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PUBLIC AFFAIRS

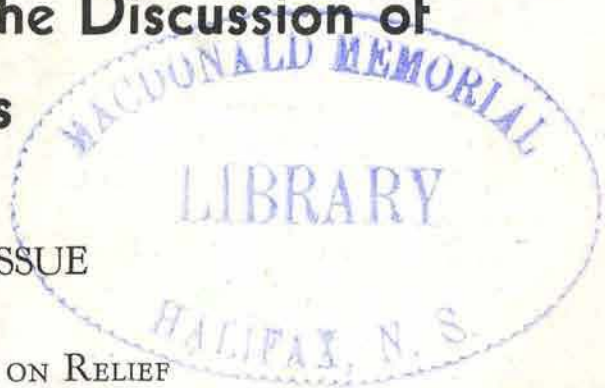
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A Maritime Quarterly for the Discussion of
Public Affairs



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ARTICLES IN THIS ISSUE

SIR ROBERT BORDEN

YOUTH ON RELIEF

PROBLEMS OF ASSESSMENT

THE MUNICIPAL MANAGER PLAN

THE DEADLOCK IN DOMINION-PROVINCIAL FINANCE

NOBODY'S CHILD

AIMS OF AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION

ADULT EDUCATION AND CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT IN EASTERN NOVA SCOTIA

THE PEACE RIVER EXPERIMENT

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PUBLIC AFFAIRS

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The editorial board presents articles for further discussion of public problems without taking responsibility for the views expressed by the authors.

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PUBLIC AFFAIRS

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Our Programme

THIS Journal is published by the Institute of Public Affairs at Dalhousie University. The Institute has been established to facilitate co-operation between the governments and the universities of the Maritime Provinces, for the promotion of efficient public administration. The Journal will serve a similar purpose. The administrative problems that face the provincial and local governments will be in the forefront of its discussions, covering subjects like taxation and assessment, or administration of public health and of schools, or road building and preservation of rural society.

Special attention will be given to municipal matters, the Institute of Public Affairs from its beginning having co-operated with the Union of Nova Scotia Municipalities. The western provinces of Canada have their own municipal journal, but there is no such publication in eastern Canada. PUBLIC AFFAIRS will try to meet this need. The contributions on "Assessment," and on "Administration of the Poor Law" contained in this first number, will be followed later by articles on other municipal topics. There will also be regular sections on "What Municipalities are Doing", and on "Decisions of Law Courts" affecting the municipalities.

The Journal however, will not be restricted to subjects of administration. Public Affairs in the widest sense of that term will be its concern. Social, economic and educational questions that affect the public life of eastern Canada will be discussed without bias or prejudice, without favour to any one political party or religious creed.

Developments in other parts of Canada, in the United States and in foreign countries will be described, as far as acquaintance with these may be useful to the people of the Maritime Provinces. The editor of a well known municipal journal in the United States, a prominent Member of the British Parliament (an Independent) and a leader of the Folk High School movement in Denmark are among the regular contributors to the Journal. It has also in Ottawa a correspondent who will report regularly about new developments in legislation and administration. However, the chief contributors of PUBLIC AFFAIRS should be the people of the Maritime Provinces, especially those in public life.

Who are expected to be readers of the Journal? Primarily those who help to conduct public affairs, whether in an honorary capacity, as mayors, aldermen or councillors, or as municipal clerks, wardens or solicitors, or as Civil Servants of the Dominion or the provinces. But since the Journal will not be confined to technical matters of administration, all citizens taking an active interest in the public sphere will, it is hoped, become readers of

PUBLIC AFFAIRS.

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GREETINGS

DURING the last quarter of a century the problems of governments in Canada, whether Federal, Provincial or Municipal, have become noticeably greater and increasingly difficult. The fundamental conception of government may have remained substantially the same, but the accepted functions of government have been greatly widened.

In their efforts to solve public problems today those who are directly engaged in government administration should welcome the advice and suggestions of business, professional and university men, who do not belong to any government service,

but who, by special study and experience in given fields, are particularly qualified to speak on their own subjects.

The Dalhousie Institute of Public Affairs is the embodiment of an effort by a great Maritime university to bring about a fuller measure of co-operation between universities and governments. As such I wish its efforts every success, and I hope, that **PUBLIC AFFAIRS**, the journal of the Institute will be read and appreciated by a wide circle of readers.

ANGUS L. MACDONALD,
Premier of Nova Scotia.

IN a sense the university is a world apart. But it is also profoundly true that it is rooted in human activity, past and present, and that it draws its breath from the community in which it lives.

Further, and this is often overlooked, the university is only one of the corporate bodies in which the community expresses itself and finds its life. Public affairs is inevitably a field in which these different corporate bodies and organisations should

be working in cooperation. The Institute of Public Affairs of Dalhousie University has made an attempt in this direction, and the attempt has been most cordially welcomed and supported.

This Journal is further evidence that the Dalhousie Institute of Public Affairs desires to be useful to the community.

CARLETON STANLEY,
President Dalhousie University.

AS president of the Union of Nova Scotia Municipalities for the current year I wish to extend my best wishes and a hearty welcome to the new Journal **PUBLIC AFFAIRS**. The union has been in existence for about thirty-two years and during all that time it has never had an organ of publication of its own. The proceedings of its annual conventions were the only authentic source by which the people of the Province could keep informed about the activities of the union. The proceedings very ably prepared and edited by Judge Arthur Roberts, are and will continue to be the official record of its transactions. Appearing only once a year they will in future be supplemented through the new journal which will be published quarterly. I am quite sure the journal will assist in keeping the union up to the high standard which it presently holds, as matters important to the municipalities will occupy a prominent place in its columns.

The Union as a whole will be greatly interested in this Journal and has delegated a member of

this year's executive to serve on the editorial board of which he is now chairman. Official and unofficial communications of the union will from time to time appear in the publication. The municipal officers of the Province will be provided with a journal in which they can find information about the many problems involved in their work.

As the columns are to be open to all municipal officers who wish to express their opinions on municipal matters, the usefulness of the Journal will be very wide spread and experience gained in various communities will be made available to the whole Province.

May I express the hope that **PUBLIC AFFAIRS** has come to stay. I know it will assist in serving the high purpose to which the Union of Nova Scotia Municipalities devotes its energies, namely, the promotion of efficient methods in municipal administrations.

S. E. MUGGAH,
President Union of Nova Scotia Municipalities.

Sir Robert Borden

By SIR JOSEPH CHISHOLM*

BY the death of the Right Honourable Sir Robert Borden on June 10, 1937, Canada lost one of its greatest statesmen. While the news of his passing occasioned deep regret, not only in Canada but throughout all British countries and elsewhere, to the members of the Institute of Public Affairs it was an especial loss for he was the first president of the Institute and he took a deep interest in its purpose and success. When the Institute was formed, the question of selecting a president came up for consideration and it was thought desirable that the most prominent living Nova Scotian, who happened also to be one whose activities were so closely connected with public affairs in Canada, should be invited to accept the post. The desire of the promoters was communicated to him and in a letter dated February 6, 1937, he graciously accepted the offer.

This writer has been asked to contribute a few pages dealing with some features of Sir Robert's busy life. It was his good fortune to have been associated and to have almost daily contact with Sir Robert during the seventeen years immediately preceding his removal from Halifax and thus was given an opportunity of seeing him at close range and of becoming familiar with the strong notes of a really great man. It is not proposed to attempt anything like an extended or exhaustive sketch of his life or of the important measures in which he took part; this is rather intended to be a brief account of some of the incidents of a varied and interesting career.

Sir Robert's life may conveniently be divided into two parts,—the first being antecedent to 1896, the years of his early education, his study for admission to the bar and of his successful practice of his profession; the second embraces his public life as a Member of Parliament, the leadership of his party, his Premiership and his life after he had retired from Parliament.

He was born at Grand Pre on June 26, 1854, and as a lad attended the Horton Academy, then a good private school of which he gives some account in a notable address delivered in 1932 at Acadia University. His progress as a pupil was so rapid that he was made an assistant teacher in the school in his fifteenth year. For a few years following he continued the work of teaching.

He never attended a university but he was all his life an earnest and diligent student. Speaking of his early life as a teacher and his lack of university training he said:

Although I have been the recipient of many degrees, I never attended a university. For five years I was principally engaged in teaching, but I endeavoured during that period to give myself the equivalent. One studying with such a purpose, if endowed with a certain earnestness and persistence absorbs lessons that are never forgotten and especially an intense appreciation of the value of time. So, the handicap, *res angusta domi*, which deprived me of the university education that I so greatly desired was perhaps not without its compensations. But on the other hand, I was without the aid that comes from close and constant association with keen fellow students and the inestimable advantage of the influence and leadership that emanates from great teachers.

From Horton Academy young Borden went to Glenwood Institute in New Jersey to teach and he humourously stated that there he was immediately dignified with the title of Professor. A few years ago, the editor of a Glenwood newspaper asked Sir Robert (as he had become), for an article giving recollections of his teaching days in Glenwood, and he courteously consented by furnishing a detailed relation of the events of that part of his career. He was able to recall the names of many of his pupils, and it appeared that several of those whose training he had directed were still living and watching with pride the achievements of their old-time teacher.

Mr. Borden returned to Nova Scotia to study for the bar. There was no law school then in the Province and the student had to acquire his knowledge of law in the office of a lawyer and by private reading. He studied in the office of Weatherbe and Graham, both partners of which firm were afterwards appointed to the Bench and succeeded to the position of Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of Nova Scotia. In 1878, Mr. Borden was admitted to the bar and he practiced for a few years in Kentville as partner of the late Judge John P. Chipman. He then came to Halifax to be a member of the law firm of Graham, Tupper and Borden. Thenceforward he devoted himself assiduously to the practice of his profession and soon became a leader of the Nova Scotia bar. His fine intellect, his wide reading in law and in general literature, his robust honesty, his kindness of heart and his dignified and gracious bearing give him a commanding position in the profession and in the community. He won and securely held the confidence of a large clientele. He was on one side or another of every important case argued in the courts of his native Province and he became a familiar figure in the

*EDITOR'S NOTE: The Honourable Sir Joseph Chisholm, B.A., LL.D., is Chief Justice of Nova Scotia.

Supreme Court of Canada and before the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. An excellent raconteur he could entertain his friends for hours with amusing incidents which occurred in the Courts and in intercourse with clients and witnesses. An account of the important cases in which he was counsel would expand this article to too great a length.

The year 1896 was a turning point in Mr. Borden's life. Up to then his exclusive mistress was the law. He had taken no part in politics; he was not known to have made one political speech. As a young man he was classed as a moderate Liberal, but as he afterwards disclosed he had voted in the Repeal election of 1886 with the Conservatives as he did also when Commercial Union and Unrestricted Reciprocity became a part of the policy of the Liberal party. Shortly prior to the Dominion election of 1896, a prominent Conservative Member of Parliament came to Nova Scotia to rally the Conservative forces and in conversation with one who was a Conservative candidate in another county, he pointed out that the Conservatives of Nova Scotia had been represented in the House of Commons ever since Confederation by men of outstanding ability—by Sir Charles Tupper, Joseph Howe, Sir Adams Archibald, A. W. McLellan, Sir Charles Hibbert Tupper, Thomas E. Kenny and Sir John Thompson—and it was highly desirable that the record should be maintained. He said: "We must nominate Mr. Borden as candidate in Halifax with Mr. Kenny. An able Conservative lawyer is needed on the Conservative side and Mr. Borden is the man". This organizer, however, did not himself approach Mr. Borden. One afternoon shortly after, two prominent local men, the late McCallum Grant, who succeeded the late Hon. David McKeen as Lieutenant Governor of Nova Scotia, and the late Hector McInnes, whose recent death we lament entered the law office and asked for Mr. Borden. They were closeted with him a considerable time and then left as solemnly as they had entered. Mr. Borden paced the floor of his private office for a considerable time and then invited one of his partners into his office. "Do you know what these gentlemen have proposed to me?" he said "they are urging me to become a candidate with Mr. Kenny in the approaching election. I have never had any thought of entering upon a political career. My training has been altogether for the law and I do not want to be a politician. And they require an answer tomorrow". Continuing to pace the floor for some further time, he added, "Well, I must see what my wife thinks about it". The next day he agreed, I believe, with some reluctance, to be a candidate, but on the understanding that, if elected, he should be relieved from further service at the expiration of the next term of Parliament. This condition he stipulated later in conversations with the Conservative leader, Sir Charles Tupper.

He was returned and from 1896 to 1900 he was a tower of strength to his party in the House of Commons. He was again elected in 1900. After the election Sir Charles Tupper decided to resign the leadership of his party and the matter of electing a new leader emerged. Mr. Borden neither sought nor desired the honour.

In assuming the leadership, he stipulated that he would lead for one Parliament only and that at the end of that term another should be chosen. But circumstances over-ruled his desire. He was defeated in Halifax in 1904. In that election all the Conservative candidates in Nova Scotia were defeated. The next year, he was elected for the County of Carleton in Ontario and in 1908 he was returned for both Carleton and Halifax and resigned the former seat.

Mr. Borden and his party, reinforced by an important section of the Liberal party, strongly opposed the Taft-Fielding Reciprocity pact in 1911 and before their assaults the government of Sir Wilfred Laurier fell. A new administration was formed with Mr. Borden as Prime Minister, an office which he held continuously until July 1920, when by reason of impaired health, brought on by his strenuous work in the years of the great War, he resigned the Premiership, and retired from active political life. The magnitude of the tasks imposed upon Sir Robert during the War years, the anxieties through he lived, the urgency of each day's work, cannot be fully realized. He was in a sense a war casualty. The success which attended his unceasing efforts to achieve the great end is demonstrated by the fact that in Britain and the Dominions he was the only Prime Minister who held office continuously from the beginning to the end of the Great War. The others for one reason or another had to give up the command but he continued on the bridge directing the ship of state. He attended meetings of the British Cabinet in 1915, was a member of the Imperial War Cabinet and of the Imperial War Conference in 1917 and 1918, attended the Paris Peace Conference in 1919 and took an important part in its deliberations. By his advocacy the position of Canada was acknowledged and representing his own Dominion, he took part in all the negotiations. He was a signatory of the Peace Treaty. He urged successfully that Canada should be represented at the League of Nations. As early as 1912, he publicly declared that in the matter of Imperial co-operation, the people of Canada proposed to have a voice in Imperial concerns and he saw this accomplished in a very few years. Mr. Lloyd-George, who is singularly thrifty of praise when he comes to speak of those with whom he was associated in the great struggle, says this of Sir Robert Borden in his War Memories, page 1743:

Canada was represented by Sir Robert Borden, who was always the quintessence

of common sense. Always calm, well-balanced, a man of co-operating temper, invariably subordinating self to the common cause, he was a sagacious and helpful counsellor, never forgetting that his first duty was to the people of the great Dominion he represented, but also realizing that they were engaged in an Imperial enterprise and that an insistent and obstructive particularism would destroy any hope of achieving success in the common task.

Among the objects of the Institute of Public Affairs are the promotion of a scientific interest in public affairs, public administration and related subjects, and the development of an enlightened public opinion. It fell to Sir Robert Borden, more than to any of his predecessors, by speeches and by legislation directed by him to promote these objects. The war period has been already referred to, when in the most trying time in the history of the Dominion, he had to grapple with problems of tremendous magnitude and to devise expedients fit for their solution. All partisan feeling had to be laid aside. The one pressing matter was the safety of the British Empire and of Canada as one of its component parts. Canada's full moral and material strength had to be mustered in the effort. There had to be a demonstration of British solidarity before the world. The formation of a Union government for the first time in the history of the Dominion was a great step in that direction. To extreme partisans in both parties it was unwelcome at the time. By Sir Robert's persistence in pursuing the larger purpose it was accomplished, and leading men of both parties took a share in administration. That was a step in public administration which at some future time may form a useful precedent in a period of stress. The war had the effect of postponing the accomplishment of some of Sir Robert's other aims in the direction of reform. It delayed but did not defeat his resolve to reform the civil service of Canada, to mention only one of his aims.

What he did in reforming the service is deserving of notice. While yet in opposition he began to stir public opinion on the necessity of reform. In his election address on August, 1907, he announced that there must be a thorough and complete reformation of the laws relating to the Civil Service; and his party became thereby committed to the policy. The reform was urged in speeches in Parliament in 1907 and 1908; and after the formation of his administration in 1911, a distinguished English

publicist was appointed to investigate the whole subject and to make a report upon it. The war interrupted the progress of the intended measures. To the Hon. A. K. Maclean, a member of the Union government was entrusted the task of preparing the required legislation. The changes were embodied in the Civil Service Act of 1918. This Act provides for a Civil Service Commission of not more than three members, for examination of the candidates for admission to the service, for their transfer and promotion and for making regulations touching the whole subject. This Act, as Sir Robert claimed, was a tremendous step in advance: indeed, Mr. Maclean characterized it as revolutionary. One welcome result of its enactment was that Members of Parliament, supporting the government of the day, are relieved to a very great extent of the troublesome necessity of dispensing public patronage.

After Sir Robert Borden had resigned the post of Prime Minister, he continued in another capacity to give the country the benefit of his experience and erudition. He served for short periods as Chancellor of Queen's University and McGill University. By his lectures on the public platform he helped to spread enlightened views on divers subjects—educational, constitutional and historical. The first collection of his speeches was made in the war period; in 1917 Messrs. Hodder & Stoughton published his war speeches under the title of *The War and The Future*. In 1922 his Marfleet lectures on Canadian Constitutional Studies, delivered in 1921 at the University of Toronto, were published in book form, and in 1927, on the invitation of the Rhodes Trustees and the authorities of Oxford University, he gave a series of six lectures at Oxford on Canada in the *Commonwealth*. These splendid lectures, published later by the Clarendon Press, should be in the hands of every Canadian student. The story of our young nation is there told with Sir Robert's accustomed precision and lucidity. The temper and style are admirable; the judgment dignified and balanced. The speeches and books referred to, together with biographical and other historical material written in the evening of his life, which, it is to be hoped, will be published in permanent form and made accessible to the public, will make the most valuable literary contribution touching public affairs, so far made by a Canadian Prime Minister.



Youth On Relief

Preliminary Results of a Survey in Halifax

By L. RITCHER*

IN November 1936 a conference on unemployment relief was held in Halifax under the auspices of the Institute of Public Affairs. It was attended by representatives of nearly all municipalities of the province where relief was paid at that time, by all of the relief officers of the provincial government and by leaders of social work in the province. At the end of the conference a resolution was passed asking the Institute of Public Affairs to investigate the unemployment situation in the province and to publish the results of its research. The resolution was put forward by Mayor Muggah of Sydney and seconded by Mayor Kaufman of Amherst.

It was on account of this resolution that the Institute of Public Affairs decided to make an investigation of unemployed youth in Halifax. This problem was chosen for various reasons. In a previous survey covering the whole province¹ it had been found that boys and girls under twenty-five years of age represented one of the largest groups among relief recipients in Nova Scotia and that they were chiefly concentrated in Halifax. There seemed to be further, at the time when the investigation was first contemplated, good prospect that some constructive measures might be taken to improve the situation of these boys and girls. The National Youth Employment Commission, Ottawa, formed by the National Employment Commission (Purvis Commission) to study the problem of unemployed youth had expressed its interest in the establishment of training facilities for these unemployed and it seemed probable that the Dominion government would make funds available for this purpose (which have indeed been voted since by Parliament). Educationists and social workers familiar with the unemployment situation in Halifax expressed the opinion that among the boys and girls on relief in the city there were a good many who, being provided with a proper training, would have a fair chance to find work. Plans were discussed to set up training courses in Halifax. But it was soon found that it would not be advisable to draw up a scheme as long as one did not possess adequate information about the extent and nature of unemployment among the juveniles, their character and abilities, their vocational and educational background. It seemed worthwhile to conduct a survey in order

to find out all these facts even if the training facilities, which were hoped for, should not come off. For the results to be anticipated would be most valuable for formulating any future programme of youth policy, be it in education, in vocational guidance or in public welfare.

The committee formed to prepare the investigation decided that an attempt should be made to interview all the boys and girls who receive relief either for their own person or as members of a family whose head was on relief. The task was entrusted to four persons who had previous experience in vocational guidance—the principal of a large school; a high school teacher who had done similar work in London, England; a girl, a former teacher, who had studied vocational guidance at Harvard; and the writer of this article. They used for their interviews a questionnaire covering all important phases of the personal and vocational life. Thanks to the great interest that the then mayor of Halifax, Mr. E. J. Cragg, took in the project, the invitations to the unemployed boys and girls were sent out by Mr. G. E. Ferguson, Administrator of Relief, and the interviews were held in the Relief Office, though attendance was not compulsory.

