children with weak eyesight, and *forest schools* for ailing children.

Backward or mentally defective children are placed in *auxiliary schools*, in which the syllabus is cut down and special attention is paid to manual work and trades. In such schools the teachers can give each child individual attention, as there are seldom more than ten pupils in a group.

Children with serious mental defects are placed in *homes*, where they are taught to speak intelligibly, to attend to their personal requirements and to do very simple practical work. In most cases, such pupils are sufficiently advanced at the age of 20 not to be a burden on the State. Children who are quite incapable of development and cannot be taught anything are transferred to an invalid asylum on reaching the age of 20.

For children with moral defects there are : (1) Schools and educational establishments for difficult children; they receive children who owing to their undisciplined nature and peculiar tendencies are liable to interfere with the regular course of study in the ordinary schools; (2) Educational and reformatory establishments for either sex, to

which minors are sent by order of the court. Special attention is paid to the training of character; the children are given a general education, and do regular work in the workshops or farms belonging to the establishment.

Minors released from educational and reformatory establishments remain under the supervision of a Government official, who acts as trustee and takes steps to find employment for them and help them to settle down.

NETHERLANDS.

Child welfare (in Dutch "Jeugdzorg") comprises both the various forms of assistance to minors outside the sphere of family upbringing and education in the proper sense of the term, and also sport and recreation. Assistance to minors may be divided into the three following categories :

- I. Optional training;
- II. Social assistance;
- III. Judicial protection.

Category I.—The optional training of young people relates to the life of the normal child in what is called in the Netherlands "the third sphere" (the family constituting the first sphere and the school or workshop the second); this third sphere consists of youth organisations managed either by young people chosen among the members themselves or by older persons.

In the latter case, the youth organisations resemble other forms of child welfare included in Category II, by means of which adults look after young people needing special guidance.

The optional training of young people is organised entirely by the voluntary associations. The Government has set up a Central Young People's Council, which keeps it informed of all that is done in this sphere and advises it as to the allocation of the grants made, which, however, are very small.¹

Category II.—This category comprises the various forms of social assistance to young people, namely :

- (1) Care of physical hygiene;²
- (2) Care of mental hygiene (needless to say the

¹ For further particulars, see the publication of the Netherlands Central Statistical Office entitled: "Statistiek van de Vrije Jeugdvorming, 1937" (Algemeene Landsdrukkerij, The Hague, 1937), which has been sent to the Library of the Secretariat of the League of Nations.

² See below under "Organisation of Maternal and Child Welfare from a Health Point of View".

action taken in both these spheres is sometimes the same);

(3) Assistance to children who have lost one or both their parents; children born out of wedlock, and children in cases where the family life has been broken;

(4) Special assistance to unemployed juveniles, of whom there are still a large number in the Netherlands.

Social assistance to young people is mainly in the hands of the State and the communes, although there are also State-subsidised voluntary associations which undertake this form of child-welfare work. As regards physical and mental hygiene, the voluntary associations are placed under the supervision of the Public Health Service of the Ministry of Social Affairs.¹

Assistance to orphans, children born out of wedlock and children in cases where the family life has been broken comprises special elementary education for children who are backward, deaf and dumb, blind, etc., and also placing in families or in institutions through official or voluntary charitable organisations.

Separate statistics have been compiled for the forms of special education enumerated above.² Moreover, the statistics of assistance to indigent persons³ contain particulars of this education in so far as it is provided under the Law on Public Assistance. The statistical documents mentioned above (on special education and assistance to indigent persons) also contain data relating to the assistance granted to children in the matter of health; these figures are sometimes incomplete, however, owing to the fact that assistance to indigent persons is granted not by

¹ A comprehensive survey of this work is given in an official publication dated 1932, entitled: "Overzicht over het sociaal-hygiënische werk op het gebied van den dienst der volksgezondheid".

² See the publication of the Central Statistical Office entitled: "Statistiek van het Buitengewoon Lager Onderwijs, 1931-1934" (Algemeene Landsdrukkerij, The Hague, 1936), which has been sent to the Library of the Secretariat of the League of Nations.

³ See the publication of the Central Statistical Office entitled: "Armenzorg Statistiek over het Jaar 1935" (N. V. Drukkerij Albani, Nieuwe Molstraat 20, The Hague, December 1937), which has been sent to the Library of the Secretariat of the League of Nations.

the State but by the communes under the auspices of the Ministry of Internal Affairs.¹

The section of the Ministry of Social Affairs which finds work for the unemployed and supervises unemployment relief looks after unemployed juveniles. This cultural work includes camp labour, the training of youths in central workshops and courses to train girls for domestic service.²

Category III.—This category covers the judicial protection of children; it supplements the measures mentioned under No. 3 of Category II and comprises young people who are neglected or have been deserted, including juvenile criminals.

The judicial protection of children comes within the province of the Ministry of Justice.³ The Central Statistical Office issues an annual publication on the application of the child-welfare laws.⁴ In this sphere close co-operation exists between the State on the one hand (the Minister of Justice assisted by a general supervisory committee giving assistance and advice) and the voluntary associations on the other. Children may be taken from their parents if the latter are leading an immoral life, or if they desert their children or are morally incapable of looking after them (not only in the case of indigence). There is no State guardianship; as a rule, children are placed under the guardianship of a voluntary association subsidised and supervised by the State. Minors who have committed an offence may also be handed over to voluntary associations; cases of juvenile delinquency are tried by a children's

¹ The publication entitled : " Gids voor de Openbare Armenzorg " (1933) contains a detailed survey of these various forms of assistance.

² Further particulars are given in publications Nos. 82 (October 1937), 85 (December 1937) and 90 (January 20th, 1938) of the Netherlands Central Statistical Office (Educational Statistics Section), which have been placed in the archives of the Secretariat of the League of Nations.

³ A historical survey of the question will be found in " De Eerste Kwarteeuw der Kinderwetten " (1930), which is in the Library of the Secretariat of the League of Nations.

⁴ A copy of the publication of the Central Statistical Office entitled " Crimineele Statistiek, Gevangenisstatistiek, Statistiek van de Toepassing der Kinderwetten over het Jaar 1935 " (Algemeene Landsdrukkerij, The Hague, 1937) has been sent to the Library of the Secretariat of the League of Nations.

magistrate; juvenile criminals under 18 years of age may be placed in a State Disciplinary School; since October 1937, there has been a special prison for young people from 18 to 23 at Zutphen, which is in the nature of an educational establishment.¹

Organisation of Maternal and Child Welfare from a Health Point of View.

The Netherlands have forwarded a pamphlet² prepared by the Chief Inspector of Public Health, which has been placed in the archives of the Secretariat of the League of Nations. It contains a survey of the organisation of maternal and child welfare from a health point of view, envisaged as part of the national social hygiene system. The following information is extracted from it :

The social hygiene organisation comprises maternal and child welfare, the care of cripples, mental hygiene and measures against tuberculosis and venereal disease, all this work being in the hands of private organisations in receipt of Government grants.

The Government's policy is to give voluntary organisations as free a hand as possible; at the same time, the medical officials employed in social hygiene are responsible for supervising the activities of State-aided organisations, directing and promoting such work, and giving assistance in the form of advice and grants.

The organisations most prominent in the field of social hygiene are the " Cross " associations (the Green Cross for undenominational organisations, the White and Yellow Cross of Roman Catholic associations). These organisations, which co-operate, were founded to encourage local treatment and to assist in the prevention of infectious diseases; but they have gradually taken over various social hygiene activities.

¹ See the publication of the Department of Justice, Third Division A, No. 1157, concerning the work of the State Disciplinary Schools, entitled : " Inwerkingstelling van de zg. ' Jeugdgevangnissen ' ", and the publication entitled : " Bijzondere Strafgevangenis voor Jonge Mannen te Zutphen ", which have been placed in the archives of the Secretariat of the League of Nations.

² " Child Welfare in the Netherlands ", compiled by Dr. R. N. M. Eijkel, chief medical officer of the Public Health Service.

The organisation of the Cross associations may be briefly described as follows :

(1) The local associations are responsible for purely local work, and employ one or more health visitors, who, in addition to their training as nurses, receive special training in social hygiene.

(2) The provincial organisations, to which all the local associations are affiliated, are responsible for the organisation of the work in their respective provinces and for the administration of the dispensaries and consultation clinics connected with the various branches of the service—not including, however, the infant hygiene clinics, which come directly under the local associations.

(3) Lastly, the central associations are engaged chiefly in social hygiene propaganda, through the Press, by publishing pamphlets, and by organising lectures. They are also responsible for the social hygiene training of nurses.

In a number of the larger and average-sized municipalities, the different branches may be carried on independently; for instance, anti-tuberculosis measures and infant hygiene are intrusted to separate associations, which deal exclusively with these specific branches of public health.

The first attempt to co-ordinate the various child-welfare organisations was made in 1908 by the *Netherlands Infant-Welfare Union*, but it was not until 1927 that the Government took any real interest in the question, and included in the budget a credit of 90,000 florins—which has now been raised to 140,000 florins—to provide grants for infant-welfare work. As the result of this measure, infant welfare has now been organised throughout the country in accordance with a plan established by the Ministry.

Maternal Welfare.

The pamphlet already referred to contains a survey of the organisation and activities of pre-natal associations and those which care for mothers during confinement. Clinics for pregnant women exist in the principal towns, being subsidised, and in some cases entirely financed, by the municipality. Unmarried mothers are cared for by the

associations belonging to the *Federation of Institutions for the Protection of Unmarried Mothers and their Children*.

Doctors and midwives attend midwifery cases. In 1934, midwives took charge of 50.7% of the total number of confinements. In a large number of municipalities, the midwife is responsible for assisting indigent women. In the smaller communes, she often receives a fixed salary sufficient to support her. In the larger towns, midwives are paid by the case. Their training and duties are prescribed by law.

Mothers may be assisted directly after confinement by maternity nurses, by visiting nurses, or by assistants, who also take charge of the household.

Maternity nurses are employed in the clinics and hospitals; they look after upper-class mothers, and may also be placed in charge of the district maternity service.

Visiting nurses are also employed in the district service, and attend women after confinement in their own homes, visiting them three times a day. A visiting nurse may attend a mother in childbed, even when an assistant has already been appointed to look after the house.

Families who have no kind of household help avail themselves of the possibility of obtaining assistance.

It is hoped in time to provide assistants to look after all women confined in country districts, since this arrangement not only relieves the mother but helps the whole family out of a difficulty. That is why the training of assistants has been placed in the hands of the provincial organisations.

Infant Consultation Clinics.

These clinics are organised by local associations and have one or more local doctors attached to them. In addition, every district paediatrist attends one or more clinics in his area. There are about 800 of these clinics in the Netherlands.

The pamphlet published by the Chief Inspector of Public Health also contains information concerning day-nurseries and crèches; welfare measures and health camps for children of pre-school age, playing-fields, nursery-schools; welfare measures for children of school-age and the various organisations concerned therewith: playing-fields, school gardens, open-air schools for healthy children, open-air schools

and holiday camps for delicate children and sanatoria. Information is also given concerning the boarding-out of delicate children in families, the care of crippled children and mental hygiene clinics.

COLONIES.

Curaçao.

A draft decree amending the Civil Code for the protection of minors is under consideration.

Surinam.

The following child welfare measures have been taken :

The " Surinaamsch Steuncomité ", a State-aided private association, is attempting to correct the effects of the depression and of unemployment among young people by finding some occupation for them. The Government has appointed a youth leader.

In the matter of infant welfare, advice is given free of charge by a special polyclinic.

As regards welfare measures for children of school age, mention may be made of the Dr. Corsten Foundation and the Sub-Committee on the feeding of children of the above-mentioned " Surinaamsch Steuncomité ", which provide free meals several days a week for a large number of children attending the free schools, and the State-aided Association for the Advancement of Education, which distributes clothing and boots and shoes to necessitous school-children.

The " Polikliniekvereniging " supplies the meals ordered by doctors for children suspected of leprosy, who attend a special Government school. These children can thus be isolated from other children, without their education's suffering in any way.

A Guardianship Board has been in existence since 1915; its powers are similar to those of the Guardianship Boards in the mother-country, and the legislative provisions by which it is governed are almost identical.

Lastly, the work of the Protestant and Catholic Missions may be mentioned. The Evangelical Brotherhood, which has the headquarters of its social work at Paramaribo, is

engaged in evangelisation work in the towns. There is also the "Driehoekwerk", a girls' association, as well as various educational institutions: at Saron for creole children, at Alkmaar for Hindu children and at Leliendaal for Javanese children. The Catholic Mission has a school for making straw hats, a young men's association, and the "Maria-Patronaat" for girls, a Catholic girls' association, and educational establishments for the children of Hindu immigrants, Boschnegers and Indians.

NEW ZEALAND.

No outstanding legislative or administrative measures were taken or adopted in New Zealand during the year 1936. The Statute Law, however, was amended in that the penalty of whipping for offences dealt with in the Children's Court was abolished. (See Statutes Amendment Act 1936, No. 58.)¹

A copy of the annual report of the Child-Welfare Branch for the year 1936 was attached to the report and has been placed in the archives of the Secretariat.

¹ See document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I.35—Legislative and Administrative Series, No. 32.

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¹ See document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I.35—Legislative and Administrative Series, No. 32.

NORWAY.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

Laws Nos. 3 and 4 of June 12th, 1936, amending the law on tribunals (*domstolloven*) and the law on civil procedure (*tvistemålsloven*) respectively, provide that, in legal proceedings relating to paternity or the obligation to pay allowances to illegitimate children and in cases relating to lineal descent, the court may decide to have a blood-test carried out on one of the parties and on the child in the charge of that party by a doctor appointed by the court. The object of this test is to provide evidence for the proceedings. If the child in question is in the charge of another person, the latter may be required to have a sample of the child's blood taken by a doctor.

The law on the protection of workers (*arbeidervernloven*) of June 19th, 1936¹ contains, in Chapter 5, special provisions concerning children and adolescents in industry. This law cancels the law on the protection of industrial workers of September 18th, 1915, Articles 35 and 36 of which contained provisions concerning the protection of children and young people.

The new Law contains, *inter alia*, provisions prohibiting in general the employment of children under 15 in any form of work coming under Chapter 3 (concerning hours of work), the previous minimum age having been 14 years. Permission to employ children (*i.e.*, persons under 15 years of age) in certain cases, for types of work mentioned in the law, is now possible only in the case of a few lighter forms of work specified in the law itself; Article 27 stipulates that there shall be no exception in the case of children under 12 years of age.

Articles 28 to 30 contain the following provisions regarding the protection of young people—*i.e.*, persons from 15 to 18 years of age: compulsory medical inspection; combined work and school hours not to exceed a certain

¹ A copy of the law of June 19th, 1936, has been placed in the archives of the Secretariat.

maximum; prohibition of night-work and work on Sundays; prohibition of overtime and of compulsory extra hours of work.

The royal decree of July 10th, 1936,¹ issued in conformity with Article 18 of the law of June 25th, 1935 (Law on hotels, boarding-houses and restaurants), prohibits the employment of women under 18 years in hotels, boarding-houses or restaurants; the prohibition does not, however, apply to apprentices.

The law of June 19th, 1936, on crippled persons² provides, in Article 9, that crippled children may, between the ages of 7 and 18 years, be required to attend school and to follow the elementary school curriculum, and, if necessary, to attend schools for crippled children which have been or may be set up by the public authorities. Article 10 of the law provides further that, when cripples are not certain of securing the necessary medical aid, education or training to render them economically independent, they shall be entitled to be cared for and educated and, if necessary, to become inmates of the institutions mentioned in the law.

ADMINISTRATIVE MEASURES.

The Government has appointed a Committee to study the question of legislative reforms in regard to the care, training and education of deaf, blind and feeble-minded children.

The legislative measures in the matter of child welfare were, generally speaking, applied in 1936 as in previous years, with similar results.

¹ A copy of the law of June 25th, 1935, and of the royal decree of July 10th, 1936, have been placed in the archives of the Secretariat.

² A copy of the law of June 19th, 1936, has been placed in the archives of the Secretariat.

PORTUGAL.

REPORT ON DECREES PUBLISHED IN 1936 RELATING TO CHILD WELFARE.

Decree No. 26893 of August 15th, 1936, approving the Statutes of the Society for the Training of Mothers by National Education.

The Society has the following aims :

(1) To teach Portuguese mothers, through the active dissemination of fundamental ideas of hygiene and mothercraft, to bring up their children properly with the assistance of the national organisation known as the Family-Welfare Organisation, which was set up by decree No. 25936 of October 12th, 1935.

(2) To develop the capacity of mothers to educate their families, and to guide their efforts, taking into account variations in living conditions and environment.

(3) To encourage the amelioration of rural life and the amenities of the home as a centre of education, taking into account local customs and healthy Portuguese traditions, by protecting and fostering domestic activities and industries.

(4) To protect morality, in particular in connection with dress, reading-matter and amusements.

(5) To encourage and guarantee throughout the country a system of pre-school education to complement what is done in the home.

(6) To grant indigent children the necessary assistance to enable them to comply with the regulations regarding compulsory school-attendance, in particular by organising canteens, issuing uniforms and other articles of clothing, distributing books and establishing school funds.

(7) To assist teachers in organising a system of attendance records and in supervising the conduct, attendance and diligence of the pupils, and to provide them with funds for giving prizes.

(8) To give teachers effective assistance in the moral and civic education of their pupils, through community-singing classes, rhythmic gymnastics and school celebrations.

(9) To foster the taste for physical culture amongst the Portuguese population, with a view to improving the health of the individual and serving the interests of the nation.

(10) To organise the Girls' Section of the Portuguese Youth Movement.¹

(11) In general, to do everything possible to ensure that the youth of Portugal receive a complete national education.

Decree No. 27306 of December 8th, 1936.

In virtue of this decree, criminological institutes are instructed to carry out, in certain cases, a scientific examination of minors brought before juvenile courts.

¹ A national organisation established by Article 40 of decree No. 26611 of May 19th, 1936, which embraces all young people, whether at school or not, and aims at ensuring the full development of their physical powers, and encouraging character formation and patriotism, in accordance with the principles of order, discipline and military duty.

ROUMANIA.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

Child-welfare work was carried on in Roumania during 1936 in accordance with the internal laws, a list of which is to be found below, supplemented by the provisions of the new Carol II Penal Code and of the Code of Penal Procedure,¹ both of which were promulgated and published in *Monitorul Oficial*, No. 65, of March 18th, 1936, and came into force on January 1st, 1937.

The Penal Code deals (Articles 138-154) with delinquent children and adolescents, for whom the appropriate authorities may, if necessary, prescribe corrective or educational measures.

Articles 340-348 of the same Code contain provisions concerning children who run away from their parents or guardians and become vagrants or beggars.

In Article 573, the Carol II Code of Penal Procedure specifies the competence of minors' courts in regard to the application of the preventive measures referred to in Articles 139 and 140 of the Penal Code.

Articles 574 of the Code requires the administrative authorities and the police, or any other person, to bring to the notice of the minors' courts cases of morally neglected children, children in moral danger or children who have become vagrants, beggars or prostitutes.

ADMINISTRATIVE MEASURES.

In 1936, 362 puericulture consultation bureaux and 54 pediatric wards in State hospitals were opened for the protection of infants and young children. In these puericultural centres, the Health Ministry provides bi-weekly consultations for children, given by its health and medical

¹ Document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I.2—Legislative and Administrative Series, No. 7.

staff, and has food, clothing and medicine distributed to needy mothers.

During the same year, a study was begun of the regulations governing the activities of the Sisters of Charity, which are to come into force in 1939.

*List of Laws on the Protection of Mothers and Children
in Roumania.*

1. Law on health and protection, promulgated on July 4th, 1930, subsequently amended by the law published in *Monitorul Oficial*, June 23rd, 1935.
 2. Laws on public assistance : provisions still in force in Transylvania (Laws VIII and XXI).
 3. Civil Code.
 4. Carol II Penal Code, Articles 50, 51, 138-154, 340-348.
 5. Code of Penal Procedure, Articles 556-575, 588.
 6. Law on the protection of labour in respect of minors and women, April 13th, 1928.
 7. Law for the unification of the provisions relating to judicial organisation, March 31st, 1937.
 8. Administrative Law, March 27th, 1934.
 9. Law on the organisation of the Ministry of Labour, Health and Social Welfare, July 31st, 1936.
 10. Law on the organisation of occupations and vocational training.
 11. Law relating to immigration.
 12. Law on social insurance.
 13. Regulations for the protection of mothers and children, published in *Monitorul Oficial*, December 30th, 1937.
-

SIAM.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

Two new laws came into force in 1936—namely, the Private Schools Act of B.E.2479 (1936) and the Primary Education Act of B.E.2478 (1935).

ADMINISTRATIVE MEASURES.

A Ministerial Instruction of the Ministry of Public Instruction was recently circulated among schools on the subject of sanitation and hygiene, providing for the following matters :

- (1) Physical examination of teachers and pupils;
 - (2) Medical care for pupils;
 - (a) In school;
 - (b) Out of school;
 - (c) In cases that call for special attention (*i.e.*, surgical operation or special treatment);
 - (3) Prevention and extermination of infectious diseases;
 - (4) First-aid assistance in cases of accidents;
 - (5) Standard plans for school building;
 - (6) Maintenance of standard of good health among pupils;
 - (7) Annual reports to be submitted by all schools to the Physical Education Department of the Ministry of Public Instruction, and lastly;
 - (8) Supervision and control of schools in the matter of sanitation and hygiene by the Physical Education Department of the Ministry of Public Instruction.
-

SPAIN.

REPORT BY THE MINISTRY OF JUSTICE.

A. Legislative Measures.

The decree of April 10th, 1937 (published in the *Gaceta* of April 13th), fixes the age and other necessary conditions for the adoption of war orphans and, in general, of all deserted children.

The decree of May 10th, 1937 (published in the *Gaceta* of May 13th), stipulates that the provisions of the law of August 26th, 1932, and of the Decree of December 2nd of the same year, reorganising the Minors' Guardianship Tribunal of Madrid, shall be applicable to all guardianship tribunals in Spain, which are to be set up on the system of a sole professional judge. The Minister of Justice is authorised to develop the basic principles contained in the law of August 26th, 1932, and in the decree of January 4th, 1937, as regards the functions of the National Council for the Guardianship of Minors and guardianship tribunals.

The decree of August 6th, 1937 (published in the *Gaceta* of August 8th), provides that the system of guardianship protection instituted by that decree shall apply to all minors, and that the State shall be called upon to take action in respect of guardianship under the conditions mentioned in the decree, in order to safeguard the persons and interests of minors.

The decree of October 19th, 1937 (published in the *Gaceta* of October 21st), institutes the measures necessary to make State protection in respect of guardianship apply to needy minors, and lays down the procedure to be followed by the minors' guardianship tribunals in order to establish the situation of such minors.

The law of October 21st, 1937 (published in the *Gaceta* of October 23rd), confirms the decrees mentioned above.

B. *Administrative Measures.*

The decree of August 3rd, 1936 (published in the *Gaceta* of August 4th), provides that the tax on tourists, established by the decree of September 30th, 1924, for welfare purposes, shall henceforward be collected by the Higher Council for the Protection of Minors (at present the Higher Guardianship Council).

The decree of August 11th, 1936 (published in the *Gaceta* of August 13th), provides that the establishment called the Paternal Reformatory and Reform School for Young People at Santa Rita shall henceforward be called the School Home for the Protection and Reform of Minors. It will be placed in all respects under the Ministry of Justice, acting through the Higher Council for the Protection of Minors. The latter will take the place of the Board which has hitherto directed the establishment in question.

The decree of January 3rd, 1937 (published in the *Gaceta* of January 9th), lays down the rules applicable to the expenditure caused by the stay of children in the places fixed by each minors' guardianship tribunal, and authorises the Minister of Justice to fix the daily subsistence allowance to be paid to each tribunal for each minor. In a note of February 15th, 1937, from the Under-Secretariat of Justice to the Vice-Chairman of the National Council for the Guardianship of Minors, the latter is authorised to raise the cost of subsistence of each minor to 2.5 pesetas a day.

The decree of May 11th, 1937 (published in the *Gaceta* of May 12th), fixes the distribution of the yield from the 5 % tax on the cost of admission and reserved seats at public performances, and also the special tax on lotteries and tombolas.

The decree of September 6th, 1937 (published in the *Gaceta* of September 8th), provides that the Social Assistance Department and the National Council for the Guardianship of Minors shall continue to collect the tax fixed by the law of December 29th, 1910, on the cost of admission and reserved seats at public performances, these bodies being authorised to collect the amount of this tax directly and independently of each other in all respects.

REPORT BY THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
AND HEALTH.

A. Legislative Measures.

The decree of August 4th, 1936 (published in the *Gaceta* of August 5th), creates the National Council for the Protection of the Orphans of Defenders of the Republic. Regulations for the National Council for the Protection of Orphans have also been published.

The decree of October 10th, 1936 (published in the *Gaceta* of October 11th), and the circular of the General Directorate of Primary Instruction of October 13th, provide that the most-gifted children in primary schools shall be admitted to secondary and higher education and lay down regulations for such admission.

The decree of November 21st, 1936 (published in the *Gaceta* of November 23rd), provides for the introduction of the school-leaving certificate for workmen. Various decrees have created institutes for workmen at Valencia, Madrid, Sabadell, Euzkadi, etc.

B. Administrative Measures.

The ministerial decree of October 5th, 1936, organises medical assistance for children evacuated and installed in colonies either under a collective or a family system.

The ministerial decrees of December 23rd, 1936, etc. provide for the creation of a wide system of free places and scholarships for selected pupils in the national schools who wish to enter secondary schools.

Mention is also made of: the organisation of a large number of day-nurseries and refectories for primary-school children at Madrid and in provincial districts; the organisation and conduct of the evacuation to the eastern provinces of a large number of children from Madrid and other districts exposed to the dangers of war; the organisation of numerous day-nurseries and colonies of eva-

cuated children in the eastern provinces; the organisation of a large number of school clothing clubs and services for supplying clothes for children.

The legislative and administrative measures mentioned above have been extended, improved and amplified in 1937, during which year the legislative and practical activity of the Ministry of Education and Health was particularly intense.

SWEDEN.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

Amendments were introduced during the years 1935 and 1936 in the law of June 6th, 1924, concerning the protection of children and young people; the principal amendments concerned the reorganisation of approved educational establishments. Under the terms of the laws of June 12th, 1936, and June 18th, 1937—which have come into force on January 1st, 1938—establishments, or divisions of establishments, of the above-mentioned category are to be created for :

- (1) Erring children of school age (school centres);
- (2) Erring boys who have left school and who are under 18 years of age on admission (vocational centres);
- (3) Erring girls who have left school and who are under 18 years of age on admission (domestic training schools);
- (4) Erring youths over school age who are psychologically backward (agricultural centres);
- (5) Young men from 18 to 21 years of age leading a disorderly, idle or depraved life, whose reform requires the application of special measures by the State (youths' homes);
- (6) Young men who are psychologically abnormal.

Among the new provisions in the matter of the protection of children and mothers may be mentioned the ordinance concerning maternity allowances ("moderskapspenning"),¹ the ordinance concerning maternity relief ("mödrahjälp"),² the law on child welfare contributions,³ and the law concerning advance payments of maintenance contributions for children.⁴

¹ See document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I.32—Legislative and Administrative Series, No. 31.

² See document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I.31—Legislative and Administrative Series, No. 30.

³ See document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I.36—Legislative and Administrative Series, No. 35.

⁴ See document C.Q.S./P.E./C.I.37—Legislative and Administrative Series, No. 36.

SWITZERLAND.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES.

The Federal Political Department has communicated various information, which was obtained from the Federal authorities, with regard to the legislative and administrative measures adopted by the Swiss Cantons in the matter of child welfare in 1936.

In the Canton of *St. Gall*, the elementary and secondary schools received new instructions in May 1936 (the previous instructions dated from September 1917) concerning the founding of associations of school-children and the latter's affiliation to societies and participation in demonstrations of all kinds. These instructions stipulate that permission must in every case be obtained from the competent school authorities. In certain cases, the parents and teachers must be given a hearing. School-children are not allowed to take any part in organisations or demonstrations considered harmful from the point of view of the training or education of youth. Similarly, they may not belong to political associations. They are also forbidden to take part in demonstrations at night or to appear in public (at theatres, etc.) for purposes of gain.

In the Canton of *Aargau* the new public assistance law of March 12th, 1936,¹ contains a special chapter on the protection of children and young persons (Articles 15 to 20). Children in need of assistance must be entrusted to foster-parents offering the requisite guarantees or to suitable institutions. Delicate or feeble-minded children and young people are sent to special institutions if they cannot be suitably looked after at home. Children boarded out with families are placed under supervision. The State sets aside a certain sum in the budget each year for the vocational training of indigent youths.

The Canton of *Ticino* adopted a law on September 15th, 1936,¹ on employment in undertakings not subject to

¹ The text of this law, which was attached to the report, has been placed in the archives of the Secretariat.

Federal legislation. This law prohibits the employment of children under 14 years of age in such enterprises. Youths under 18 and women are not allowed to work at night or on Sundays, nor may they be employed for more than the normal working day. Mothers are not allowed to work for six weeks following their confinement. This period may be extended to eight weeks at their request.

Lastly, in the Canton of *Zürich*, the law of April 26th, 1936,¹ concerning the tax on inheritances and donations provides that these shall be taxable only in respect of sums over 20,000 francs when the beneficiary is the child, grandchild, great-grandchild, father or mother of the deceased or of the donor. The amount exempt from taxation is 30,000 francs when the beneficiary is a descendant under 18 or a child, grandchild or great-grandchild in need of permanent care. Gifts of any kind to foundations or institutions of public utility (charitable or educational institutions, etc.) are also exempt from taxation.

PRACTICAL MEASURES.

Numbers 9, 10 and 11 (September, October and November) of 1937 of the Review *Schweizerische Zeitschrift für Gemeinnützigkeit* were attached to the report sent by the Federal Political Department, and have been placed in the archives of the Secretariat. They contain information concerning the progress of social welfare in Switzerland during 1936, more especially from the cantonal and communal point of view. The extracts given hereunder relate in particular to maternal welfare and the welfare of infants and children.

Progress of Private Assistance in 1936.

Maternal Welfare and the Welfare of Infants and Children.—Several maternal consultation centres were created during the year in various places, and also new crèches and homes for delicate children in the mountains.

Education.—A number of educational consultation centres were opened in different towns—Fribourg, Geneva, Neuchâtel, St. Gall, Zürich, etc.

¹ The text of this law, which was attached to the report, has been placed in the archives of the Secretariat.

The first "Volksbildungsheim" (Popular Educational Centre) was founded in the Canton of Aargau; the purpose of this institution is to enable youths belonging to different classes of society to meet and get to know one another.

Two homes for girls were also opened with the same object in the Cantons of the Grisons and Thurgau respectively.

Domestic-science teaching made great progress during the year, and new schools were founded in different places.

Leisure and Recreation.—New youth centres and clubs were opened, and the youth hostels, which are still on the increase, now number 198.

A new organisation known as the "Schweizer Jugendferien" was founded by the Pro Juventute Association with the object of providing holidays (particularly at youth hostels) for young people from 12 to 20 years of age.

Abnormal Children.—The "Schweizerische Vereinigung für Anormale" (Pro Infirmis), with headquarters at Zürich, was particularly active on behalf of mentally and physically abnormal children in the Canton of Appenzell (Inner-Rhoden), and sent a number of these children to suitable institutions.

A cantonal branch of Pro Infirmis was founded at Bellinzona, and a consultation centre was established in this town for children who are hard of hearing, deaf and dumb, blind, epileptic, invalid, feeble-minded or difficult.

At Zürich, the "Verein Werkjahr" was founded with the object of assisting backward children, after leaving school, with regard to educational and vocational training.

Finishing courses for deaf-mutes (mostly apprentices) were organised by the Zürich Deaf and Dumb Institute at Flims and Adelboden.

Assistance to Refugees.—The "Schweizerische Hilfswerk für Emigrantenkinder" (Swiss Association for Assistance to Children of Refugees) placed in families, sanatoria or homes a large number of refugee children who were sick or in a state of exhaustion. The Committee was also able to arrange for close upon one thousand children to have a holiday in Switzerland.

The numbers of the "Schweizerische Zeitschrift für Gemeinnützigkeit", already mentioned, also contain infor-

mation concerning offices for the vocational guidance and training of apprentices, which has been brought to the notice of the International Labour Office, and information concerning the activities of the Federal Commission for Film Studies, which has been communicated to the Rapporteur on the cinema of the Committee on Social Questions.

URUGUAY.

The Children's Code, promulgated on April 6th, 1934, was amended by a law of December 27th, 1935.

The amendment relates to Article 103, which is worded as follows :

“ *Article 103.*

“ The Child-Welfare Council shall endeavour to prevail upon those concerned to omit from the police-court reports in newspapers and reviews any matter which presents crime, vice and immorality in such a form as to teach undesirable lessons to children and young people. In particular, it shall endeavour to prevent the publication of photographs of crimes and suicides.”

The law of December 27th, 1935, supplements this article by adding the following provisions :

“ . . . If these efforts are unsuccessful, the Council shall warn the person concerned in writing that in case of a second offence proceedings will be instituted in the appropriate court. The courts of first instance in the provinces, and the Juvenile Court in the capital, shall deal with these cases. The charge having been brought, a hearing shall be fixed, and the accused shall be summoned to appear, within a maximum period of three days. Whether the parties are present or not, the court shall give judgment without further formality within five days at the latest; an appeal may be brought by a simple application before the Court of Appeal, which must give judgment within the same period, and whose decision shall have the force of *res judicata*.

The penalties and other provisions laid down in Article 129 of this Code shall be applicable to the case where appropriate. In case of a second offence, the fine may be raised up to 500 pesos. This article does not cover notices, information, photographs, etc., which the competent authorities may communicate to the Press for purposes of public interest.”

A presidential decree of December 31st, 1935, No. 349/934, contains the regulations for putting the Law of December 27th, 1935, into execution.

[Communicated to the Council
and the Members of the League.]

Official No. :
C.218. M.120. 1938.IV.

Geneva, July 1st, 1938.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

ADVISORY COMMITTEE
ON SOCIAL QUESTIONS

ENQUIRY INTO MEASURES
OF REHABILITATION
OF PROSTITUTES

(Part I)

PROSTITUTES : THEIR EARLY LIVES

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IV. SOCIAL
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PREFACE

One of the first questions examined by the League of Nations Traffic in Women and Children Committee was the connection between licensed houses of prostitution and the traffic in women. From the beginning several delegates maintained the opinion that licensed houses were centres of traffic, and this belief was strikingly confirmed by the findings of a body of experts set up by the Committee to discover the extent and nature of the traffic in women.¹ After investigations carried on in over a hundred cities in twenty-eight countries, these experts reported in 1927; their conclusions contained the very positive statement that the existence of licensed houses was undoubtedly an incentive to traffic, both national and international.

As the desirability of abolishing licensed brothels became generally accepted, more of the Committee's time was occupied with discussing the constructive measures which should accompany abolition and, in particular, the rehabilitation of prostitutes who occupied licensed brothels. This was considered so important a complement of abolition that it was mentioned in the 1934 resolutions which were the outcome of the "licensed-house" enquiry. They include a sentence stating that whenever licensed houses are closed, it is essential that measures should be adopted to rehabilitate the women concerned.

This resolution was the origin of the enquiry into methods of rehabilitation. Begun on a small scale, and limited at first to direct measures of rehabilitation, it grew both in subject and extent. In 1935, a questionnaire in three parts

¹ The American Bureau of Social Hygiene subscribed a sum of 75,000 dollars towards the cost of this enquiry.

was sent out to all States Members of the League of Nations and non-members and to the voluntary organisations represented by assessors on the Committee. The first part contained questions on direct measures of rehabilitation; the second, on the extent to which social assistance is combined with treatment for venereal disease; the third, on the antecedents of prostitutes.¹ The results of the enquiry, as far as they had been received, were submitted to the Committee in 1936, and the Rapporteur and the Secretariat were then authorised to publish the three parts separately as soon as they were completed. "Social Services and Venereal Disease"—Part II—was published in January 1938; Part III—rehabilitation methods—is being prepared; and the present volume on the antecedents of prostitutes forms Part I.

The Advisory Committee on Social Questions (which replaced the Traffic in Women and Child Welfare Committees) decided in 1937 to complete the rehabilitation enquiry with a study in the prevention of prostitution. This study will be undertaken in 1939. Mr. S. Cohen, General Secretary of the Jewish Association for the Protection of Girls, Women and Children, has acted as Rapporteur throughout the enquiry.

¹ The Committee decided to send this part of the questionnaire only to the Governments and organisations represented on the Committee.

INTRODUCTION

This report is part of a study in the rehabilitation of prostitutes undertaken in 1934 by the League of Nations' Advisory Committee on Social Questions; its subject is the early life of women who afterwards became prostitutes, beginning with their homes and ending with their first conviction.

To obtain the necessary material, the Committee first determined the points on which information was needed. In part, these were facts describing the woman herself—her age, nationality, civil status and mental level; in part, the facts of her history—her home and the age at which she left it, her education, her employment, her age at first conviction, and the social assistance she received. In 1935, a list of questions¹ on these points was sent to fifteen Governments and six voluntary associations.² Each was asked to fill in the answers for fifty or more prostitutes who should be, if possible, adult women and nationals of their country. Replies were received describing 2,659 women in twenty countries; they formed the material for this report.

Most of the replies were sent in the form of separate case-sheets for each woman, but there were three exceptions to this rule. In 1935, Dr. Tage Kemp completed a study of prostitution in Denmark, for which he examined 530 prostitutes in Copenhagen; his work was sent by the Danish Government as their reply. It answered nearly all the suggested questions and it added interesting supplementary

¹ For the text of the questionnaire, see Annex I.

² The names of the Governments and associations are given in Annex II.

information. Two of the answers sent by the women's international organisations¹ did not contain case-sheets. One—from the Netherlands—was an analysis of 123 cases in police files; the other—from India—was a short general account of Indian prostitutes.

Besides this one major difference, there were of course minor variations between the answers. Questions were added or omitted; sometimes, the questions were entirely dispensed with and replaced by short and often vivid life histories; the answers were given in varying detail. Since these differences appear in the summary of answers at the end of the report, they need not be set out here. The points on which additional information was most often given are the age at which the woman became a prostitute and her reasons for doing so.

The material was collected in each country from three main sources: police and prison files, medical records in hospitals and clinics and the records of assistance given by voluntary societies and homes. The first source has been the most fertile and has supplied information about half the cases. Often, though, the official record has only been used to provide names and part of the answers and has been added to by social workers or medical officers. For example, the United Kingdom police-court case-sheets were filled in by probation officers and often show personal knowledge of the woman and her family; the very thorough and detailed case-sheets from the United States of America were compiled with the help of the research psychologist on the staff of the New York City house of detention.

The other two sources have supplied between 200 and 300 cases each, and of the remainder, the fifty-four Uruguayan cases were taken from the register of prostitutes;

¹ Here and elsewhere in the report the term "women's international organisations" is used for the twelve organisations which are jointly represented under that title on the Advisory Committee on Social Questions.

some of the case-sheets and analyses sent by the women's international organisations seem to be the result of direct investigation by their members; and the origin of thirty-six cases sent by the Government of the United Provinces (India) and of fifty case-sheets sent by the Italian Government is unknown.

It is generally uncertain on what principles the case-sheets were chosen. The questionnaire suggested that they should be taken in the order in which they appeared in the records, and four answers—from the Governments of Canada and the United Kingdom¹ and from the Argentine and United Kingdom branches of the Jewish Association for the Protection of Girls, Women and Children—state that this was done. For one answer, the most interesting cases were chosen. The preface to the case-sheets from the United States observes that, “in picking out the above-mentioned fifty cases, those which held the most complete data were most likely to be chosen”, and this may also have been the method followed in other countries.

How accurate and how representative is the picture shown by these replies? Before this question can be answered, several facts must be taken into consideration.

The first is the large geographical area covered. The report attempts to compare descriptions of prostitutes in twenty countries, each with its own customs and conditions. Further, the information was not collected by a single body of workers following a fixed method but by a great many separate investigators of different nationality, status and outlook. The difficulty of comparing the material arises even over simple statements of fact such as the type of education or employment, since the same figures may not have the same meaning in two different countries; when the reply entails the exercise of judgment—for example, an estimate of the woman's intelligence—the difficulties are greater still.

¹ Of the 218 cases, 160 were consecutive.

Secondly, the material often loses in interest through the lack of comparable information about other sections of the public with which to compare it. When facts of history and environment are frequently repeated in the case-sheets—for example, a childhood spent with relatives or strangers, an uncompleted education—it is natural to wonder whether they were not sometimes predisposing causes of prostitution; but the question could be answered more definitely if it were known how many other children had the same upbringing without the same results.

Thirdly, only a few investigators could fill in the answers from their own knowledge. The great majority had to rely on the account given by the women themselves, and there is reason to believe that often this was not the true one. Social workers have found that some prostitutes have a standard life story intended to inspire sympathy and discount their own responsibility. Others enjoy pretending to be more cynical, avaricious and hard-hearted than they are. Others are naturally reserved or do not like to speak freely out of a vague fear of the law. Again, the relationship between the prostitutes and the investigator will affect the accuracy of the replies. Doctors, nurses and social workers are often told the truth more readily than officials, particularly if they are already known and trusted.

Finally, this report, in common with nearly all other studies on prostitution, suffers from the defect of giving undue prominence to one stratum of prostitutes—the commercially unsuccessful. It is they who appear in police courts, who go to prison because they cannot afford to pay a fine, who are treated in public hospitals and helped by social workers or charitable organisations, and consequently it is they whose lives are known while their more prosperous or more intelligent sisters escape notice or record. Some replies, in fact, draw attention to this point. Dr. Kemp writes: "One must therefore admit that we are primarily concerned with that group of Copenhagen

prostitutes least able to get on in life", and the preface to the United States case-sheets observes :

" It is only the most benighted of this large class—the women who would in all probability have been unsuccessful no matter what their profession—that have come under the terms of this survey. The statements which follow can have no bearing upon the upper strata of prostitutes and courtesans."

On the whole, although this report does not describe all classes of prostitutes, it is probably as representative as the majority of works on this subject. In one respect, it is indeed more representative because of the wide area which it covers. In accuracy of detail, it cannot rival certain national studies, partly because the researches have been less lengthy and less thorough, partly because the data has been collected by so many investigators with different standards. From the very terms of the enquiry, in fact, the value of its results must lie, not in correctness of detail or numerical exactitude, but in an exposition of general tendencies and of broad national differences and similarities.

ARRANGEMENT OF THE REPORT.

The first part of the report is an analysis of the replies arranged under the headings of the questions asked. The order of the questions has been altered to make part of the account chronological. The first six sections describe the women themselves; and the next seven, the events of their history, beginning with their home conditions and ending with the social assistance they received at their first conviction. All the information in the replies—especially small national differences—could not be embodied in the analysis without overburdening it with figures. The second part of the report is therefore a summary of the answers received, arranged under national headings and on a standard plan. Answers containing less than fifteen case-sheets have not been made use of.

I. ANALYSIS OF REPLIES

AGE.

The first facts to be considered are those describing the women themselves and, to begin with, their age at the time of the enquiry. 1,698 case-sheets give this information, and they show the following distribution among age-groups :

Age		%
Under 21.....	180	10.6
21-25	605	35.6
26-30	469	27.6
31-35	231	13.6
36-40	119	7.0
Over 40	94	5.5

Probably a census of prostitutes would, in fact, yield a lower average age than this table. There are several reasons why this should be so. Some of the case-sheets described women who had not prostituted themselves for several years, and some of the material sent from institutions may refer to women who have been there for some time. Further, some countries, in accordance with the terms of the enquiry, limited their investigations to adult women.

In nine lists,¹ the distribution is roughly the same as in the total given above—*i.e.*, 60% to 85% of the women were under 30—but others show considerably higher or lower averages. In both the Belgian and Danzig case-sheets, little more than a quarter of the women were under 30. The Danzig figures can be attributed partly to chance, since the list is a short one. A closer examination of the

¹ From the Argentine (Jewish Association), the United Kingdom, Canada, Denmark, the United States, France, India, Poland and Turkey.

Belgian list, however, suggests that not only chance is responsible for the high average age. For these women were not only older than others at the time of the enquiry; they were also older when they became prostitutes and when they were first convicted. There is no apparent reason for this.

The other lists with a fairly high average age are those from Italy, the Netherlands and Norway. Those with the lowest average age come from Chile (all the women were under 30), Roumania, Hungary, Czechoslovakia and Switzerland.

These differences of average age partly explain other variations between the lists. They may account for differences in education, since the older women were children at a time when, in some countries, compulsory education was less rigidly enforced; they have certainly helped to produce differences in the number of convictions and the social assistance received. It is striking in the Belgian list how many more of the younger women received offers of help at their first conviction than the older. Lastly, since some observers believe that long years of prostitution dull the intelligence, differences in age may also affect the figures of mental capacity.

NATIONALITY AND CIVIL STATUS.

The next two points to be considered are the nationality of the women and their civil status. The statistics of nationality are of course of no value in indicating the actual proportion of foreign prostitutes in any country,¹ since the investigators were especially asked to choose cases from among their own nationals. Eighteen of the lists, in fact, contain either no foreigners at all or only a very few. The

¹ The analysis of Amsterdam police files sent by a voluntary organisation gives an idea of the proportion of foreign prostitutes in that city; they constituted 17.3% of the 1,600 cases examined, whereas the percentage of foreign women in Amsterdam is 2.7.

one striking exception is the set of twenty-five case-sheets from the Argentine, in which only two of the women were Argentinians and twenty-three of European origin. This is explained by the fact that the list was sent by a branch of the Jewish Association in Buenos Aires. All the women were therefore Jewish; many of them recent immigrants from Eastern Europe. The two Roumanian lists also show a comparatively high proportion of foreigners—seventeen women out of eighty-three—*i.e.*, 20%. The seventeen were mostly Hungarians or of Russian origin.

Two countries which have replied are in a rather special position, as their population is made up of different races. The case-sheets for both these countries show that an unduly high proportion of prostitutes belong to the races which are numerically weakest. The proportion of negroes and women of mixed race in the United States case-sheets is high, far higher than in the population as a whole. Only 38% of the prostitutes questioned were white, whereas the proportion of whites in the total population is 89%. The Canadian answer shows the same situation. Only 1% of the population are native North-American Indians, but these constitute 10% of the case-sheets. Of the women in the case-sheets, 4% are negroes, compared to $\frac{1}{4}$ % in the population as a whole. The United States case-sheets also state that the fathers of more than a quarter of the women were not born in the United States.

Twenty lists containing 1,858 case-sheets give complete information on civil status. These statistics are valuable because, studied in conjunction with the other facts in the case-sheets, they throw light on the whole relationship between prostitution and marriage. In the first place, they show a substantial proportion of married women. Taking all the case-sheets together, one-third of the women were, or had been, married. The proportion is slightly higher than a third in the lists from Belgium, the United Kingdom,

Canada and Denmark and rather more than half in the United States list. The two answers with the highest percentages come from the Argentine and India. Of the twenty-five prostitutes whose case-sheets were sent by the Buenos Aires Committee of the Jewish Association, fifteen were married, but this high rate is probably not representative of the country as a whole. Only two of the women described in the case-sheets were Argentinians; the rest were Europeans who had emigrated with their husbands and, according to their own account, had not practised prostitution before their arrival. In the Indian case-sheets (from Bengal, Bombay and the United Provinces), nearly two-thirds of the women were married.

Two other striking facts emerge from the accounts of the marriages. The first is the remarkable number of women who married very young. In the United States list, where the age of marriage is given throughout, over two-thirds of the women were married at 18 or younger; one at 13; one at 14; four at 15; three at 16. This might be considered a peculiarity of the United States, where marriage is relatively easy and the marriage rate is high, were it not confirmed by the data in the other case-sheets. Of the six married women in the Lyons list, one was married at 16, one at 17, one at 18, one at 19; two-thirds, that is to say, under 20. Of the fourteen in the list from Nancy, four were married at 16, one at 17, two at 18. The Brussels case-sheets contain twenty-two married women; six were married at 18, two at 19. Whereas a committee on the age of consent reported in 1929 that probably about 50% of Indian women were married before they were 15, in the answers from Bengal and Bombay over 90% of the women whose marriage age is given were married before 15, and several others said they had been married very young.