The investigation took place during April and May 1937. Out of 310 boys and 142 girls who had been asked to register, 202 boys and 71 girls appeared. They were all between 16 and 25 years of age. Married women under 25 whose husbands were on relief had not been asked to come since they would not be in need of vocational guidance.

In this article some preliminary results of the investigation will be discussed as far as the boys are concerned. A more detailed study including the girls may be published later.

The unemployed boys were rather evenly distributed over the various age groups. No evidence was found that there is a greater demand for young boys leaving school because they get lower wages than older boys.

TABLE I

Age Group	Number of Boys	Married
16-18	47	·
18-20	45	7
21-25	109	82

Surprising is the high percentage of married in spite of the fact that most of the young men have been on relief for quite a long time. In the age group 21-25, there are among 10 unemployed 8 married, and among 10 married, 9 are fathers of children. Of the 82 married 37 had one child;

1. "Unemployment and Relief in Nova Scotia" by L. Richter, *Dalhousie Bulletin on Public Affairs* II.

*EDITOR'S NOTE: L. Richter, Dr. Jur., Dr. Rer. Pol., is Professor at Dalhousie University and Secretary, Treasurer of the Institute of Public Affairs.

25, two children; and 10, three children. Quite a few of these marriages have been concluded and a great number of children have been born while the husband and father was on relief. Even among the 46 in the age group 18-20, there were 7 married; they all had children, 2 of them 2. One of these young fathers was just 18 years old.

Of the young men in the age group, 21-25, the great majority (about 90 per cent) had a relief order in their own name, that is they had a household independent of their parents. On the other hand all the boys of the age group, 16-18, and all but 5 of the age group, 18-20, lived with their parents.

Since it was one of the purposes of the investigation to find out whether it would be helpful to establish training facilities in Halifax, great pains were taken to get reliable information about the educational and vocational background of the unemployed. Questions had therefore been inserted in the questionnaire about the grade reached in school, the age when school was left, and the best school subjects.

If one assumes that the average student should attend school at least until Grade Seven, one is compelled to state that not even half of all these unemployed boys, that is 95 out of 202, have reached that goal. A little more than 10 per cent, that is 26 out of 202, have not gone farther than Grade Four. (See Table 2).

There were no complete illiterates among the boys though some of them found reading and writing difficult. One of the boys had never attended school.

TABLE II

Grade when left school	Number of boys	Age When left school	Number of boys
XII	1	19	1
XI	1	18	3
X	6	17	10
IX	14	16	67
VIII	26	15	53
VII	49	14	39
VI	45	13	9
V	24	12	2
IV	14	11	4
III	5	10	1
II	6	9	1

9 boys were still attending school.

These results are very unsatisfactory and they appear all the more so if one considers the length of school attendance. For it would be a mistake to believe that the boys had not reached a higher grade because they had to leave school too early. As Table 2 shows, 173 boys were 14 years and older when they left school. They would have been able to reach Grade Seven in that time. If they did not it must have been that they could not comply with the requirements of the school.

Table 3 shows what the boys regarded as their best school subjects. Some of them gave more than one subject so that the number does not correspond with the total number of boys.

TABLE III

Best school subject	Number of boys
Arithmetic	88
History	14
English	14
Spelling	10
Geography	6
Reading	5
Drawing	5
Handwork	3
Science	2
Latin	1
No particular subject	51

Arithmetic takes by far the first place. This finding corresponds with the experience of the University that Nova Scotia boys are more gifted for Mathematics and Science than for languages and literature. Considerable interest seems to exist in History and English. That only three boys gave handwork as their best subject is probably due to the fact that it is only taught in three of the Halifax schools.

While the information given about the educational background was rather definite and seemed quite reliable it was extremely difficult in many cases to get proper answers about the usual occupation and the employment record. The reason is that the great majority of the boys has never been regularly employed in the proper sense of the word. In addition to the 42 boys who frankly admitted it, there were a good many giving their usual occupation such as labourer, or seaman or clerk, who had only been engaged in that type of work for a few days or weeks. The following table listing the usual occupation of the boys is therefore only very limited in value. The one thing, however, that it shows clearly is that nearly all the unemployed boys are unskilled.

TABLE IV

Usual occupation	Number of boys
Labourer	83
Errand boy and shipper	13 each
Chauffeur	12
Clerk, painter	6 each
Mechanic, seaman	4 each
Carpenter	3
Broom maker, cook, theatre usher, printer	2 each
Baker, electrician freight handler, hotel houseman, male nurse, pipe fitter, stone mason	1 each
No particular occupation	42

The efforts to get exact answers about duration of employment and unemployment met with the same difficulty. The work performed during the last two years was in most cases so casual and negligible that the boys could not remember it very well though they made great efforts to do so. Never regularly employed except for seasonal and temporary work there were 32 of the 46 boys in the age group 18-20, and 89 of the 109 boys in the age group 21-25. In the age group 16-17, the situation was by no means better though no figures could be obtained.

To be unemployed does not necessarily mean

to be on relief, especially not in the case of boys living with their parents. They are a concern for the Relief Office only while their parents are on relief. It was not possible to learn from these juveniles how long the family had been on relief though the information could be collected without great difficulty from the files of the Relief Office. But such an inquiry would only confirm the clear impression gained from the interviews that the majority of the unemployed boys of the age groups 16-20, came from families who had been on relief for a considerable time. A little more favourable is the situation in the age group 21-25. Nearly all the young men in that group having relief orders in their own names could give information about the length of time they had been on relief. Of the 109 persons in that group there had been on relief without a break of at least a month:

1 - 26 weeks	51
27 - 52 "	27
1 - 1½ years	9
1½ - 2 "	4
2 - 3 "	7
3 - 4 "	4

From the interviews it can be assumed, however, that the spells of unemployment experienced by these young men were as a rule much longer than the time on relief.

The last question asked in the various interviews was about the sort of work the boys would like to take up in case an opportunity offered. They were allowed to make alternative proposals so that the number of vocations listed below is in excess of the number of boys.

TABLE VI

Work desired	Number of boys
Mechanic	76
Electrician	27
Painter	26
Carpenter	22
Chauffeur	16
Engineer	15
Seaman	14
Commercial clerk	12
Mason	10
Plumber	9
Radio repair man	8
Airplane mechanic	7
Wireless operator, farmer, cook	6 each
Aviator	5
Fisherman	3
Bookkeeper, shoemaker, s.s. steward, surveyor, window decorator	2 each
R.C.M.P., male nurse, lithographer, steam shovel operator, porter, broom maker, bellhop, photographer	1 each

The boys who wanted to go in for mechanics were more or less vague about training plans. They wished a job that would require work on machines, motors, etc. It is unfortunately a very large group which has no definite conception as to what should be their place in life. They will need very careful vocational guidance. On the other hand it is rather encouraging that many others are inclined to go in for jobs which require a thorough training. Carpenters, painters, electri-

cians, plumbers and masons come under that category.

Surprisingly low for a province with so important an agricultural background is the number of those who want to go in for farming. They have mostly spent their childhood on farms, and they confirm the experience gained elsewhere that training courses in agriculture should be restricted to boys from rural environments. The fact that only 3 boys have declared for fishing reflects the unfavourable situation of the fisheries, while the sailor's job attracts 14 boys. Those who want to become aviators or aeroplane mechanics are all of the age groups 16-20. The older boys are less adventurous and seem to prefer the good old crafts. All the boys were asked whether in order to get the desired job they would be prepared to undergo a special training and these questions were always answered in the positive.

What is the final result of the investigation? It has given a clear insight into the situation of unemployed boys in an industrial city of eastern Canada. It has shown things as they are and it has destroyed some myths. There are hardly any malingers among those who were interviewed. They were willing to work and looking eagerly for jobs. But a good many of them were not sufficiently equipped to meet the competition in the labour market. There were gaps in their school and vocational education which mean a serious handicap for them. In many cases these gaps could be filled by providing for training facilities which have proved so helpful elsewhere. Conditions in Halifax for establishing such training courses are favourable. The average state of health among the juveniles is better than might be anticipated after the long periods of unemployment which most of them have experienced. Only 12 boys were in apparently bad physical condition. There are many bright boys of still unbroken energy who are anxious to learn and who seem to promise good results. Classifications made at the end of the interviews show that out of 202 boys, 56 are very suitable, 110 suitable, and 36 unsuitable for training. It must further be remembered that the survey was only concerned with young people on relief who represent only a small part of the total number of unemployed juveniles, and that there probably will be among those who are not on relief a still larger number of good candidates for training courses.

The part of the investigation concerned with the educational and vocational background and with the sort of work desired by the unemployed gives valuable indications as to what should be taught in such a training course. The establishment of training facilities would not only be of benefit for those participating but would be of great value for the whole community and would in the long run tend to reduce the total expenditure for relief.

Problems of Assessment in Nova Scotia

By C. P. BETHUNE*

IN setting forth some of the problems and difficulties which are met in assessing property it is hoped that any opinions expressed will not be regarded as being given in a dogmatic manner, but rather in a manner which will provoke some discussion which may result in the letting in of some light upon the matters involved.

From the taxpayer's point of view, the assessment forms the basis of the levy which is exacted from him by the municipality in the form of taxes. As a rule, the taxpayer feels that the higher the assessment, the higher the tax he will be called upon to pay. This is of course quite true in the case of any one individual taxpayer, but since the total assessment directly affects the tax-rate imposed, any general increase or reduction in all assessments lowers or raises the tax-rate in inverse ratio thereto—assuming the requirements of the municipality as expressed in its annual estimates is constant.

From the point of view of the municipality, however, the assessment roll is keenly watched in the hope that an increase will be shown therein, which would justify the municipality in increasing its estimate of expenditures without increasing the tax-rate or, if all its needs are being provided for in a sufficient manner, in reducing the tax-rate and if the increased assessment is derived from new assessments or from substantial increases in a few cases, the burden eased upon the majority of taxpayers.

It is to be regretted, however, that the second case is often very difficult to realize. With so many demands upon municipalities, in these days, for increased services and local improvements, such as paved streets and sidewalks, and that extra burden of the depression—Direct Relief—most of our municipalities have difficulty in preventing any increase in the tax-rate.

Assessment therefore, it seems, is the basis of municipal finance. It is consequently of great importance to determine the basis upon which the assessment is made.

The assessor of a municipality is regarded as having a difficult task in carrying out his duties, and attempting to please or satisfy, upon the one hand, the municipality, which employs him, and on the other hand the taxpayer, or the person who, through taxes, pays his salary.

A municipal assessor, in the exercise of his duties, fulfils a judicial or quasi-judicial function. He is not to be influenced by nor to receive instructions from the municipal council, or from any other person or body. He must personally execute his duties with the fullest independence, to the best of his judgment and according to his conscience.

In appeals from assessments, the courts must interfere with caution. They are not to judge the competency of the assessors or to substitute their personal opinion for that of the assessor, whose valuation is presumed to be correct and reasonable, so long as the parties concerned have not shown any real injustice or an important deviation from proper principles or that the assessment is so erroneous that an honest and competent man could not have made it or that a substantial injustice has been committed.

The courts in Quebec have found that a "substantial injustice" occurs in "the case where there is lack of uniformity, discrimination, prejudice, collusion, fraud, capriciousness, or the want of the exercise of an honest judgment or the adoption of a wrong principle by the assessors in their valuation of property for assessment purposes".

Considerable discussion has taken place over the amount at which an assessor should value a particular property. The usual provisions of assessment acts describe the amount at which the assessor should value a property as "the actual value", "the actual cash value", "real value", "true cash value", "full fair cash value", "true value in money", "fair cash value", "cash or market price", "fair actual value".

In some acts the words used are defined. In the Assessment Act of Nova Scotia (R.S.N.S. 1923, Ch. 86, S. 17, rule 2) "actual cash value" is defined as meaning:

"the amount which in the opinion of the assessor, it (i.e. the property) would realize in cash if offered at auction after reasonable notice, but in forming such opinion the assessor shall have regard to the assessment of other properties of the like class in the town or municipality."

The Charter of the City of Sydney (Chapter 174, of the Acts of 1903, S. 109, as amended, contains provisions identical with the Assessment Act.

The expression "actual value" as used in the City Charter of the City of Halifax is not defined therein, but numerous decisions are available defining these words. A Quebec Case (LaCroix

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vs *Cité de Montreal*,—54 S.C.R. 130, defines "actual value" as meaning "saleable value, i.e. what the owner could obtain for his property from a buyer who, not being obliged to do it, wished to acquire it".

The test, as Mr. H. E. Manning in his work on Assessment and Rating says, is not to be found in what is known by economists as "value in use", but in the more definite thing "value in exchange".

One element to be considered is that of sales made by persons owning the properties in question and who find purchasers who buy at the price set by the vendor or at the price on which both vendor and purchaser agree. But this element should not be considered exclusively, and all factors available which indicate the reasonable value should be taken into consideration.

The work of an assessor, who performs his duties honestly, intelligently, conscientiously and impartially and with an adequate knowledge of his work is, in the opinion of the writer, indeed a science. Admittedly he has available many decisions of courts which lay down definitions and rules for his guidance, but the application of these definitions and rules to any particular property is often a most difficult undertaking. He has available, if he has taken the trouble to do some research work, several "systems" in use by other assessors and he may attach himself to one of these and arbitrarily apply the same to the valuations made by him. If he falls into this error he is laying down a foundation of trouble not only for himself, but for the taxpayer and the municipality.

It has been said that the amount of assessment is immaterial as long as every person is assessed on the same basis. A certain sum must be raised, and the individual assessments are for the purpose of apportioning the shares of this amount. I hope to show later, however, that where a statute prescribes the amount of the assessment as "actual value", "actual cash value", etc., that the "actual value" or the "actual cash value" alone is the amount and not another amount either higher or lower.

Two "Systems" Discussed

But first let us consider briefly two of these so-called "systems"—

- (A.) That based upon the "yield" or "revenue" of the property.
- (B.) That based upon the "cost" of the property, and which might be called "intrinsic value".

(A.) As to the method of valuation based upon the *yield* from or the *revenue* of a property, it appears from a brief investigation that it leaves too much to be desired to be of great assistance. As a system it is defeated at the outset if a building at the moment of valuation be vacant and yields nothing, or if an important portion be vacant or

as is frequently the case, the building is not upon a rental basis. The yield of a property is frequently disproportionate to its actual value, for example, dilapidated tenements, of which alas, there are too many, and which yield a high gross rental. Frequently it is impossible to obtain tenants for good properties, at any amount or to sell the same at any price. In any event, as this system is viewed by the writer, it is not such as should be adopted by an assessor to the exclusion of all others. Perhaps the following paragraphs may explain more fully the basis of the conclusion:

In the first place the tax imposed upon a valuation arrived at under this system is not a valuation upon the "actual value" of the property. It is not a *property* tax. It has become a personal tax. It may perhaps be in the result an indirect tax and therefore *ultra vires*. It is discriminatory, in that it bears heavily upon built-on property and very lightly, if at all, upon un-built-on property.

It is a complicated type of tax and is not likely to result in a roll which is even slightly stabilized. If as is suggested by the exponents of this system, the various types of properties are to be assorted or classified, (i.e. as workers' dwellings, apartment houses, private houses, business properties, etc.) and the average revenue from each class be ascertained, the accomplishment of this objective in an average city seems impossible of attainment, for the reason that very few buildings are comparable to one another because of the type of construction, size, location, etc. It would be necessary to fix an average rental for each building. Such valuation would vary from year to year. How under this system would properties having no rental value, such as factories, and other industrial plants, and public utility companies be dealt with? It should also be considered that gross rental used as a basis would in many cases be unfair, due to varying costs of upkeep, depreciation, obsolescence, etc. As another instance illustrating the fallibility of this system regard the case of a property held for speculative purposes of resale when the rental is merely nominal or based merely to cover fixed charges. In fact the yield of a building generally depends on the administrative ability of the owner rather than on the building itself.

As was said in *Bishop of Victoria vs City of Victoria* (1933)—4 D.L.R. 524,—it is improper for assessment purposes, to mentally convert it (i.e. the property) so to speak, into a revenue-producing commercial structure, and value it accordingly."

(B.) As stated above the cost or intrinsic value system looks to the cost of construction. Its supporters, in its defence, claim that this system avoids fluctuations in value, caused by supply and demand or by economic depressions such as we have recently experienced and results in a

stabilization of property valuations. If this were true, this system should be universally adopted as the "*sine qua non*" of assessment.

Upon being analysed, however, this system shows itself so full of inconsistencies as to be, by itself, practically worthless. For the first it fails to adapt itself to the case of vacant lots and land which is being exploited, such as mines, gravel-pits or quarries. It further fails to adapt itself equally to all properties. For example to arrive at the cost—at the moment of assessment—it is necessary to estimate the depreciation at a certain rate, and add to that what is known as "obsolescence"—the falling out of date of the building. Thus we see our values gradually declining. It is hardly a stabilization of the assessment roll—a thing much sought after. Where does the assessors "Judicial Act" enter into this picture when the "actual value" is merely calculated according to a rigid arithmetical formula and always in a downward direction?

This system clearly fails to consider appreciation which may arise through favourable changes in the neighboring surroundings, through the use to which the building may be put or to the fact that costs of construction vary widely from time to time. It penalizes the person who builds when costs are high and favours him who builds when costs are low.

This system of valuation could not render justice and would become unuseable because of insufficient flexibility.

In order to avoid clear injustice, it is essential, if this system were to be adopted, to fix unit rates upon an extremely low scale, resulting in the total roll being much below what it should be and like Mahomet's coffin, suspended in space with nothing to support it—neither cost price, current value, nor yield.

Finally this system is not based upon the proper viewpoint. It is rather viewed from the eye of a builder than from that of an assessor. The assessor should view the property with the eye of a potential purchaser and too frequently the idea of value of a builder does not agree with that of a potential purchaser.

Again the above system should not be adopted exclusively.

Another "System"

Reference might here be made to another system which its supporters follow, although not admitting its true legality. Under this system the value of the lot of land is first ascertained—at the current value. Then the value of the building is ascertained and this value added to that of the lot for the total value. Unit prices are obtained and the value then based upon the cubic foot or square foot measurement of the building to be assessed. The result to be sure is the securing of uniformity

or equalization of valuation without regard however, for current value or of any of its component elements. It has the one advantage of levelling the values in an almost absolute manner. It has been said that it is a "perfect, ideal parity for taxation purposes". But it prevents an assessor from using his own judgment. Once the building is rated in its proper class the assessor has only to figure the cost according to the measurement and the unit price already determined for this type of construction.

In brief its objection may be summarized:—

1. It is not in accordance with the law requiring the assessment to be "actual" value or "market" value.
2. It is arbitrary and fictitious as "cost" does not equal "current value".
3. It Fixes values too *low*—due to necessarily low unit rates.
4. Values do not correspond to market or actual values.
5. A Roll prepared on this basis has no judicial basis.

It is therefore suggested that it is not possible either reasonable or equitably to apply a rigid, constant and uniform rule for the establishment of the value of property.

It is therefore suggested that if he be worthy of his title, an assessor must have sufficient ability and skill to make the necessary enquiries, gather the necessary information and having done so use his intelligence and experience honestly, independently and sensibly to deduce from his investigations the "actual value", "market value" or the particular type of value prescribed by the law in his case. He cannot, it is submitted, do better than to act in exactly the same manner as if he were a potential and sagacious purchaser of the property in question. Such a purchaser will learn the purchase price, market price, revenue and cost of construction or replacement. These four elements combined realize the value of property for the purposes of municipal valuation. Like the Three Musketeers of fiction "United they stand, divided they fall—all for one and one for all".

Other Problems

The following questions have occurred and are set forth herein as a matter of interest and in the hope that some reader may feel inclined to suggest a solution:

(a) How can an assessor arrive at the "actual value" of a dilapidated tenement in a poor district, occupied by many poorly paid persons and from which the gross revenue constitutes a large return, and value the same at such an amount as to require the owner to bear his share of the municipality's expenses, there being no sales of similar buildings to act as a guide?

(b) How can an assessor arrive at the "actual

value" of industrial or commercial properties seriously affected by Governmental competition in the only type of business for which these properties are suitable, the buildings being in the same condition as before the inception of such competition, but the value for business purposes a small fraction of their previous value?

(c) What is the "actual value" of properties which are vacant, and have been vacant for a long time, and which it seems to be impossible to rent or to obtain any return therefrom?

(d) What is the assessor to do in the case of an admittedly valuable property, for which tenants can be obtained only by accepting a rental which is a small fraction of what *should* be paid?

(e) How far should an assessor reduce the value of a property in paragraph (b) above?

(f) How is an assessor to deal with properties which have been allowed to depreciate and to fall into disrepair, such as warehouses, and waterfront properties and wharves, mainly for the reason that government competition has drawn the greater part of the business from such properties and has greatly reduced the income?

(g) How is the value of a property in an urban municipality affected by the fact that it is situated on elevated ground and the facilities of the municipal water department are not sufficient to

provide a supply of water to the property?

(h) How far should an assessor be influenced by the artificial lowering of values of real estate due to the depression?

(i) Should the assessor annually write down the value of all property which is not kept in repair and which is gradually depreciating in value?

(j) Should municipalities grant "fixed assessments" (so-called) to new industries or businesses?

(k) Should exemptions be granted to churches, schools, colleges and to certain corporations carrying on business but exempt under special Acts of the Legislature?

(l) Lastly and decidedly not least, is it at all equitable that the Nova Scotia Provincial Highway tax should be based upon the municipal assessor's valuation in all parts of the province when it is acknowledged that the bases of valuations vary from 100% as low as 50% and perhaps even less? Should not in fairness to those municipalities which are complying strictly to the law, assessing real property at its full value receive some compensation from the Government when it is recognized that they are paying more than their just proportion of Highway Taxes as compared with such taxes paid by those municipalities in which the real property assessment is a fraction of the full value?

The Municipal Manager Plan in Small Cities¹

By ORIN NOLTING*

THE administration of municipal services in a small municipality differs from that in a large city only in the size of the job and the number of services. The problems and the methods of dealing with them do not vary greatly. Both large and small cities, regardless of the form of government, need to have one trained official who can coordinate and direct these services because city government is becoming more and more technical. It is the rapid growth in the technical character of municipal services that has emphasized the need for coordinated management and a trained administrative staff, which both the old mayor-council and commission plans have failed to provide, mainly for the reason that it cannot be expected that the

average candidate running for election as city commissioner can be a good executive as well as a good vote-getter. In fact, the first city to adopt the council-manager plan in U. S. A. was the small city of Staunton, Virginia, where in January, 1908, the mayor and bi-cameral council, worried over the inefficiency of council committees in handling administrative problems, passed an ordinance authorizing the hiring of a "general manager", and delegated to him the direction of all administrative affairs. Now there are 249 municipalities in the United States with less than 10,000 population operating under this form of government. Of these, seven have less than 1,000, 57 have from 1,000 to 2,500, and 184 from 2,500 to 10,000 population. Of the 14 council-manager cities in Canada, eight have less than 10,000 population. Thus of the 460 cities which now operate under the council-manager plan, 55.6 per cent had a population in 1930 of less than 10,000.

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1. The word city in this article means any incorporated municipality.

MAIN FEATURES OF MANAGER PLAN

Briefly, the main features of council-manager government are as follows: A small council elected at large on a non-partisan ballot determined policies which are not set forth in the charter itself, adopts ordinances, votes appropriations, and is required to appoint a chief executive officer called a city manager. The council is the governing body of the city, and the city manager is its agent in carrying out the policies which it determines. The mayor, who is usually elected by the council from its own number, does not interfere with the administrative functions of the manager, nor do individual members of the council. It is definitely understood that the council deals with administration only in a formal manner through ordinances and resolutions, and that administrative functions are at no time delegated to committees or individual members of the council.

The city manager, the head of the administrative branch, is appointed by the council as a whole. The theory is, and the charter provides, that he be selected on the basis of his training, ability, and experience. The exercise of all administrative authority is concentrated in the appointive executive who is accountable to the council. He provides the council with information which enables it to determine municipal policies, advises the council in matters of policy if the council so desires, and executes the policies determined by the council. He introduces the best principles of advanced administrative organization and practice, and is held responsible for the proper co-ordination of all administrative activities under his direction.

In the small city the manager may hold several other positions. For example, in one city the manager also acts as chief of police, city assessor, city engineer, and public works and water superintendent. In another city he has nine titles in addition to that of city manager. The reason is that in some activities there is not enough work for one man to be assigned to each function, but as the city increases in size and the manager's duties increase, other employees are added to take over certain work under his direction. The duties of a manager in a small town are largely what may be termed "outside" activities—streets, utility plants, sewers, and other engineering work. This explains perhaps why over one half of the present managers in small towns have had engineering training.

ADVANTAGES OF MANAGER PLAN

A summary of the advantages of the council-manager plan, as compared to the other forms of city government, would include:

1. **It is more responsive and more responsible.** The council is generally smaller and is elected at large on a non-partisan ballot for overlapping terms. This does away with log rolling

and ward politics. Few other officials are elected thus giving the people a better chance of knowing for whom they are voting. Also more attention and interest is centered on the small council after it is elected because of the publicity which is given to actions of the council as a whole and as individuals.

"The function of the council is not to do the work," wrote John Stuart Mill many years ago, "but to see that it is properly done, and that nothing necessary is left undone." The manager plan gives the council full control over the city government but at the same time effectuates a separation of policy-determination and policy-execution. For the council to interfere in the work of administration, where special skill is nearly always required, is to defeat the ends of good government. The council appoints the manager for an indefinite tenure and can remove him at any time. There is no long wait until the next election to get a new executive. If the council finds that the manager does not do the job as he should, the council can bring charges and put him out of office. The manager also does not need to fix political fences and get out the vote for election day and therefore can devote his full time to his job.

2. **It is more economical.** The city manager sees the city government as a whole and installs up-to-date public administrative procedures including such well-known devices as budgetary allotment and control devices, pre-audit and cost control, centralized purchasing, modern assessment methods, adequate accounting procedures, and other procedures which are so commonly found in manager cities. According to a survey made by the National Municipal League, local government costs the taxpayer less when it is operating under the council-manager plan than in cities having other forms of government. This was revealed by a study of the adjusted tax rates in 261 cities of over 30,000 population, that is, the rate per \$1,000 of full value.

3. **It makes possible coordinated administration.** The manager plan unquestionably gives the manager more time for administrative supervision than the mayor-council plan gives the mayor. It has a tendency to insure the appointment of responsible subordinate officials based on professional qualifications rather than for political strength and to insure their continuance in office so long as they efficiently perform their work. It tends to make for an incentive for personal service in office. Perhaps one of the most important arguments the manager plan presents for effective government is that it permits the manager to coordinate the various functions and services of government, not necessarily under one direction but at least all coordinated in such a way as to avoid a clash between different units. It makes possible the elimination of what might be termed

"legal exactitude", more frequently called "red tape".

Another important principle of management is that under the manager plan accurate and honest information is at all times available to the public and the manager spends considerable time in making such data available. An important factor referred to above is that the members of the council do not interfere with the administration of departments or even indicate to department heads that they have certain friends or political henchmen who would like to have jobs in the city hall. All of the council's contacts with the administration are made only through the manager, and the manager properly resents any direct interference by the council in any phase of administration. Individual members of the council, therefore, do not importune the manager on appointments, contracts, purchases, or any other administrative matter.

4. **It makes possible the effective administration of public service.** The technically trained department heads adopt the best procedures available in administering their departments. The manager exercises over-all control by establishing standards for measuring activities and developing procedures for systematic inspection of conditions and performance for the purpose of maintaining the standards. He sees that every office plans its work in advance and that all department programs make a consistent program for the entire city government. He eliminates the spoils system and makes appointments solely on the basis of ability, training, and experience.

WHAT MANAGERS SAY

A number of city managers in cities of less than 5,000 population were recently asked: Briefly, what do you think are the advantages of the manager plan in a small city? Some of the replies received were:

"In a small city the city council needs meet only a couple of times a month and under the old plan the various departments had very little supervision. There was no purchasing agent, and it

was very hard to check the bills and to determine who purchased the material and where it was used."

"The city manager plan in this city enables the council to establish and follow a much sounder financial program, makes possible the close coordination of all activities, and enables the maintenance of better relations with other nearby cities."

"...To ask a city council to look after these and many other items at the expense of their private business would be asking a little too much."

"It expedites the administration of city affairs and gives the citizens service in small towns which they seldom get when they must depend solely on elected officials who are serving for very little compensation."

CITY MANAGEMENT A PROFESSION

City managers now recognize themselves as constituting a new profession of public administrators. A number of leading universities provide special training for city management, desirable qualifications are fairly well established, and a selection procedure has been developed. Their professional organization, the International City Managers' Association, established in 1914, aids in the improvement of local government administration in general, provides extension training courses for managers on the job, issues a monthly journal, *Public Management*, devoted to the conduct of local government, publishes the *Municipal Year Book*, and holds an annual conference.

The spread of the council-manager plan since 1908 is indicative of the new attitude toward municipal affairs in the United States and Canada, and there is a distinct recognition of the demand for trained executive ability which the planning and directing of the intricate program of modern municipal administration requires. The profession of city managership has contributed not only to the science and art of public administration generally, but also to the integration and unity of local government.



The Deadlock In Dominion Provincial Finance

By "ECONOMIST"

THE recent decision of the Privy Council, declaring that it is beyond the powers of the Dominion Parliament of Canada to pass legislation on minimum wages, hours of work, unemployment and other social insurance, has brought to a head the difficulties that have been growing in Dominion-Provincial financial relations.

The British North America Act is the document that records the Canadian constitution, making the Dominion responsible for peace, order, and good government, and the Provinces responsible for securing justice and for dealing with local affairs. When the Act was passed in 1867 it seemed as if the Federal Government had the big jobs, and up to the end of the 19th Century, the Dominion was spending annually per head more than three times as much on ordinary account as the Provincial Governments together. But with the changed social ideas of the 20th Century, it soon became apparent that the Provinces had a great potentiality of powers, and that they had to provide increasing expenditures for welfare purposes. The Provinces, which had hitherto depended for revenue on federal subsidies, and on the returns from the Crown Lands, had to begin levying direct taxation, mainly in the form of corporation taxes and succession duties.

During the period of the Great War, Federal expenditures forged ahead again and the Dominion had to enter the field of direct taxation, by the levying of the income tax. By so doing, the balance of the fiscal power passed to the Dominion Government. But the calls on the Provincial Governments and on the Municipalities have continued to increase since that time.

In particular it has become the duty of Provincial Governments to see to the security of each and every citizen in sickness, unemployment and old age. And the Municipalities, with little but real estate to tax, have to spend from a quarter to a third of their revenue on relief, and on new educational facilities that were unknown a generation ago.

According to the recent decision handed down from the Privy Council, it is the Provincial Governments, and not the Dominion, that have power to deal with these social questions. But under the fiscal system which has grown up, and which puts the main weapons of revenue-raising into Federal hands, the Provinces lack the revenue necessary to meet the many new functions that now fall on them.

The Immediate Need

The immediate need, therefore, is to find a means of relating the constitutional powers, and

the powers of raising revenue. This need is acute at present, and it seems likely to become more so as new incentives for further social legislation arise in Canada. It is therefore necessary to consider how the constitutional system and the fiscal system may be altered and readjusted, so that they can effectively co-operate to fulfil the new ideas on the functions of governments that could not be entirely foreseen by those who framed the constitution in 1867. A Royal Commission is being appointed to make recommendations on this question. We may consider briefly the questions that this Commission will have to study.

At the outset, it is well to remember that in any federal state, there must always be some difficulty in defining clearly the respective functions of the Dominion and the Provincial Governments. In Canada at present, the Province marries you, but the Dominion divorces you. Similar more or less arbitrary elements in the separation of powers between Dominion and Provinces will probably always exist, but in the matter of financial relations between the Governments—which touch each and every citizen—the separation of powers must be sound in principle, and economic in operation.

Three ways seem possible for relating the constitutional and the fiscal systems.

(1) The constitutional powers may be left unchanged (i.e. the Provinces may continue to look after social insurance, etc.) and the main powers of raising revenue may be left with the Dominion, which, as the wealthy government, may pay subsidies to the Province according to their expenditures on social insurance.

This would be only a slight change from the existent system, relieving the Provinces of a greater part of the financial pressure involved by their present social expenditures. But this method would preserve all the uneconomic features of the present arrangement. There would still be ten governments in the field of agriculture, ten in health, ten incorporating companies, and ten looking after the social services of pensions, unemployment, sickness, etc. In short, this system would involve some unnecessary duplication in administration.

In addition, Canadians must by now be somewhat dubious of a method that depends on the grant of unconditional subsidies by the Dominion to the Provinces. Hitherto the giving of grants has been a political football, and Provincial parties have been known to make extravagant promises to electors in the hope that they could later secure a subsidy to meet the expense that their promise involved.

Whether Canada can outlive this past, and devise a scheme of subsidies from the Dominion to the Provinces that is free from abuse, may be a doubtful point. Clearly any such scheme would have to include many safeguards against abuse, and too many safeguards lead to clumsiness. We can conclude, however, that a continuation of the present system which lays many duties on the Provinces, and leaves the main tax weapons with the Dominion, can hardly be properly worked by grants of unconditional subsidies from the Dominion to the Provinces.

(2) A second method of meeting the question would be to leave the constitutional powers unchanged (i.e. leave the Provinces to look after welfare services, etc.), but to devise means of increasing the revenue-raising powers of the Provinces.

It seems almost impossible for the Provinces to increase their revenue adequately by expanding their present tax-systems. The Provincial Treasuries are filled mainly by taxes on gasoline, motor vehicles, amusements, corporations, capital and inheritance, and these taxes cannot be expanded without risk of grave disturbances. Some Provinces have also income-taxes, but this weapon is not of much avail in Nova Scotia and in those Provinces where the population is mainly engaged in agriculture, fishing, and the extraction industries, which are difficult to assess for income tax. It seems, therefore, that all the Provinces can not adequately meet the welfare and other services without new tax weapons. The main weapon is the income-tax, but the efficient administration of an income tax is best left in the hands of the Dominion Government. In Ottawa, administration can be centralised, and this tax can be made national in scope. Furthermore it seems advisable that the Dominion should always have this tax at its full disposal, in order to meet national emergencies that might arise.

The second method of meeting the question by increasing the taxes at the disposal of the Provinces seems a doubtful possibility when the Dominion has to have the main tax—the income tax—at its command.

(3) The third way out of the present difficulty is to alter the constitution, so that the Provinces would transfer their power over the social services to the Dominion Government.

This method, however, must be suspect in a

region so large as Canada. By centralising the administration of social services in Ottawa, it seems that grave administrative difficulties would arise, because in Ottawa it is difficult to appreciate detailed local problems of relief, pensions, etc. in the remote parts of Provinces. These local problems are best met by local administration, because these questions vary from district to district, and their understanding requires an administration that is flexible and sympathetic. These requirements are more likely to be present if the service is administered locally by the Provinces themselves.

Each method of meeting the difficulty seems to contain its own germ of disruption. Nevertheless this diagnosis has brought to light some features that might be combined to form a healthy scheme.

It is clear that the increased social and welfare services, which now lie mainly on the Provinces, cannot be met by them from their existent revenues. It is also clear that these services are national in character, and that, therefore, the Dominion Government ought to ensure that the schemes of relief, pensions, etc. are equal as between the Provinces, and that it ought to aid in the financing of these schemes. But we have already seen that the Dominion ought not to grant unconditional subsidies to the Provinces on this account. We conclude, therefore, that only one reasonable compromise is possible, namely for schemes of social and welfare services to be arranged under Dominion supervision, but with local and Provincial administration. This would require co-operation between the Provinces and the Dominion, in order to have national schemes of relief, pensions, health and unemployment insurance etc., laid down, as common to all Canada, and as requiring uniformity of legislation. Then the Federal Government would make grants to those Provinces that participated efficiently and properly in the particular national scheme of social service. This method would combine national co-ordination with Provincial administration, and would give to the Dominion some control over the grants made to meet the services.

Whether the coming Royal Commission considers the question in this way, or whether its attentions will be focussed on other phases of Federal-Provincial finance, it seems that there is an immediate opportunity for statesmanlike co-operation between the Provinces and the Dominion on matters of social and welfare questions.

Nobody's Child

By JUDGE R. H. MURRAY*

THE problem of the child of unwed parents has been perplexing the peoples of the world ever since marriage was instituted. The laws as to the status of the unfortunate child and methods of assigning the liability for its support have varied in every country, state and province. The first attempt in England to codify the law, solely for the monetary benefit of the parish where the child was born, is found in the English Acts of 1609 and 1773, enabling the mother of any child chargeable or likely to become chargeable to the parish, to secure the arrest and imprisonment of the father until he might indemnify the parish of the expense consequent on the birth of the child. Many other acts were subsequently passed to protect a parish. The welfare of the child and mother were given little consideration. In 1845 civil remedy was, by statute, given to the mother and others. Since then substantial effort has been made not only to protect the parish but towards improving the welfare of the child and mother. In earlier times the child was generally known as "Nullius Filius", "Son of nobody", "Kin of nobody". Blackstone fully sets forth the disabilities placed on such a child. (Vol. I p. 433).

The Province of Nova Scotia has a statute which received its inspiration through the English law. This is found in a codified form in the Revised Statutes of Nova Scotia (1923, Vol. 2 Chapter 49). There have been several amendments made since that year, particularly for the benefit of the child. The Act is divided into two main parts, the first being for the purpose of proceedings to indemnify a poor district in consequence of being called on to support the child and mother. Procedure is there set out to meet the case of a pregnant woman who is likely to become or is chargeable to the poor district. The putative father is apprehended and is dealt with by justices of peace or a stipendiary magistrate. Legislation, limiting the right to institute such proceedings, is found in sections relating to the cities of Halifax and Sydney. If an order of filiation is granted the putative father is required by the Court, to meet expenses incident to the birth of the child by paying "a sum of money weekly towards the maintenance of such child while chargeable to the poor district, or for such period as they consider right, respect being had to the ability and prospective means of the putative father." This may be enforced by a bond for the

fulfillment of the order. As a matter of fact the liability is generally discharged by virtue of another provision in the Act whereby, in default of a bond being furnished the putative father he may pay a lump sum of "not less than One Hundred and Fifty Dollars nor more than Five Hundred Dollars." A further provision casts the liability on the mother to nurse a child and contribute towards its support. Default on the part of the putative father may subject him to imprisonment up to twelve months or until an order is fulfilled.

In actual practice, owing to the impecunious condition of most such fathers, the magistrates have generally collected and paid over the lump sum, or have provided instalment payments to be made to the institution, family, or person, who attend to the maintenance of the child. Under the Act corroborative evidence of the parentage on the part of the putative father is not necessary, although the Courts have frequently stated that the evidence of fatherhood should be convincing.

Part second of the Act shows an evolution of the early law by giving a remedy by civil action (from time to time) on the part of the mother or by another person or corporation having maintained such child, for any expenses incurred. This liability remains on the father until the child attains an age of fifteen years, the amount of weekly payments being a sum not exceeding Five Dollars. The putative father is not liable if he has previously fulfilled a filiation order made under Part one of the Act. Part two is not frequently invoked owing to the difficulty in collecting a civil debt.

Deprivation of heirship was one of the disabilities attending the child of parents who ought, rather than the child, bear the stigma of "illegitimate." By an amendment to the main Act, passed in 1934, better financial provision, was made for the maintenance of the child, and several disabilities were removed. The mother became the lawful heir of the child and "where the mother and putative father of any child heretofore or hereafter born out of lawful wedlock have heretofore intermarried or hereafter intermarry," the child is given "all the civil rights and privileges of a child born in lawful wedlock" including a right to inherit property, "and for all purposes to become a lawful lineal descendant of the parents." Provision is, however, made that the removal of these disabilities shall not affect any "right, title or interest" which has been vested in any other person.

*EDITOR'S NOTE: His Honour R. H. Murray, M.A., LL.B., is Judge of the County Court of Halifax.