The second striking fact is that whenever information is given on the subsequent course of the marriages, it shows that nearly all were failures. There are, of course, examples

of lasting relationships—a woman in the American list has been married nineteen years—but it is significant that the replies with the fullest information show few successes. To take, for example, the eight marriage histories in the case-sheets from Var (France). One woman left her family when she married at the age of 20. Her husband deserted her four years later, leaving her with two young children. She could not find work and so entered a licensed brothel in Toulon, in order to keep her children. The second was married at 18 and deserted three years later. She was left with two small children. The third quarrelled with her husband and left him. The fourth was married at 17 and deserted by her husband when she was 20. The fifth was deserted by her husband. The sixth ran away with a lover. The seventh was divorced. The eighth left her husband after two years. These are not exceptions. Only one of the twenty-two married prostitutes in the Brussels case-sheets was still living with her husband and she was married to a *souteneur*; three were widows; the rest were divorced or separated or had been deserted. Three out of twenty-seven married women in the United States list were still living with their husbands; seventeen out of sixty-nine in the French list; one out of six in the Roumanian list; none in the lists from Danzig, Hungary, Poland or Turkey.

But these figures cannot really represent the proportion of women who, having once been prostitutes, later make successful marriages. Marriage must afford an escape for many among the thousands who find their way every year out of the shifting population of prostitutes. The experience of social workers and rehabilitation homes testifies to the successful marriages of women who have passed through their hands. But these successes have escaped record because the case-sheets for this report describe women who were still prostitutes at the time of the enquiry. To discover the real proportion of successes and failures in

marriage, it would be necessary to take a certain number of women and follow their career during and after prostitution.

The interest of these marriage histories does not therefore reside so much in the percentage of failures they contain as in the connection which they might reveal or fail to reveal between unsuccessful marriages and prostitution. This is not a problem for statistical treatment, and it is one to which only a person with an intimate knowledge of individual cases could give a satisfactory answer. Still, there are some points of interest in the material available.

All the United States and some of the French and Belgian case-sheets state whether prostitution preceded or followed marriage. They show that most of the women did not become prostitutes before the breakdown of their marriages, although some had led rather promiscuous or dissolute lives. Of the twenty-seven married women in the United States list, three said they had been prostitutes before, five during, marriage. One of the latter, whose husband had died after they had been married three years, said she left him several times "to run around with the girls and have a good time", but always returned. Another had been induced by her husband to prostitute herself "until times got better". Of the fifteen married women in the lists from Lyons and Var, only two were prostitutes before marriage. The proportion is higher in the Belgian list; eight out of nineteen are said to have been prostitutes both before and after marriage. The other eleven only became prostitutes after their marriages had come to an end, although some had had illegitimate children before they were married.

Should it be assumed that, when the breakdown of the marriage preceded prostitution, it was also necessarily its cause? Sometimes it has clearly been a contributory cause, particularly when it has added to the woman's difficulties by leaving her with small children. Two cases can be

quoted as examples. The first is from the Brussels case-sheets :

A factory worker until she was 18. Married a workman and had two children. Her husband deserted her and she went back to the factory, leaving the children with her parents. Having no work, she came to Brussels and took a job as a servant. Both her father and her brothers became unemployed. She began to prostitute herself four years ago, since she did not make enough to pay for the keep of her children.

The second case is from the United States list :

She married her first husband at 15. He was killed in an accident when she was 20. She married her second husband at 27; they lived together two years. He treated her badly, so she left him. She says she became a prostitute because she was out of work and had to make money to support her daughter and herself. She got work after her first conviction but she could not live on the salary (5 dollars per week).

But there are also life histories in which it does not seem justifiable to assume that the breakdown of a marriage was greatly responsible for the woman's subsequent career. To an outside observer, it appears that both the marriage failure and prostitution are accounted for by the temperament of the individual. The following is taken from the United States case-sheets :

She was married at 18 to a stevedore aged 24. Separated after six months. One child, male, not living. She began to prostitute herself when she was 29, because she needed money. Her women friends were prostitutes and "showed her the ropes". She had led a dissolute life since she was 22.

And the next from the Lyons case-sheets :

She married at 17 a State employee twenty years older than she. She lived in a colony, was comfortably off and had five children, three of whom died young. She was bored by her life in the colony because there were no dances. During a holiday in France, she left her husband and children and entered a brothel. She divorced her husband; her children are brought up by an

aunt. Dancing seems to be the one passion of her life. She does not like work. She has now been a prostitute for several years.

In both these cases, and there are others like them, marriage does not seem to have vitally affected the issue. Often, as in the American story, it seems to have been simply an episode, too short to have profoundly altered either partner.

The Indian life stories suggest that prostitution is more often the direct result of an unsuccessful marriage or the death of a husband in India than in the West. There appear to be two reasons for this. First is the continuance among large sections of the Hindu community of a tradition forbidding the remarriage of widows. Girls are often married when they are very young to men much older than themselves, and many are left widows before they are grown up. Their life may then be a hard one; they are liable to be treated harshly both by their own and their husband's family and expected to lead lives of extreme self-denial. In 1927, an Indian speaker in the Legislative Assembly described the life of Hindu widowhood as one of "agony, pains, suffering and austerity. It is a life which has been inflicted not so much by Providence, not so much by the Shastras, as by social customs."¹ In the second place, although several million women are employed in industry, commerce and domestic service, the great majority of Indian women work in their own homes or on their own fields. If they are left destitute, they may find work as cultivators, but the opportunities for young women living in towns to find employment outside their homes are smaller than in the West.

Five of the nine Indian provinces which replied mentioned domestic unhappiness or the disadvantages of widowhood

¹ Kumar Garganand Sinha. *Legislative Assembly Debates*. September 15th, 1927.

as a cause of prostitution. Thirty-eight of the hundred women in the Bengal and Bombay lists were widows; sometimes their husbands had died while they were still children. The following—the first from Bengal, the second from Bombay—are two typical stories :

D., aged about 23 years. . . . She was married in her childhood. Her husband died when she was aged about 12 years. She used to live with her parents, who also died within a margin of six months when she became 15. Finding it difficult to obtain her livelihood by honest means, she came down to Calcutta and became a woman of the town.

I was born in Bombay. I was married to a man whose name I do not know, when I was too young. My husband died after my marriage. About ten years ago, I started my life as a prostitute of my own accord, as I had no support from anybody. I have no relative.

Many of the women who were not widows had been deserted or turned out by their husbands or had run away because they were cruelly treated. The following are examples :

I am aged 21 years and live with my mother, who is also a prostitute. I was married to the son of a prostitute at the age of 9 years at Hooghly. My husband used to torture and ill treat-me. I therefore left his house and came to my mother and became a prostitute. I am quite happy. (Bengal.)

My father died when I was aged about 9 years. My mother went with me to Poona soon after my father's death. She was working as a menial servant with a Parsi gentleman at Poona, and then came to Bombay. I was married when I was very young. I never went to my husband's place, as he married another wife and did not want me. While at Poona, one R. kept me as his mistress for four years. After his death, I started to earn by prostitution.

Left school at the age of 14 to marry a widower aged 45. Was ill-treated by her husband and eventually seduced by her husband's brother. This was when she was aged 18. She was then driven out of the house by her husband and, failing to receive support from her seducer, was given shelter by a woman who suggested to her that she should take up the life of prostitution. She then went to Calcutta and entered a brothel.

Of course widowhood, cruelty or desertion were rarely the sole cause of prostitution. Seduction, the activities of procurers, bad company and a roving disposition also play their part.

To conclude, a third of the prostitutes described in the case-sheets have married. Many married early and few were happily married. These are the only certainties. Without a far more detailed study, it is impossible to say how often unsuccessful marriage helped to induce these women to become prostitutes. Nevertheless, although in the Indian replies prostitution often appears to have been caused partly by the failure or the termination of a marriage, the present evidence seems to show that in the West this cause does not operate nearly so powerfully nor so frequently as bad upbringing, poverty, laziness or love of luxury.

LEGITIMACY.

In the last century, it was generally supposed that the disadvantages of illegitimacy induced many illegitimate girls and foundlings to become prostitutes. Duchâtelet's study of prostitution in Paris in 1836 may be quoted in support of this theory. It showed that in most of the Paris arrondissements, a quarter of the registered prostitutes were illegitimate, although the proportion was much lower in the provinces. Since then, in most countries, changes in public opinion, legislation and the social services have made illegitimacy a much lighter handicap. It is therefore natural to expect that to-day fewer illegitimate children become prostitutes and, on the whole, the case-sheets bear out this assumption, though, as the investigators had to rely on the evidence given by the women themselves, the figures cannot be accepted unreservedly.

In nine ¹ of the fifteen lists which answer this question,

¹ From Belgium, the United Kingdom, Canada, Chile, the United States, France, Hungary, Poland and Switzerland.

the percentage of illegitimate children does not exceed 7. In eight of these nine, in fact, the rate is approximately the same as for the country as a whole.¹ Occasionally—in the Chilian, United States and Hungarian lists, for example—it is even lower.

The lists from Denmark, Norway and Czechoslovakia show percentages ranging from 14 to 17 and rather higher than the national averages. In the three Indian lists—all of which do not give complete information on this point—the variations are considerable. Whereas in Bengal and Bombay only about 6% to 10% of the children seem to have been illegitimate, the figure for the United Provinces is 28%. This is explained by a paragraph in the reply stating that among the women of one caste living in this province, prostitution is very largely a hereditary occupation. Nearly all the illegitimate children in the list were the daughters of prostitutes belonging to this caste. The two highest rates are found in the Roumanian and Turkish answers. Of the thirty women examined by an anti-venereal clinic in Roumania, twelve were illegitimate. This surprisingly high figure contrasts, not only with the other European lists, but also with the other Roumanian list² in which 11% of the women were illegitimate. The average age in these two lists was about the same, and there is no apparent reason for such a great divergence. The Turkish answer shows that of the fifty prostitutes examined in Ankara, 70% were illegitimate.

MENTAL CAPACITY AND CHARACTERISTICS.

Taking all the case-sheets together, 1,207 out of 1,858 women—*i.e.*, two-thirds—were considered to be average, or above the average, in intelligence. The remainder were

¹ The national figures for the years 1927-1935 have been used for comparison.

² Fifty-three case-sheets sent by the International Federation for Aid to Young Women.

described as below normal, dull normal, sub-normal, of low or limited intelligence or as border-line cases. Only 4% were classed as feeble-minded or abnormal.¹ But the wide variations between the lists deprive a general statement or a comparison of much of its value, since they prove that the examiners had very different standards in mind. Legislation, custom and character may differ from country to country and variations in the answers to other questions may reflect these differences, but it is hard to believe that mental ability is distributed as unequally as the case-sheets suggest; that, for example, by the same standards, the percentage of prostitutes under average in intelligence was twenty times as great in the Italian as in the Roumanian list, or that the official at the police prefecture who, out of fifty Parisian prostitutes, found only fourteen of average intelligence, would have agreed that the percentage was three times as high at St. Etienne.

Besides different standards, a cause of divergences lies in the unequal facilities which the investigators had for their enquiries. Women in prisons and homes can be observed and questioned by a trained psychiatrist over a long period of time. In other cases, an impression of mental capacity may have had to be gathered by a brief interview with a police-official with whom the woman was not at her ease. There is also the fact that an examination made by a police-official after a raid would probably yield a different result from an examination carried out in a home

¹ A great many terms were used by the investigators to describe cases of sub-normal or abnormal intelligence. To simplify comparison, in the report a standard set of terms has been adopted—viz., superior intelligence, normal intelligence, below normal, border-line, abnormal and feeble-minded. All the cases described were fitted into one or other of these categories. Thus "below normal" includes cases described as dull normal or sub-normal; "feeble-minded" includes those described as lunatic, imbecile or mentally defective. The term "certifiable" used in the questionnaire was discarded as varying in meaning from country to country and from year to year.

where the woman had been for a week or so. Yet another cause of variations may lie in the differences of average age of the women in each list. There is as yet no proof of the effect of long years of prostitution on mental capacity, but it is interesting that of the five lists which show the lowest mental average, three were those for which the tests had been most thorough, but the other two were among the lists with the highest average age.

The lists with the greatest number of sub-normal or abnormal cases are those from Danzig, Denmark, the United States, Italy and Switzerland. In these five, the percentage of women classed as average in intelligence ranges from 18% to 50%. In all the other lists, cases of "normal intelligence" greatly predominate. In fact, the investigators in Roumania, Uruguay, Bombay and Norway described nearly all the women as mentally normal. The United Kingdom analysis remarks: "It is a matter of some surprise that so many of the women have been considered to be of normal or superior intelligence." The report of the women's international organisations in India supports the figures in the Bombay case-sheets by stating that the majority of the prostitutes cannot be said to be defective; "they are simply neither developed nor educated. Sometimes, however, they are intelligent girls."

Three answers—from the United States, Denmark and Switzerland—treat this question more fully than the rest, and two of them show that elaborate intelligence tests were applied. In the United States list, only seventeen out of the fifty women were found to be average or superior in intelligence; nine were dull normal; eleven, border-line cases; and thirteen, feeble-minded. In all, two-thirds were considered to be below normal (*i.e.*, their intelligence quotient was less than 90%). A wider survey, made by the same authorities, produced an even lower average. Dr. Kemp's investigations in Copenhagen resulted in half the women examined being classed as average and the other

half (all whose intelligence quotient was under 90%) as slightly retarded, retarded, debile or imbecile. Whereas 20% of the population of Denmark is reckoned to be below average, in his material this was true of 50%. No special tests seem to have been applied to the women in the Swiss list, but a good many of them had been under supervision in homes, and this may be the reason why the description of their mental powers is rather fuller than in the other answers. As superior in intelligence were classed 12%, about 25% as normal, 46% as limited in intelligence, and 15% as feeble-minded; 60% altogether were considered below normal. Therefore, in all these answers, considerably fewer women were classed as averagely intelligent than in the case-sheets as a whole.

Besides discussing the woman's mental level, some of the case-sheets add a comment on her character. The adjectives which recur most frequently are : nervous, hysterical, excitable; lacking in self-confidence, given to worry; weak and unbalanced; lazy; lying and deceitful; apathetic, listless, very slow; headstrong, defiant, irascible, violent; very reserved and introverted; lacking in moral sense; lacking in affection.

The laziness with which many women are charged seems to be in part innate, in part acquired by a long divorce from work. The Hungarian case-sheets are particularly full of remarks such as : she does not want to work, she says she hates all sort of work, she never learnt to work, she says she never worked in her life. On this point, Dr. Kemp's observations are interesting. Among the 530 women whose lives he investigated, he found that 20% of those whose capacity for work was not diminished by physical infirmity displayed aversion to work, and he adds : " Call it laziness if you want to, but it may, nevertheless, be regarded as due to a mental condition."

The life histories of the prostitutes sometimes reveal two characteristics not specifically mentioned by the examiners :

they are a roving or adventurous disposition and an impatience of restraint and discipline. Of the fifty women in the United States list, eight had run away from home, and so had six out of fifty Polish prostitutes. Several of the Hungarian women were said to have been vagabonds from their childhood; several women in the French case-sheets said they left home to be independent. Sometimes unkindness or excessive strictness at home prompted them to leave, but this was not always so. A French prostitute said her home was like everybody else's; she just wanted to be free. A woman in the United States list said she had no grudge against the family: "I just wanted to go away." One of the Indian prostitutes said: "I was married at the age of 7. . . . I spent six years in my husband's house. A kirtanwalli (woman musician) came to our village and I heard her music and became very enchanted. I became eager to be a kirtanwalli. One morning, I left my husband's house and came to my brother-in-law's house in another neighbouring village. I remained there for about a month or so, when I became corrupted with a railway employee. I fled away with him to Hooghly. Here I learnt music."

Some additional light is thrown on the mental characteristics of these women by the number who indulged excessively in alcohol or drugs. Of the British prostitutes, 14% had been arrested for drunkenness, many twenty or thirty times. A quarter of the prostitutes in the United States list took drugs (heroin, morphine, opium) and more than a third drank regularly. Of the Hungarian prostitutes, 20% said they were fond of drink. Dr. Kemp found that a quarter of the women examined had drunk excessively over short or long periods; 3% showed severe chronic alcoholism, and a few addiction to narcotic drugs.

A study of the case-sheets makes two general impressions. First, if more elaborate tests could have been universally applied, more women might have been found slightly mentally defective or abnormal. Secondly, most mental

defects were only a contributory cause of prostitution; their importance increases through combination with other causes. Many women might have led different lives if good fortune had been on their side, but they were mentally or temperamentally unsuited to surmount difficulties. But impressions of psychology derived from a purely written contact with the material are obviously of limited value; it is interesting to read Dr. Kemp's summing up of his thorough and largely personal examination of 530 prostitutes. He writes :

“When making psychiatric examinations on, and questioning, a group of women, such as those now under consideration, one cannot help getting a general impression of the mental *habitus* of the whole group. If we exclude the few exceptions which only serve to prove the rule, the general impression can only be described as monochrome. The group consists of comparatively poorly equipped individuals, the course of whose lives was usually predestined and earthbound—not interesting, not thrilling, not romantic, but sad, colourless and deserving of pity.”

VENEREAL DISEASE.

The case-sheets from four countries included a question on venereal disease. In the Argentinian list, six out of twenty-five women were known to have venereal disease; in the other cases, there was no information. In the Hungarian list, thirteen women out of forty-seven admitted that they had, or had had, venereal disease. The other lists give more details. Of fifty Polish prostitutes, four said that they had been infected before they had prostituted themselves; forty-three said they were infected since; three within a few days of going on the streets; thirty-nine altogether within a year. Three said they had never been infected. Out of 150 Turkish prostitutes, 118 were said

to have had venereal disease. Five said they had been infected before becoming prostitutes, ninety-two after; in twenty-one cases, there was no information. The Istanbul case-sheets give the date at which the disease was first contracted; of the fifty women, seventeen had been infected within a year of beginning prostitution.

Among the women examined by Dr. Kemp, 430 were recognised prostitutes. Of these, three-quarters were known to have suffered from venereal disease at one time or another; 32% had had both syphilis and gonorrhoea, 24% gonorrhoea only, and 21% syphilis only.

Some idea of the prevalence of venereal disease among prostitutes may be gathered from another part of this report,¹ which shows that in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the rehabilitation institutes obtain most of their patients through venereal-disease clinics. The authorities assume that sooner or later every prostitute will be infected and will be sent on to a rehabilitation institute.

HOME CONDITIONS.

Many writers on prostitution have remarked that prostitutes resemble one another in character, and this has led them to speculate whether certain temperaments do not predispose women to choose or drift into this vocation. The opposite opinion, "that the personality of the prostitute is the result rather than the reason of her occupation", has also been upheld, but, on the whole, judgment and experience support the theory that particular inherited and acquired characteristics form one, at any rate, of the reasons for prostitution, and that therefore heredity and upbringing must play their part. To go deeply into the problem of heredity would be impossible without a full psychological description of the prostitutes themselves, their ascendants and relatives; this the questionnaire was not suited or

¹ "Social Services and Venereal Disease", League of Nations Publications, 1938.IV.1.

intended to supply. What the case-sheets often do provide, however, is information about the material and moral surroundings in which these women spent their childhood.

Usually only a small minority suffered from extreme poverty. Dr. Kemp found that 42% of the women he examined came from very poor homes, but in the nine other answers which give information on this point, the number of homes described as very poor is on an average only 9%. The figure is highest in the Polish list (16%) and lowest in the Belgian list (5%). Nevertheless, though indigence may be the exception, few of the women started life with any material advantages. Their employment record, the age at which they started working, their father's occupation, all point to the conclusion that the majority came from poor, working-class families.

Three-quarters of the women in the Uruguayan list were said to come from poor homes, two-thirds in the Chilean list. Forty-six of the fifty women in the United States list had had employment; twenty-one started working at 15 or younger, one at 10, three at 12. More than half the women in the Czechoslovak case-sheets had left home before they were 16. Five had gone into service at the age of 14.

Seven answers give the father's occupation. Exact classification is difficult, particularly as standards vary from country to country, but the proportion of non-working-class men appears to vary between a sixth and a third. It is highest in Belgium (about 35%) and lowest in Italy (about 15%). Of twenty-eight Norwegian prostitutes, three-quarters were the daughters of unskilled workmen, artisans or peasant farmers. Four of the remainder were the daughters of small proprietors, two of non-commissioned officers. Of the women examined by Dr. Kemp, two-thirds were the daughters of unskilled or skilled labourers. In the Polish list, out of the sixty-four fathers whose occupations were known, forty-seven were unskilled or skilled workmen; four were smallholders. The remaining

thirteen were middle-class men; three civil servants, one a factory manager. Fourteen out of nineteen prostitutes in an English prison were from working-class homes; most of their fathers were miners or labourers.

Those who were not from working-class families came from the lower middle-classes. Their fathers were tradesmen, office workers, restaurant keepers, State employees, small business men. A few girls came from upper middle-class homes, but they are rare exceptions.

It is interesting to compare these figures with Flexner's account of the pre-war situation. He wrote: "The most striking fact in connection with the source of supply is its practically total derivation from the lower working-classes", and supported this assertion by statistics from England, Germany and Sweden. Nowhere did he find the proportion of non-working-class homes higher than 10%, a considerably smaller fraction, that is to say, than in the present case-sheets. Since the two investigations are not on the same scale (Flexner was considering much larger figures), the difference may not represent a corresponding shift in the incidence of prostitution from one stratum of society to another. But other reasons do suggest that such a shift may well have happened. The blotting-out of savings and investments which occurred in several European countries after the war was more disastrous for the middle-class than for any other. A later section will show how often a sudden change in economic circumstances preceded prostitution; in the years from 1918 to 1923, families which for decades had been in easy circumstances were faced with starvation.

To turn from the material to the moral environment, the case-sheets show that in a small percentage of cases the children grew up in an atmosphere of cruelty, neglect, drunkenness or vice. The following are illustrations :

Her father died when she was 10. Both her parents drank and used to quarrel violently. Her mother was known to be

immoral and was always asking her daughters for money. Both daughters are prostitutes. (Isère, France.)

She lived with her family till she was 8. Then she was sent to work as a nursery maid. When she was 14, her employer seduced her and she went on the streets. Her parents took no thought or care for her. (Hungary.)

She said that her home was very poor. Her father was a fireman in a tobacco factory but he drank to such excess he could not keep a job. He was bad-tempered and used to beat her. (United States.)

Adopted when she was 6 months old. Her adoptive father seduced her when she was 9 and was sentenced to five years of imprisonment. At 19, she was turned out of the house and went to live with an aunt who kept her for two years and then sent her away. (Roumania.)

L.'s father was a house decorator, who had several illegitimate children. He left his wife and lived with his mistress, who ill-treated the children. At the age of 14, L. was sent to a reformatory for stealing a pair of slippers. (Belgium.)

Such homes must exert a harmful influence on children. But, like the examples of extreme poverty, they are in the minority. Far more striking than the number of homes whose influence was unquestionably bad is the number which seem to have been defective, unsuitable or unhappy.

An extraordinarily high percentage of the women were not brought up by their parents or by only one parent. Apart from the small percentage who were illegitimate, in most of the lists between one-fifth and one-third had lost one parent through death or separation while they were still young. In addition, the percentage brought up in institutions, by foster-parents or relatives, is 20% or more in four lists, and over 10% in thirteen ¹ of the sixteen lists

¹ Denmark, 33%; Hungary, 26%; France (women's international organisations), 24%; United States of America, 21%; Czechoslovakia, 19%; Roumania (International Federation of Friends to Young Women), 19%; Poland, 18%; Danzig, 17%; Belgium, 16%; Norway, 14%; United Kingdom, 13%; Argentine, 12%; Canada, 12%.

which give information on this point. Speaking of the girls brought up in orphanages, the French memorandum observes: "To live in confinement quite out of touch with life and then to be left alone in a dangerous environment of which they know nothing is particularly harmful to many girls." Dr. Tage Kemp discovered that one-third of the women he examined were not brought up at home but spent their childhood under troubled and shifting conditions :

" 3% were brought up by the grandparents or other close relatives; an additional 3% were boarded-out or sent to homes, and the remaining 27% were raised under combined conditions—now in a infants' home or almshouse, now in an institution for the feeble-minded or hospital for epileptics. Possibly they were at home for a short time or with near relatives. Sometimes they had three or four different foster-homes during the course of their childhood."

There seems often to have been friction or misunderstandings in the family. The parents quarrelled, or the two generations were temperamentally unsuited; sometimes the children complain that the parents were unkind or too strict, sometimes the investigators remark that the parents treated their children stupidly or had no control over them. About a third of the women in the United States list were ill-adjusted to their family or had parents who were unhappily married. Here are four examples :

Her mother died of tuberculosis when she was 6. At 13, she kept house for the family. Her father was "too strict; would not allow dances or anything". She ran away at 16 to join a State fair. She got on well with her brothers and sisters.