Conditions in Nova Scotia

So far for the Nova Scotia law. It may now be asked what are some of the life conditions affecting such children? In the ordinary cases, prenatal care is absent. The mother is, by reason of her situation, hiding her "shame", compelled to work under distressing circumstances, and has no person to go to for help or advice. Credit for much assistance must be given to Children's Aid Societies and other social agencies. The mother suffers great distress when forced to go to a magistrate and disclose her condition, both before him and before the Court at later proceedings. No financial help is given her until after the birth of the child and frequently there is an ultimate default. The child is in the majority of instances, an out-cast in the mother's home and its start in life is most unpropitious. The defectives generally find a home in an institution. The normal children start out with a heavy handicap and it is not surprising that many of them add to our delinquent class. It is consoling, however, that, notwithstanding the heavy penalties, visited by a Pecksniffian Society, thousands of these children have overcome the stigma and filled important places in the world.

The last Report of the Department of Health for the Province, in the year 1935, shows that there were 377 such births in our Cities and Towns, and 286 in our Counties. On a study of the numbers credited to each locality there are great discrepancies in the matter of proportions to be attributed to them. Perhaps the presence of hospitals, in some of these centres, may explain why some towns have only one or no births noted, while others go as high as 34.

Although progress has been made in this Province, not only to protect the Poor District, which was the primary concern of early legislators, there have also been slow advances made in the interests of the child and mother. It is, however, submitted that our Act is, in many respects, an anachronism, when compared with the advances made in some of the other Provinces. Without specifically dealing with the legislation of each Province, some of the legal evolutionary developments, not found in our Act, may be noted. Many of the Acts, outside Nova Scotia, contain all the benefits bestowed by our Act, and, in addition, further effective provisions. The keynote may be found in one of their sections which reads: "The Judge shall fix such sums for maintenance as shall enable the child to maintain a reasonable standard of life, and the Judge shall be governed in his findings by the consideration of what the child would have enjoyed had he been born to his parents in lawful wedlock." "Illegitimate" is not used in these Acts. "Children of Unmarried Parents" is the more euphonious title. A "Pro-

vincial Guardian" or "Provincial Officer" is appointed by the Government to oversee and enforce the working of the laws. One of the most important sections is that which requires the officer in charge of the Vital Statistics Act to report the birth of every child, born out of wedlock, to the Provincial Guardian, who shall fully investigate every such birth and see that all proper proceedings are taken in the interest of the child. The Provincial Guardian is also a refuge to whom the woman may, at any time, go for sympathy and aid. The application for affiliation orders may be made by practically any person financially interested in the child, as well as the Provincial Guardian. The limitations of time, in which proceedings may be taken, are much more generous than in the Nova Scotia Act, and the provisions for the maintenance of the child are much more liberal. The child may be given the name of the father. Corroboration of the mother's evidence is necessary in the Acts of some of the Provinces. Notice of all proceedings must be given to the Public Guardian and all moneys payable by the putative father are to be sent to the Provincial Guardian, who, in turn, pays them to the Public Trustee. As the money is needed it is paid back to the Public Guardian to be used for the maintenance of the child. Collectors of the moneys from the putative fathers are also appointed and it is noteworthy that last year \$86,000.00 were collected in Ontario for the benefit of the children. In short the administration of the Act is under the Public Guardian—a very great need in Nova Scotia. It is a painful sight in our Courts to be present when several possible fathers are brought before the Court as defence to the putative father. This situation is met in Prince Edward Island and other Provinces, a provision being found: "Where any one of two or more persons may be the possible father of a child born out of wedlock . . . the Judge may make an order against any one or more of such persons." So much for advanced law from which Nova Scotia may take inspiration.

The child and mother also seem to be considered of primary importance by modern social workers. As a consequence there have been many philanthropic agencies working, throughout the world, for the benefit of these unfortunates. The Director of Child Welfare for the Province, in conjunction with Children's Aid Societies has, with very limited appropriations, been doing excellent work, but he and the Children's Aid Societies should receive more aid by law, by Government and civic appropriations, and by private co-operation. A few special organizations to aid in such cases have been formed in Canada and the United States. England and Scotland specialize in their aid through "The National Council for the Unmarried Mother and her Child." The list of officers and committees consists of the names of some of the most dis-

tinguished men and women in Great Britain. Perhaps one of the most useful departments of the Council is the Case Committee to which expectant mothers may go for aid. There are a few of such local organizations in Canada. The Children's Aid Societies have been called on from time to time, and are over taxed in their work. The Unmarried Parents Committee of the Vancouver Council of Social Agencies has been of great help to that community. Domestic Relation Courts and Probation Officers have been aiding in other communities. In short, efforts have been to recognise the child as one of the greatest assets in our civilization, and by conserving the interests

of mother and child, thus lay a foundation for a better citizenship in Canada. The Canadian Welfare Council has been doing excellent educative work and there is no reason why it should not strive for a uniformity of legislation in these matters throughout Canada. It could also, through local agencies, do much to help in coordinating the law and the divers methods, which are now being used throughout our Dominion, to make the lot of the unfortunate more bearable. It is the sincere prayer of all interested in our fellow beings that something be done and that right speedily, to build up a citizenship from which the criminal and defective classes shall have largely disappeared.

Aims Of Agricultural Education

By LYMAN T. CHAPMAN*

TO give its students an adequate understanding of the application of agricultural science, in a profitable way, to the fields and farm yards, to develop an active appreciation of comfortable homes and a better understanding of rural life is the aim of agricultural education. The achievement of this objective is attempted by the Nova Scotia Agricultural College from two angles: First, training boys and girls to become better farmers and citizens; second, by providing facilities for taking the first and second years of the B.S.A. degree course as a means of training farmers, educators, research workers, experimentalists, extension men, and men for administrative positions in technical agriculture.

In a word, the principal product of agricultural education is *men* trained in the sciences and arts of farming; trained men to man our farms, our experimental stations, our research laboratories, district representative offices, administrative positions, and the Agricultural College itself. And above all, the men in these different walks of agricultural life must have a clear understanding of the place farmers and farming occupy in this changing world of ours, where farmers are no longer self-sufficient, but must sell their products in the world's markets and buy numerous daily necessities from many sources.

The application of science in engineering, aviation, manufacturing of all kinds, has changed the tempo of life, and so agriculture, if it is to keep in step and maintain a satisfactory standard

of rural life, must work that money-making team—"Science" and "Practice"—at the modern rate of speed and efficiency.

Teachers and students at an agricultural college work with life and living things. Beginning with the lowest forms of plant and animal life, the course of instruction unfolds the evolution of plants and animals to the higher forms as represented by the hay and grain in the fields, the fruit in the orchards, the poultry and the cattle and horses in the farmyards, all of which provide the food we eat and the clothes we wear. And so not only do the students acquire the knowledge of a business and a way of life, but they study and work with the very basis of their existence.

As the roots of the plants go down into the earth, so does the work of the chemistry and biology laboratories in determining the proper treatment of soils for the production of the living things that are a part of our very existence and in acquiring knowledge of the plants themselves, all of which is helpful in fighting and preventing the ravages of the undesirable and injurious forms of plant and animal life—the diseases and insects that attack crops and fruits and live stock and man.

A constant battle is being waged by nature and by man to maintain the balance. We in Nova Scotia face these enemies in more or less controllable kinds and numbers. The aim of an agricultural education is to equip men to carry on these battles. To equip them to apply the findings of science to the arts of farming and rural life. We live in a world of facts accumulating at an increasingly rapid rate. The contribution of the agricultural scientist is a great increase in the things we know. Hand

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in hand with that knowledge comes an acute realization of the importance of testing their accuracy. The economic relationship between the scientific facts and conditions in the field and farmyards is constantly changing. The great difficulty is to concentrate upon the *basic and important principles* and *leave the things of lesser importance* to be revealed more accurately by the experience of life in later years. And so students and staff together explore the accumulation of knowledge to reach a realization of values in terms of farm crops and live stock, and to reach an understanding of their application to farming—that oldest and most honourable of human occupations—and to gain an adequate appreciation of their heritage, of soil and climate that makes for comfort and security.

The Economic Aspects

Hand in hand with the broad aim of an agricultural education, go the more tangible and business aspects of the industry as it affects the individual farmer and his family right in his own home, in his own fields, and in his own barnyard. One of these more practical aims should be to increase the production of our farms, not alone because we shall have a few more millions of dollars worth of produce at the end of a given year, but more particularly that the individual farmer shall have a larger revenue with which to procure the things in life which he would like to have for his family and himself.

Aside from apples, Nova Scotia, although a farming province, is an importer of farm produce, which, of course, is another way of saying that Nova Scotia mixed farmers usually enjoy a higher price for their produce than do farmers in other provinces where a surplus is produced for export. That is a broad statement, of course, and possibly could be contradicted by the individual experience of certain farmers and in isolated cases during the marketing season.

To improve the dollars and cents situation of individual farmers, it seems to be common sense to proceed along two roads. First, to make an effort to produce larger yields per acre of all crops and, secondly, to grow more acres of crops. It is perfectly obvious that the proper way and indeed, the only way, to grow more crops, is to grow more crops. To do this, we must, of course, begin with the soil. And so another aim of agricultural education should be to disseminate as rapidly as possible a knowledge and an understanding of soil management, soil deficiencies, through the mediums of soil surveys and soil testing, so that the majority of the enterprising farmers will be in a position to follow the most effective methods of cultivation, and use the proper fertilizers for his particular farm and field, thus avoiding a lot of lost motion and needless expense.

Once a proper knowledge and understanding of the soil has been reached, the next step is, of course, to acquire a knowledge and understanding of seeds and crops. Immediately that we begin dealing with seeds and crops and growing them, we automatically come face to face with weeds and plant diseases, as well as insect pests of many kinds. Thus it is necessary for an agricultural education to include in its aims a knowledge of ways and means of not only growing crops, but of combating and controlling their enemies.

The next logical aim, of course, is to spread understanding information about the production of live stock, poultry and the products thereof. Broadly speaking, permanent agriculture in the mixed farming areas is, of course, based upon the production of farm crops, feeding them to live stock and marketing the crops in the form of meat, dairy products, poultry and poultry products, eggs, etc. And so this particular aim involves a knowledge of animal husbandry in general, feeding the different kinds and classes of live stock, a knowledge of feeds, how to select feeds according to their feeding value, in relation to the market price, a proper understanding of the value of legume hay which farmers can grow on their own farms, along with root crops, silage, and, of course, the cereal grains, notably oats and barley, which grow so well on most Nova Scotia farms.

Still another aim of agricultural education should be a proper working knowledge of the markets for farm produce, even though Nova Scotia agriculture in the main, that is, to say, aside from the apple industry, and certain seasonable crops, such as strawberries, need not go outside the boundaries of the province for a market, yet the fact remains that disorganized marketing, or unbusiness-like marketing, always results in disappointment and discouragement and a loss of many dollars. It is obvious, therefore, that one important aim of agricultural education should be to develop and establish in the minds of farmers and rural boys and girls, a business-like attitude toward the marketing of farm produce. That is, to say, impress upon them the importance of realizing the full cash value of their products. The vital point in successful marketing is the desire to get an adequate return from the produce based upon the understanding that adequate returns cannot be realized unless the product is of high quality, properly packed and officially graded. When all of these things have been achieved, then the desire to get the last dollar from the produce will automatically lead to the proper method of marketing to attain that objective.

Another aim, and a vital one, and the last one I shall deal with in this article, is that of developing in the minds of citizens, rural and urban alike, enthusiasm for agriculture, for rural life, for comfortable homes, adequate schools, churches,

and finally, a proper appreciation and understanding of the importance of agriculture's contribution to our provincial and national life. That contribution is not limited to the food we eat and the clothes we wear, but consists also of men and women, who having profited by these aims in

agricultural education, and are equipped not only to carry on and improve the farms and rural homes of the country, but also to bring a broader understanding of the interdependence of rural and urban centres to the business, commercial and professional life of our towns and cities.

Adult Education and Co-operative Movement in Eastern Nova Scotia

By A. B. MACDONALD*

DURING the past sixty years or so, eastern Nova Scotia, in common with all other parts of the Maritime Provinces, suffered severe losses in population. The great industrial developments in the United States during this period and the lure of Western Canada drew away many of the inhabitants of the farming and fishing villages. In addition to the migration brought about by these causes, the boom in the steel industry at Sydney and in the coal fields of Cape Breton caused a still greater depopulation of the rural and fishing communities. To such an extent did this go on in the period referred to that many communities fell below the normal minimum of man-power needed for efficient community effort. Consequently the people were found to be discouraged over the prospects of the industries in which they were engaged and in danger of becoming victims to false economic and social theories.

After a survey of such conditions in the constituency and after noting the meagre educational equipment of its 200,000 people, their limited outlook and the ruthless exploitation of them by private interests, the clergy of the Diocese of Antigonish and of its University, St. Francis Xavier, concluded that the solution of the economic and social problems of the people lay mainly in the initiation of a program of adult education that was thought would accomplish the following results:

Through the dissemination of ideas the people would be motivated to do their everyday work in a more efficient manner and thus help to solve their production problems.

The people would be spurred on to take a greater interest in economic and social affairs, and in time be conditioned to carry on many of the business activities of the communities that were previously carried on by private individuals.

Improvement in the social, cultural and religious activities of the communities would follow from wider participation on the part of the people in their economic affairs.

Through the acquiring of facts and information with regard to local conditions the people would be led to discover new ways of doing things, and to develop new local industries which would help to bring them a greater degree of economic security.

Consequently the Extension Department launched out on a program of adult education. A variety of agencies has been used to promote adult study. The most important of these and the one which is emphasized by the department more than anything else is the "study club." Such clubs are formed in the farming, fishing and mining communities and are very informal in character. Each club is composed of from five to fifteen members with a general average of about ten to a group. The groups select their own leaders and meet weekly in the homes, in community halls, school houses or any other convenient place. Little attempt has been made by the department to get them to follow a uniform method of procedure. As long as a few friends or neighbours are anxious to meet for the purpose of reading, studying and discussing in a friendly way the literature supplied by the department, it is recognized that effective work will be done. There were approximately 1,000 clubs organized during the past term, having a total enrollment of over 10,000 men and women. Once a month the several study clubs of a community meet for an associated study club rally which usually consists of reports from the various clubs, discussions, entertainment, and talks by special speakers.

To supply the clubs with reading material the department publishes the "Extension Bulletin" every two weeks during the scholastic term. The articles in this publication are read, studied and discussed by the members. In addition to the

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Extension Bulletin many of the clubs use pamphlets and articles on a variety of topics. The request for this type of literature is increasing yearly.

First Library Legislation

So great was the demand for books during the past year that the Department found it necessary to open a central library in the industrial centre of Glace Bay, with ten branch libraries serving the surrounding areas. These are partially supported by the people themselves. About 1000 books are exchanged by these libraries at regular intervals. One result of this expansion in library work was the enactment by the Provincial Government of the first piece of library legislation for Nova Scotia, enabling the towns and municipalities to levy a tax for the promotion of further library developments.

As in previous years, the department maintained an open-shelf library of about a thousand books for the use of the study clubs, and in addition kept thirty travelling libraries of thirty books each, in circulation among the clubs.

Realizing that the success of the local study club and other community activities depends in great measure on the quality of leadership developed, the department has conducted during the past five years a four-week school for community leaders at the College. Young men and women showing qualities of leadership come to the school and are given an intensive course on subjects that will fit them to be foremost in promoting worth while activities in their home communities.

To assist in maintaining interest in study club work the department has sponsored public speaking and debating contests, and featured in many places the staging of plays, pageants, inter-community sports, and other social activities. A broader recreational program is now being instituted in Cape Breton.

The Co-operative Movement

Since the study of the 10,000 club members in the constituency is economic in nature it is only natural to find these people organizing co-operative societies for the carrying on of their own business. Consequently, various types of co-operative associations have been developed during the past six years. A brief description of some typical co-operative projects will help to give an idea of the nature and scope of the movement.

From a study of money and credit the adult students of eastern Nova Scotia have learned that the type of credit that they have been using has been costly in the extreme and that the various credit institutions were not suited to their peculiar needs. With a knowledge of these facts they have proceeded to look after their own credit requirements through the organization of co-operative banks or credit unions. During the past five years

one hundred and two of these have been organized. Last year their total loans amounted to \$371,109.17. In the city of Sydney alone there are five credit unions, with a total membership of 2,330, having total assets of \$70,000.00.

The lobster fishermen are beginning to process and sell their products. Nineteen co-operative lobster factories are now operating in eastern Nova Scotia, with a turnover of \$335,000.00 during their short season. These serve the fishermen of seventy communities and are enabling them to secure a larger return for their catch. In Havre Boucher, Antigonish County, for example, one hundred fishermen received \$10,800.00 more for their catch last year than they would have received if they had had to rely upon an independent packer. Knowledge of the success of these co-operative undertakings is rapidly spreading to other fishing communities and it will not be long before all the fishermen in the constituency will own and operate their own factories.

Eleven fishing communities have organized societies for the sale of their fresh and cured fish, particularly herring, cod, and haddock. Boneless cod prepared by these co-operatives is highly praised by the trade. A number of fishermen's co-operatives are putting up special products, such as canned blueberries, foxberries, salmon, mackerel, etc. No difficulty is experienced in marketing these products. In fact, the fruit commissioner at Ottawa claimed that the Tor Bay canned blueberries were the best offered for sale in Canada.

Twenty-four co-operative stores are also owned and operated by the people themselves and are doing an annual business of approximately \$3,000,000. Before long they will be federated in a wholesale.

The people of several communities are studying the possibility of organizing small community industries for the purpose of securing part time employment and for the converting of some natural resources into saleable products. Already four communities own their own mills for the sawing of rough lumber and in the near future they propose to install extra machinery for the making of finished lumber products for their own use and for sale in nearby markets. Another community is contemplating the erection of a canmaking plant to supply cans to the organized groups of fishermen along the coast. A co-operative milk pasteurization and marketing society has been organized at Sydney, and a co-operative threshing mill in another community.

The activities of the women's group are somewhat varied. In the rural and fishing districts a certain amount of progress has been made in the study of the relation of diet to health. Here and there, groups of mothers discuss child feeding at their meetings, and write to the Extension Department for additional information. In one or two

communities the women have purchased canning equipment co-operatively. In this way they will have a supply of vegetables and fruit throughout the year.

The main interest in these districts, however, is in handicrafts. Hand-made looms used by the mothers of the past generations have been taken down from the attics and used in making blankets, suiting, material for home furnishings and decoration. Moreover, the Extension Department has sponsored handicraft exhibitions in the rural districts where the people are alive to the possibilities of improving their standards of living through supplying their own needs from the materials produced on the farm.

On the invitation of the Federal Government and the Government of New Brunswick, work similar to that done in Eastern Nova Scotia is carried on by the Extension Department in New Brunswick. Also in 1935 at the invitation of the Commission of Government of Newfoundland, one of the staff of the Extension Department, Gerald P. Richardson, was asked to take charge of this work in Newfoundland. Work of a similar nature is making marked progress in Prince Edward Island.

As already indicated, the Extension Department has unceasingly stressed the need of adult study and promoted educational activities of various kinds. The direct outcome of this program is the coming into being of a variety of co-operative undertakings through which the people are taking a firm hand in determining their economic lot. Other results of a far-reaching nature are in evidence. In a general way they may be enumerated as follows:

1. There are striking indications of a real intellectual awakening on the part of the people. Voluntarily they are organizing local libraries. They are becoming readers and students and are thinking through not only local problems but also the bigger political and economic issues that have a bearing on their standards of living. Clergymen of all denominations are studying economic problems and giving leadership.

2. On account of improved technique and the business projects carried on by the people their yearly income is increased and it will not be long before a fair measure of financial security will be the reward of their efforts.

3. The people are beginning to discover that government doles and handouts from charitable

institutions will not solve their depressing social and economical conditions. They are beginning to find that through group activity they are able to do for themselves what institutions and organizations have done for them in the past. They are much happier in learning how to save one dollar through becoming members of a credit union than in accepting a dollar from a relief organization. This has developed a great measure of reliance and self confidence in the people which will go far in building up a finer type of civilization throughout eastern Nova Scotia.

4. It is not alone in economic affairs that the people have made progress. They are becoming interested in activities that have a refining influence and are sponsoring community rallies which make for greater sociability in our rural areas. They are becoming interested in the health problems of the community, in home improvements of all kinds, and above all, they are developing a high regard for religion and a deeper respect for things spiritual.

5. The impact on political thought is quite marked. Deep-rooted, tense, partisan feelings are breaking down. The people are beginning to learn something about political racketeering and are taking a deep and genuine interest in questions of political importance. The result of this is naturally a searching for a new type of public man whose integrity, ability and good intentions will inspire confidence and help to promote true democratic legislation.

6. The informal studies pursued by members of clubs have helped to correct and supplant the deficiencies of their early training. Old prejudices are broken down, new attitudes are cultivated and many learn for the first time the very rudiments of elementary education. Through special study clubs scores of people are learning to read and write.

The extension workers in eastern Nova Scotia feel that the development of a progressive and just social order rests primarily on an enlightened and informed public. Democracy will stand or fall on this. It is recognized that reform cannot be super-imposed on a people, but that it must be brought about by starting at the bottom in the way of getting the people to read and study something about the forces that are at work shaping our civilization. It is not easy to do this. In the main, adults will not study for the sake of study. They must first be convinced that study pays.

The Peace River Experiment

An Experiment in School Administration through the Consolidated School District

By B. A. FLETCHER*

THE most important problem of educational administration, recognised as such by all Provincial Departments of Education in Canada, is that of reducing in some measure, the tremendous inequalities of educational opportunity that result from the small decentralised unit of school administration. There is today the widest variation in ability to support education from district to district. A ten to one ratio in financial support given to education in adjacent districts is very common. There is a similar variation in the percentage of the wealth of a community set aside for educational purposes. Education can only be democratic when there is equality of opportunity. Such equality can only exist when a man supports education in proportion to his means and the money is redistributed in proportion to the needs of the several communities making up a Province. This calls for an equalisation of tax burdens and the consolidation of school districts.

The first large scale experiment in this type of educational reform has been successfully carried out in British Columbia over a period of three years with thirty-nine previously separate school units. The following abstracts from an article in the Canadian Educational magazine "The School" for January, 1937 by W. A. Plenderleith, late Director of Education, Peace River Administrative Area, show the scope and success of the work:—

Under the former system of local school boards there had been too much diversity of control connected with "externa", such as, salaries, financial support, equipment, buildings, and administrative practices. On the other hand, there had been too little diversity and flexibility in the school services connected with "interna", such as, curriculum, the methods used in the class-rooms, and the educational and health opportunities provided for children and adults. The chief efforts of the Department, therefore, were directed to rectifying the above defects by providing: (1) a uniformity of administrative practices connected with salaries, financial support, and business routine; (2) a diversity of school services connected with the curriculum, teaching methods, and the educational process itself.

Uniformity of administrative practices connected with business routine was effected immediately by the standardizing of office routine under the Official Trustee, but uniformity of administrative practices connected with salaries and with financial support took one year to effect.

Abuses Eliminated

The new system of larger units automatically eliminated many of the abuses that had existed under the old system of small units, and by the end of the first year a total saving of \$2,800.00 had been made on the operation of the schools in the four experimental units. As a result of the new system, the Inspector was able in June, 1935, to report to the Department of Education:

- (a) That the Official Trustee had carried out the provision of the British Columbia "Public Schools Act" without fear or prejudice.
- (b) That the teachers had been freed from the petty tyranny which was so often practised by the local school boards in the past.
- (c) That sectional jealousies caused by differences in mill rates were eliminated.
- (d) That there were no short-sighted local school boards to retard educational progress through local prejudice.
- (e) That there were no applications during the year from taxpayers desiring to be transferred from one district to another.
- (f) That a saving of \$1,600.00 had been made in secretaries' allowances in school districts under the Official Trustee.
- (g) That a salary schedule had been drawn up to give each teacher a salary in proportion to services rendered.
- (h) That a definite system of promotion was being arranged. (Under this system teachers coming from the outside will have to take the most undesirable schools, and the best teachers in the consolidated units will be given the first chance to move to better positions.)

*EDITOR'S NOTE: B. A. Fletcher, M.A., B.Sc., is Professor of Education at Dalhousie University.

- (i) That the average mill rate for the four consolidated districts was 5.85 mills, whereas in the schools forming the consolidated districts the individual rates, as approved by the last annual meeting, would have ranged from 1.5 mills to 25 mills, with an average rate of 8.08 mills.
- (j) That the secretary racket had been stopped.
- (k) That the teachers were satisfied with the new system; and that those teachers working outside the consolidated districts, at the last Peace River Teachers' Convention, had voted unanimously in favour of a recommendation that the Department appoint an official trustee for the whole Peace River Inspectorate.
- (l) That there was now no desire on the part of the bachelors to close schools in order to save money, because being in a consolidated district they paid their school taxes, whether they had a school in their locality or not.
- (m) That people who had been holding land for purely speculative purposes were turning it back to the Government. Thus land which was formerly in no school district was included in the revised boundaries of the larger units, and could now be redistributed to bona fide settlers.
- (n) That the majority of the people in the larger units were now in favour of consolidation, and that many of the ratepayers, who so strongly opposed the plan when it was inaugurated, had admitted that their antagonism was unreasonable and that they had now become ardent supporters of the new system.
- (o) That all necessary equipment had been bought for the schools; that free high school tuition had been given to all students who desired it; and that increased library facilities had been provided to every school in the four larger units.
- (p) That the ratepayers of several districts (Pouce Coupe, Dawson Creek, Sunset Prairie, and Kelly Lake), which had not been included in the larger units, now realized the advantages of the larger units and had requested, voted, and petitioned to be included in the new scheme of administration.
- is supported by the following facts relating to the schools of the Peace River Rural School District:
- A. Economy in Operation. In 1935-36 a saving of more than \$12,000.00 was made in the business administration of the system by:
1. A general avoidance of waste of school funds through a proper system of budgeting and accounting.
 2. An increase of 10 per cent in the general pass lists throughout all grades in the larger unit. This increase was effected by:
 - (a) careful selection of fourteen new teachers by the Registrar of the Teachers' Bureau;
 - (b) elimination of four weak teachers;
 - (c) adjustment of seven teachers to positions they could hold more suitably;
 - (d) an increase in esprit de corps through making the entire area a promotion area for the teachers;
 - (e) increased efficiency through decreased mobility of teachers;
 - (f) additional improvements in teaching equipment;
 - (g) adjustment of teachers' salaries on a basis of "services rendered";
 - (h) guarantee of annual increment for satisfactory work;
 - (i) general quickening of professional interest as shown by enrolment of over 80 per cent of staff at summer schools and in home reading courses.
- B. Enlarged Educational Offerings and Improvements made possible by the Saving on Administration. From the \$12,000.00 saved on business administration, the following enlarged educational offerings and improvements in equipment were made:
1. Free tuition has been provided for all students who wish to attend high school from any of the local districts within the larger unit.
 2. A junior high school has been established at Dawson Creek for the benefit of those pupils who did not desire the ordinary course.
 3. Technical courses have been arranged for pupils of the Dawson Creek High School and of adjacent districts.
 4. Two new high schools have been authorized, one at Rolla and the other at Dawson Creek.

Surprising Results

As a result of the changes made in administration, the financial and educational efficiency of the whole unit had been increased to a degree which has surpassed even the most sanguine hopes of the departmental officials. This statement

5. Free night school classes have been provided at twenty different centres where formerly none were in operation.
 6. Additional library equipment, averaging \$25.00 per school, has been distributed throughout the district.
 7. Nine library centres for adults have been equipped and are being supplied by a rotating system of libraries controlled by the official trustee.
 8. One old school, which was burned, has been replaced by a fully equipped, modern frame building.
 9. Four schools have been reopened in areas where the schools had been closed under the former system.
 10. Four new schools have been built to supply the needs of areas requiring educational facilities.
 11. Two new schools have been built to replace obsolete buildings.
- C. Actual saving to taxpayers. Notwithstanding the cost of all the above improvements, the total school taxes in the Peace River District have been reduced.
- D. That the total cost of education has been reduced;
- E. That the percentage of the costs paid by the government has been increased (although the actual amount has been decreased) in return for increased central administrative responsibility;
- F. That the local taxes for educational purposes in the Larger Unit have been reduced by \$8,482.20 since 1933, including the cost of the four additional schools that were operating in 1936.

It might also be of interest to note at this point:

1. That no additional debts were incurred by the consolidated unit;
2. That debts, bonds, and interest (amounting to over \$4,000.00) incurred by former school boards were paid up;

3. That no teacher's salary has been reduced since the consolidated unit was established;
4. That \$780.00 is the minimum salary for elementary school teachers;
5. That \$1,100.00 is the minimum salary for junior high and superior school teachers;
6. That \$1,200.00 is the minimum salary for high school teachers;
7. That the majority of the teachers in the unit are receiving more than the minimum salary.

During the three years that the experimentation with the larger unit of administration has been carried on, there has developed a steadily increasing body of public opinion in favour of the new system. Districts in which the ratepayers were one hundred per cent against the system in 1934, have now swung in the opposite direction and are one hundred per cent for it. The following excerpt from the annual report of an advisory committee indicates the change in attitude:

"Moved by Mr. Barringham and seconded by Mr. Enghnell, that the secretary write a letter to the Official Trustee and to those in his office, assuring them of the appreciation of the people in this district for the interest shown during the school term, 1935-36, by that office in making improvements to the buildings, supplying library books, and the addition of more playing space for the children."

This letter expresses the opinion of ratepayers who only two years ago unanimously signed a petition to the Minister of Education protesting against the new form of school administration.

Dozens of such letters, expressing appreciation of the new system, from Women's Institutes, Farmers' Institutes, and other public and private bodies are on file. These letters indicate the favourable attitude of the majority of the ratepayers toward the larger unit in the Peace River Inspectorate.

Judged by results, the present system of school administration in the larger unit is much more efficient in every way than the former system of school administration in the smaller local units.



Public Health Nursing

By P. S. CAMPBELL*

TO many persons an account of the extent to which public health nursing has developed will come as a surprise. Few know of the conspicuous part placed by nurses in the general movement for better public health and few, only, have any knowledge of the increase in the number of nurses, not only in the larger centres of population, but in the smaller towns and rural communities as well. This movement is now past the experimental stage and a great deal of information has accumulated, from which the project itself can be evaluated and the results measured. Among the more noticeable results are the beneficial effect on the health of school children, the increasing importance placed upon pre-natal and post-natal care, and the extent to which general health educational propaganda has permeated into the homes, even in some of the more remote rural districts. Advice given by the physician, either through the public clinic or in his office, will not bear fruit unless it is carried into the home by the resourceful nurse, on her visits there. In this way, only, can the doctor be sure that his advice is being adhered to, that directions are being carried out, and that the home occupants not only understand, but actually put into practice the methods prescribed for building a healthy people.

While the public health nursing movement is a development of recent years, nevertheless, it is firmly established and well entrenched in many places. In other districts, especially rural ones, it is still in its infancy, but everywhere the tendency is towards its expansion. In addition to health workers, certain business interests were quick to see its worth. Insurance companies now regard money spent on such services as a real investment. One large company a few years ago, started in a small way to appropriate funds for the support of a few field nurses—The object was not alone a humanitarian one, but it was also for the purely business purpose of saving money in death claims. It was soon observed that the experiment was a decided success and its nursing service has grown, until it now covers large sections of North America with hosts of workers. That the company is entirely satisfied with the results is borne out by the fact that its scope has increased to the dimensions indicated.

Public health nursing has so far developed that it has become an essential part of almost every health activity. Especially does it occupy an important place in the hygiene of the mother and

child and in the prevention and control of all communicable diseases. The toiler in this service goes out to meet the people, both in the schools and in the homes, and otherwise assists physicians in giving practical application to all measures that have been initiated for the prevention of disease.

One does not have to go far in public health work to realize that a competent public health nursing service is not only desirable, but is definitely essential to the proper functioning of any modern health program. A few years ago a provincial nursing service was inaugurated in Nova Scotia by the Department of the Public Health. Since that time a group of specially trained nurses has been continuously on duty in the schools and in the homes as well.

In the school, search is made for defects which tend to prevent the children obtaining full benefit from the educational system provided and attempts are made to have all remediable defects corrected. Pupils are taught the dangers attending infectious diseases, how to avoid contracting them, and each individual's responsibility in preventing their spread. Special consideration is given to the correction of insanitary conditions discovered in connection with school premises and to the abatement of nuisances generally.

From the school and with the approval of the family physicians, the nurse's activities take her into the home, where some of her most valuable work is accomplished. Having entered the home, she seizes the opportunity to devote as much time as possible to maternal and infant welfare and the adjustment of family or social conditions affecting health. Due to the nature of her work, the public health nurse becomes a health-supervisor, and since health-supervision includes health education, a wonderful opportunity presents itself for bringing education into the household where it is needed most. After attempting the distribution of health propaganda through pamphlet and newspaper copy for years, many health authorities are now of the opinion that the person best qualified to carry health education into the home, is the nurse who enters the home to do health work.

It is not the business of the nurse to make diagnoses. Acting always under the authority and instruction of the physician, her work is to teach the expectant mother the care she should take of herself; to instruct the actual mother in infant feeding and care of the developing child; to teach sufferers from infectious diseases the precautions they must exercise to prevent their spread;

*EDITOR'S NOTE: P. S. Campbell, M. D., is Chief Public Health Officer for Nova Scotia.

to help remedy conditions in communities which predispose to disease; to locate and endeavour to have remedied, defects in school-going children; and to teach the little ones in the schools simple laws of hygiene and the means to be employed in protecting their own health and promoting that of others. Very special attention must always be given the children, for if we are to have a healthier people, we must prepare the foundation with healthier children.

In no other sphere does the nurse render a more essential service than in the field of tuberculosis control. She is familiar with all that constitutes proper care of the tuberculous sufferer, and alive to her responsibility for the protection of those associated with the sufferer. She is familiar with the means to be employed in the household, not only to bring about the arrest of the disease, but of more importance, the prevention of its spread to others. During her first visit, time is consumed in gaining the confidence of the patient and his associates. With this confidence well established her opportunities for doing effective work are almost unlimited. She not only talks to the patient and his family, but she demonstrates and re-demonstrates what can be done in the circumstances. In this way her work becomes efficacious. The objective of the nurse is to bring to the tuberculosis patient all those things which are necessary both for the treatment of the disease and the prevention of its spread.

During the past year a group of ten provincial

nurses inspected 38,120 school children and visited 12,178 homes in the interests of 17,493 persons. In addition upwards of 5,000 interviews were had with parents and public officials and many hours were spent in clinics.

The whole public health progression of our time is more and more becoming an educational movement, having as its aims, the prevention of disease, the prolongation of life, and improvement in the hygienic conduct of community life. In teaching the individual the principles of prevention the public health nurse has proved herself the most effectual agency at the disposal of health departments. The scope and character of her work have not been understood. She is an investigator, advisor and educator. Special training and experience qualify her to bring sympathy and relief to many sufferers, and it is logical to predict that soon the public health program of any community, large or small, will be evaluated or measured by the extent to which its public health nursing service has been developed.

Public health nursing is the most difficult branch of the nursing profession. The time consumed and difficulties encountered in obtaining results, the adverse criticism of intelligent but misinformed people, the difficulties of travel and the indifference of many people, necessitate the development of knowledge, resourcefulness and perseverance never demanded of those engaged in the less exacting yet more spectacular divisions of surgical and bed-side nursing.

Administration of Poor Relief in Nova Scotia

By T. D. MacDONALD*

I

THE following purports to be a description of the provisions for the administration of poor relief as contained in Chapter 48 of the Revised Statutes of Nova Scotia, 1923, "The Poor Relief Act", as amended in 1924, 1927, 1928, 1929 and 1934, with references to certain provisions of other statutes which are related thereto, and with references to a number of Nova Scotia cases decided upon that Act.

The gist of the Act may be shortly stated in the words of the 11th Section:

"The Overseers in every poor district shall furnish relief and support to all indigent persons having a settlement in such poor district, when they are in need thereof."

Although it was suggested by the trial Judge in a case decided in 1902 that the Overseers of the Poor are under no obligation to give relief to paupers having no settlement in their district¹, the opinion has been expressed in later cases that it is the Overseers' duty to look after all paupers in their district in the first instance regardless of the fact whether they have a settlement in such district or not, and if they relieve those having a settlement in any other poor district, there is ample provision made by which they can recover any relief given to the poor of such district², and that the primary liability and responsibility of providing relief for the poor is placed upon the Overseers of

*EDITOR'S NOTE: T. D. MacDonald, LL.B., is Assistant Attorney General of Nova Scotia.

1. Overseers of the Poor, District No. 5, Cumberland v. MacDonald, 35 N.S.R., 394.

2. Bushby vs. Town of North Sydney, 46 N.S.R., 549.

the poor district in which the pauper is found³. The test of pauperism is the necessity for immediate assistance, and a person may be entitled to relief although he may expect to come into some property⁴.

Under the scheme of The Poor Relief Act, the Province, excepting the cities and incorporated towns, is divided into "poor districts", the boundaries of which may be changed from time to time by the Council of the municipality within which such poor districts lie. When a poor district is divided or a new poor district created, any person who dwelt and had his settlement within the area affected, henceforth has his settlement within the poor district which now contains the place where he used to dwell. The verb "dwell" in this context does not mean simply bodily presence, and a person who has a settlement within a poor district, and although possessed of no permanent home has been accustomed to reside at different places within a particular village or vicinity when not away at temporary work, will, upon the division of the poor district into two, have his settlement within the new poor district within the area of which he has been so accustomed to reside, even though at the time of the division he is employed at temporary work and living within the area of the other new district.^{4a} Twenty of the ratepayers within any poor district may petition the Council to alter the boundaries of any poor district, whereupon the Council, having afforded a hearing to all persons interested and having advertised the proposed change by the posting of notices within the district to be changed, may proceed to alter the poor district in the manner proposed or otherwise, into as many poor districts as it deems necessary for the future support of the poor. The Council at the same time directs what portion of the amount required for the support of all the paupers chargeable on the old poor district shall be borne by each of the new, but thereafter the expense of maintaining such paupers is borne by the poor districts within which, after the change, their respective settlements lie. The Council may also provide that the whole municipality shall constitute one poor district and it also has power to determine that the expenses of the support of all poor persons having a settlement in any poor district in the municipality shall be borne by the municipality and not by the respective poor districts⁵.

The Council, at its annual meeting⁶, appoints three persons in each poor district who are the

owners of real property to be the Overseers of the Poor. The Overseers and their successors in office are a body corporate under the name of "The Overseers of the Poor for the Poor District of" They must keep a record of their proceedings and turn it over, with any money on hand, at the termination of their terms of office, to their successors. A vacancy by reason of the death of an Overseer or of his ceasing to reside within the poor district, is filled by the Warden of the municipality and three Councillors. A person appointed to the office of Overseer must serve under penalty of \$25.00 for refusing to do so.

Any of the municipalities, incorporated towns and cities within a county may enter into an agreement, subject to the approval of the Governor-in-Council, to acquire and maintain a poorhouse for the accommodation of the poor of the county. The Overseers of the Poor may require any person applying to them for relief to go into such a poorhouse, and on the refusal of such person to do so, may convey him there, but it has been suggested that aside from this provision, which is contained in Section 12 of the Act, or some other statutory provision, a pauper could not be removed and maintained against his will in a poorhouse outside of the poor district to which he belongs.⁷ The management of any such poorhouse is vested in the Councils of the towns and municipalities that own it. Such management is regulated by by-laws of the municipality within which the poorhouse is situate, or if it is situate in a town, by by-laws of the municipality of which the town formed a part before incorporation. Such by-laws are subject to the approval of the Governor-in-Council and the Councils of the towns and municipalities to whom the poorhouse belongs must be given notice of application to the Governor-in-Council to approve them. The cost of the maintenance of any such poorhouse is a matter of joint expenditure under the provisions of "The Assessment Act", which is Chapter 86 of the Revised Statutes of Nova Scotia, 1923. Under that Act the Council of each municipality, city and town within a county appoints a committee of three, called the Arbitration Committee, whose function it is to speak for such municipality, city or town, in deciding what are objects of municipal expenditure which are for the joint benefit of the municipalities, cities and towns within the one county, and the proportion of such expenditure that should be borne by the municipality, city or town which such Arbitration Committee represents. The cost of the removal to and maintenance in such a poorhouse of any pauper is, nevertheless, to be borne by the poor district in which he has a settlement. Except temporarily for a period not exceeding fourteen days, no child

3. *McKenzie vs. Overseers of the Poor for District No. 13, Cape Breton County*, 6 M.P.R., 1.