S. was the youngest of a family of 8. Her father, who died when she was 9, was cruel to his wife. She, a religious and good woman, left him and gave the two eldest children to a neglectful grandmother. When the younger died, she returned to her husband. S. found her parents "too strict". Her mother had her committed to the House of Good Shepherd at 14 for "running around". She hated her brothers and sisters. She lived with a brother

after her mother's death when she was 14, but she ran away at 15 with a man aged 55.

Her father died when she was 2. She got on badly with her mother and quarrelled continuously with her brothers and sisters. Her mother was strict and extremely religious. At 12, she ran away after a beating because she had refused to attend school. She was found and returned, but at 17 she was sent to New York to work and live with an elder sister. She led a loose life and had had sexual intercourse before she was 15.

Family respectable and hard-working, but father ill-tempered and strict. He did not understand the problems of his headstrong argumentative daughter, with the result that she ran away at 17. She quarrelled with her brothers and sisters. The examiner adds that she had been spoilt by a weak over-indulgent mother and forcibly restrained by a stern ill-tempered father.

The next is from the Manchester case-sheets :

The father, a fruit hawker, lazy and boastful, has never faced family responsibilities. Two of his boys, while still at school, were brought before the juvenile court for trespassing, warehouse-breaking and stealing. The probation officer making this report knows the home very well and is of the opinion that the father is largely responsible for the behaviour of his family. The mother has been ill for years and is completely dominated by her husband. She has no will-power or initiative.

The next from Belgium :

She left home when she was 12 to be a nursery maid; she had a delicate younger sister who was her mother's favourite, and when she returned home her mother complained constantly that she did not earn enough money. After a series of quarrels, she ran away with a lover.

Of the nineteen British prostitutes whose lives were investigated by the Jewish Association, fourteen had had an unhappy childhood; two had no proper home life; four had parents who were unhappily married; three did not get on with their parents or step-parents; three had parents who had no control over them; one was a difficult child wrongly handled by her parents; one said she " had nothing

to lose, as her mother was very harsh and accused her of being a prostitute when she came home late". Eight out of the fifty-three women in one Roumanian list said that they left home because of quarrels or unkindness. Of the twenty-six women in the Czechoslovak list, one had left home because of family quarrels, two mentioned quarrels with their step-mothers, one said she could not get on with her mother.

Quarrels and disagreements at home seem often to have centred round step-parents. One of twelve prostitutes in the list from Isère (France) said she left home because her step-father ill-treated her, another because her step-mother made life impossible for her. Four women in the list of seventy from another French department left home when their mother or father remarried; three said because of quarrels with their step-parents. One Roumanian prostitute said she left home because of her step-father; two, because their step-mothers were unkind to them; two more left home soon after their parents remarried. Dr. Kemp found that, "in many cases, the *propositæ* had step-mothers or step-fathers at an early age". In a later chapter, he writes: "In many cases, there is no doubt that an uncomprehending, unkind step-father or step-mother has driven an already unresistant child to prostitution. Time after time the *propositæ* described how during puberty or other difficult periods of transition they lacked the necessary support and firmness at home. . . . In cases like this, it was rather often the step-fathers or step-mothers who were to blame."

A point suggested by these quotations and also by other data is that several of the women had been difficult children and had not found their relationship with other people easy. Asked why they left school, nine of the fifty American prostitutes replied "because they were not liked". Of the women in the United Kingdom list, 15% had been in Home Office approved schools for delinquent or neglected

children. In other lists, several of the children had been in reformatories.

In a few cases, there was a mention of drunkenness or insanity in the family. In the Netherlands analysis 10% and in the Italian list 6% of the parents were drink addicts. Other European lists show percentages varying from 1% to 6%. In the United States list, nine fathers out of fifty were said to be alcoholic. Two Italian prostitutes had parents in lunatic asylums; two Belgian women had mentally abnormal brothers. Dr. Kemp, who was particularly interested in hereditary factors, found that 18.6% of the women's fathers were drunkards, 0.8% were insane; 4.4% of the mothers were insane.

One other interesting point is raised by the information in the case-sheets: the size of the family. In the five answers which give this information, there seems to be an unusual number of large families. About a quarter of the women in the lists from Belgium and the United States, and a fifth in the lists from Norway and Hungary, came from families with six or more children; one was from a family of sixteen children, several from families with twelve or thirteen. Dr. Kemp found that the women he examined had on an average five or six brothers and sisters.

To sum up, the general impression of the homes and childhood of the women described in the case-sheets is that their moral environment was less favourable than their material environment. It is true that only a minority appear to have had parents who were comfortably off, but the majority came from ordinary working-class families and only a small percentage from the most poverty-stricken section of the community. The moral atmosphere in which the children grew up was on occasion actively harmful; far more often though, it was simply defective or unsuitable. This was due sometimes to neglect or lack of control, sometimes to excessive strictness. Often the homes were troubled by disagreement between the parents or between

the parents and children; this occurred frequently when there was a step-parent.

A considerable fraction of the women were brought up in homes, by relatives or by strangers, and many more were brought up by only one parent. About 45%, in fact, said that they had lost one or both parents before they were 14. This does not necessarily mean, of course, that they were all neglected; some, indeed, are said to have had good homes, but a feature that recurs so constantly cannot be disregarded.

Considering the case-sheets as a whole, about a third of the women appear to have had good homes and to have been brought up by both parents, and about half spent their childhood in unfavourable circumstances. This was due in part to poverty and ill-treatment, more often to unhappiness and wrong-handling.

EDUCATION.

The percentage of illiterates¹ is considerable in only seven of the twenty-one lists which give data on education. In four of these seven—the lists from Chile, Italy, Roumania and Uruguay—between a third and a fifth of the women appear to have been quite uneducated or only to have been to school for a few months. A comparison with the latest census returns shows that the proportion corresponds roughly with the figure for the adult population for each country as a whole, so that the educational level of the prostitutes cannot be considered below average. In the Argentinian list also, a third of the prostitutes were illiterate, but all the illiterate women were Poles or Russians. In the two lists from Turkey and India, the majority of the

¹ In reading both the statistics of illiteracy and those which will be quoted later to show the number of children who did not complete their schooling, it must be remembered that some of the women were of school age in the disorganised period of the war and early post-war years. In the European answers, therefore, the figures of illiteracy and uncompleted education are probably higher than they would be among similar children to-day.

women were illiterate. The level of education among the prostitutes in the Ankara case-sheets seems to be comparatively low; 30% of the women had had a primary education (6% more had been to school a little), whereas in 1934 the Minister of Education estimated that 45% of the adult population were able to read and write. On the other hand, in the Indian lists the level of education is surprisingly high when compared both with national figures and with the short account sent by the women's international organisations, which state that 499 out of 500 prostitutes in India have no education at all. Assuming that permanent literacy is acquired by schooling for four years, 10% of the Bombay prostitutes were literate, whereas in 1921¹ 2.5% of all the women in the province were estimated to be literate. At least one out of fifty Bengal prostitutes was literate compared to a level of 1.8% literates among the women in the province in 1921.¹ The replies from these two provinces also reflect one of the great difficulties of education in India: the enormous drop in the number of pupils from the first class to the second, the second to the third and so on. One of the Bengal prostitutes had attended school for four years, while eight had attended for periods ranging from three months to three years.

In all the remaining lists the overwhelming majority of the women had been to elementary schools and some of those who had not were taught at home. But relatively few received more than an elementary education: only 8% of all the women had been to secondary or technical schools, and in nearly every list the figure is lower than the national average. By far the highest percentage is found in the United States case-sheets, in which twenty-one out of fifty women had had more than elementary schooling; twenty had been to high schools and five had followed technical courses. But even this group had less education

¹ Interim report of the Indian Statutory Commission, 1929, page 145.

than average American girls, since it is estimated that more than half the total population attend secondary schools. The proportion who had secondary or technical education is also high in the answers from Belgium (20%), Chile (18%), Roumania (17%), Czechoslovakia and the United Kingdom.

The most striking fact about the education statistics is the number of women who did not attend school for the period fixed by law; 30% appear to have left school before the fixed leaving-age, but there is great variation between the lists on this point. The percentage is highest (60% to 87%) in four of the answers with a large proportion of illiterates—*i.e.*, from Roumania, Uruguay, Italy and Chile. It is lowest in the answers from Switzerland, Czechoslovakia and the United Kingdom, where it does not rise above 5%. It may be suspected that the figure is unusually high, but this cannot be proved, since comparable figures for the whole population are difficult to obtain. In any case, the school-leaving age may be misleading unless it is supplemented by information on the grade the child had reached.

EMPLOYMENT.

Taking all the case-sheets together, of 2,519 women, 47% had been first employed or mainly employed as domestic servants.¹ If those who had never worked or whose employment was not known are subtracted from the total, the percentage is raised to 56. Next in importance after domestic service comes industrial work : 12% of the employed women had worked in factories or workshops; 8% had been dressmakers, milliners or needlewomen, or apprentices in these trades; 6% had been saleswomen or errand girls; 6%, waitresses. Other occupations in order of decreasing importance are clerical work (2%), farm

¹ This term has been taken to include day-workers, hotel chambermaids and servants in restaurants as well as indoor servants.

work (2%), work in the entertainment trades—chorus girls, singers, ballet dancers, dancing partners—and as artists' models (2%), laundry work (1%), nursing and hospital work (1%), hairdressing and manicuring (1%). A few women had been teachers or governesses; one said she was an author; one or two were called "State employees"; one was a tramway conductor; two were hawkers.¹

The great majority of the women, in most lists four-fifths or more, had been wage-earners. In the Argentinian list, however, the proportion may have been lower, as the occupation of many of the women was not known. In the Indian and Turkish lists, contrary to the general rule, just over a quarter and just over a half of the women had been employed. Although it is not always stated in the answers, probably most of the women who said they had never been employed had, in fact, worked in their homes or on their parents' land.

The proportion of domestic servants is fairly stable throughout, only falling below one-third in five out of twenty-two lists. But, apart from this, there are considerable variations between the answers. Switzerland, Belgium, Italy and France show the highest proportion of industrial workers. Roughly a quarter of the employed women in these four lists had worked in factories or workshops, many of them in textile-mills or clothing factories. The number of waitresses is highest in the answers from the United States, the Netherlands and Norway, in which waitresses and barmaids constitute between a fifth and a seventh of the total. In the case-sheets sent by the Jewish Association in the United Kingdom, fourteen out of nineteen women had been employed in dressmaking or tailoring,

¹ The figures in the Japanese reply to the questionnaire (which only gave information on employment) are not included in the percentages given above. They show that of 651 prostitutes questioned in 1933, more than half had been barmaids or waitresses, 7% had been geishas. The complete figures are given in Part II.

a far higher percentage than in any other list. The proportion of domestic servants is particularly high (60% or more) in the answers from Denmark, Canada, Turkey, Czechoslovakia and India.

A feature common to many lists is the instability which characterises the employment records. One of the women in the Belgian list started work in an umbrella-factory in Belgium, then changed to factory work in Paris; she next became a laundress, then a plumassier, then a children's maid, and finally worked in a munitions factory. A girl of 18 in the United States list had held three posts since she started working. The first was a domestic servant's place which she left after a week because her employer was "hard to get along with". The second she left after five days. The third was a nursemaid's place at 25 dollars a month. She left after one and a half days, because the children refused to obey and called her names. Altogether, a third of the women in this list changed their place or their occupation frequently or had irregular employment. In the United Kingdom and Canadian case-sheets, the percentage is about half. Eight of the twenty-six Czechoslovak prostitutes were said to have changed their employment frequently, and so were twenty-eight of the fifty women examined by the Paris prefecture of police. Eighteen of the eighty-seven employed women in the Polish list were known to have changed frequently. On the other hand, in every list some women had worked steadily for years in the same occupation; sometimes, in fact, they had only had one post. Quite often those who later became unsettled workers had kept their first job for some time.

The numbers in the case-sheets are too small to allow of a precise comparison, but it is interesting to try to discover whether the proportion of workers in each occupation corresponds roughly to the proportion in the national employment figures. A comparison with the latest census returns shows that the variations between the lists do

partly correspond to differences in national economy. For instance, the percentage of industrial workers was highest in the lists from Switzerland, Belgium, France and Italy, and these four are among the countries which have the greatest proportion of women employed in industry. The percentage of women in service is roughly twice as high in Canada as in the United States, and the percentage in the case-sheets was also roughly twice as high. Of all the countries covered by the report, Denmark has the highest proportion of women engaged in domestic service. It also had the highest proportion in the case-sheets. Even local differences are sometimes reflected in the answers, as is shown by the list sent from the United Kingdom by the Jewish Association. A large proportion of the Jews in London work in the tailoring and dressmaking trades, and fourteen of the nineteen women had worked in these trades.

But, although the figures for each occupation seem to rise and fall partly in accordance with national differences, some occupations are consistently or frequently over-represented. This is particularly true of domestic service. The percentage in the case-sheets is always higher than in the census returns, often considerably higher. The percentage of servants in the United Kingdom case-sheets was 53¹; in the census, 26%; in the French case-sheets, 24%; in the census, 7%; in the Netherlands list, 56%; in the census, 31%; in the Canadian list, 77%; in the census, 24%; in the Italian list, 14%; in the census, 12%; and so on. There is the same over-representation of occupations in the entertainment trades, although these only constituted a small percentage of the case-sheets. For example, 4% of the women in the United States case-sheets were in theatrical work compared to 0.2% of the total women employed. Of the Netherlands prostitutes, 4% had been in artistic or semi-artistic professions which only absorbed

¹ This figure and those which follow are percentages of the number of *employed* women in each list.

0.3% of all employed women. On the other hand, agriculture, industry and professional work are under-represented throughout.

Two striking facts emerge from a study of the employment figures. The first is the predominance of employment which is either unskilled or unorganised or both. Few of the women had any professional training. In any case, therefore, their earning power was likely to be low, and this likelihood is increased for the large numbers in occupations where they were not protected by a labour code nor strengthened by a trade union. The working conditions of servants, laundresses, shop-assistants and sewing-hands may not, of course, be bad in general, but they are greatly dependent on the employer. Girls with no special training or advantages, or with any natural handicap, slip easily into the inferior positions with low pay and long hours.

The second and perhaps the most striking fact is the large number of domestic servants. This is, of course, partly explained by the fact that working-class girls with no vocational training find their easiest openings for employment in service. At the same time, in most countries the competition for posts is not nearly so great in household work as in industry or trade, with the result that women who are too inadequately equipped to find other work become servants. But other causes lie in the nature of the work itself. A factory worker or shop-girl may live at home, but domestic servants, who often begin work at 16 or younger, go to live with strangers often in a strange district, where their actions are unknown to their family and friends. They are in constant association with people whose standard of living is more luxurious than their own. They have no fixed working-hours and they are often at a loss how and where to spend their spare time. They do not have the companionship which factory or office workers enjoy and this, coupled with separation from their family, makes their life a lonely one and throws them very much on their own

resources. Their happiness depends on good personal relations, so that adaptability and evenness of temper are a far greater asset than in other work. Every woman is not suited to employment under these conditions. Further, in inferior posts, the domestic servant also suffers from overwork, low wages, bad food and bad accommodation. Dr. Kemp writes of servant girls who said they had to work from morning to night and even then they earned so little that in their few spare hours they could not afford to pay for any amusement. It is into posts of this kind that women who are mentally dull, restless or moody easily drift. For, as Dr. Kemp adds :

“ A perfectly well-equipped and intelligent woman can get along excellently in domestic posts, but for those who are in some way or other handicapped it is not so easy. Frequently, they give up their positions without notice and are thus unable to secure references. Sometimes because of general incompetence, they are unable to get or keep the better type of situation where working conditions are endurable and the salary fairly good.”

The result for the less fortunate is a growing aversion to work and a determination to take any chance for enjoyment which presents itself.

Two forces are therefore at work to produce the present situation. Domestic service attracts large numbers of working-girls, particularly those of little ability or perseverance; at the same time, the discontent which it sometimes engenders through bad working conditions and by imposing a way of life to which many women are unsuited may itself be a predisposing cause of prostitution.

FIRST SEXUAL EXPERIENCE.

Four lists—from Chile, Hungary, Turkey and the United States—give the age at which the women said they had their first sexual experience. Over three-quarters

were between 14 and 18 years old, a few were younger and generally about a sixth were older.

The great majority said that it had been a voluntary action, but there are a few exceptions. Three out of fifty Turkish prostitutes said they had been kidnapped and violated; one woman in the United States said she had been criminally attacked by several boys when she was 12; three women in other lists said they had been raped by their relations.

All the married women in the Turkish list and a third of those in the United States list had had no sexual experience before marriage. In addition, several women said they had been seduced or led on by promises of marriage. The following case is taken from the French list :

Lost her father when she was 7 and was boarded-out with a farmer at the age of 10. Worked in the fields and later did farm work. While she was in the country, she got to know a soldier who promised to marry her. (She was 18 at the time.) With her mother's consent, she left with him on the pretext of visiting his mother in Corsica. In reality, the man was a *souteneur* who took her to Marseilles and made her live as a prostitute.

Seven of the women in the United States list said their first sexual experience was with the man they later married or expected to marry.

Remarks in some of the case-sheets help to explain how the women became prostitutes. Apart from the small number of cases in which force is alleged to have been used, nearly all the women seem to have begun by having sexual relations with a husband or friend for pleasure. Their original intention was not to make money: this only occurred to them later under the pressure of unemployment or through the influence of friends who, in the words of one American prostitute, "told me I could sell it instead of giving it away". Quite often the first relationship lasted some time and several women said it was only brought to an end by their lover deserting them.

Some said they had had several irregular relationships or had led a promiscuous life for years before becoming prostitutes.

From three lists, it is possible to discover the time that elapsed between the beginning of sexual relations and prostitution. It varies very greatly. For 40% of the women, it was less than two years; for another 40%, it was between two and eight years; and for 20%, it was more than eight years. In one case, it was sixteen years.

AGE AT BEGINNING PROSTITUTION AND ALLEGED OR SUPPOSED REASONS FOR DOING SO.

Case-sheets from eight countries¹ give the age at which the woman became a prostitute. These ages extend over a period of roughly twenty-five years (from 12 to 36), but all the lists concur in placing the age for the majority of women between 17 and 24. The highest figures are usually recorded for the years from 18 to 22. In Europe and America, the distribution between the age-groups is slightly different from that in the Turkish and Indian lists. In the two latter, only 4% of the women became prostitutes after they were 24, compared to 17% in the other lists; nearly a third had begun prostitution before they were 17, whereas this was true of only 2% in the Western countries. There are also, of course, individual variations. The United States and Belgian answers show the highest average age. In these two lists, respectively a third and a quarter of the women began prostitution after they were 24. Five women in the United States list had begun at 30 or older; three of these were the only women who said they prostituted themselves in order to get money for drugs.

The immediate reasons for which the women became prostitutes present a far more complex picture and are more

¹ Belgium, Chile, United States, France, India, Poland, Roumania, Turkey. The Roumanian list generally gives the age of registration or internment in hospital.

difficult to analyse. This is partly because they come from different sources : some are the reasons alleged by the women themselves, others the reason suspected by the examiners, others apparently a combination of both. None are, of course, necessarily accurate. Even the women themselves may not know the whole truth, or they may conceal or distort it in order to stress extenuating circumstances or for other reasons. In addition, even the immediate cause of prostitution is hardly ever a simple one. As the quotations in the following pages will show, it is a combination of factors, some predominating, others subsidiary.

By far the most frequent reason given, especially by the women themselves, was their poverty or destitution. Altogether, about a third of all the case-sheets which give this information (roughly 350) mention the necessity of making money as one reason, or the sole reason, for prostitution. Sometimes poverty was the result of unemployment. Several of the American prostitutes said they had neither money nor work and "you can't starve". One said she had had no food for four days while looking for a job as a chorus girl. Dr. Kemp speaks of women who described how "they roamed about the streets penniless and at last yielded to the temptation of procuring the money necessary for a much-needed meal or an article of clothing". Other women who had been employed said they took to prostitution because they could not live on their earnings, or because of irregular employment. Often they began prostitution to supplement their earnings and then, finding it more profitable, gave up their other work altogether. Sometimes a change of circumstances—the death of a husband or parents—left the women with no resources. Faced suddenly with the necessity of earning a living and having no special training, they took to prostitution.

Poverty, whatever its cause, was often said to be aggravated by the necessity of providing for dependants. Occa-

sionally, prostitutes helped to keep their parents or their brothers and sisters. A Roumanian prostitute was said to support her sister, who was in a sanatorium for tuberculosis, and her brother, on military service. One woman in the Belgian list, who had two mentally abnormal brothers and an alcoholic father, was said to keep her entire family. A woman in the list from Var (France) said that, after her father's death, she prostituted herself to help the family of seven children. But these are rare exceptions; far more common are the women who said they had to provide for their children. Wives deserted by their husbands with several small children found prostitution the easiest way of making money, or found other employment not sufficiently remunerative. Some examples have already been quoted in the section on marriage. The following is the story of a woman in the Belgian list :

Married at 20. Her husband had no fixed occupation and her marriage was an unhappy one. Deserted by her husband and left with three small daughters. She put them in an orphanage and left for Liège, where she hoped to find work through her uncle. Changing trains, she broke the heel of her shoe and made the acquaintance of a man who helped her to walk and dissuaded her from going to Liège. She went to an address he gave her in Brussels and found herself in a brothel. She then adopted this occupation, as she would have done another. As soon as she was earning enough, she gave her children an excellent education. All three are happily married with children. They are all respectable. . . . Her mental level seems normal. She never drank to excess nor drugged. She now owns two brothels and no longer practises prostitution herself, but lets rooms to prostitutes. She has kept the railway-ticket to Liège, the last vestige of her life as a respectable woman.

A woman in the Hungarian list who had to support two small children—she had divorced her husband because he treated her brutally—said she could not earn enough to keep her two children except by prostitution. When first arrested, a woman in the United Kingdom list was

found to be supporting three children. Her husband was in hospital. She was receiving public assistance but was in arrears with the payments due on her furniture. Her mental level was said to be superior.

The financial burden of an illegitimate child is also alleged fairly frequently as a reason for prostitution. The total number of illegitimate children is unknown, but several lists—from Belgium, Hungary, the United Kingdom (Jewish Association) and some French departments—mention that between a sixth and a third of the unmarried women had children. Most of these children were born before the women became prostitutes, as might be expected, since it is generally supposed that later venereal disease and greater knowledge of preventive measures lessen the chances of pregnancy. In the Belgian list, for example, ten of the eleven unmarried mothers said their child was born before they became prostitutes.

The majority of these women, but not all, mentioned their child as a reason for prostitution. The following, taken from the Lyon-cases sheets, is a typical statement :

. . . worked in a factory from 13 of 16. She had a lover, by whom she had an illegitimate child. Her lover left her, so she handed the child over to a foster-mother and went on working regularly in factories. During the depression, she lost her job. Finding it impossible to keep her child, she drifted naturally into prostitution.

The following is from the United Kingdom list (Manchester) :

After D. F. had been away from home for a short time and was working as a shop-assistant, she met a man about her own age, and after a time they decided to marry. The father of the man would not consent to their marriage owing to religious differences, and said he would cut his son off if he acted against his wishes. The son worked in his father's firm and was therefore dependent on him for a living. The couple waited for a while, hoping the father would change his mind, but when he did not, they decided to live together. . . . At the end of five years, the father found out

what his son was doing, and, in order to try to patch up the relationship between father and son, D. F. left him and took her two-year-old daughter with her. She placed the child with a foster-mother, to whom she paid 12 s. 6 d. a week, and in order to keep herself and the child took to a life of prostitution. After three months of this life, she was charged and was extremely thankful to give up the life. She now has an agreement with the father of the child and receives 15s. per week. Her mental level was said to be superior.

Curiously enough, none of the women in the United States was said to have had an illegitimate child. This may be partly explained by the fact that more than half were married. Several said they "had to get married", as they were pregnant.

Several of the investigators asked whether the woman was employed when she became a prostitute, and this might throw light on the importance of poverty as a deciding factor. Unfortunately, the very different answers recorded show that the question was understood in different ways. All the Swiss prostitutes, for instance, were said to have been employed, only one of the Italian. The question may sometimes have been taken to mean, was the woman employed when she became a registered prostitute? and in part of the United Kingdom list, the question refers to the time of the first conviction. Again, when the woman was unemployed, the case-sheets do not always state whether she was looking for work or not.

Altogether, 1,011 case-sheets asked this question. About 40% of the women said they were unemployed, a third said they were employed: a few of these said they were not earning enough. Of the remainder, sixty-eight had never worked, sixty-eight were living at home, twenty-three had given up their jobs of their own accord and fifteen were in casual work. For 124, no statement was made. Taking into account the different interpretations of the question, it seems a fair assumption that actually the proportion employed was higher than these figures show. The num-

ber of women who were not looking for employment may also have been larger than it appears.

Next in importance after poverty was the influence of the milieu itself. This made itself felt partly through association with prostitutes—met in the course of work or in reformatories or hospitals—partly through the activities of procurers or *souteneurs*. About a fifth of the women mentioned their occupation or the company of prostitutes as a reason for beginning the life themselves. Some had worked as servants in brothels, assignation houses or cheap hotels, others had applied for posts in shops, cafés or night-clubs and had found themselves in clandestine houses of prostitution. Many said that they were persuaded by their girl friends, or that their friends “showed them the ropes”. *Souteneurs* or procurers were mentioned rather less often, most frequently in the lists from the Argentine, Belgium, France, India, Roumania and Turkey. Sometimes, the women had married *souteneurs*, more often they had fallen in love with men who had afterwards exploited them. The following two cases are examples :

Working in a cake shop and restaurant, she got to know a man who appeared to be a commercial traveller. He infected her with syphilis. The girl then left her father in order to live entirely with this man, who was in reality a *souteneur* and forced her to prostitute herself. (Isère, France.)

She was a domestic servant. She had relations with a man who infected her with venereal disease. Her employer sent her to hospital. On leaving the hospital, someone offered to find her a job as a servant and took her to a brothel. (Roumania.)

In nineteen of the twenty-five case-sheets sent from the Argentine, the activities of procurers and *souteneurs* were mentioned as one of the reasons for prostitution. They were also mentioned in nearly half the Bombay cases. The following cases are typical :

My parents are very poor. In the month of January 1935, I was brought to Bombay by one K. and R., a Christian woman.

In Bombay, they made me to earn as a prostitute. They were arrested by the police, but were acquitted in the court.

I was an illegitimate child of my mother, so I could not get married. One S. took me to a brothel to earn as a prostitute. I was aged about 20 years at the time.

Souteneurs are not expressly mentioned in the Turkish list, but several of the women had been seduced or abducted and then abandoned in brothels. In his table of the immediate causes of prostitution, Dr. Kemp gives the influence of *souteneurs* in 8.3% of the cases; he adds: "It was impossible to determine exactly how many of the women examined by us had, or at any rate had had, a pimp at one time or other. The women were almost always ashamed to discuss this and only admitted it when the fact could not be concealed."

A reason mentioned nearly as frequently as the last was the desire for an easy life. Sometimes this seemed to spring from a naturally idle disposition, sometimes from bad working conditions which produced boredom or dislike of the particular work engaged on; it was often coupled with a love of luxury and a longing for amusement and smart clothes which ordinary wages could not provide. In about a third of the Hungarian case-sheets, the reason given for prostitution was that the woman wanted to earn her living without work or was discontented with work. One said "she could not earn enough to dress herself prettily and go to dances". A woman in the United States list said she prostituted herself "to get luxuries and because it was easy money"; another said she was tired of work and got in with bad company: "I'm lazy and the money is good." One said that while looking for work she met a school friend who said nice clothes could be bought and money made more easily in prostitution, so she became a prostitute too. "I never tried to get another job. I got smart then." There were other remarks of the same kind: "My friends had fine jewellery and fur coats. I wanted

them too." " I needed money for clothes and things. Can't live on 25 dollars a month (her pay as a nursemaid). I'm young; I want things."

Clearly, even here, the reasons were also partly economic. It was not so much that the women could not, in their occupations, earn enough to exist, as that they could not earn enough to live in the way they wanted. In only one or two cases does the desire for money appear to have played no part at all.

Poverty, the influence of prostitutes and procurers, and the desire for an easy life were the three reasons most commonly given; of the remaining reasons, neglect in adolescence recurs most frequently. Some girls who had been in foundling homes left to work at 14 or 15. Others left home very young on account of poverty, unhappiness or the death of their parents. Some were turned out by their parents because they were pregnant or had a lover. The following cases are from the United Kingdom case-sheets—the first from Cardiff, the second from Manchester.

On leaving school, E. T. was residing with her mother, who was a widow. She was placed out in domestic service for one year and then was obliged to return home to nurse her mother. On the death of her mother two years later, she was without a home, and came to this city for the day, went down to the docks area, got into bad company, and at once commenced a life of prostitution.

Her mother died when she was a small child and her father three months before she went on the streets as a professional prostitute. Younger sister (15 or 16) an immoral character, when staying at home. Two brothers had a violent quarrel over disposal of family property. The younger sold the furniture without the permission of the others. L. J.'s home collapsed. House in very poor quarter.

The following case is taken from the Hungarian list :

Until her twelfth year, she was in a foundling hospital. Her father died in the war. Her mother was very poor and for years ill. . . . From her very first youth, she was a clandestine prostitute. She never learnt to work for her living.

And the following from Lyons :

Family was respectable and very strict. The parents were happily married. She was engaged to a young fellow-worker in the silk factory and had a child by him which died at birth. Her fiancé left her and her parents turned her out. She continued working, but when the depression came the factory closed down. On a friend's advice, she went into a brothel. She frequents watering-places, in order not to harm the family's reputation.

Occasionally, the women seem to have taken to prostitution in reaction against an excessively strict upbringing. The longing for gaiety and luxury which had been starved at home seemed to break out the more strongly when the girls escaped from their parents' control. This is most noticeable in the United States list; in fact, the memorandum accompanying it notes that, in a quarter of the cases, the women "complained of excessive strictness, usually associated with religious fervour, of parents and guardians. When such rigidity has occurred, it is not uncommon for the woman to voice her plaint in the following fashion : ' If they (the parents) had let me have some of the fun I wanted, the things I was missing wouldn't have seemed so wonderful.' " The same remarks are echoed in other lists. Two Belgian prostitutes complained of the strictness of their parents. A British prostitute said her home was good, but her foster-mother was strict and she wanted gaiety. Another said she could not accommodate herself to the family's high moral standard.

Some women mentioned ill-health as one of the reasons which induced them to become prostitutes. A woman in the Belgian list had eczema on her hands and could not always do household work. Another in the Hungarian list found it hard to find posts as a domestic servant, because she had to eat diet food. Several said they were not strong enough to do hard manual work. Dr. Kemp found that of the 530 women he examined, nearly half suffered or had suffered from a serious chronic disease

(other than venereal disease). He also found that the working power of a quarter of the women was either nil or greatly reduced because of physical disease.

Other reasons occasionally given were disappointment in love, impatience of routine and the desire to be free, mental deficiency and hypersexuality.

There are also some reasons for prostitution which are practically confined to the Indian answers. For example, the Government of Orissa states that "prostitutes are generally recruited from families which have adopted this profession since generations"; and another provincial Government observes that "a large proportion of prostitutes are such by heredity". Many of the women in the United Provinces case-sheets were the daughters of prostitutes and were said to have been brought up to that profession from childhood. The reply states, in fact, that "there is at least one caste in the United Provinces, the hereditary occupation of whose women is prostitution". Several of the women in the Bombay list also were the daughters of prostitutes. One of them made the following statement :

My mother was a murli (dancing girl) by profession and used to maintain herself by prostitution. I was dedicated to God Khandoba of Jejuri in my childhood. I worked as a murli. I started to earn by prostitution when I was aged about 21 years.

Another said :

My mother was earning her livelihood as a prostitute prior to my birth. I was not married. I was dedicated to one God Shanta Durga by my mother when I was aged 10-12 years, according to the practice of our caste. My mother is still alive. She is maintained by my sister, who also earns by prostitution.

To sum up, the case-sheets show that the immediate reasons for prostitution are many, and this is also true for each individual. It is a rare case in which a single reason is given for the first step. This emerges even from the

quotations which have been chosen to illustrate special points. The factor mentioned most constantly, now as a dominating, now as a subsidiary reason, was economic pressure; in only a few cases did the need for money appear to have no influence at all. Two other reasons commonly, though less universally, given were, on the one hand, natural laziness and love of luxury, and, on the other, the attraction exercised by the market through prostitutes and procurers.

A reason which is little stressed but which seems to be behind many of those mentioned is the effect of employment conditions. These are not taken to mean simply low wages, although they played their part, but also the dull and monotonous work with no prospect of change at which the girls had been occupied from 14 or 15 onwards or even younger. Discontent and boredom made them ready to accept any chance of altering their way of life.

CONVICTIONS.

The compilers of the case-sheets were asked to discover the age at which the women had first been convicted for an offence connected with prostitution and the number of subsequent convictions. A few answers have omitted this information, sometimes adding that prostitution is not a crime or an offence in the country in question. This is, of course, true of most countries; nevertheless, there is nearly always some action connected with prostitution for which prostitutes can be charged—loitering, soliciting, inciting to immorality, vagrancy, disorderly or indecent behaviour, infecting with venereal disease. A few answers mention these as the charges on which the prostitutes were convicted. In most of the United States of America, prostitution is an offence in itself, and the majority of the women in this list had been charged under the New York Criminal Code with offering to commit prostitution.

Taking together all the fifteen lists ¹ which give complete information on this point, 651 women had been convicted, 447 had never been convicted, and for forty there was no information. The proportion varies greatly from list to list, but no conclusions can be drawn from these variations; the sources of information are too diverse. On this point, case-sheets based on police or prison files are clearly not comparable with those drawn up by social service workers or nurses.

On the other hand, the ages at first conviction are perfectly comparable, and it would be interesting to discover whether the first conviction usually follows quickly on the beginning of prostitution. Unfortunately, only the United States case-sheets give throughout the two dates which are necessary to answer this question exactly. They show that two-thirds of the women were convicted within a year of becoming prostitutes and four-fifths within two years. Five were convicted three months or less after they had begun prostitution. In the Belgian answer, where some of the case-sheets give this information, the majority of the women had been convicted within two years of beginning prostitution. In six of the other lists—from Canada, France (women's international organisations), Italy, Poland, Switzerland and Uruguay ²—half or more than half had been convicted before they were 21. In two more lists—from France and Danzig—the proportion is about a third. Altogether, in ten out of the twelve lists, two-thirds or more of the women had been convicted before they were 25. There are a few instances of young girls being convicted; two women in the Swiss list and one in the Canadian

¹ From Belgium, the United Kingdom (two lists—one from the Government, one from the Jewish Association), Canada, Danzig, the United States, France (two lists—one from the Government, one from the women's international organisations), India (Bombay), Italy, Norway, Poland, Switzerland, Turkey, Uruguay.

² The Uruguayan list gives the date of the first *arrest*. It does not state whether the arrest was for prostitution.

had been convicted at 13. As a rule, therefore, most of the women were convicted young, and it seems reasonable to assume that usually their first conviction occurred during the first years of prostitution.

The two lists in which ages at first conviction were noticeably high are those from Belgium and India. Only 6% of the prostitutes in the Belgian list had been convicted before they were 21, and less than half before they were 25. This may be due to the fact that quite a number did not become prostitutes till they were 25 or older, and also because this list contains many older women who became prostitutes during the war and were not convicted until the war was over.

On the other hand, neither of these two causes can serve to explain why none of the women in the Bombay list were convicted before they were 21 and only a fifth before they were 25. Here, the figures reflect one of the differences between prostitution in the East and in the West. Prostitutes in the Far East rarely solicit custom in the streets,¹ and most of these women had first been charged with procuring or living on the earnings of prostitution, at a time, in fact, when they were probably no longer prostitutes themselves.

The number of subsequent convictions varies greatly from answer to answer. In the lists from Italy and Danzig, three-quarters or more of the prostitutes who had been convicted at all had had at least five convictions. In the Italian list, a quarter had been convicted from fifteen to thirty times. One woman in Danzig had been convicted 196 times and had been sentenced in all to imprisonment for 2,277 days.

In another group of answers—from Belgium, the United Kingdom and Poland—about half the women had had more

¹ The report from the women's international organisations on India states that soliciting is increasing among Anglo-Indian prostitutes.

than five convictions. One of the British prostitutes had been convicted 120 times, and thirty or forty convictions are not unusual.¹ The Norwegian list does not always give the number of convictions, but about half of the women were said to have been convicted only once or twice.

Finally, the lists from Canada, France and the United States contain only a small minority of women who had been frequently charged. Nearly half the Canadian prostitutes had only had one conviction. Nearly half the prostitutes in the United States list had had only one or two convictions. In striking contrast to the official case-sheets from the United Kingdom, none of the nineteen British prostitutes assisted by the Jewish Association had been convicted more than three times.

Part of these variations are explained by a comparison of the number of subsequent convictions with the average age in each list. It is not surprising to find, for example, that in a list such as the Canadian, where 70% of the women were under 30, the number of subsequent convictions is smaller than in the Danzig list, where less than a third of the women were under 30. Differences of age probably account in part for the conflicting impressions made by the two lists from the United Kingdom; only one of the prostitutes assisted by the Jewish Association was over 30, whereas in the official case-sheets, a third of the women were over 30.

The case-sheets also provide evidence of the traditional connection between prostitution and certain minor offences : drunkenness, theft and larceny (often from customers),

¹ This does not mean a similar number of imprisonments. Probably most of these convictions were made under the Act authorising a police-constable to arrest "a common prostitute, or night walker, loitering and importuning passengers for the purpose of prostitution in any street to the obstruction, annoyance or danger of the residents or passengers", or some similar regulation. Conviction entails a fine of 40s. or imprisonment for fourteen days but the fine is usually imposed.

using abusive and insulting language, etc. Of the prostitutes in the United Kingdom list, 14% had been convicted for drunkenness, 10% for theft or larceny. Three Norwegian and three Czechoslovak prostitutes had been convicted for theft. Dr. Kemp found that a third of the women examined in Copenhagen had been in prison for crimes and offences other than prostitution (larceny, receiving stolen goods, fraud, feticide, incest, procuring). Possibly, also, many small thefts from patrons go unrecorded, as, for various reasons, the victims may prefer not to report them.

The relatively small number of women criminals has led students of this subject to suggest that both prostitution and crime have the same origins and that prostitution among women is an outlet for the same tendencies which lead men to commit crimes. As further proof, it has been asserted that prostitutes are rarely convicted of criminal offences.

The charges are not given fully enough in the case-sheets for it to be possible to say whether they bear out this theory, but in the few lists which give the reasons for conviction in detail, serious crimes are rarely mentioned. One woman out of 218 in the United Kingdom list was convicted of unlawful wounding, two of fraud. One or two in the Belgian and French lists were charged with receiving stolen goods. None of the United States prostitutes appear to have been convicted of any greater offence than the possessions of drugs.

SOCIAL SERVICE ASSISTANCE.

The question whether social assistance was offered to the woman at her first conviction is answered fully in thirteen lists.¹ Altogether, 355 out of a total of 600 convicted

¹ From Belgium, the United Kingdom (two lists—one from the Government, one from the Jewish Association), Canada, Danzig, the United States, France, India (Bombay), Italy, Norway, Poland, Switzerland, Turkey.

women (59%) were given the opportunity to accept help if they wished it. The proportion who had this opportunity varies greatly, however, from list to list. These variations are due in part to different national systems, in part also to the different sources of the information. It is not surprising to find a fuller record of assistance in the cases sent by voluntary organisations, as these organisations had sometimes provided the help themselves.

Among the official answers, the percentage is highest in France and the United Kingdom. In both these lists, over 70% of the convicted women were offered help, for the most part by social service workers attached to police courts. In the Belgian and Italian lists, one in every three or four of the convicted women was offered help; in the other official lists, the percentage is lower.¹ The replies from voluntary organisations show that 40% to 80% of the convicted women had been offered assistance.

Often, and particularly in countries with regulated prostitution, offers of help were made to women who had never been convicted. For example, in the Czechoslovak case-sheets, where only a few women were said to have been convicted, many had been sheltered at various times in homes. One of the Roumanian lists which gave no information on convictions, stating that prostitution was not a legal offence in Roumania, showed that about half the women had been offered help. It appears from the Hungarian reply that all the women were offered help when they applied to become registered prostitutes. In addition, of course, women in many lists were said to have received assistance at later convictions.

The offers of assistance came from many sources, but in only two answers do public officials or institutions predominate (in Belgium, the social service nurse attached to

¹ The Uruguayan reply states that a third of the convicted women had been sent to religious homes, but it does not say whether this occurred at their first conviction.

the Service des Mœurs, Brussels, and in the United Kingdom the probation officers, semi-official social workers attached to the courts). In the remainder, the work was shared between public institutions (State Departments of Social Service, Public Assistance, offices for minors, etc.) and private organisations, or carried on entirely by the latter.

The nature of the assistance does not vary so greatly as its extent and its sources.¹ Sometimes arrangements were made for the girl to be sent back to her family or to a relation; more often, she was offered shelter and help in finding employment (generally domestic work), or sent to a hospital or home. Occasionally, marriage papers or an identity-card were obtained.

In some countries, institutional treatment appears to be more common than in others. In Italy and Uruguay, all the women assisted were sent to homes, which usually belonged to a religious order. In the Czechoslovak list, the only assistance mentioned is that given by Salvation Army homes. The majority of the Swiss prostitutes who had been assisted had been in training or welfare homes, but in this respect the list may be unrepresentative, as the directors of several homes were asked to help in compiling the case-sheets. On the other hand, the answers from Belgium, the United Kingdom, Danzig, the United States, France, Poland and Roumania show that generally only minors or women who were destitute or in need of special treatment were recommended to institutions. For the others, although they were supervised to a certain extent and sometimes encouraged to live in hostels, the social workers directed their efforts chiefly to finding work or reconciling them with their families.

Offers of help were quite often refused. This is most noticeable in the British list, where nearly a third of the

¹ The kind of help offered and the methods of rehabilitation employed are not described in detail here, as they form the subject of another part of the report on rehabilitation.

women had refused assistance, and in the Hungarian list, where all the women had been offered employment at one time or another, but practically none had accepted. In the Norwegian list, a sixth of those who were offered help declined it. Of the seventeen women offered help by the social service bureau of a New York prison, four refused.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Part of the interest of all studies in prostitution lies in their illumination of its causes. So far, this report has merely analysed the facts collected in the case-sheets without attempting to estimate their relative importance. In these concluding remarks, the material will be reconsidered with a new purpose in view—the attempt to discover what causes led the women to become prostitutes.

But first, the reservations made in the introduction must be repeated. The facts on which these deductions are based may not be accurate, since only a few of the investigators were able to confirm their findings objectively; even if accurate, they probably only apply to a small section of prostitutes. Again, it is difficult to estimate the importance of the findings whenever there is no similar information about the whole population to compare them with. Any deductions made must therefore be tentative and only of limited value.

Prostitution is sometimes said to be an economic phenomenon, which fluctuates with the level of employment and wages. Others assert that it is temperament rather than poverty which causes women to become prostitutes. Actually, it is difficult to separate causes in the character of the individual from causes in her circumstances and surroundings. For in every life, environment helps to form character, character in its turn determines environment, so that the exact importance of the part played by each can hardly be discovered. The case-sheets suggest that, in the lives of the women they describe, prostitution cannot be explained by the action of one set of factors only. When-

ever fairly full life histories are given, most of the women appear to have become prostitutes from the cumulative effect of a series of causes in temperament, upbringing and events.

Nevertheless, some of the most powerful predisposing causes of prostitution seem to lie in the mentality and temperament of the individual. A third of the women described in this enquiry were considered to be mentally abnormal or sub-normal, and this, for the most part, without special tests or examination by expert psychologists. Whenever the examination was more thorough, an even larger number were found to be below normal. Only a few of the women were considered imbecile or insane; in the great majority, the defects were too slight to entitle them to special care or treatment, although apparently serious enough to handicap them in their life and work.

Both in the women of normal and sub-normal intelligence, the investigators often noticed traits of character which would be likely to cause unhappiness and failure. These were, on the one hand, excessive restlessness and lack of self confidence and, on the other, lack of affection, great reserve or introversion, defiance of authority and irascibility, which made the women's personal relationships difficult and often unsuccessful. It is impossible to tell how often these characteristics were inherited, but a study of the case-sheets suggests strongly that many were, if not produced, at least strengthened, by circumstances in childhood. Only a third of the women seemed to have had happy and comfortable homes. Of the rest, some were orphans or illegitimate and were brought up by strangers or relatives; many lost one parent when they were still young. In addition, disagreements between the parents, neglect, lack of control over the children or excessive strictness, the father's addiction to drink, and family quarrels, especially with step-parents, often produced unhappiness and friction. This picture may very likely be a true one. The

experience of other writers who have been able to test the truth of stories told by prostitutes suggests that they do not usually make out conditions in childhood to be worse than the reality, although they may stress extenuating circumstances in later life.

Whether the characteristics mentioned were the product of upbringing or heredity, or both, they left their mark on the women's work and personal relationships in later life. Few seem to have been satisfied or successful in their employment. The great majority had no vocational training and were engaged in unskilled work; many changed their positions frequently. A third of the women married; most, apparently, before becoming prostitutes. Some had married very young, and hardly any of the marriages were successful. A few were widows, but the great majority were divorced or separated from their husbands. Sometimes the marriages lasted a very short time—six months or a year.

Two other characteristics noticed by the investigators, and often found together, were laziness and the love of luxury. There seems no doubt that some of the women longed for "smart clothes and a good time" and that frequently a too strict upbringing made these pleasures seem all the more desirable. On the other hand, the many women described as "hating work" do not all seem to have been constitutionally lazy. It is true that a few women said themselves that they were lazy and that some of those classed as mentally sub-normal were described as apathetic or very slow; but nearly all the women had had paid employment and many of those described as lazy had worked for six or seven years before becoming prostitutes. Boredom with their particular work and despair of ever enjoying a higher standard of life may have had as great an influence as laziness. Dr. Kemp attributed the aversion to work, in many of the women he examined, to a mental condition.

Contrary to what might have been expected, only a few of the women came from extremely poor homes. The majority, however, had working-class parents, and material conditions in childhood cannot therefore be dismissed as unimportant. Obviously a taste for comfort and idleness is more easily gratified in richer households.

Besides the causes which lie in temperament and upbringing, the case-sheets suggest that sometimes the employment itself was a predisposing cause of prostitution, because of working conditions or the discontent which they engendered. In the occupations followed by most of the women, hours are often long and wages low, and, of course, workers who are difficult or below the normal in intelligence tend to fill the worst positions. But, apart from this general characteristic of the employments followed, there are certain occupations which seem to have a particularly close connection with prostitution. Almost half the women had started their working careers in some kind of domestic service, many of them as day-workers, hotel chambermaids, or scullery maids or cleaners in restaurants and cafés. Some possible reasons for this have been given in a previous section; they are the labour shortage, which makes the various branches of this profession a refuge for the less gifted and the less persevering, the loneliness of the domestic servant's life, the constant spectacle of people living more comfortably or more luxuriously than herself, and, in inferior posts, overwork and bad living conditions. Moreover, success in this work depends a good deal on the ability to develop good personal relations, an ability which many of the women clearly did not possess.

Among the immediate incentives to prostitution, poverty was the one most often mentioned by the women themselves. Sometimes it was prolonged poverty due to casual work or low pay. More often it seems to have been a sudden need produced by unemployment, desertion, or the death of parents or husband. Poverty was sometimes

aggravated by the necessity of supporting dependants; indeed occasionally, the burden of providing for children seems to have been the main cause of prostitution.

The attraction exercised by the world of prostitution and the activity of its agents were often a contributory cause. Some women had been persuaded by procurers or had fallen under the influence of *souteneurs*; a few asserted that they had been seduced and forced to become prostitutes. Some had applied for jobs in shops or cafés and had found themselves in clandestine houses of prostitution. Far more had had friends who were prostitutes, and had grown envious of their clothes and jewellery, or of their freedom and their seemingly gay and easy life.

To sum up, then, it appears from this study that the causes which led the women into prostitution were extremely widespread. They include mental and physical weaknesses, traits of character, unhappy and broken homes, wrong upbringing, neglect in childhood and adolescence, unsuitable working conditions, low wages, monotonous and uninteresting work, unemployment, sudden financial need, the burden of providing for children and dependants and the influence of prostitutes and procurers.