4. *Munro vs. Overseers of the Poor*, Wallace, 13 N.S.R., 501.

4a. *The Town of Joggins vs. Overseers of the Poor*, District 5, Cumberland, 58 N.S.R., 76.

5. *The Municipal Act*, R.S.N.S., 1923, Chapter 83, Section 122 (b).

6. *The Municipal Act*, R.S.N.S., 1923, Chapter 83, Section 111 (e).

7. *McDougall of The Town of Sydney Mines*, 45 N. S. R., 348.

under the age of sixteen may be kept as a pauper in any public institution for the keeping and maintaining of paupers, where there are adult paupers or harmless insane, unless the consent in writing of the Director of Child Welfare is first obtained. This officer is appointed under Section 8 of Chapter 166, Revised Statutes of Nova Scotia, 1923, "The Children's Protection Act". Any person who is a party to any detention in violation of this provision is liable to be prosecuted at the instance of the Director, but this provision does not apply to a child committed to an institution for the harmless insane under the Act "Of Local Asylums for the Harmless Insane", which is Chapter 53 of the Revised Statutes of Nova Scotia, 1923. The Overseers of the Poor may bind as apprentices or servants, the infant children of any person who is in need of relief from their district and has a settlement therein, and also all infants who are themselves in need of such relief and have settlements therein. A person to whom such infants are bound must make provision for their instruction in reading, writing and arithmetic, and for such other benefits to the infants as the Overseers think reasonable, and the agreements under which such infants are bound are subject to the approval of two Justices of the Peace⁸.

Each town is a separate poor district⁹, and the Town Council performs the duties of the Overseers of the Poor. Such duties in practice are usually delegated to a standing committee. Similar provision is made for the City of Sydney in Chapter

174 of the Acts of Nova Scotia for 1903, "An Act to Incorporate the City of Sydney". The City of Halifax is a poor district under the provisions of "The Halifax City Charter" and the duties of Overseers are performed by a committee of the City Council called the Committee on Charities. In the City of Halifax all support is given in the City Home. In the cities and incorporated towns, the expenses of the support of the poor are raised as an ordinary expense of the city or town. Outside the cities and towns, the Overseers of each poor district estimate the amount required in their respective poor districts for the ensuing year and report it to the Municipal Council in annual meeting. The Council strikes a poor rate for each district and the taxes for the support of the poor are collected by the collectors of municipal rates along with the other municipal taxes, and are handed over to the Overseers of the Poor for the district who account to the Municipal Council for such moneys before the next annual meeting. By an amending act applicable to the Municipality of the County of Cumberland, the Overseers of the Poor for each poor district are given a limited authority to borrow money with the consent of the Warden and Treasurer of the municipality, the repayment of which money, with interest, is a first charge on the poor rates of such poor district until repaid. The amending act may, by Order-in-Council, be made applicable to any other municipality, and has been so made applicable to the Municipalities of the County of Pictou, the District of Chester, and the District of Guysboro.

NOTE: The second part of the article dealing chiefly with the difficult problem of settlement rules will be published in the next issue.

8. "Of Apprentices", R.S.N.S., 1923, Chapter 137, Section 4.

9. The Towns Incorporation Act, R.S.N.S., 1923, Chapter 84, Section 167.



THIRTY - SECOND ANNUAL CONVENTION

UNION OF NOVA SCOTIA MUNICIPALITIES

The Court House, Sydney, N. S.

Tuesday, Wednesday and Thursday, August 24-25-27, 1937

With the Co-operation of the Institute of Public Affairs, Dalhousie University

TUESDAY, AUGUST 24, 1937.

9.30 a.m.

Short Addresses of Welcome.

His Worship Mayor Muggah, Sydney.
His Honour Warden MacKinnon, Cape Breton Co.
His Worship Mayor Morrison, Glace Bay.
His Worship Mayor Hinchey, New Waterford.
His Worship Mayor McCormick, Sydney Mines.
His Worship Mayor Kelly, North Sydney.
His Worship Mayor Edwards, Dominion.
His Worship Mayor Huntington, Louisburg.

Replies on behalf of the Delegates.

Presidential Address.

His Worship Mayor Muggah, Sydney, President
Union of Nova Scotia Municipalities.

Reports of the Executive and The Financial Report.

His Honour Judge Arthur Roberts, Secretary-
Treasurer, Union of Nova Scotia Muni-
cipalities.

"The Coal Trade in Eastern Canada."

F. W. Gray, LL.D., M.E.I.C., F.R.S.A., Ass't.
General Manager, Dominion Steel & Coal
Corporation, Ltd. Member of the Economic
Council of Nova Scotia.

The Committee on Resolutions.

2.30 p.m.

Town Planning and Civic Improvement.

R. M. Hattie, B.A., Editor of the *Maritime
Merchant*. Former Alderman of Halifax.

"Housing."

W. C. Clark, M.A., LL.D., C.M.G., Deputy
Minister of Finance, Ottawa.

The discussion following the addresses will be led by:

Lothar Richter, Dr. Jur., Dr. Rer. Pol., Dalhousie
University. Institute of Public Affairs.
Professor.

Reports of the Committee on Resolutions.

7.30 p.m.

A visit to the Steel Plant as guests of the Dominion
Steel and Coal Corporation, Ltd.

WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 25, 1937

9.30 a.m.

"The Problem of the Young Man."

Hon. Michael Dwyer, Minister of Public Works
and Mines, Nova Scotia.

"Land Taxation and Municipal Finance."

H. E. Manning, K.C., Toronto, Author of
"Assessment and Rating".

A discussion on Municipal Taxation will follow, led
by:

Frank Rowe, B.A., LL.B., Assistant Commissioner
of Municipal Affairs, Nova Scotia.

Reports of Committee on Resolutions.

Appointment of Committee on Nominations.

2.30 p.m.

Convention Photograph at the Court House.

Visit to Louisburg or No. 12 Coal Mine at New
Waterford.

9.00 p.m.

Theatre Party, Strand or Capitol Theatre.

THURSDAY, AUGUST 26, 1937

9.30 a.m.

Review of Municipal Legislation, 1937.

G. E. Romkey, M.L.A., Former President of
the Union.

Report of Committee on Resolutions.

Unfinished Business.

Next Place of Meeting.

Election of Officers and Executive.

2.30 p.m.

Sydney Harbour Excursion on S.S. "Surf", Supper
at 5.00 p.m.

All entertainment as the guests of the City of
Sydney, the County of Cape Breton and the
Incorporated Towns of Cape Breton County.

Course on Municipal Administration

Immediately following the Annual Convention of the Union of Nova Scotia Municipalities, there will be held in Sydney, August 27th, a course in Municipal Administration, especially arranged for municipal officers in this province. It is the first of its kind in Nova Scotia though similar courses have been held in other parts of Canada, for instance in Ontario and Manitoba. Sydney has been chosen so that those who attend the Convention of the Union of Municipalities can stay on. The duration has been restricted to one day in order not to keep the municipal officers away from home too long. If the course should prove a success it is intended to repeat it on a more extended basis.

In the invitation sent out by the Institute of Public Affairs it is stated:

"The Course serves a practical purpose, its programme having been devised after consultation with prominent representatives of municipalities. It will not deal with general problems interesting as they may be, but will be concerned with the

day to day work of the municipal officer, its problems, its technique and its difficulties. Each subject will be introduced by a lecture given by a man with special experience in that particular field. The lecture, it is hoped, will be followed by an extensive discussion. All speakers except one are closely connected with the municipal life of the Province. The only speaker from outside is H. E. Manning, K.C., of Toronto who is one of Canada's best authorities on taxation and assessment. His book "Assessment and Rating" is used in many municipal offices throughout the Province. In preparing his lecture Mr. Manning has made a special study of assessment and taxation in Nova Scotia.

"The Course is held a day after the close of the Convention of the Union of Nova Scotia Municipalities. Those attending can therefore take part in the sightseeing tour arranged by the City of Sydney the preceding afternoon."

"Admission is free."

Below is published the programme of the Course:

PROGRAMME

FRIDAY, AUGUST 27th

The Court House, Sydney, N. S.

Morning Session—9.30.

CHAIRMAN—Judge Neil McArthur, Sydney.

MUNICIPAL BY LAWS:

Frank Rowe, LL.B., Assistant Commissioner of Municipal Affairs, Halifax

ASSESSMENT AND RATING:

H. E. Manning, K.C., Toronto

Afternoon Session—2.30.

CHAIRMAN—L. D. Currie, LL.B., M.L.A., Town Solicitor, Glace Bay.

MUNICIPAL ACCOUNTING:

E. Kaulback, Principal, Maritime Business College, Halifax.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE POOR LAW:

R. S. McLellan, Town Solicitor, New Waterford.

Current Public Affairs

TOWN PLANNING SCHEMES

The Nova Scotia Town-Planning Act was passed in 1915. Under its provisions city, town and municipal councils *shall* appoint town-planning boards and it is the duty of each board to prepare either town-planning by-laws or a town-planning scheme. While various local authorities have appointed town-planning boards, only the Halifax board has actually prepared a scheme. In 1922 it submitted its scheme for approval but no action was taken by the Commissioner until recently, when the scheme was returned to the board for revision and re-submission. The Halifax scheme is therefore to all intents and purposes still in process of preparation. It will probably be some months before it will be ready for re-submission.

UTILITY COMPANY SOLD

Announcement was made in July that ownership and control of Dominion Utilities Company, Limited, with its head office in New Waterford had passed from Dominion Coal Company to Eastern Light & Power Company, Limited. The electric distribution lines of the Dominion Utilities Company includes all distribution lines in the town of New Waterford, from New Victoria, via South Bar, to Sydney, Lingan, Birch Grove, Dominion No. 6 and Port Morien. The total number of electric customers is 2,600.

INSTITUTE OF PUBLIC AFFAIRS

The Institute of Public Affairs at Dalhousie University was established in 1936. Its purpose is to promote a scientific interest in public affairs, especially in public administration, throughout the Maritime Provinces and Newfoundland, and to further co-operation in the field of public administration between the universities and the governments (federal, provincial and municipal).

In pursuance of these objects the Institute endeavours to co-operate with governmental authorities in organizing for interested public officers or officials conferences and courses of study on public affairs, to establish library facilities for the study of public administration and related subjects and to develop an enlightened public opinion by means of lectures, publications and similar methods.

The Council of the Institute consists of the following persons:

Representatives of Government.

- A. S. BARNSTEAD, Deputy Provincial Secretary. Appointed by the Premier of Nova Scotia.
- JAMES H. CONLON, Director of Federal and Municipal Relations. Appointed by the Premier of New Brunswick.
- J. WATSON MACNAUGHT, Law Clerk to the Legislative Assembly of P. E. I. Appointed by the Premier of Prince Edward Island.
- R. E. EWBANK, Member of the Commission of Government, Newfoundland. Appointed by the Commission of Government, Newfoundland.
- FRANK ROWE, Ass't. Commissioner of Municipal Affairs, Halifax.
- JUDGE ARTHUR ROBERTS, Appointed by the Union of Nova Scotia Municipalities.
- A. McF. LIMERICK, Appointed by the Union of New Brunswick Municipalities.

Representatives of Universities.

- DEAN V. C. MACDONALD, Dalhousie Law School.
 - DEAN H. G. GRANT, Dalhousie Medical School.
 - PRESIDENT F. H. SEXTON, Nova Scotia Technical College.
 - PROFESSOR A. B. MACDONALD, St. Francis Xavier University.
 - PROFESSOR G. F. G. STANLEY, Mount Allison University.
 - PROFESSOR B. S. KEIRSTEAD, University of New Brunswick.
 - PROFESSOR G. DOUGLAS STEEL, Prince of Wales College.
- Representatives of Acadia University and of Memorial College, St. Johns, Nfld., have not yet been appointed.

The President of the Institute was up to the time of his death, the Right Honourable Sir Robert Borden, to whose memory an article is devoted in this issue. The Vice-President is Dr. Carleton Stanley; the Chairman of the Council, Professor R. A. MacKay; and Secretary-Treasurer, Professor L. Richter, all of Dalhousie University.

RESEARCH IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Under the supervision of the Committee on Research in Public Administration at Dalhousie University, the following research projects dealing with administrative problems in Nova Scotia are under way:

- (1) **An investigation of youth on relief in Halifax.** The investigation was under-

taken by M. MacG. Rankin, L. Richter, Miss E. L. Suttis, and H. A. Weir. A preliminary report of the results is published in this issue.

- (2) **An investigation of the problem of efficient school units in Nova Scotia.** A survey will be made in one or two rural counties in order to demonstrate the shortcomings of the present units and ways of remedy. The survey is undertaken by Mr. G. Ferguson in cooperation with Mr. V. P. Seary.
- (3) **Survey of industries in Halifax in view of their capacity for employing labour.** The survey is undertaken in order to provide material for vocational guidance and will, if successful, be extended to other parts of the province. It is carried out by Mr. H. A. Weir of Halifax.
- (4) **An Investigation of Morbidity in the Mining Districts of Cape Breton.** The Investigation is undertaken in cooperation with the Department of Public Health of Dalhousie Medical School.

It is further planned to publish a series of bulletins dealing with important provincial acts of Nova Scotia. Special attention will be given to legislation affecting the municipalities.

HOSPITAL DEBT PROBLEM

Survey by the provincial government into the hospital debt problem of the municipalities with a view "to a revision of the present form of municipal government or administration so that hospitals will be relieved of the existing burden," is asked in a resolution unanimously endorsed by the Hospital Association of Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island while in session at Sydney early in July.

The question of the annually pyramiding debt owed to hospitals by the municipalities, particularly in eastern Nova Scotia, came in for discussion at the convention and a suggestion to have the provincial government investigate the present structure of municipal government came from L. D. Currie, M. L. A., Glace Bay.

Information submitted to the discussion by Rev. H. G. Wright, Inverness, disclosed that last year \$60,000 was owing hospitals by municipalities.

COST OF LEGISLATION

(From the Municipal News, Vancouver.)

The British House of Commons voted itself a 50 per cent increase of pay recently, from £400 to £600 annually. This seems to be quite an increase to arrive "all at once." However, a little investigation reveals that there are 615 members of the British House of Commons. Therefore, the cost of

legislation there amounts to £369,000 or \$1,845,000 a year for Great Britain's 45,000,000 people which is considerably less than it does for Canada's 11,000,000.

The Dominion Parliament pays \$4,000 each year to 245 members of the Commons and 96 Senators, which amounts to \$1,364,000. Then there is a large allowance in addition for travelling expenses. There are 533 members of the nine Provincial Legislatures who draw salaries from \$400 a year in Prince Edward Island to \$2,500 a year in Quebec, to which must also be added a large sum for travelling expenses.

The cost of legislation in Canada, then, with a population less than a quarter of that of Great Britain is half a million dollars more exclusive of the large sums spent for travelling.

It costs Canadians approximately 21 cents per capita for 11,000,000 people. It costs Great Britain only 3 cents per capita for 45,000,000 people.

Our federal system is responsible for that extra eighteen cents we pay. But, as someone remarked, it costs money to have things as you want them

A SECRETARY SINGS HIS DIRGE

(From an English Paper)

If a secretary writes a letter, it is too long.
 If he sends a postcard, it is too short.
 If he attends a committee meeting, he is butting in.
 If he stays away, he is a shirker.
 If he offers a suggestion, he is a know-all. If he says nothing, he is useless.
 If the attendance is poor, he should have called the members up. If he calls them up, he is a pest.
 If he asks a member for his subscription, he is insulting. If he doesn't he is lazy.
 If the meeting is a success, the committee gets the praise. If it is a failure, the secretary is to blame.
 If he asks for advice, he is incompetent. If he does not, he is swollen-headed.
 Ashes to ashes, dust to dust, if the others won't do it, the secretary must.—"E." WALSALL.

THE CANADIAN NEW DEAL

(From Public Administration, London England.)

The decisions of the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council may not be so spectacular as those of the Supreme Court of the United States, but they often raise much the same sort of problem. Recently the Board has decided a batch of six cases dealing with what is sometimes called the Canadian New Deal. Three of them are reported as *Attorney-General for British Columbia v. Attorney-General for Canada* [1937] A.C. 368, 377, 391; and three as *Attorney-General for Canada v. Attorney-General for Ontario*, or vice versa, [1937] A.C. 326

355, 405. It would have been much more useful to have them called something else, for names of this kind do not fulfil the function of names, that of distinguishing one from another. In three of the cases Dominion legislation was held *intra vires*, in the others it was held *ultra vires*.

The questions raised involved the special problem of the Canadian Constitution. It is, however, relevant to point out that they exhibit the problem of statutory interpretation which is so important in relation to administrative law. If it is not *lese majeste* for the President of the United States to suggest that the very eminent justices of the Supreme Court of the United States are not unaffected by their ideological assumptions or, as Mr. Justice Holmes put it, by their inarticulate major premises—it can hardly be contempt of court to suggest that the judges in other jurisdictions may suffer from the same defects as ordinary mortals. Each of the decisions in these cases is supported by extremely good juristic arguments. Yet in some at least of the cases equally good juristic arguments could be produced to lead to the contrary conclusions. Looking back over the hundred decisions since 1867, it is possible to assert and even to prove that the spirit in which the Canadian Constitution has been interpreted has varied according to the composition of the Board.

In the early period there was a reluctance to limit the powers of both Dominion and Provinces, with the result that *stare decisis* produced difficulties in explaining and distinguishing. There followed a period during which very little trouble was taken and in which inadequate judgments were rendered. Under the influence of Lord Watson the notion of provincial autonomy became dominant, with the result that Dominion powers were rigidly delimited. After the Liberal victory in 1906 the composition of the Board changed, and an emphasis was given to Dominion powers. This emphasis continued for a short period at the beginning of the long reign of Lord Haldane; but, as he became more familiar with Lord Watson's decisions and gave less emphasis to the historical background of the Constitution, his weight came down on the other side. After the formation of the Labour Government of 1929 there was a new spirit evident, chiefly through the influence of Lord Sankey, which resulted in a "liberal" interpretation. With the most recent decisions we are brought back to Lord Watson.

So the process of interpretation exhibits a kind of pendulum movement. Undoubtedly the range of swing is gradually narrowed. Whatever American critics may say, it is evident that in an English atmosphere, necessarily dominated by a conservative professional tradition, the vaguest categories become more clearly defined as case follows case. It is technically possible to break the bounds

and start off on a new frolic; it is, however, traditionally impracticable. The unconscious bias of the judge operates, but on a mass of accumulating material. It is now quite impossible to go back to the Constitution that the fathers of Confederation contemplated; it is even more obviously impossible to develop the kind of Constitution that the fathers of Confederation might have contemplated if they had foreseen the range of modern social and economic problems. To adopt Lord Sankey's simile, the Constitution is a living tree; but, as Lord Sankey refrained from pointing out, it cannot take up its roots and walk, nor can it break the bonds that fetter its branches to the wall. The character of the Constitution must remain what it is until most of eleven Parliaments otherwise determine.—IVOR JENING, M.A.,LLD.

THE HOME IMPROVEMENT PLAN IN NOVA SCOTIA

Devised and adopted in the confident belief that its promotion would stimulate activity in the building trades and thus provide increased employment for artisans and workmen in many branches, the Home Improvement Plan is an offshoot of the National Employment Commission at Ottawa.

The organization in Nova Scotia comprises a provincial advisory committee and local committees of voluntary workers in each town, city, or county where these could be formed. These committees, selected largely with the help of the town councils and the municipal councils, and working in close harmony and cooperation with these official bodies, have been responsible for stimulating a tremendous amount of public thought on the desirability and the value of doing Home Improvement work.

The work was commenced in the middle of November 1936. Directly as a result of the activities of these committees it is estimated that to date there has been expended in Nova Scotia over \$2,000,000 on Home Improvement work. Of this sum, \$542,636.41 has been borrowed from the banks under a plan sponsored by the federal government, which made available, through the banks, to home owners wishing to take advantage of the opportunity, money at the low rate of 3¼% discount, repayable in equal instalments over periods ranging from 6 months to 3 years. That the banks have cooperated whole-heartedly throughout is indicated by the following few examples showing the number of loans and the amount of loans:

	Number of loans	Amount
Halifax City.....	219	\$81,608.41
New Waterford.....	227	79,670.02
Sydney.....	163	62,770.23
Truro.....	59	19,903.73
New Glasgow.....	51	14,215.85
Bridgewater.....	49	13,321.54
Amherst.....	43	11,908.37

To the same extent smaller communities have taken advantage of the plan, for instance:

	Number of loans	Amount
Port Hawkesbury.....	38	\$12,305.00
Berwick.....	11	2,615.00
Canso.....	8	2,020.16
Tatamagouche.....	8	1,807.57

The Town of New Waterford leads every town of its size in Canada.