Of course, all these are in a sense only secondary causes, since they are only brought into play when a demand for prostitutes exists. Given that demand, they help to ensure that a supply is always forthcoming; without it, although they would still continue to operate, their results would clearly be different. The primary causes must always be the demand for prostitutes—however created—and the public toleration of prostitution, both dependent on current philosophy and morality, habit, tradition, education and the structure of society. Prostitution is therefore not an isolated phenomenon, nor is it caused by the stupidity, poverty, laziness or vice of a small number of women. On the contrary, it has rightly been described as “so subtly and deeply rooted that it can only be affected by influences

which bear on all our methods of thought and feeling and all our social custom ".¹ In considering the facts set out in this report, the primary causes of prostitution must not be forgotten.

¹ Havelock ELLIS : " The Task of Social Hygiene ", page 303. Constable, London.

II. SUMMARIES OF REPLIES

From Governments:

BELGIUM

49 case-sheets collected by the social service nurse of the Brussels Public Health Department;

12 case-sheets from the "Maison de Refuge", St. André-lez-Bruges (a State institution).

Age.

Under 21	1	31 to 35.....	10
21 to 25	5	36 to 40.....	12
26 to 30	12	Over 40	21

Nationality.

56 Belgian, 3 French, 1 British, 1 German.

Civil Status.

33 single, 28 married (including 3 widowed, 5 divorced, 16 separated).

Marriage Age.

Age	Number	Age	Number
18	6	23.....	1
19	2	30.....	2
20	1	38.....	1
21	2		

Not known : 7.

Legitimacy.

57 legitimate, 4 illegitimate.

Mental Level.

Normal intelligence	30
Below normal	18
Limited intelligence	10
Abnormal.....	2
Feeble-minded	1

The investigator added adjectives describing a few of the women. They were: excitable (2), boastful (1), rather apathetic (1), difficult character (1), lazy and fond of luxury (1).

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BELGIUM

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57 legitimate, 4 illegitimate.

Mental Level.

Normal intelligence	30
Below normal	18
Limited intelligence	10
Abnormal.....	2
Feeble-minded	1

The investigator added adjectives describing a few of the women. They were : excitable (2), boastful (1), rather apathetic (1), difficult character (1), lazy and fond of luxury (1).

Health.

1 woman had a paralysed arm, 1 suffered from chronic ill-health, 1 had eczema on her hands.

Father's Occupation.

Skilled and unskilled workmen	25
Tradesmen	6
Restaurant keepers	3
Clerks	2
Contractor	1
Cab-hirer	1
House-decorator	1
Artist	1
Business man	1
Farmer	1
Gamekeepers	2
No information	17

Home Conditions.

Brought up in an institution	5
" " with relatives	5
" " at home : with one parent	14
" " " : with both parents	29
Home apparently good	21
Family quarrels	5
Child neglected	2
Child ill-treated	3
Child sexually assaulted by relatives	1
Parents too strict	3
Lack of discipline	1
Father alcoholic	2
Institutions	5
No information	18

3 homes were said to be very poor.
 18 seem to have had good homes and were brought up by both parents.
 There were 12 families with 6 or more children.

Education.

	Day	Boarders	Total
Elementary school only	42	4	46
Secondary school	7	2	9
Professional training.....	3	—	3
Illiterate	—	—	3

School-leaving Age.

(Compulsory school attendance : 6-14.)

Age	Number	Age	Number
9	1	14.....	15
10	8	15.....	6
11	1	16.....	8
12	6	17.....	1
13	4	19.....	1

Of those who were brought up in, or later sent to, institutions,
3 left at 18, 1 at 20, and 3 at 21.

5 were said to have attended school irregularly.

Age on leaving Home.

Age	Number	Age	Number
10	1	19.....	7
12	1	20.....	3
14	1	21.....	7
15	2	22.....	1
16	2	23.....	4
17	4	30.....	1
18	9		

3 never left.

8 no information.

(7 were in institutions—see above.)

Left to work	7
Marriage	10
Death of a parent or guardian	6
Family quarrels.....	3
Because they had an illegitimate child or were pregnant.....	5
Ran away	1
Left with a lover.....	1
Turned out	2
No information	16

First Employment.

Domestic servants	16
In factories or workshops	15
In dressmaking, millinery or sewing	9
Shop-assistants or errand girls	6
Farm-workers	3
Waitresses	2
Laundress	1
Typist	1
Masseuse	1
Never worked	8

Age on taking to Prostitution.

Age	Number	Age	Number
15	2	23	1
16	2	24	3
17	1	25	5
18	2	26	2
19	4	27	2
20	5	29	1
21	7	32	1
22	6		

For 17, no information.

Employment at the Time.

Domestic servants	9
Waitresses	5
Shop-assistants	5
In factories or workshops	4
In dressmaking, millinery or sewing	2
Masseuse	1
Unemployed	7

1 was in casual work, 1 had given up her job, 3 had never worked, 8 were keeping house. For 14, there is no information.

Age at First Conviction.

Under 21	3	31 to 35	2
21 to 25	19	Over 40	4
26 to 30	12		

12 had never been convicted. For 9, the age was not given. 11 had been convicted only once; 26 had had many subsequent convictions. (The great majority of the convictions were for public incitement to immorality.)

Social Service Assistance.

15 had been offered assistance at their first conviction (by the social service branch of the Brussels Public Health Department). The rest had been offered assistance at subsequent convictions.

UNITED KINGDOM

218 case-sheets. 160 were taken consecutively as the women were received into prisons or came under the notice of probation officers. 58 were received from voluntary agencies, the Scottish After-Care Council, women police-patrols and a hospital for venereal diseases.

Age.

Under 21	14	31 to 35.....	34
21 to 25	70	36 to 40.....	23
26 to 30	54	Over 40.....	22

Nationality.

All the women were British.

Civil Status.

122 were single, 84 married (including 5 widowed, 3 divorced, 23 separated). For 12, there was no information.

Legitimacy.

12 illegitimate, 205 legitimate, 1 doubtful.

Mental Level.

Superior intelligence	22
Normal intelligence	132
Border-line	55
Certifiable	4

The investigators added remarks about some of the women :

Weak or unbalanced.....	6
Neurotic.....	6
Defiant and unruly	2
Attempted suicide	2
Mentally and physically indolent	2
Very slow.....	1

Health.

2 were tubercular, 4 alcoholic, 3 had bad health.

Father's Occupation.

This is given in 19 cases.

Miners	6	Clerk	1
Labourers	5	Electrician	1
Joiner	1	Estate agent	1
Engineer	1	Public-house keeper	1
Farmer	1	Army officer	1

Home Conditions.

Good home	78
Fair	5
Respectable	16
Lack of discipline	4
Parents too strict	2
Family quarrels	7
Child ill-treated	1
Mother immoral	6
Father alcoholic	4
Unfavourable home	26
Brought up in an institution	12

16 children were said to have been brought up by friends or relatives.

3 children had been left orphans at 14 or 15.

25 homes were said to be poor.

In 18 cases, there was no information.

Education.

	Day	Boarders	Total
Elementary only	169	25	194
Secondary	3	21	24

School-leaving Age.

(Compulsory school attendance : 6-14.)

Age	Number	Age	Number
11	1	16	25
12	3	17	5
13	6	18	3
14	156	19	2
15	14		

3, no information.

Age on leaving Home.

Age	Number	Age	Number
11	1	17.....	20
13	3	18.....	18
14	22	19.....	16
15	15	20.....	5
16	20		

23 left between 21 and 25.

5 left between 26 and 30.

2 left over 30.

5 never left.

50 no information.

Of 13 children who were brought up in, or later sent to, institutions, 4 left at 14, 7 at 16, 2 at 17.

First Employment.

Domestic servants.....	103
In factories or workshops	32
Waitresses	5
Laundresses.....	4
Actresses, dancers, etc.	9
Clerks	11
Nurses or hospital assistants	5
Shop-assistants	12
In dressmaking, sewing or millinery	6
Hairdresser or manicurist	1
Farm-workers	7
At home	9
Never worked	6
No information	8

90 changed their positions frequently, 68 did not. For the rest, there is no information.

Employment on taking to Prostitution.

Employed	36
Unemployed	95
In casual employment	8
Had given up their jobs.....	2
Living at home or keeping house	24
Never worked	6
Living on an allowance from her husband	1
No information	45

Age at First Conviction.

Under 21	48	36 to 40.....	9
21 to 25	98	Over 40	4
26 to 30	28	No information	9
31 to 35	22		

69 had been convicted only once, 16 twice, 20 three or four times. 57 had been convicted 5 to 15 times; 43 had been convicted 15 or more times. For 13, there was no information.

31 had been convicted for drunkenness, 20 for theft, 2 for fraud, 1 for unlawful wounding, 1 for robbery with violence.

Social Service Assistance.

Assistance offered	153
No assistance offered	61
Help unnecessary	2
No information	2

(97 accepted assistance, 56 refused it.)

Assistance was given usually by a probation officer or police-court mission; sometimes by Discharged Prisoners' Aid Society or voluntary homes.

CANADA

50 case-sheets taken in the order in which they appeared in the records of a large State institution for women committed as prostitutes.

Age when committed to Care.

Under 21.....	15	31 to 35.....	8
21 to 25	13	36 to 40.....	3
26 to 30	7	Over 40.....	4

Nationality.

All Canadian. The case-sheets also give information on the women's racial origin; 28 were of British stock (13 English, 8 Irish, 6 Scottish, 1 Welsh), 11 of French, 3 of German, 1 of Ukrainian. 5 were North-American Indians, 2 negroes. The proportion of these stocks in the total population is: British, 57%, French, 31%, German, 5%, Ukrainian, 2%, North-American Indian, 1%, negroes, 1/4%.

Civil Status.

31 were single, 19 married (2 widowed, 1 divorced, 6 separated).

Legitimacy.

49 legitimate, 1 illegitimate.

Mental Level.

Normal intelligence	37
Sub-normal	7
Border-line	1
Certifiable	5

Home Conditions.

(This information apparently refers to home conditions at the time when the investigation was made.)

No home	6
Orphans	6
Mother or father dead	9
Mother remarried	4
Parents separated	3
Unfavourable home	8
Cruel treatment	1
Invalid father	1
Good homes	12

3 homes were poor; 4 of the women had immoral or criminal parents.

Education.

43 elementary education only.

4 secondary education.

3 practically no education.

School-leaving Age.

(In the province concerned, school attendance is compulsory up to 14, part-time attendance to 16 or 18.)

Age	Number	Age	Number
11	3	14	9
12	4	16	10
13	7	17	4

26 of the 50 girls left school before completing the minimum compulsory attendance.

Age on leaving Home.

Age	Number	Age	Number
12	8	17.....	5
13	2	18.....	2
14	3	20.....	1
15	7	23.....	1
16	9	25.....	1
8 never left.			
3 no information.			

First Employment.

Domestic servants	27
Waitresses	3
Laundress	1
In factory	1
In dressmaking.....	1
Clerk	1
Graduate nurse	1
Housewives	9
At home	2
No work.....	4
21 changed their positions frequently, 23 did not.	

Employment on taking to Prostitution.

Domestic servants	8
Waitresses	3
Laundress	1
Graduate nurse	1
Unemployed	26

2 were living at home, 4 had never worked, 5 were keeping their own homes.

Age at First Conviction.

Under 21.....	24	31 to 35.....	2
21 to 25	12	36 to 45.....	4
26 to 30	6	No information	2

(One was first convicted at 13, 2 at 16, 8 at 17.)

20 had been convicted only once, 12 had, subsequent conviction, 7 had 2, 4 had 3, 2 had 6 or more. For 2 women, the number of convictions was unknown.

Social Service Assistance.

1 woman was assisted at her first conviction by a private individual.

CHILE

49 case-sheets collected by agencies of the Public Health Department.

Age.

Under 21.....	9	26 to 30.....	6
21 to 25	34		

Nationality.

45 Chilian, 1 Mexican, 1 Argentinian. For 2, there was no information.

Civil Status.

44 single, 5 married (including 2 widowed).

Legitimacy.

45 legitimate, 2 illegitimate, 2 no information.

Mental Level.

Normal intelligence	37
Border-line	10
Abnormal.....	1
Feeble-minded	1

Home Conditions.

Poor homes	29
Comfortably off.....	20
Adopted children	2
Orphans	20 (at time of enquiry?)
Mother or father dead.....	17 (at time of enquiry?)
No knowledge of parents ..	1

Education.

Elementary education only	31
Secondary education	9
No education.....	9

School-leaving Age.

(Compulsory school attendance up to 15.)

Age	Number	Age	Number
7	1	13.....	3
8	2	14.....	8
9	1	15.....	8
10	3	16.....	6
11	2	17.....	1
12	5	19.....	1

Age on leaving Home.

Age	Number	Age	Number
9	1	16.....	4
11	1	17.....	4
12	4	18.....	5
13	3	19.....	5
14	2	20.....	3
15	7	22.....	2

Never left, 2; no information, 6.

Left home voluntarily	25
Seduced	7
Turned out	6
Death of parents	4
Marriage	2
Left when their parents moved to another town...	2
Abandoned by adoptive parents	1
Never left	2

First Employment.

Domestic servants	18
Actress, dancer, etc.	2
Clerks	3
Shop-assistants	8
In millinery	1
Hairdresser	1
Home-worker	1
At home	2
Never worked	13

Age at which the Women had their First Sexual Experience.

Age	Number	Age	Number
13	2	18.....	9
14	8	19.....	2
15	7	20.....	4
16	5	23.....	1
17	11		

Age on taking to Prostitution.

Age	Number	Age	Number
14	3	21.....	2
15	2	22.....	5
16	4	23.....	1
17	6	24.....	4
18	4	28.....	1
19	8	29.....	1
20	8		

Employment at the Time.

Domestic servants	12
Shop-assistants	3
Clerk	1
In a factory	1
Unemployed	10
At home	8
Living with a friend	1
Never worked	13

Convictions.

No information.

Social Service Assistance.

No information.

DENMARK

Information collected by Dr. Tage Kemp for his work "Prostitution" (Copenhagen, 1936), and relating to 530 women who had been questioned by the morality police of Copenhagen. The figures in the book are given in percentages.

Age (300 women only).

	%		%
Under 21.....	15	31 to 35.....	17
21 to 25	27	36 to 40.....	8
26 to 30	30	Over 40.....	3

Nationality.

No information. The place of birth was as follows :

	%
Copenhagen.....	34.2
Smaller towns	28.0
In the country	35.5
Abroad	2.3

Civil Status.

62% were single, 37.8% married (1.5% widowed, 13% divorced, 6.6% separated, 3.8% deserted).

Legitimacy.

Legitimate, 83%; illegitimate, 17%.

Mental Level (523 women).

An intelligence test resulted as follows :

	%
Intelligence quotient greater than 90%.....	50.1
" " 90 to 85% (slightly retarded)	23.2
" " 85 to 75% (retarded)	19.1
" " 75 to 55% (debile, morons).	6.8
" " less than 55% (imbecile) ...	0.8

A test on other mental characteristics resulted as follows :

	%
Psychopaths with normal intelligence quotient ..	13.4
" " sub-normal " "	9.1
Other mental diseases.....	7.9

Altogether, 70.6% of the women were mentally defective or abnormal in some way or other.

Health.

47.4% of the women suffered or had suffered from serious chronic diseases. In 26.6%, working power was nil or greatly reduced because of physical disease.

Venereal Disease.

73.4% had had venereal disease; 18.9%, syphilis only; 27.0%, gonorrhoea only; 27.5%, both syphilis and gonorrhoea.

Of the recognised prostitutes (430), 76.1% had had venereal disease; 20.5%, syphilis only; 23.7%, gonorrhoea only; 31.9%, both syphilis and gonorrhoea.

Father's Occupation.

	%
Skilled and unskilled labourers	64.0
Tradesmen (usually hawkers)	6.0
Civil servants, officials, etc.	5.5
Farmers	2.1
Master artisans	1.3
Other occupations	9.6
No information	11.5

Home Conditions.

Economic standard :

Extreme poverty	42.8
Poverty	45.8
Middle-class home	11.4
Father unknown	11.5
Father died before child was 14	11.5
Mother unknown	2.3
Mother died before child was 14	13.8
Parents divorced (usually before the child grew up). ..	11.0

In 522 cases for which the facts could be discovered, the average number of children in the family was 6.7.

Dr. Kemp writes that one-third of the women were not brought up at home but spent their childhood under troubled and shifting conditions. 3% were brought up by close relations, 3% were boarded out or sent to a home, 27% were raised under combined conditions, partly in homes or almshouses, partly in institutions for the feeble-minded or epileptic, partly at home or with relatives.

Education.

	%
Elementary school only	91
Secondary school	2
Classes for retarded children	7

School-leaving Age.

Dr. Kemp states that 86% attended elementary schools from 7 to 14, and that 2% went to secondary schools but none beyond the sixteenth or seventeenth year.

Age on leaving Home.

No information.

Main Employment.

	%
Domestic workers	81.2
Factory hands	6.9
Seamstresses	3.2
Waitresses	0.6
Saleswomen	2.6
Office clerks.....	0.4
Other occupations	5.1

("Other occupations" includes milliners, sandwich-makers, models, variety artists, chorus girls, etc.)

Dr. Kemp states that many women only had part-time posts or did cleaning by the day and, in reality, often had very irregular work.

Age on taking to Prostitution.

Dr. Kemp gives the women's age when they first came in contact with the morality police.

	%
Under 18.....	6.0
18 to 20	43.2
21 to 25	39.6
26 to 30	7.9
Over 30	3.3

He states that the average age at which the women began to live as prostitutes was, as far as could be ascertained, 21.6.

Immediate Causes of Prostitution.

	%
Poverty or dire economic need	24.2
Fondness of dancing and restaurant life	22.8
Influence of sisters or women friends	13.2
Influence of <i>souteneur</i>	8.3
Tendency to vagabondage	3.4
Other causes or cause unknown	28.1

Convictions.

The age at which the women first came into contact with the morality police is given above. 54.3% of the women had served prison sentences for having transgressed the injunction

to find lawful employment, 36% had been in prison for other offences (larceny, receiving of stolen goods, fraud, engaging in sexual intercourse while they had venereal disease, etc.). Altogether, 64.7% had been in prison. 60.2% had been fined.

Social Service Assistance.

No information.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

50 case-sheets sent by the Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor and compiled by the research psychologist on the staff of a New York house of detention.

Age.

Under 21.....	1	31 to 35.....	9
21 to 25	19	36 to 40.....	2
26 to 30	16	Over 40	3

Nationality.

All the women were American. 27 were negresses, 19 of white race, and 3 of mixed races, and 1 a North-American Indian. 26 of their parents (14 fathers, 12 mothers) had been born outside the United States, 18 in Europe, the rest in South America and the West Indies.

Civil Status.

23 single, 27 married (including 5 widowed, 4 divorced, 15 living apart from their husbands).

Marriage Age.

Age	Number	Age	Number
13	1	20.....	1
14	1	22.....	2
15	4	24.....	1
16	3	25.....	1
17	4	26.....	1
18	5	34.....	1
19	2		

Legitimacy.

49 legitimate, 1 doubtful.

Mental Level.

Superior intelligence	3
Normal intelligence	14
Dull normal	9
Border-line	11
Feeble-minded	13

The investigator added the following remarks :

Pleasant and co-operative	6
Quiet and refined	4
Refined	1
Easy and self-assured	2
Self-assured and attractive	1
Co-operative	1
Lazy or easily discouraged	3
Nervous or lacking in self-confidence	5
Given to worry	3
Apathetic or very slow	6
Headstrong, argumentative	1
Restless, talkative, hostile	1
Talkative, irritable	1
Careless, indifferent	1
Irresponsible	1
Embittered	1
Introverted	2
Unco-operative and sullen	1
Weak	1
Self-pitying	2
No information	6

Father's Occupation.

Skilled and unskilled workers	20
Farmers	4
Shopkeepers	4
Contractors	2
Mill-owner	1
Owner of mattress business	1
Real estate salesman	1
Clerks	2
Head of weather bureau	1
Jewellery appraiser	1
Chauffeur	1
Sailor	1

Policeman	1
Pianist, singer	2
Waiter	1
Clergymen	2
Baptist preacher	1
No information	5

22 of the mothers also worked outside their homes after marriage.

Home Conditions.

Brought up by strangers	3
Brought up by relatives	7
At home : one parent	23
At home : both parents	17
Very good home	3
Good treatment	24
Family quarrels.....	3
Parents too strict	9
Poor treatment	4
Lack of discipline	1
Unhappy home	2
Poverty.....	3
Unkind treatment	1

9 of the fathers were said to drink to excess.

Altogether, 8 of the women seem to have had good homes and to have been brought up by both parents. There were 14 families with 6 or more children. The average number of children was 4.3.

Education.

Elementary education only	29
Secondary education	16
Professional training.....	5

School-leaving Age.

(Compulsory school attendance is up to 14 in some States, to 16 or 18 in others.)

Age	Number	Age	Number
10	1	16.....	7
12	4	17.....	7
13	9	18.....	3
14	11	19.....	2
15	6		

Age on leaving Home.

Age	Number	Age	Number
13	3	18.....	7
14	2	19.....	3
15	8	20.....	4
16	9	21 or over	7
17	7		
Left to work			16
Marriage			15
Ran away			8
On parents' death			4
Sent to a reformatory			1
Sent to boarding-school			1
Ran away with a lover			1

First Employment.

Domestic servants	19
In factories or workshops	8
Waitresses	7
Laundresses.....	3
Actresses	2
Clerks	3
Masseuse	1
Shop-assistants	2
Governess	1
Never worked	4

Age when began working.

Age	Number	Age	Number
10	1	16.....	3
12	3	17.....	5
13	3	18.....	5
14	5	19.....	2
15	9	20 or over	8

Never worked, 4.

No information, 2.

16 worked very irregularly or changed their positions frequently.

Age at which the Women had their First Sexual Experience.

Age	Number	Age	Number
12	1	18.....	8
13	2	19.....	3
14	5	20.....	2
16	6	21.....	2
17	9	22.....	1

No information, 3.

Age on taking to Prostitution.

Age	Number	Age	Number
15	2	25.....	3
16	2	26.....	3
17	2	27.....	2
18	4	28.....	2
19	3	29.....	2
20	3	30.....	2
21	6	31.....	1
22	3	32.....	2
23	3	34.....	1
24	3		

Immediate Cause of Prostitution.

Poverty.....	21
Illness or physical weakness	2
Influence of friends	8
Wanted "easy money"	4
Wanted money for clothes and luxuries	4
Wanted money for drugs.....	3
Tired of work	2
Did it for the novelty.....	1
No information	5

Employment at the Time.

Employed	9
In casual work	6
Had given up their jobs.....	2
Unemployed	29
Never worked	4

Age on First Conviction.

Under 21.....	11	31 to 35.....	5
21 to 25	18	Over 35	1
26 to 30	15		
One conviction	8		
Two convictions	14		
Three to five convictions	23		
Six to ten convictions.....	5		

Social Service Assistance.

42 were not offered assistance on their first conviction; 1 was assisted by the House of the Good Shepherd; 1 by a parole officer; 6 by a Social Service Bureau; 11 were offered assistance at a subsequent conviction.

FRANCE

356 case-sheets from the following sources :

Meurthe-et-Moselle : 50 medico-social enquiries, selected from 2,950 files, conducted by Dr. Benech, Director of the Municipal Medical and Public Health Office, Nancy; *Hérault* : 70 enquiries made among prostitutes at Montpellier, Beziers and Sète by the Hérault Public Health Department (Director: Dr. Scherb); *Var* : 22 enquiries made at Toulon by the Commissioner of Police, Head of the Criminal Investigation Department; 2 enquiries made at Draguignan by the Commissioner of Police; 8 enquiries made at St. Raphael by the Commissioner of Police; *Loire* : 22 enquiries conducted by the Head of the Criminal Investigation Department, St. Etienne; *Loiret* : 7 enquiries conducted by the Loiret Departmental Inspectors' Office (Inspector Dr. Levy); *Loire-Inférieure* : 15 enquiries made by the Head of the Criminal Investigation Department, Nantes; *Alpes-Maritimes* : 75 enquiries conducted by Dr. Bonnet, Director of the District Anti-Venereal Clinic, Nice; *Isère* : 12 enquiries conducted by the Social Welfare Worker of the Anti-Venereal Clinic, Grenoble; *Paris* : 50 enquiries conducted by the Police Prefecture; *Lyons* : 23 enquiries conducted by Dr. Carle, Director of the Public Health Inspection Department.

Age.

Under 21.....	26	31 to 35.....	40
21 to 25	147	36 to 40.....	17
26 to 30	104	Over 40	12

Nationality.

All but 1 of French nationality.

Civil Status.

236 single, 69 married (including 4 widowed, 19 divorced, 31 separated).

Legitimacy.

15 illegitimate, 256 legitimate. In 85 cases, there was no information.

Mental Level.

Superior intelligence	13
Normal intelligence	263
Border-line	49
Abnormal.....	31

The investigators added remarks describing some of the women. They were : unbalanced (5), headstrong, unruly (4), lazy (4), weak (2), untruthful (2), no maternal feelings (2), no memory of affection (1), impatient of restraint (1).

Home Conditions.

Good	117	Very bad	7
Very good	11	Fair	66
Bad	93	No information	62

Education.

Elementary education	313
Post primary	4
Secondary education	13
University	1
Professional training.....	2
No information	23

School-leaving Age.

(Compulsory school attendance, 6 to 13; part-time, 13 to 18.)

Age	Number	Age	Number
8	2	15.....	24
9	2	16.....	10
10	14	17.....	14
11	19	18.....	9
12	58	20.....	1
13	141	21.....	2
14	38		

For 22, there was no information.

Age on leaving Home.

Age	Number	Age	Number
7	1	17.....	39
8	1	18.....	50
9	1	19.....	29
10	3	20.....	41
11	2	21 to 25.....	58
12	4	26 to 28.....	6
13	10	Never left	6
14	22	Orphans	3
15	24	No information	15
16	32		

First Employment.

Domestic servants	75
In factories or workshops	71
Waitresses	13
Laundresses.....	9
Actresses, dancers, etc.	2
Clerks	20
Nurses or hospital assistants	7
In dressmaking, sewing or millinery	44
Shop-assistants	30
Hairdressers or manicurists.....	11
Farm workers	22
Governess	1
Hawker	1
Air-pilot	1
At home	12
Never worked	25
No information	10

Age on taking to Prostitution.

Age	Number	Age	Number
15	1	23.....	9
16	3	24.....	4
17	1	25.....	5
18	13	26.....	6
19	6	27.....	3
20	7	28.....	5
21	20	31.....	1
22	23	32.....	1

No information in 247 cases.

Employment at the Time.

Domestic servants	39
In factories or workshops	23
Waitresses	17
Laundresses.....	2
Actresses, dancers, etc.	3
Clerks, typists	8
Nurses or hospital assistants	3
Shop-assistants	8
In dressmaking, millinery or sewing	10

Hairdressers or manicurists.....	5
“ Entraineuses ”	6
Various or unspecified	13
At home or keeping house	16
Had given up their jobs.....	15
Never worked	24
Unemployed	118
No information	45

Age at First Conviction.

Under 21.....	33	31 to 35.....	4
21 to 25	44	No information	15
26 to 30	13		

247 had never been convicted.

Social Service Assistance.

70 women were offered assistance at their first conviction, 50 by the social service assistant attached to the police prefecture, 20 by other welfare agencies.

INDIA

Bengal.

50 life histories of prostitutes living in better-class and lower-class brothels in Calcutta.

Age.

Under 21.....	2	36 to 40.....	1
21 to 25	10	Over 40	2
26 to 30	9	No information	28
31 to 35	0		

Nationality.

All appear to have been Indian.

Civil Status.

6 single, 44 married (none of the married women were living with their husbands; 22 were widows, 9 had left their husbands because of ill-treatment, 2 had been enticed away, 4 were turned out, 7 left their husbands).

Marriage Age.

Age	Number	Age	Number
3	1	11.....	1
5	2	12.....	1
6	2	13.....	4
7	7	14.....	1
8	3	15.....	1
9	5	16.....	1
10	3		

12 were said to have been married in childhood.

Legitimacy.

25 apparently legitimate, 2 illegitimate. For the rest, there was no information; a few of these were the daughters of prostitutes.

Mental Level.

Only given in a few cases.

Father's Occupation.

Cultivators	2	Clerks	2
Skilled workman ...	1	Actor	1
Tradesmen	4		

In addition, 3 women were said to come from middle-class families, 2 from respectable families, 1 from a lower middle-class family and 2 from poor families.

Home Conditions.

4 became orphans while very young, 1 lost her mother and 1 her father while she was still a child. No information is given in the other cases.

Education.

Elementary education.....	10	(only 1 was at school for 4 years or more).
No school education	40	

School-leaving Age.

Age	Number	Age	Number
6	2	10.....	1
7	5	11.....	1
9	1		

Age on leaving Home.

Age	Number	Age	Number
4	1	11.....	2
5	1	13.....	3
6	1	14.....	1
7	6	15.....	1
8	1	17.....	1
9	5	18.....	2
10	3		

Never left, 2; no information, 20.

First Employment.

Domestic servants	11
Dancer and musician	1
Worked at home	38

Immediate Cause of Prostitution.

8 women seem to have become prostitutes through the influence of prostitutes or procurers; 5 were induced to prostitute themselves by *souteneurs*; 6 were said to have become prostitutes because they were left widows and had no means of support; 5, because they were abandoned by their lovers; 7, because they could earn a living in no other way; 1, because she was turned out by her husband; 3, because their mothers were prostitutes; 4, because they wanted to have a free life; 2, because the life attracted them. In 8 cases, there was no information.

Convictions.

No convictions are mentioned. 25 women said they had never been convicted.

Social Service Assistance.

None of the women is said to have received assistance. 23 said they had never received or been offered assistance.

Bombay.

50 statements recorded by the Bombay City Police.

Age.

Under 21.....	4	31 to 35.....	11
21 to 25	16	36 to 40.....	2
26 to 30	13	Over 40.....	4

Nationality.

1 Anglo-Indian, 49 Indian.

Civil Status.

23 were single, 25 married (including 16 widowed). For 2, there was no information.

Marriage Age.

Age	Number	Age	Number
6	2	11	2
8	2	13	1
9	2	14	1
10	5	15	1

6 were said to have been married very young. For 3, there was no information.

Legitimacy.

2 were said to be illegitimate, several others were the daughters of prostitutes.

Mental Level.

Superior intelligence	3
Normal intelligence	46
Border-line	1

Father's Occupation.

Cultivators	6	Coachman	1
Factory workers	2	Bandsman	1
Tradesmen	3	Police N.C.O.	1
Manservant	1	No information	15

Home Conditions.

Brought up by relatives	4
Brought up by one parent	7
Home very poor	6
Ill-treated by husband	2
Deserted by parents	1
Parents died when she was 7	1
Kidnapped	1
Mother a prostitute	2
Brought up by a prostitute	1
Dedicated to a god	9
No information	27

Education.

9 had been at school. 1 said she had been to a primary school, 1 said she had studied up to Standard I, 1 up to Standard II, 1 up to Standard III, 2 up to Standard IV, 2 up to Standard V, 1 up to Standard VI.

School-leaving Age.

Age	Number	Age	Number
10	2	16.....	1
11	1	17.....	1
12	3		
No information, 1.			

Age on leaving Home.

Age	Number	Age	Number
13	3	19.....	2
14	3	20.....	8
15	9	21.....	1
16	7	24.....	1
17	8	25.....	1
18	6		
No home, 1.			

First Employment.

Domestic servants ..	7	Hawker	1
Labourers	2	Dancer	1
Cultivators	3	Beggar	1
Mill-hand	1		

Immediate Cause of Prostitution.

Influence of prostitutes and procurers	14
Left a widow, no means of support	8
Own inclination	1
Destitution	5
<i>Souteneurs</i>	6
Abandoned by lovers	3
Brought up by prostitutes	4
No information	9

(Poverty is mentioned in a great many cases as a contributory cause.)

Age on First Conviction.

Under 21.....	0	31 to 35.....	2
21 to 25	3	36 to 40.....	3
26 to 30	7	Over 40.....	1

4 had been convicted once more, 1 twice more.
34 had never been convicted.

Social Service Assistance.

4 had been detained in a rescue home; 2 had been offered assistance but had refused it.

United Provinces.

38 case-sheets, origin unknown.

Age.

Under 21.....	12	31 to 35.....	3
21 to 25	14	No information	1
26 to 30	8		

Nationality.

All were Indian.

Civil Status.

21 single, 16 married (including 8 widowed, 1 divorced, 4 living apart from their husbands), 1 no information.

Marriage Age.

Age	Number	Age	Number
8	2	14.....	1
10	1	16.....	1
11	2		

1 was said to have been married young. For 8, there was no information.

Legitimacy.

10 were said to be illegitimate. The others appear to have been legitimate.

Mental Level.

16 were said to be normal, 1 certifiable; for the rest, there was no information.

Home Conditions.

Immoral environment	1
Mother a prostitute	7
Professional prostitute from childhood	3
Poor but respectable family	3
Respectable family	1
Poor family; left an orphan	1
Kidnapped	2
No information	20

Education.

Elementary education, 2 (1 other was said to have been to school); no school education, 35.

School-leaving Age.

1 left at 9, 1 at 11.

Age on leaving Home.

This is only given in 3 or 4 cases.

First Employment.

Domestic service....	3	Said to have worked.	1
Labourer	1	Never employed ...	33

Age at which the Women had their First Sexual Experience.

The reply states that the women are usually between 13 and 14 when they have their first sexual experience; and that with the daughters of dancing girls and prostitutes, the age of 14 is fixed for the first sexual experience.

Age on taking to Prostitution.

Age	Number	Age	Number
14	4	16	1
15	2	22	1

For the rest there was no information.

The reply states that the women are usually between 14 and 16 when they become prostitutes.

Immediate Cause of Prostitution.

Brought up to the profession	13
Influence of prostitutes	1
Desire to be independent	1

Own inclination	5
Deserted by lover	4
To keep her husband	1
Left widows; poverty.....	4
Husband ill-treated her	1
No information	8

Convictions.

Only 2 women were said to have been convicted—1 at 23, 1 at 24.

Social Service Assistance.

None of the women appear to have received any assistance.

Madras.

The reply stated that the information asked for in the questionnaire had not been furnished because there was no agency in the Presidency through which it could be obtained. Information gained by the police pointed to the following ways in which women start a life of prostitution :

(a) Early marriage which results in failure, leads the girl to find a paramour and this often results in a succession of changes;

(b) Domestic unhappiness forces girls to find keepers; and

(c) Parents introduce their daughters to prostitution with a view to profit by their earnings.

In a later reply, the Government stated that there was no indication that the economic depression had affected the incidence of prostitution.

Punjab.

The reply states that the Government did not have sufficient time to undertake an extensive enquiry. 3 case-sheets were enclosed but, in accordance with the principle laid down in the introduction, these have not been used.

Central Provinces.

The reply states that no information is given because the circumstances stated do not exist. In a later reply, the majority of prostitutes were said to be drawn from the lower and depressed classes.

Assam.

No detailed particulars can be given in the time available. It is believed that almost everywhere the majority of prostitutes come from the lower strata of society—*i.e.*, from low castes. Such women have no employment and their home environment is of a low order. It is usual to deny the fact of prostitution. The usual causes can be summed up as follows :

- (a) Poverty;
- (b) Cruelty or oppression which drives them from their homes;
- (c) Absence of a custom allowing remarriage of widows.

In a later reply, it was stated that a large proportion of prostitutes were such by heredity, and for this reason the type of prostitute had been little affected by the economic crisis.

Bihar and Orissa.

Details of 1 case were sent. These have not been used (see above, Punjab).

Goorg.

The reply states that as there are no prostitutes in the province, the information required cannot be furnished.

Delhi.

The reply states that it is regretted that no information is available.

North-West Frontier Province.

The reply states that no such enquiry could usefully be conducted in the Province.

Sind.

The reply states that prostitutes are generally recruited from families which have adopted this profession for generations. Some prostitutes are recruited from the lower and destitute classes.

Burma.

The reply states that practically all prostitutes are uneducated except Anglo-Indians, and that most have been introduced to prostitution by *souteneurs* who lead them astray by promises of

marriage, etc. A number begin life as domestic servants, for which work they receive little or no pay and prostitute themselves in order to earn some money. The mental condition of the majority is below normal.

ITALY

50 case-sheets; origin unknown.

Age.

21 to 25	12	36 to 40.....	9
26 to 30	14	Over 40	5
31 to 35	10		

Nationality.

All the women were Italian.

Civil Status.

38 single, 12 married (including 1 widowed, 9 separated).

Legitimacy.

No information.

Mental Level.

Normal intelligence	9
Limited intelligence	40
Abnormal.....	1

Father's Occupation.

Peasant farmers.....	10
Skilled and unskilled workmen	21
Tradesmen	2
Clerks	4
No information	13

Home Conditions.

Brought up by relatives	1
Brought up in an institute.....	1
At home : with one parent	3
Good home	28
Family quarrels.....	4
Immorality	3
Father alcoholic	3
Ignorance	1

Father or mother in lunatic asylum	2
Brought up in an institute.....	1
No information	28

3 had very poor homes.

Education.

Elementary education only	37
Secondary education	1
Professional training.....	1
Never attended school	11

School-leaving Age.

(Compulsory school attendance for 8 years.)

Age	Number	Age	Number
7	1	12.....	6
8	8	13.....	5
9	4	15.....	3
10.....	6	16.....	1
11.....	4	18.....	1

Age on leaving Home.

Age	Number	Age	Number
13	1	19.....	6
15	2	20.....	3
16	9	21 to 25.....	12
17	3	26 to 30.....	3
18	11		

First Employment.

Domestic servants	5
In factories and workshops	9
Waitresses	3
Laundresses.....	10
Shop-assistants	2
In dressmaking, millinery or sewing	4
Tramway conductor	1
Charcoal burner	1
Barrister	1
Type-setter	1
Never worked	13

Employment on taking to Prostitution.

Employed	1
Unemployed	36
Never worked	13

Age at First Conviction.

Under 21.....	21	1 conviction	3
21 to 25	10	5 convictions	7
26 to 30	6	15 convictions	22
30 to 35	6	More than 15	11
Never convicted	7		

Social Service Assistance.

11 had been offered assistance at their first conviction.
All had been sent to institutions.

JAPAN

The Japanese reply gave the results of an enquiry undertaken in 1933. It showed that of 651 prostitutes, 46 had previously been geishas, 281 had been barmaids, 87 domestic servants, 71 farm servants, 68 waitresses, 47 factory workers and 51 had had miscellaneous occupations.

POLAND

100 case-sheets sent on behalf of the Polish Government by the National Committee for the Suppression of Traffic in Women and Children. The information was supplied by homes and institutions (30 cases), station missions (13 cases), the National Committee itself (6 cases), a child welfare society (1 case) and the women police (50 cases).

Age.

Under 21.....	10	31 to 35.....	9
21 to 25	48	36 to 40.....	4
26 to 30	27	Over 40.....	2

Nationality.

95 were Polish, 5 Jewish.

Civil Status.

91 were single, 9 married (including 1 widowed, 4 divorced, 4 separated).

Legitimacy.

93 were legitimate, 7 illegitimate.

Mental Level.

Superior intelligence	19
Normal intelligence	52
Below normal	2
Limited intelligence	23
Abnormal.....	2

Venereal Disease.

47 out of 50 women had had venereal disease. In 50 cases, the question was not asked. Of the 47, 4 had contracted the disease before becoming prostitutes; 39 within a year of becoming prostitutes; 2 more within 2 years; 2 more within 3 years.

Father's Occupation.

Skilled and unskilled workers	46
Small-holders	4
Civil servants	3
Steward	1
House agent	1
Sailor	1
Landowner	1
Merchant	1
Factory manager	1
Educated classes	5
No information	35

Home Conditions.

The first 50 case-sheets give only the father's occupation and state that 7 of the women were orphans. In the second 50, the home conditions are described as follows :

- Brought up by strangers, relatives or in an institution, 11;
- Brought up at home, with one parent, 16.

1 girl had lost both parents when she was 16, another when she was 18; in 8 cases, the home was said to be poor. In 14 cases, neither poverty nor the death of parents was mentioned.

Education.

Elementary education only	77
Secondary education	7
Professional training.....	5
Educated at home.....	1

School-leaving Age.

(Compulsory school attendance, 7 to 14.)

Age	Number	Age	Number
12	2	16.....	12
13	24	17.....	2
14	42	18.....	1
15	14	22.....	1

No information, 1.

Age on leaving Home.

(These include the ages at which the children were sent to institutions.)

Age	Number	Age	Number
1 ¹ / ₂	1	14.....	6
5	2	15.....	10
6	2	16.....	15
7	2	17.....	8
8	3	18.....	14
9	1	19.....	8
12	1	20.....	5
13	1	Over 20	6

Never left, 3; no information, 12.

Left to work	14
Death of parents	5
Ran away	6
Family quarrels.....	1
Marriage	1
Turned out because she was a prostitute.....	1
Because she was pregnant	1
No information	71

First Employment.

Domestic servants	39
In factories	3
Waitresses	8
Laundress	1
Actresses, dancers, etc.	2
Clerk	1
Shop-assistants	12

Teachers or governesses	2
In dressmaking, millinery or sewing	8
Workers	9
Home worker	1
Never worked	13

17 said they changed their position frequently; 38 said they did not. For 32, there was no information.

Age on taking to Prostitution (approximate).

Age	Number	Age	Number
15	3	22.....	3
16	4	23.....	4
17	5	24.....	7
18	4	27.....	1
19	8	28.....	1
20	6	36.....	1
21	3		

Employment at the Time.

Employed	19
Unemployed	75
No information	6

Age at First Conviction.

Under 21.....	14	26 to 30.....	1
21 to 25	9	Never convicted....	73

2 were convicted at 15, 2 at 16, 2 at 17, 2 at 18.

3 had only been convicted once; 9 more than once but less than 5 times, 3 more than 5 times. 6 said they had been convicted "often" or "very often", 3 had no recollection how many times they had been convicted. For 3, there was no information.

Social Service Assistance.

16 women had been offered help at one time or another; 2 of them refused it. The help was given partly by public offices, more often by private associations.

ROUMANIA

30 case-sheets sent by the Roumanian delegate on the Advisory Committee on Social Questions. The information was collected at a municipal venereal disease clinic.

Age.

Under 21.....	10	31 to 35.....	2
21 to 25	12	36 to 40.....	2
26 to 30	4		

Nationality.

15 were Roumanian, 5 of Russian origin, 2 were Jewish, 2 Hungarian; the nationality of 6 was not stated.

Civil Status.

18 were single, 6 married (including 5 divorced).
In 6 cases there was no information.

Legitimacy.

6 were legitimate, 12 illegitimate. For 12, there was no information.

Mental Level.

Normal intelligence, 30.

Home Conditions.

1 girl was said to have been brought up in an orphanage. Apart from this, no information is given on home conditions.

Education.

Elementary education only	16
Secondary education	5
Professional training.....	2
Illiterate	7

School-leaving Age.

(School attendance compulsory for 7 years.)

Age	Number	Age	Number
9	3	14.....	1
10	1	15.....	2
11	1	17.....	2
12	10		

No information, 3.

Age on leaving Home.

Age	Number	Age	Number
14	2	20.....	1
15	2	21.....	2
16	4	22.....	2
17	3	23.....	1
18	5	28.....	1
19	4	35.....	1

No information, 2.

First Employment.

Domestic servants	5
In factories or workshops	6
Clerical work	2
Shop-assistant	1
Kept house	8
Worked with parents	5
Never worked	1
No information	2

Convictions.

The reply states that in Roumania prostitution is not a punishable offence.

Social Service Assistance.

The reply states that 12 of the women had been interned in a hospital for venereal disease (5 once, 5 twice, 2 four times); 14 were never interned; in 4 cases, there is no information; 2 women were said never to have received assistance; 1 was said to have been assisted without result.

In addition, the Roumanian Government's report contains the following general observations :

Usually prostitutes have only attended a primary school. Very few are met with who have attended secondary or occupational training schools. They are women who have left school between the ages of 11 and 14.

Their first employment is apprenticeship or domestic service. These women have generally left their families at the age of 18. The family circumstances are of a low standard, the parents being poor and in most cases illiterate.

Roumanian law provides no punishment for prostitution. If the prostitute is under age, she is confined in the Women Prostitutes' Home belonging to the Health Ministry.

In most cases, the woman's mental development is below normal. Mental defectives are frequently met with, but no case has ever been observed of a woman of superior intelligence.

TURKEY

50 case-sheets from Ankara, 50 from Istanbul and 50 from Izmir. The replies from Ankara and Izmir bear the stamp of an Anti-Venereal Commission.

Age (Ankara only).

Under 21.....	0	31 to 35.....	14
21 to 25	13	36 to 40.....	2
26 to 30	21		

Nationality (Ankara only).

All were Turkish.

Civil Status (Ankara only).

35 single, 15 married (all divorced).

Legitimacy (Ankara only).

15 legitimate, 35 illegitimate.

Mental Level (Ankara only).

Dull normal..... 46 Below normal 4

Venereal Disease.

118 had had venereal disease; 32 had not.

92 had been infected after they became prostitutes, 5 before. There was no information for 21 cases.

The Istanbul case-sheets state that 17 women contracted venereal disease within 1 year of becoming prostitutes, 22 more within 2 years, 3 more within 3 years, 4 more within 4 years; all within 6 years.

The Ankara case-sheets state that 18 women had had both syphilis and gonorrhoea, 2 syphilis alone, and 27 gonorrhoea alone.

Home Conditions (Ankara and Izmir).

47 women in the Izmir list were said to come from poor homes; for 3, there was no information.

45 women in the Ankara list were said to come of respectable families; 4, of immoral families.

Education (Ankara only).

Elementary education only	15
Secondary education	2
No education	33

School-leaving Age (Ankara only).

(Compulsory school attendance, 7 to 15.)

Age	Number	Age	Number
12	2	14.....	3
13	3	15.....	3

No information, 4.

Age on leaving Home (Ankara only).

Age	Number	Age	Number
4	2	14.....	5
5	1	15.....	6
8	2	16.....	3
10	1	17.....	1
11	1	18.....	2
12	1	19.....	2
13	4	20.....	1

Never left, 3; no information, 1.

Main Employment.

Domestic servants	61
In factories or workshops	11
Actresses or dancers	2
In dressmaking, millinery or sewing	1
Clerk	1
Nurses or hospital assistants	3
At home or never worked	71

Age at which the Women had their First Sexual Experience.

Age	Number	Age	Number
10	1	20.....	25
11	1	21.....	5
12	7	22.....	9
13	10	23.....	7
14	10	24.....	1
15	16	25.....	4
17	4	27.....	1
18	18	30.....	1
19	12		

No information, 18.

15 said they had had their first sexual experience on marriage; 3 others of their own accord; 15 said they had been seduced; 3 said they had been raped.

Age on taking to Prostitution (Ankara only).

Age	Number	Age	Number
12	1	20.....	4
13	2	21.....	13
14	2	22.....	5
15	2	23.....	2
16	2	24.....	1
17	7	25.....	1
18	3	27.....	1
19	2	28.....	2

No information, 1.

Immediate Cause of Prostitution (Ankara only).

3 were said to have been seduced, 6 had been induced to become prostitutes by others, 1 had been seduced and turned out by her family, 4 were kidnapped, 1 became a prostitute because of poverty.

Convictions (Ankara only).

9 had been convicted, 41 were never convicted.

The convictions were for using insulting language to the police (4), for forgery (1), for disorderly behaviour in a brothel (1), for not having paid the rent of a brothel (1), and for having failed to attend the medical examination (2).

Social Service Assistance (Ankara only).

None of the women were said to have received any assistance.

URUGUAY

54 case-sheets taken from the register of prostitutes.

Age.

No information.

Nationality.

50 were Uruguayan. For 4, there was no information.

Civil Status.

49 were single, 5 married (including 1 widowed, 2 divorced).

Legitimacy.

No information.

Mental Level.

Normal intelligence	51
Feeble-minded	3

Home Conditions.

The information given only refers to material conditions.

Poor	38	Well-to-do	8
Modest	2	Wealthy	2
Not poor	1		

Education.

Public school	36
Religious school	1
No education	17

School-leaving Age.

(Compulsory school attendance, 6 to 14.)

Age	Number	Age	Number
7	2	13	5
8	2	14	2
10	2	15	3
11	8	16	2
12	9	18	1

No information, 1; no education, 17.

Age on leaving Home.

Age	Number	Age	Number
11	1	19	5
12	3	20	6
13	1	21	1
14	4	22	3
15	7	23	1
16	2	24	2
17	4	25	1
18	8		

Never left, 2; no information, 3.

Main Employment.