Proportionate to the number of dwellings in the province, Nova Scotia leads every province in the Dominion in loans made.

The average sum loaned in Nova Scotia is \$316.96.

Every portion of the province is thoroughly covered with the exception of Inverness County and Richmond County; there it has not been possible, as yet, to obtain working committees

to direct the work, although money has been expended in both these counties on Home Improvement work, and loans have been made in these areas by the banks.

Purposes for which loans were made are re-finishing walls and floors; connecting with water and sewer; installation of steam heating systems; repairs to foundation; installation of electric lights; new roofing, and so on.

When it is realized that 80% of all monies expended on Home Improvement work goes to labour in one form or another, it can readily be seen that a plan that in the short period of 7½ months has resulted in an expenditure of over \$2,000,000 has already put a great many idle men to work and is contributing in large measure to the restoration of prosperity in Nova Scotia.

The Fisheries of Nova Scotia

THE chart on the opposite page, prepared by the Economic Council of Nova Scotia, displays the characteristics of the fisheries of Nova Scotia for each month from 1924 to date.

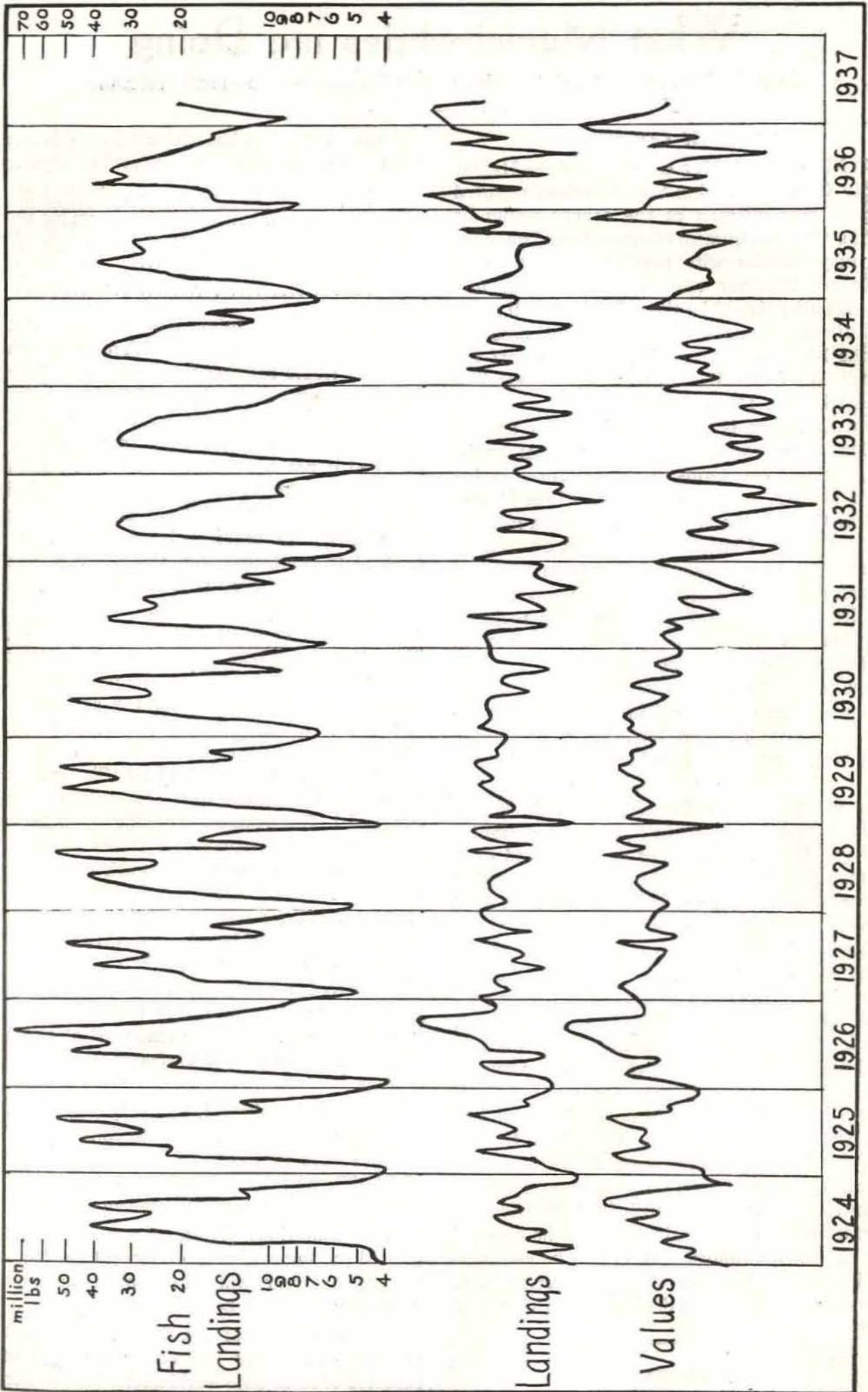
The top series, entitled fish landings, shows the actual landings of fish in pounds. The main feature of this curve is the marked seasonal swing in landings from the low catch in February to the high summer catch. Equally important is the changed shape of the annual curve after 1931: before that, each year saw twin peaks in the summer landings, one in June and another in September. In the depression years after 1931 one peak is evident, and it is on a lower level than the pre-depression peak. The twin peaks before 1931 were due to the heavy codfish landings in these months, mainly by the Lunenburg fleet. The decline in the dried fish trade in the depression had reduced the size of this fleet, and the summer landings no longer show the twin peaks that resulted from its spring and summer trips.

The two bottom curves endeavour to show the fluctuations in fish landings, and values, after the normal seasonal movement has been removed. (The normal seasonal movement is calculated, then removed from the actual figures, leaving what

may be termed the crude fluctuations.) Over the whole period, the general level of landings has not varied greatly: values however kept falling from 1930 to 1932, and have failed to recover the general pre-depression level.

A closer view of these two curves reveals a major change in the industry. In the pre-depression years, for example in 1924, it will be seen that landings and values were low in winter, and rose in summer, falling again in winter. After the depression, however, the opposite tends to hold good, and the winter landings and values tend to be above the summer levels, after seasonal movements are discounted. This is evidence of the decline in the dried fish trade, and the attempt to expand the fresh fish trade, and lobster trade. The winter catch is not so low as it used to be, and involves a bigger catch of lobsters, haddock, smelts, soles and halibut than before the depression: while the summer catch of codfish is much lower than before the depression.

The whole chart, therefore, illustrates the changed nature of the seasonal movements in landings after 1930, and the failure of values to recover to the pre-depression level. Each of these facts is connected with the decline in the dried fish trade.



What Municipalities are Doing

Contributions from Municipalities to this Column will be most welcome.

HALIFAX COUNTY

On March 4th, 1937, a committee of the Halifax County Council studying tax collections reported that the best interests of the county would be served by the appointment of a capable and qualified man fully familiar with municipal affairs to be known as Collector and Assistant Clerk, and that his duties should be the collection of all rates, institutional accounts and any other accounts due the Municipality. Acting on this report the Council appointed R. D. Guildford, Councillor for District No. 14, to the post.

Mr. Guildford is a native of Halifax and he has long been connected with municipal affairs having served two terms as an Alderman in the City of Halifax, a term as a member of the Halifax Housing Commission and three terms as a member of the County Council. He contested Halifax County as a Conservative candidate in 1935 but was defeated. It is a tribute to his many sterling qualities that his fellow councillors, the majority of whom are politically opposed, unanimously selected him for the new post.

The policy of a one man collector for the municipality appears to be justifying itself from collections to date. To pass final judgment on the policy however requires a trial over a term of years.

In the passing of Councillor Joseph Wilson Madill of Milford Station in April last the Halifax Municipal Council lost one of its oldest and most esteemed members. From the time of the creation of Municipal Government in Nova Scotia in 1880 the name of Madill appears in the records of the Halifax Municipality. Among the first councillors elected was George H. Madill, father of the late deceased councillor, and he sat continuously as a member of the council until his death in 1903, at which time he held the office of Warden. In 1911 his son Wilson was first elected to the council from the same district. He too continued his interest in municipal affairs until his death last April sitting continuously as Councillor for the same district, and during that 27 years in the council he served at least once on every standing committee. From 1920 until 1926 he occupied the office of Warden. Only once was he opposed when he ran for council and so was he esteemed that he carried that contest by an overwhelming majority. His passing is a distinct loss to Municipal Affairs.

AMHERST

In 1932 Amherst applied for and received a direct relief agreement under the then new act

and since that time has disbursed on this account for the several years, the following amounts:

1932.....	\$ 32,821.84
1933.....	120,999.07
1934.....	121,290.57
1935.....	101,586.10
1936.....	94,423.34
1937 to June 30.....	40,471.86
Total.....	\$511,693.78

Of the above total, Amherst has assumed approximately \$160,000.00, which has been financed by bond issues running for a period of 18 years. On the resources of a town of 7,500 people, this added burden, for which no tangible asset has been received, is of course, a tremendous strain, and had it not been for the fact that the capital structure of the town was on a sound basis, it might have been sufficient to cause bankruptcy. Fortunately, all previous bond issues had been adequately protected by sinking funds which at a 3% return were sufficient with the annual deposits to cover the issues, and as the funds were invested in sound securities at from 4½% to 5½%, they have been earning surpluses which in some measure at least offset the new issues. The finances are still sound after the 5½ year drain, as shown by a funded debt of \$1,039,100.00 against sinking funds (with investments at par) of \$621,091.80, and now we are "off relief". During the present year contracts were entered into with the Provincial Government whereby a number of streets are being paved and others prepared for paving, which is providing work for all those formerly receiving relief and it is expected that work will last for some five months. There will of course, be considerable cost attached to this programme but the town will have the benefit of improved streets which are most necessary to take care of present day traffic. At present over one hundred men are employed at this work and are regaining their status as self-supporting citizens.

Business in Amherst is definitely on the upgrade. Building is fairly brisk with the construction of a T. B. Annex at \$18,000.00, a police station at \$2,500.00 and several dwellings of the better class, also a number of home improvement projects.

Tax collections during the discount period showed an improvement of more than 2% over the previous year, which in turn was an improvement over the year before.

Although some of the industries of Amherst are such that only spasmodic activity can be expected of them until world affairs become normal, Amherst looks forward with confidence to the future and expects a return to normalcy and to

the day when the relief situation of the past five and one-half years will be only a memory.

SYDNEY

Since 1933 when the present administration assumed office, there has been removed from the shoulders of the tax payers of Sydney a substantial proportion of the tax burden which they were called upon to bear. Notwithstanding the fact that the tax rate was reduced from \$4.50 to \$4.20 per thousand in the year 1936, the City at the end of that year had a surplus of \$125,000.

In the year 1937 the City was able to make a further reduction in the tax rate to \$4.00 per thousand, or a total reduction in the past three years of \$5.00 on the thousand of assessment. This gross reduction, on the basis of an assessment of just about \$12,000,000 will leave in the pockets of the tax payers some \$60,000 which they would have been called upon to pay had the administration not so managed things that the reduction in the rate was possible.

But this was not all. In the year 1937 the City was able to give additional tax relief in the following ways:

- (a) The interest on tax arrears was reduced to five per cent, which constitutes a change from an eight per cent interest rate of a few years ago.
- (b) The ordinary Poll Tax was reduced from \$12.00 to \$11.00, with an additional \$1.00 discount for early payment.
- (c) Poll Tax of \$5.00 hitherto charged on youths between 18 and 21 years of age was wiped out altogether.
- (d) \$1.00 costs on all Poll Tax warrants, which was a very disagreeable tax to all concerned was wiped out also.
- (e) A large amount of money was owed the City on principal and interest for curb, gutter, sidewalk and sewer frontage running back for a period of nearly thirty years. These accounts, especially with regard to interest, were very contentious and it was found impossible to "break loose" any substantial amount of money from these old accounts. As the City needed money very badly, it asked authority from the Legislature to remit the interest charges if the principal was paid within a certain given period. This move brought about the desired result, and today these old accounts are on the way to being fully extinguished.

In line with other Canadian cities, Sydney was reluctantly compelled to place salary cuts on all city employees including teachers, making two cuts in all, aggregating about 20%. But with the advent of better business conditions the City was enabled to restore salaries, and this year placed all salaries at their year 1929, or original basis,

notwithstanding the reduction made in taxes and interest. The revenues of the City continue to improve, which fact clearly shows that the policy of the administration with regard to taxes is deeply appreciated by the tax payers.

LUNENBURG COUNTY

The Municipal Council of Lunenburg lost one of its most valuable members by the death of Councillor W. H. L. Strum early in the year. Mr. Strum took an intelligent interest in all Public affairs, but his chief interest during his last term lay in the construction of a modern and well-equipped annex for harmless insane to the municipal home at Dayspring. He lived to see his ideas accomplished and the institution well started. He was succeeded as chairman of the board by Councillor Ira L. Rhodenizer, the other two members of the board being Councillors Lewis Mulock and George P. Hebb.

The April session which met as usual at Bridgewater, being the last session for this term. Affairs of the municipality for the past three years were generally brought up and reviewed. The present council can congratulate itself on having taken the municipality from an unfavourable bank balance to a favourable bank balance with all services well looked after and while the assessment has not been increased, several reductions in the tax rate were able to be put into effect.

Relief in this municipality is not the big problem that it is in some other of our municipalities and numerically is running about the same as for a number of years past. Of course, the cost of service will necessarily be higher than last year on account of the enhanced prices of all commodities.

Some years ago a change was made in tax collections in the municipality insofar as it relates to those unpaid at the time the annual collection is made. All arrears are now put in the hands of the treasurer and are handled from the municipal office with the help of a few good constables. This year, while the collections are very good, arrears are slightly less than at the same time last year.

This municipality been conducting an experiment with patients who are municipal charges at the Nova Scotia Sanatorium and we understand the health department is fully satisfied that it has meant great improvement. Some years ago chronic cases, who had been kept at the sanatorium at great expense to the municipality, were removed to their homes and provided with suitable shelters and care, if necessary, and a system of short term admittances was instituted. This term was usually three or four months for patients who were in the incipient stage and needed care and instruction for their own good, received at the sanatorium. The first year it was in force about forty different patients were sent there and last year (the second year) about thirty received treatment.

Decisions of the Law Courts

Under this Heading Decisions of Particular Public Interest will be Quoted
or Discussed by a Competent Authority.

CHILDREN'S PROTECTION ACT

In February last the Supreme Court of Nova Scotia *in Banco* in the case entitled Re-Settlement of Herrick (reported 11 M.P.R. 381) decided there is no appeal from an order fixing the settlement of a neglected child made by a Judge of the Juvenile Court under the provisions of the Children's Protection Act.

The Town of Springhill appealed against an order made by the Judge of the Juvenile Court of Halifax. The appeal was dismissed both in the County Court and in the Supreme Court on the ground that the statute made no provision for appeals from a Juvenile Court Judge as distinguished from a Stipendiary Magistrate acting under the same Act.

It Is To Be Noted that the decision affects decisions made when the Herrick case arose. Since then by Chapter 30 of the Acts of 1936 an appeal has been given in the case of any order fixing settlement.

LOCAL HOSPITAL ACT

By FRANK ROWE

A RECENT Nova Scotia case, brings before the Courts an Act which, in these days of greater demand for social services, has become of very vital concern to all Towns and Municipalities in the Province. That Act is Chapter 6 of the Acts of 1925, entitled "An Act relating to Local Hospitals", and the case is that of the Municipality of the District of Lunenburg vs. Boehner. (11 M.P.R. 412).

As the main purpose of the Act in question is, to quote the judgment in the Boehner case, "to make hospital treatment available to persons who could not afford it and to make the municipality in which such persons had a settlement liable to the hospital for such treatment", a short resume of the provisions of the Act might be of interest.

Three parties are obviously concerned with these provisions, namely, the patient, the hospital and the Municipality, and as the right created by this Statute, as expressed in the purpose just quoted, is a statutory one, it is necessary that the provisions of the Statute be followed with some care if the parties in question are to obtain the respective benefits that are provided by the Statute.

As far as the indigent patient is concerned, there seems little that he has to do except to obtain admission to the hospital in such a way as to place himself in the position where he has neither made arrangements to pay for his maintenance and treatment, nor where such arrangements have been made "on his behalf", that is, according to the Boehner case, with his assent and approval.

As far as the hospital is concerned, it must first be the type of hospital with which the Act in question deals, that is, a hospital which is receiving aid under the provisions of The Local Hospitals Act, which is Chapter 54 of the Revised Statutes of 1923. The aid provided for in Chapter 54 comes from two sources:—First, from the Municipal and Town Councils, which are authorized and empowered to grant aid to certain hospitals defined and described in Chapter 54; and, Second, from the Governor-in-Council, which is also authorized to pay money in aid to the same types of hospital. Whether or not a hospital which receives aid from one of these sources and not from the other is a hospital "receiving aid" so as to bring itself within the provisions of the Chapter we are discussing, is a question around which argument could very well centre. Previous to the passing of Chapter 6 in the year 1925, it was the customary thing for a good many Municipalities to give a grant of money to some local hospital which supplied the needs of that Municipality. Upon the passing of Chapter 6, such Municipalities began to find themselves faced with a new burden, that of paying hospital bills for indigent persons who has a settlement in the Municipality. The natural reaction was that the Municipality looked about for ways and means of escaping this new burden and in some Municipalities at least the grant of money just mentioned was immediately cut off, in the hope that, since the hospital in question would thereby no longer be receiving a grant from the Municipality, it would not be a hospital "receiving aid" within the meaning of Chapter 6 and would therefore not be such a hospital as could enforce collection of bills for indigent patients under the provisions of that Chapter.

By Chapter 23 of 1927, however, it was enacted in effect that notwithstanding any of the provisions of Chapter 54 or of Chapter 6, every City, Town or Municipality should be liable for hospital treatment of patients admitted from such City, Town or Municipality under the provisions of Chapter 6, whether or not such City, Town or Municipality made any grant in aid of such hospital under the

*EDITOR'S NOTE: Frank Rowe, LL.B., is Assistant Commissioner of Municipal Affairs for Nova Scotia.

provisions of said Chapter 54, Revised Statutes, 1923. This, therefore, settled the question so far as grants from Municipalities to hospitals were deemed to have any effect on the liability of such Municipalities under Chapter 6.

The procedure to be followed by the hospital is simple. As soon as the patient enters, the Superintendent of the hospital is required to notify by registered letter the Clerk of the Municipality from which the patient is brought that such patient has been admitted, and is to give to such Clerk any information in the Superintendent's possession that might enable the Clerk to identify the patient. The next move is then up to the Municipality. If the Municipality does nothing the patient in question, so far as the account of the hospital is concerned, is deemed to have a settlement in that Municipality whether in actual fact the patient has such settlement or not and the Municipality is liable for the treatment. If the Clerk of the Municipality, upon receipt of the notice mentioned, feels that the patient has not a settlement, that is a settlement within the meaning of The Poor Relief Act, within the Municipality, the Clerk has fourteen days in which to notify the Superintendent of the Hospital to this effect and at the same time to give such information as the Clerk may have and as will assist the Superintendent in determining the settlement of the patient. It is to be noted here that in such a case as this the duty of determining the settlement of the patient then devolves upon the Superintendent and such a determination arrived at in some other way is evidently not sufficient compliance with the Act. Presumably the settlement might still be determined by the Superintendent of the hospital as being in the Municipality from which the patient was brought, even though the Clerk had disclaimed such settlement in the manner just mentioned. Upon so determining the settlement, the hospital is called on to do nothing further in the way of compliance with the Act until the discharge of the patient or upon the death of such patient while in the hospital. A possible exception to this might be found in Section 7 of the Act, which provides in effect that if at any time during the treatment the Superintendent comes to the conclusion that the patient is incurable or is unsuitable for further hospital treatment, the Municipality in which the patient had a settlement may be requested to remove him and in case of failure to do so, after three weeks' written notice given by registered mail, shall be liable to the hospital in the manner provided, though the provisions of the Section as far as setting the rate of liability is concerned are not as clear as they might be. Upon the discharge or the death of the patient as just mentioned, the Superintendent of the hospital is required to notify the Clerk of the Municipality in which such Superintendent has determined the settlement to be, or

if the Superintendent has not been called upon to make this determination, then the Clerk of the Municipality from which the patient was admitted. This notice must be by prepaid registered mail and must show the amount claimed by the hospital for the treatment, the number of days' treatment given, the payments, if any, made by the patient on account, and the amount of the balance owing, which if possible should be certified by the patient. The municipality in question thereupon becomes liable for this amount, provided that it is within the limits set of \$2.00 a day for ordinary patients and \$1.00 per day for T. B. patients, less payments on account, if any, and provided, in cases where the Superintendent has been called upon to determine settlement, such determination has been correct.