Domestic service.....	25
In factories or workshops	8
Laundresses.....	2
In dressmaking, millinery or sewing	3
Farm worker	1
In a laboratory	1
Never worked	13
No information	1

None are said to have been employed when they became prostitutes.

Age when first arrested.

Under 21.....	22	Over 30.....	1
21 to 25	17	Never arrested	7
26 to 30	3	No information	4

4 were said to have been arrested 10 times; 4, 20 times; 13, from 20 to 50 times; and 1, 200 times. For the rest, there is no information.

Social Service Assistance.

16 women had at one time or another been interned in Good Shepherd Homes; 9 of these had been interned for more than a year. Asked whether anyone had urged them not to become prostitutes, 31 said no one. Of the others, 13 mentioned parents or relatives; 6, their friends; 2, the Good Shepherd; 1, her employer; and 1, her lover.

From Voluntary Associations:

**INTERNATIONAL BUREAU FOR THE SUPPRESSION OF TRAFFIC
IN WOMEN AND CHILDREN**

DANZIG

18 case-sheets collected by the Danzig Committee for the Suppression of Traffic in Women and Children. The information was obtained from the women themselves, from police files and from the records of social welfare organisations.

Age.

21 to 25	4	36 to 40.....	6
26 to 30	1	Over 40	2
31 to 35	5		

Nationality.

All were citizens of Danzig.

Civil Status.

16 were single, 2 married (including 1 divorced, 1 living apart from her husband).

Legitimacy

3 illegitimate, 15 legitimate.

Mental Level.

Normal intelligence	9
Below normal	1
Border-line	2
Limited intelligence	5
Feeble-minded	1

Home Conditions.

Brought up in an institution	2
Brought up by strangers	1
At home, with one parent	7
Good home	1
Respectable home	7
Family quarrels.....	1
Father lazy, great poverty	1
Mother said to be immoral	1
Mother formerly a prostitute	1

In 4 cases, the home conditions are not said to have been bad or defective.

Education.

Elementary education only	17
Secondary education	1

(1 girl attended a school for backward children.)

School-leaving Age.

(Compulsory school attendance up to 14.)

Age	Number	Age	Number
13	2	15.....	1
14	15		

Age on leaving Home.

Age	Number	Age	Number
14	1	18.....	1
15	2	19.....	2
16	1	21 to 25	4
17	1		

Never left, 1; no information, 3.

First Employment.

Domestic servants	7
In factories or workshops	4
Shop-assistants	2
In dressmaking or sewing	2
Farm workers	2

Employment on taking to Prostitution.

Employed	5
Unemployed	6
Had given up their jobs.....	2
No information	5

Age at First Conviction.

Under 21	5	26 to 30.....	3
21 to 25	5	31 to 35.....	1

Never convicted, 1; no information, 3.

1 had only been convicted once, 1 had been convicted 4 times.

The remainder had had from 15 to 197 convictions.

Social Service Assistance.

13 had been offered assistance (by the Home Mission, refuges and welfare homes); in 1 case, assistance was not necessary; 5 had not been offered assistance.

HUNGARY

47 case-sheets supplied by the secretary of the Hungarian branch of the International Bureau. (A great many case-sheets were sent, some referring to women interviewed in 1915; only those dated 1933-1935 have been included in the report.)

Age.

Under 21	1	31 to 35.....	2
21 to 25	17	36 to 40.....	1
26 to 30	21	Over 40	1

Nationality.

No information.

Civil Status.

38 were single, 8 married (1 widowed, 7 divorced); for 1, there is no information.

Legitimacy.

2 were said to be illegitimate. In the other cases, there was no information.

Mental Level.

No information. The case-sheets only contained remarks on the women's characters. They were as follows: lazy (11), hates work (4), frivolous (7), cynical (2), untruthful (3), embittered (1), fond of luxury (1), cares for nobody (3), has a bad character (1). For 17, there was no information.

Venereal Disease.

13 said they had had venereal disease.

Home Conditions.

Brought up in an institution	3
Brought up by strangers	2
Brought up by relatives	7
At home with one parent	15
At home with both parents	16
Good home	4
Unkind treatment	2
Neglect.....	10
Family quarrels.....	1
Father alcoholic	1
Father immoral	1
Poverty.....	4
Institutions	3
No information	21

There were 7 families with 6 or more children; the average number of children was 3.2.

Education.

Elementary education only	42
Secondary education	2
Professional training.....	1
No education.....	2

School-leaving Age.

No information.

Age on leaving Home.

Age	Number	Age	Number
7	1	17.....	5
8	1	18.....	2
9	1	19.....	1
12	7	20.....	1
14	2	22.....	1
16	8		

3 were brought up in institutions. No information, 14.

Main Employment.

Domestic servants	19
In factories or workshops	4
Waitresses	4
Clerk	1
Shop-assistants	2
In dressmaking, millinery or sewing	1
Farm workers	1
Never worked	10
No information	2

2 are said to have changed their positions frequently.

Age at which the Women had their First Sexual Experience.

Age	Number	Age	Number
13	2	19.....	2
14	8	20.....	3
15	6	21.....	1
16	11	23.....	1
17	8	24.....	1
18	3		

No information, 1.

Immediate Cause of Prostitution.

9 said they became prostitutes to have an easy life without work; 9 said, because of bad company; 4, because their wages were too low; 4, to earn enough to keep their children; 4, because of unemployment; 3, because they liked the life; 2, because of neglect in adolescence; 1, because she was discontented with her work; 1, because she never learnt to work; 1, because she was

fond of luxury; 1, because of ill-health; 1, because her eyes got too weak to sew; 1, to earn more money; 1, because she wanted to get back to Budapest. For 5, there was no information.

Convictions.

No information.

Social Service Assistance.

It is not stated whether assistance was offered at the first conviction. At the time when the particulars were collected, nearly all the women seem to have been offered work; a few were offered shelter in a home.

SWITZERLAND

41 case-sheets collected by the Swiss National Union for the Suppression of Traffic in Women and Children. Half the cases were taken from police files, half from the records of institutions. The reply adds that a number of the women cannot be considered as prostitutes in the true sense of the word.

Age.

Under 21	15	31 to 35.....	2
21 to 25	10	36 to 40.....	1
26 to 30	11	Over 40.....	2

Nationality.

35 were Swiss, 5 German, 1 Italian.

Civil Status.

32 were single, 9 married (including 6 divorced).

Legitimacy.

39 legitimate, 2 illegitimate.

Mental Level.

Superior intelligence	5
Normal intelligence	11
Limited intelligence	19
Feeble-minded	6

The investigators added remarks describing some of the women. They were : nervous (3), very reserved (2), deceitful (2), defiant (1), sly (1).

Home Conditions.

Brought up by relations.....	2
At home, with one parent	7
Good home conditions.....	10
Respectable	1
Fair.....	2
Family quarrels.....	2
Lack of discipline	1
Father or mother immoral	5
Parents alcoholic	1
Unfavourable home conditions	5
Great poverty	4
No information	10

Education.

Elementary education only	40
Professional training.....	1

School-leaving Age.

(Compulsory school attendance varies in each canton. It is usually from 6 or 7 to 14 or 15).

Age	Number	Age	Number
12	1	16.....	6
14	18	17.....	1
15	15		

Age on leaving Home.

Age	Number	Age	Number
12	2	17.....	8
13	1	18.....	6
14	5	19.....	1
15	5	21 to 30.....	4
16	4		

Never left, 4; no information, 1.

First Employment.

Domestic servants	12
In factories or workshops	9
Waitresses	3
Laundress	1
Dancer	1
Shop-assistants	3

In dressmaking, millinery or sewing	2
Hairdressing or manicure	1
At home	7
Never worked	2

11 were said to have changed their occupation frequently.

Employment on taking to Prostitution.

Domestic servants	10
In factories or workshops	2
Waitresses	9
Shop-assistants	4
Actresses, dancers, etc.	3
Hairdresser	1
Clerk	1
At home	4
No information	7

Age at First Conviction.

Under 21	16	26 to 30.....	9
21 to 25	4		

Never convicted, 10; no information, 2.

I was convicted at 13, 2 at 16, 5 at 17, 3 at 18.

Social Service Assistance.

21 were offered assistance at their first conviction, and 15 of these were sent to homes. I refused assistance.

JEWISH ASSOCIATION FOR THE PROTECTION OF GIRLS,
WOMEN AND CHILDREN

ARGENTINE REPUBLIC

25 case-sheets sent in the order in which they appeared in the records of the Buenos Aires Committee of the Jewish Association. They describe women assisted in the years 1930-1933.

Age.

Under 21	5	31 to 35.....	7
21 to 25	2	36 to 40.....	1
26 to 30	9	Over 40	1

Nationality.

All were Jewish. 2 were Argentinian, 20 Polish, 2 French, 1 of Russian origin.

Civil Status.

10 were single, 15 married.

Legitimacy.

No information.

Mental Level.

Normal intelligence	17
Below normal	2
Retarded	1
Mental depression	1
Physical and moral exhaustion	1
No information	3

Venereal Disease.

6 were said to have venereal disease. For the remainder, there was no information.

Home Conditions.

9 of the women were said to have been brought up in an immoral or abnormal atmosphere. 15 were said to have had a normal upbringing. 3 were left orphans at an early age. The case-sheets also give the following information on the economic situation in the women's homes :

Good	1	Poor.....	4
Comfortable	2	No information	3
Average	15		

Education.

15 were said to be literate, 10 illiterate.

First Employment.

The employment of only 5 was given. 1 was a domestic servant. 4 were in dressmaking, millinery or sewing.

Prostitution.

Of the foreign women, 2 said they had been prostitutes in their native country, 20 said they had not been. For 1, there was no

information. Asked at whose instigation they had adopted the profession, 9 mentioned traffickers, 4 their husband, 3 other relatives, 1 her lover; 5 said on their own initiative. For 3, there was no information.

The main causes of prostitution were classified by the Committee as follows :

Procurers and other agents of prostitution	14
Born inclination	4
Desire for luxury	1
Desire for money	1
Immoral education	1
Poverty.....	4

Convictions.

No information.

Social Service Assistance.

The reply states that outside certain private organisations there is no social service available for such women.

UNITED KINGDOM

19 case-sheets sent in the order in which they appeared in the records of the Jewish Association (London).

Age.

Under 21	1	26 to 30.....	6
21 to 25	11	31 to 35.....	1

Nationality.

All were British-born Jewesses.

Civil Status.

15 single, 4 married (including 1 separated).

Legitimacy.

All legitimate.

Mental Level.

Normal intelligence	13
Below normal	5
Mentally and morally defective	1

Home Conditions.

Good	3
Respectable	1
Lack of discipline or supervision	6
No family life	2
Parents unhappy	2
Low moral standard	1
Quarrels with parents or step-parents	2
Unkind treatment	1
Unknown	1

9 homes were said to be poor or very poor.

Education.

Elementary education only, 19.

School-leaving Age.

(Compulsory school attendance, 6 to 14.)

Age	Number	Age	Number
14	17	15	2

Age on leaving Home.

Age	Number	Age	Number
15	2	19	3
17	5	20	2
18	1	21 to 26	4

2 stayed at home till married.

First Employment.

Waitress	1
Shop-assistants	3
In dressmaking and tailoring	14
Never worked	1

9 said they changed their positions frequently, 5 said they did not. For 4, there was no information.

Employment on taking to Prostitution.

Employed	4
Unemployed	14
Never worked	1

Immediate Cause of Prostitution.

Aversion to work	6
Irregular employment	3

Desire to make more money	2
Unhappy home life	2
Ill-health and poverty	1
Dislike of routine work	1
Lack of parental control	1
Hypersexuality	1
Mental abnormality	1
Forced by husband to become a prostitute.....	1

Age at First Conviction.

Under 21	5	26 to 30.....	1
21 to 25	4		

Never convicted, 9.

6 were only convicted once; 3 were convicted twice; 1, three times.

Social Service Assistance.

The Jewish Association offered assistance to all the women except 2, who did not require it. 3 refused help.

INTERNATIONAL FEDERATION FOR AID TO YOUNG WOMEN

ROUMANIA

3 cases taken from the records of the Federation's Refugee Home for minors. 50 cases from police files.

Age.

Under 21	6	26 to 30.....	12
21 to 25	33	31 to 35.....	2

Nationality.

37 were Roumanian, 6 Hungarian, 5 Jewish, 2 of Russian origin, 1 Polish, 1 Ukrainian.

Civil Status.

No information.

Legitimacy.

47 legitimate, 6 illegitimate.

Mental Level.

Normal intelligence..	50	Abnormal	1
Limited	1	No information	1

Home Conditions.

The information given refers chiefly to the reasons for leaving home. It appears that 5 children were brought up by relatives, 3 by strangers, 1 in an orphanage. 1 is said to have had no home. 11 were brought up at home with one parent. In 1 case, both parents died when the child was 14. In 2 cases, the children were said to be on good terms with their family. In the remaining 19 cases, there was no information.

Education.

Elementary education only	27
Secondary education	3
Professional training.....	3
University education	1
Illiterate	18

1 was described as still a student at the age of 24.

School-leaving Age.

(School attendance compulsory for 7 years.)

Age	Number	Age	Number
8	1	15.....	7
9	1	16.....	2
10	7	17.....	1
12	11	18.....	1
13	1	21.....	1

Still studying, 1; no information, 1.

Age on leaving Home.

Age	Number	Age	Number
13	1	18.....	6
14	3	19.....	7
15	8	20.....	5
16	9	21.....	1
17	6	22.....	2

No home, 1; no information, 4.

Left to work	5
Death of parents	8
Mother's remarriage.....	2
Family quarrels.....	4
Unkind treatment	1
Quarrel with step-parents	3
Turned out	2

Ran away	2
Left with a lover.....	7
Poverty.....	4
Came to Bucharest as a student	1
Abandoned by foster-parent	1
Marriage	1
Brought up in an orphanage	1
No home	1
No information	10

First Employment.

Domestic servants	14
In factories or workshops	5
Waitress	1
Actress, dancer, etc.	1
Clerk	3
Nurse or hospital assistant	1
Shop-assistants	3
In dressmaking, millinery or sewing	2
Hairdresser or manicurist	1
Kept house at home	13
Never worked	8

Age on taking to Prostitution or when First registered as a Prostitute.

Age	Number	Age	Number
13	1	21.....	6
15	3	22.....	3
17	9	23.....	3
18	6	24.....	1
19	8	25.....	1
20	6	27.....	1

No information, 5.

Convictions.

No information. 22 of the women were said to be registered prostitutes. 18 had been sent to the hospital for venereal disease.

Social Service Assistance.

23 women had been offered help at one time or another by social service workers and by the Federation for Aid to Young Women; 3 refused help.

WOMEN'S INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

FRANCE

14 case-sheets from an institute of rehabilitation, 7 case-sheets sent from the French provinces.

Age.

Under 21	2	31 to 35.....	0
21 to 25	5	36 to 40.....	1
26 to 30	1	No information	12

Nationality.

3 were French, 1 German. For the rest, there was no information.

Civil Status.

3 were married; for the rest there was no information. (1 husband was serving a life sentence for murder.)

Legitimacy.

No information.

Mental Level.

Normal intelligence	2
Below normal	2
No information	17

1 was described as weak, 1 as unbalanced, 1 as alcoholic and morally indifferent.

Home Conditions.

Brought up in an institution	2
Foundling	1
Brought up at home : one parent	7
No family	2
Good family	1
Respectable family	3
Family quarrels.....	3
Child neglected	1
Parents immoral	3

Education.

Elementary education only	4
Professional training.....	1
Illiterate	4

1 was said to have had a good education, 2 to have had little education. For 9, there was no information.

School-leaving Age.

(Compulsory school attendance, 6 to 13; part time, 13 to 18.)

Age	Number	Age	Number
11	2	13.....	1
12	2	15.....	1

No information, 11.

First Employment.

Domestic servants	3
Clerk	1
Flower-girl	1
Occupation unknown	1
No information	15

3 were said to have changed their positions frequently.

Immediate Cause of Prostitution.

1 woman said she had been sent to a house of clandestine prostitution by an employment agency, 7 had been induced to prostitute themselves by *souteneurs*, 1 became a prostitute because of the failure of her marriage. In the other cases, there is no information.

Convictions.

5 had never been convicted, 2 had been convicted for soliciting and 6 for vagrancy (1 at 14, 3 at 16, 1 at 17).

Social Service Assistance.

14 had been in an institute for rehabilitation; 4 had been under the supervision of social service workers.

INDIA

499 out of 500 prostitutes have never been to school; they are almost all uneducated.

These women have generally become prostitutes because they were daughters of prostitutes, or because, owing to their being

unhappily married or unhappy in their own family, they ran away and began to drift as a result of difficult circumstances.

There were few convictions for soliciting; this is not practised openly in the streets to any great extent, but is increasing among the Anglo-Indians.

The mental level of these women is not generally very high, although in the majority of cases they cannot be said to be defective; they are simply neither developed nor educated. Sometimes, however, they are intelligent girls.

NORWAY

50 case-sheets.

Age.

21 to 25	15	36 to 40.....	6
26 to 30	15	Over 40	4
31 to 35	10		

Nationality.

No information.

Civil Status.

44 single, 5 married, 1 uncertain.

Legitimacy.

43 legitimate, 7 illegitimate.

Mental Level.

Normal intelligence	37
Below normal	1
Backward	1
Feeble-minded	1
No information	10

Health.

2 women were consumptive, 1 had bad health.

Father's Occupation.

Skilled and unskilled workers	16
Farmers	3
Tramway conductor	1
Concierge.....	1
Restaurant-keeper.....	1
Teacher	1

Non-commissioned officers	2
Small proprietors	4
No information	21

Home Conditions.

Brought up in an institution	3
Brought up by strangers or relatives	4
At home : one parent	14
No information	29

In 1 case, the mother was alcoholic, 1 home was very poor.
There were 10 families with 6 or more children.

Education.

Elementary education only	47
Secondary education	3

School-leaving Age.

(Compulsory school attendance in towns, 7 to 14; country districts, 8 to 15.)

Age	Number	Age	Number
10	1	15	11
11	4	16	7
12	7	17	1
13	12	19	1
14	6		

Age on leaving Home or Institution.

Age	Number	Age	Number
10	1	17	2
12	4	18	1
13	6	19	1
14	6	20	1
15	10	Over 21	1
16	8		

No information, 9

First Employment.

Domestic servants	27
In factories and workshops	3
Waitresses	10
Laundresses	2
Clerks	3
Shop-assistants and errand-girls	4
On a barge	1

Age on First Conviction.

Under 21	9	31 to 35.....	0
21 to 25	32	36 to 40.....	1
26 to 30	7	Over 40	1
1 conviction	17	3 to 5 convictions ..	7
2 convictions	9	6 to 10 convictions .	5

No information, 12.

3 had been convicted for theft, 1 for drunkenness.

Social Service Assistance.

31 had been offered assistance at the first conviction, the great majority by voluntary associations. 6 had refused help. 19 were not offered help.

NETHERLANDS

Information collected from Amsterdam police files. Part of the information refers to 1,600 women, part to 459 women, part to 123 women.

Age (1,600 women).

	%		%
Under 21	6.3	41 to 50.....	9.3
21 to 30	49.4	51 to 60.....	2.5
31 to 40	31.4	Over 60	0.5

Nationality (1,600 women).

	%		%
Dutch	82.7	Foreign	17.3

(The percentage of foreign women in Amsterdam is 2.7.)

35.5% were born in Amsterdam.

Civil Status (123 women).

	%	
Single	58.6	
Married	41.4	(including 30% living apart from their husbands).

Legitimacy.

No information.

Mental Level.

No information.

Home Conditions (123 women).

	%
Neglected by their parents	17.7
Neglected by step-parents	5.6
Immoral surroundings	8.1
Physical weaknesses	7.3
Parents alcoholic	10.5

Education (1,600 women).

All the women had been to elementary schools but very few had had higher education. Some had learnt a trade.

Age on leaving School and Home.

No information.

Employment (565 women).

Domestic servants	169
Day-workers	90
In factories or workshops	47
Waitresses	61
Dressmakers	57
Shop-assistants	18
Artists and dancers	17
No information	106

Reasons for taking to Prostitution.

The investigator considered that 1.6% became prostitutes to satisfy sexual needs. He considered that 15% became prostitutes as a result of the temptations of city life and that 85% came to the city for the purpose of prostitution.

Conviction and Social Service Assistance.

No information.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

26 case-sheets.

Age.

Under 21	1	31 to 35.....	1
21 to 25	14	36 to 40.....	2
26 to 30	8		

Nationality.

All were Czechoslovaks.

Civil Status.

24 single, 2 married (including 1 widowed).

Legitimacy.

22 were legitimate, 4 illegitimate.

Mental Level.

Normal intelligence	19
Limited intelligence	6
Feeble-minded	1

Home Conditions.

Brought up in institutions	1
Brought up by strangers or relatives	5
No family	1
At home : one parent	7
At home : both parents	4
Respectable home	2
Family quarrels.....	4
Unkind treatment	1
Poverty.....	1
Left an orphan at 13, 16	2
No information	16

Education.

Elementary only	22
Secondary (1 year)	1
Professional training.....	2
No information	1

School-leaving Age.

(Compulsory school attendance, 6 to 14.)

Age	Number	Age	Number
12	1	15.....	1
14	22		

No information, 2.

Age on leaving Home.

Age	Number	Age	Number
13	2	17.....	1
14	8	18.....	1
15	6	19.....	1
16	2	20.....	2

Never left, 1; no information, 2.

Left to work	15
Death of parents	3
Ran away	1
Sent to institutions	2
Family quarrels.....	1
Never left	1
No information	3

First Employment.

Domestic servants	14
In factories or workshops	2
Laundry	1
Shop-assistants	3
In dressmaking, millinery or sewing	2
Never worked	3
No information	1

7 were said to have changed their positions frequently.

Age on First Conviction.

The case-sheets state that prostitution is not an offence in Czechoslovakia. 1 woman had been arrested for prostitution under former regulations, 3 had been convicted of theft, 2 had been arrested for engaging in prostitution when they were minors, 1 had been convicted of disorderly behaviour, and 1 was arrested and sent to hospital for spreading venereal disease. 1 was deported from America for immoral conduct.

Social Service Assistance.

12 had received assistance at one time or another; most of these had been sent to a home.

ANNEX I

QUESTIONNAIRE¹

In order to throw light on the circumstances in which women fall into a life of prostitution, it is desired to secure information on certain facts relating to the antecedents of such women in different countries.

For this purpose, it would be useful if a limited enquiry concerning adult women could be undertaken in countries represented on the Committee. The women should be nationals of the country replying. It is suggested that the information may be obtained by taking particulars from some fifty cases in licensed houses or from the same number of women in countries where there are no licensed houses. It is suggested that the particulars of the cases into which enquiry is made might be obtained in various ways, as, for instance, through clinics where there are social services, at courts where there are probation officers for adults, through social workers attached to prisons, or from rehabilitation homes.

- (a) Number or initials Age
- Civil status (nationality, legitimacy, marital state)
-
- (b) Type of school attended (primary, secondary, technical, and if day-school or residential).
- (c) Age on leaving school.
- (d) Character of employment *first* entered. (Was work constantly changed? Was woman employed at time of becoming prostitute and at what kind of work?)
- (e) At what age did the woman leave home? What was the character of her home background?

¹ Part III of questionnaire on rehabilitation (document C.T.F.E.670(a)) sent in June 1935 to Governments and voluntary associations represented on the Traffic in Women and Children Committee of the League of Nations.

- (f) Age on first conviction for offence connected with prostitution. Number of subsequent convictions for similar offences.
 - (g) Did any social service give assistance on first conviction for an offence under (f)? If so, what was the service and the nature of the assistance given?
 - (h) What is the assessment of the mental condition of the woman (viz., certifiable, border-line, normal, superior)?
-

ANNEX II

GOVERNMENTS AND VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS TO WHICH PART III OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE WAS SENT .

Governments.

Belgium.

United Kingdom.

Canada.

Chile.¹

Denmark.

United States of America.

France.

India.

Italy.

Japan.

Poland.

Roumania.

• Spain.¹

Turkey.

Uruguay.

Voluntary Organisations.

Women's International Organisations.

International Union of Catholic Women's Leagues

International Federation for Aid to Young Women.

Jewish Association for the Protection of Girls, Women and Children.

International Bureau for the Suppression of Traffic in Women and Children.

International Catholic Association for the Protection of Young Girls.¹

¹ Sent no material in answer to this part of the questionnaire..