Section 5 of the Act attempts to set up, with doubtful success, some provision for dealing with a disputed "claim or account" rendered by the hospital, by referring such claim or account to the governing board of the hospital and to the Clerk of the Municipality, who are directed to make such inquiry as is necessary and to determine the question of liability and to fix the amount due.

Upon payment by any Municipality of an account or claim of a hospital incurred in accordance with the provisions of Chapter 6, Section 8 provides in effect that thereupon the patient, his executors or administrators, father, mother, etc., if in the judgment of the Council of the Municipality they are possessed of sufficient means, as well as the Municipality within which the patient actually has a settlement, shall become jointly and severally liable to the first mentioned Municipality for the account so paid.

Sections 4 and 8 seem to contain the real substance of the Act and the cases decided thus far on matters arising out of this Act have confined themselves pretty much to a consideration of one or other or both of these two Sections. These cases illustrate at least three propositions, namely:—

(1) The necessity of adhering strictly to the provisions of the Act on the part of either a hospital or a municipality seeking its benefits. The case of the city of Sydney vs. the town of North Sydney was a case where neither the hospital nor the plaintiff city was able to recover because of lack of full compliance with the provisions laid down in the Statute and this case also illustrates the second proposition, namely,

(2) The difficulty of working out the provisions of the Act, in the case of a hospital owned and maintained by a Municipality. The absurdity of requiring a Municipal hospital to give the notices required by Section 4 of the Act and to follow out the other provisions contained in Section 4, amounting as they would in such a case for all practical purposes to such a Municipality giving notice to and dealing in other ways with itself, is referred

to in the judgment of the Supreme Court in this case.

(3) That it is not the purpose of the Act to interfere with any existing right, but rather to create a new liability by making a Municipality liable for hospital treatment given to persons who could not afford it themselves. In the Boehner case, a prisoner confined in the County Jail being in need of hospital treatment was admitted to the hospital "at the request of the Municipality". The Municipality upon paying the account sought to reimburse itself under the provisions of Section 8 of Chapter 6. It was held that the common law right of the prisoner to receive medical treatment from the Municipality in whose custody he was, was not interfered with by Chapter 6 and that the provisions of this Chapter were not available to the Municipality to collect the cost of such services from the prisoner. It is respectfully suggested that the case should be taken as authority only upon the exact facts as disclosed by the judgment and perhaps on these facts the judgment could be supported on the further ground that the patient could not be said in any sense to have been admitted in accordance with the terms of Chapter 6 and that the provisions of that Chapter had not been followed so as to make payment of the account of the hospital by the Municipality a payment within the meaning of Section 8. The case perhaps suggests at least

one anomaly. A patient who endeavours to obtain treatment at the expense of a Municipality by virtue of Chapter 6 may not be so successful if, in the opinion of the Municipal Council, he is possessed of sufficient means to pay for his treatment and if such opinion proves correct in fact, but if he takes the precaution to commit a crime and enter a hospital by way of the jail, his escape from financial liability is assured.

The purpose of the foregoing has not been to attempt a technical discussion of Chapter 6 or to deal with the practical working out of the Act. Such a discussion would undoubtedly raise more than sufficient controversy to suggest that the purpose of the Act as stated in the Boehner case could be achieved by a much simpler and more clarified enactment. In practice, the results as far as hospitals are concerned have not been what was hoped for and Municipalities have not reconciled themselves to carry the burden which the Act imposed. The statement is ventured that notwithstanding the outcome in the Lunenburg case, the results to the one and the burden on the other would have been respectively more satisfactory and easy to bear had the parties concerned been more ready to follow more carefully the procedure laid down in the Act and despite its imperfections, to avail themselves of its provisions.

QUESTIONS TO THE EDITOR

Q. How can I get information about the American Municipal Manager System?

A. The principles of the Municipal Manager System—which in the United States is not confined to cities but is also found in small towns and rural municipalities—are described in the article published on page 14 of this issue. The article was furnished through the courtesy of the International City Managers' Association in Chicago, 850 East 58th

Street. This association has published a great number of scientific documents as well as pamphlets dealing with the subject. Some of these pamphlets as well as a further recent publication, "*The City Manager Plan of Municipal Governments*" is issued by the Chamber of Commerce of the United States and may be obtained for twenty cents each in stamps from the Institute of Public Affairs, Dalhousie University.



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The Role of Industrial Relations in Modern Industry	- - - - -	J. E. Macpherson

VOCATIONAL SCHOOL IN SAINT JOHN, N. B.

The school is one of the finest educational institutions of its kind in Eastern Canada. Its aims are discussed in the article by Mr. Tibert.



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What is Wrong With Social Credit?

By R. B. BRYCE

SOcial Credit dates from the end of the war when Major Douglas developed it in reflecting upon the effects of war finance on economic life. But it did not spread widely nor attain any political power until the Great Depression. It has gained some adherents in almost all the English speaking countries but has become important only in Western Canada, Australia and New Zealand. In England it has several regular publications and even a green-shirted movement of enthusiastic followers but has never been more than a minor political curiosity. On the European continent its role is filled by the "Free Land—Free Money" movement which bases its doctrines on the writings of Silvio Gesell, who was apparently a better economist than the Douglas movement can boast, but which lacked the practical politicians and demagogues which Social Credit has had.

The rise of such a political force during severe depression is only to be expected. Disgusted with the existing economic situation and the helplessness of traditional policies in the face of it, confused and bewildered by the paradox of poverty in the midst of plenty, the ordinary man is ripe for the easy solution offered by the monetary heretics. It involves no radical social change to test his courage or threaten his interests. Its benefits are direct and obvious while its costs, distant and indirect, can easily be overlooked. It has something in common with the general nature of ordinary liberal or progressive programs but is more positive and sure of itself. Its professed enemies

are the bankers and financial powers—popular bogey-men, particularly in times of depression. In the hands of able and imaginative demagogues it can be made a most attractive doctrine. But it is rotten at the core, for it is based upon faulty economic analysis.

Underlying Social Credit theory is the fundamental principle that there is a chronic lack of purchasing power in our economic system which arises because business always pays out less as income than it takes in as payment for its products. Income paid out by business then proves to be less than enough to buy the products created. This shortage of income paid out is attributed to various factors by the different schools of social credit theory, and even by the same people at different times. It is this variability which makes the theory so difficult to attack. The original and simplest form of the theory contended that income paid out, in the form of wages, interest, rent and dividends was only part of the expenditure of any firm out of its sales revenue, the rest going to pay for supplies, bank services and reserves. But it was easily seen that payments made to other firms for supplies or services sold to this firm went to create income in those other firms and so on. However the Social Credit theorists were clever enough to use more and more subtle fallacies as the basis for their doctrine as the more obvious ones were exposed. The result is that to see the mistake in some of the later forms of the theories requires a good training in monetary theory, and to point out such mistakes would take much more space than we have here. Typical of the social creditors' more recent explanations of the deficiency in income is the claim that those parts of a company's receipts that are diverted into depreciation funds do not form income, and are not available

EDITOR'S NOTE: R. B. Bryce is a young Canadian economist who has given special attention to monetary problems. After graduating in Engineering in Toronto University he went to Cambridge, England, to study Economics and graduated with First Class Honours in the Economics Tripos in 1934. He had a year of research in Monetary Theory at Cambridge and London and then went to Harvard to continue that work for two years on a Commonwealth Fellowship. He is at present employed as an economist in a large company in Montreal.

to purchase the product although they form part of its costs. But this is wrong, because depreciation reserves like any other reserves, are simply a form of saving by business instead of by the owners of business and serve to finance the creation of capital elsewhere, if not capital replacement in the actual business concerned, and this capital creation or replacement provides income for the purchase of what is produced.

The basic contention that business somehow always absorbs income and does not pay out as much as it receives is likewise wrong. When we allow for profits or losses, as of course we must, then total income must equal the value of what is produced, including both capital and what is consumed, and there is no discrepancy, no gap which swallows up money or credit. Of course things may happen which will reduce the total income, for example, people may try to save more at the same time that there is no increase in the creation of capital, in which case the reduction in expenditure on consumers' goods is not matched by increased payments elsewhere, and income and employment fall. An increased demand to hold money which is not accompanied by an increased supply of money, may have similar effects, either because people save to get the money or else they refuse to lend what they have and thereby force up interest rates, which checks capital creation and thus reduces income.

These questions are now fairly well understood by up-to-date professional economists in this field and by the managers of our money supply. They attempt so far as it is possible to offset these fluctuations in the demand to hold money by changing the supply of it. In doing so they help somewhat in maintaining the volume of capital creation. It is capital creation—building new houses, factories, roads, machinery etc.—which maintains income against the pressure to reduce it which savings exerts. It is a great reduction in this capital creation which is chiefly responsible for depression.

The Social Credit program would make good the deficiency in income by creating new credit, which means essentially creating new money, and giving it away to people to spend. Aberhardt proposes to do this mainly by paying all citizens a free dole of \$25 a month, while the Douglas theorists would distribute it as a subsidy to the sellers of goods in return for the selling of wares below cost, which would, they say, enable the public to buy all the goods that could be produced. Now, such measures would certainly increase the demand for goods if they could be carried out. The trouble is simply that they would increase it much too much, eventually. If, prices were not controlled they would rise rapidly as soon as production reached its limit. If prices were controlled as the Social Creditors usually propose, the people would be left with a lot of money which they could not spend and they would waste much time trying to buy things of which there would not be enough to go around. This system of rationing and price control would entail endless trouble and mistakes, endless arbitrary decisions on the part of the price fixing board, and would mean the abandonment of the system of pricing on which the capitalist system is based. Ultimately the whole exchange mechanism would probably break down. Thus the continued issue of social credit would lead to chaos either by way of inflation of prices or the breakdown of the pricing system under rationing and control.

Another and theoretically less fundamental element in the Aberhardt brand of Social Credit is the use of a large sales tax, or turnover tax to raise revenues for general purposes and to help pay a dole to all citizens. A moderate sales tax has proven to be a valuable and by now common source of revenue, even within a political subdivision, but a universal sales tax of the size that would be needed for Social Credit purposes would undoubtedly cause great economic confusion. It would directly handicap Alberta's producers in competition with the outside world. Within the province its effects would be to increase unemployment

rather than reduce it since it reduces the revenue received from employing another man in any business.

Many of us will sympathize with the Social Creditors' ultimate objectives of maintaining full employment of our economic resources and of transferring income

from the rich to the poor. We disagree, however, on the methods by which this can be done and in doing so we contend that their economics is faulty. Anyone hoping for real social reform will regret that Social Credit theories have led so many on a wild goose chase.

Vocational Education in New Brunswick*

By W. K. TIBERT

THE New Brunswick Vocational Education Act was passed in 1917 nearly two years previous to the Federal Parliament passing the Technical Education Act of 1919. During the winter of 1918-1919 ten centres organized night school programmes and 1776 students enrolled.

The first day school established was the Carleton County Vocational at Woodstock. This school was to serve the boys and girls of the County of Carleton and the town of Woodstock. The basic industry of the section to be served by the school was farming, so the main course offered was Agriculture and Farm Mechanics. To round out the programme separate courses in Home-making and Commerce were added. The graduates of this school number 1042, of whom 695 were residents of the County and 347 of the town of Woodstock. Over three hundred farm boys have graduated from the two-year course in Agriculture and Farm Mechanics. The majority of these returned to the farms of Carleton County. The school has had an unbroken history. The early courses have been extended and enriched.

Following the opening of the Carleton County Vocational School in 1919 came applications from other centres for assistance in organizing similar schools.

It was soon discovered that the old type of school building was not suited to the new type of school. To assist municipalities in constructing proper buildings the Provincial Government agreed to pay a percentage of the cost

of buildings, erected previous to 1926 for vocational school purposes. This assistance varied from 25% in the larger centres to 50% in rural centres. Under the Agreement six modern school buildings were erected in Edmundston, Newcastle, McAdam, Campbellton, Fredericton and Saint John.

Two types of schools were organized—the purely Vocational, of which there are two, located at Woodstock and Saint John; and the Composite, five in number, which provide under one roof both Academic and Vocational High School courses. The composite type of high school seems better suited to the smaller centres. The capital expenditure is less and a smaller staff is necessary than could possibly do all the work if two separate buildings were used. Greater unity of purpose can be achieved where teachers of practical and academic subjects meet the same students and plan their programme. In the organization of a composite high school the needs of the particular locality in which the school is located should always be considered. For instance, in Woodstock, the main course is Agriculture; in Edmundston, which is an industrial centre, the main courses are industrial with special emphasis placed on woodworking, drafting, blue print reading and electricity as these are necessary skills for boys entering the Fraser Company mills. In the evening school classes are provided for men from the mills in drafting and the chemistry of pulp and paper making.

The use of the motor car as a means of travel and transportation has become

(1) A picture of the Vocational School in Saint John is given on the cover of this issue.

universal so a course in Motor Mechanics has been organized as a part of the Industrial department in each school.

The need for training in home-making is so obvious that each school maintains a Home Economics department where girls receive a three-year course in clothing, foods, home nursing, home management, etc. There are also special courses in Home Economics.

In our complex economic set-up a knowledge of business is more necessary than ever before and so in each school will be found a high school of commerce. The regular courses extend over a period of three years. During that time the students receive a good grounding in bookkeeping, business English, commercial geography, history, commercial law, office practice, shorthand and typewriting.

All composite schools offer at least four distinct high school courses from which the student may select, namely Academic, Commercial, Industrial and Home Economics. Each of these Vocational courses contains the essentials of the Academic course plus training in some chosen field sending him out into life better equipped to take his place in the work-a-day world and make a name for himself. No student who has graduated from a vocational department should be a candidate for the Youth Training scheme.

In Saint John,⁽¹⁾ which is a large industrial centre, the purely vocational set-up has functioned well. The number of courses given here is very much larger than those given in any other school in the province. Their programme for the present year includes the following:

1. The Industrial high school course of three years for boys who have passed the entrance.
2. The one-year Special Industrial course for boys of high school graduation standing.
3. The two-year Special Industrial course for graduates.
4. The two-year Industrial course for boys not interested in high school graduation.
5. The three-year Practical Arts high school course for girls who have passed the entrance.
6. The special Practical Arts course for girl graduates.
7. The new Practical Arts Special course for girls not interested in high school graduation.
8. The Hairdressing or Beauty Culture course.
9. The three-year High School of Commerce course for boys and girls who have passed the entrance.

10. The one-year Stenography course for graduates of high schools.
11. The one-year General Business course for graduates of high schools.
12. The two-year Secretarial course.
13. The two-year Business Administration course.
14. The three-year Technical High or College Preparatory course for those of entrance standing.
15. The four-year Art High School course for those of entrance standing.
16. The three-year Special course in Fine and Applied Art.
17. The Junior High School course for pupils who have successfully passed Grade VI.

The full time day school enrollment in the Vocational Schools and the Vocational Departments of Composite High Schools of New Brunswick has grown from 52 in 1920 to 1640 in 1937.

It was soon evident that if the work was to expand with any hope of success a system of teacher training was necessary. The first summer school for vocational teachers was held in the Provincial Normal School, Fredericton, from July 3rd to August 1st, 1919. The courses offered were designed to assist the teachers of Home Economics subjects. Forty persons attended.

Similar summer schools were held during the intervening years but the number of courses offered was enlarged so as to meet the needs of all teachers. It was necessary to secure specialists in some subjects from outside the province, mainly from the United States and Central Canada. In all twelve Vocational Summer Schools have been held. The classes were free to teachers and prospective teachers.

In some cases it was found advisable to send small groups of teachers to other training centres. In these cases the Province paid travelling expenses and tuition. Approximately 100 teachers were assisted in this way. At least 90% of all teachers engaged in teaching technical subjects have had special training in addition to their initial training.

The educational trend seems to lead away from the traditional academic course to a more varied programme that will provide some opportunity for developing individuals in line with their natural abilities. While progress has been slow we feel that some real advancement has been made.

The Fisheries and Science

By D. B. FINN

IN a world of complex industries, perhaps one of the most complex is the fishing industry. The very nature of its products, and the men who get them, make it so. Perhaps no other industry has for so long withstood modernization or rationalization or even co-operation. The fishermen who are the primary producers are individualists who not only risk their lives daily in pursuit of their calling but are prepared to suffer economic hardships in order to keep at it. They are peculiarly fitted by temperament and training for their jobs and possess qualities of character which would make it difficult, if not impossible, for them to successfully engage in other activities.

The supply of raw material to the industry is extremely inconstant for not only is it seasonal in abundance but the amount caught is constantly influenced by wind, wave, tide and temperature. The mackerel, the herring, the smelt, the salmon and even the cod, to mention only a few, are migratory and are only caught at one or other stage of their migration. Added to this are the elements which make fishing either impossible or supremely possible. Together these two things cause the supply of fish to continually fluctuate between a condition of glut and one of scarcity. It would be easier for the industry to accommodate itself to this condition if it were at all predictable, but so far this is not possible although the indications are that it will be so, if enough study is given to the problem. Continuity of supply, which is so important to modern methods of marketing, is thus denied the industry and constitutes one of its most greivous problems.

Another factor which adds to the complexity of the situation is the ex-

tremely perishable nature of fisheries products. Unlike the meat industry it cannot bring its raw material "on the hoof" to the manufactory and keep it until it is needed, but must pack it in ice, transport it by water and process it immediately. Whereas beef is not considered fit to eat until it has been hung for a sufficient length of time, usually ten days, unprocessed fish, if it is to be fresh, must be sold and consumed before this time has elapsed, and, the largest proportion of fish is consumed in the unprocessed state. This limited period has the effect of increasing difficulties in catering to far distant markets and thus cuts down consumption.

This, of course does not apply to those products that are preserved in such a manner as to enable them to withstand long periods of storage, such as canned or heavier salted products. But here we find that the industry is largely dependent upon export markets the availability of which is determined to a large extent by trade agreements, currency fluctuations and the political and economic equilibrium in the country to which the exports are made. Such factors are beyond the direct control of the industry no matter what its internal state of perfection may be, the other difficulties are to a large extent internal and thus are amenable to proper application of knowledge.

Thus science is presented with two important problems which may be framed in two general questions. How can the supply of fish be made more continuous and more uniform, and how should the raw materials be preserved and used after they have been caught? Both problems arise from the necessity for better management, for better mastery over this natural resource. Both must depend upon scientific effort for solution. Hence it is here that science is influencing fisheries economy.

EDITOR'S NOTE:—D. B. Finn: M.Sc., Ph.D., F.C.I.C. is Director of the Fisheries Experimental Station at Halifax and Associate Professor of Biochemistry at Dalhousie University.

The first problem, that of continuity and uniformity of supply may be divided into a number of others, each dealing with a certain phase of the general problem. Thus we have the effect of migration, the effect of depletion through fishing effort, the effect of oceanographical conditions on the presence or absence of fish, and the effect of weather upon man's ability to catch them. All these can be measured and where they cannot be brought under control they can at least be predicted which is the aim of the scientist.

In Canada the biologists of the Fisheries Research Board are engaged in studying the migration of fish by catching the living fish, marking it by means of a numbered metal tag and liberating it. Subsequently some of these are caught and the location of capture recorded. It has been found that the cod, which is not usually regarded as a migrating fish does move regularly from place to place in the sea every year. Therefore a place which may furnish good fishing at one time of the year may fail to do so at another. Moreover it seems that the cod family consists of several races, so to speak, just as the human species do. Each of these races may have different habits of movement which makes the task of recording migration the more difficult. Unfortunately the study of movements of fish is a difficult one since they cannot be directly observed and recourse has to be made to the indirect tagging method. Through the years, however, this is revealing the story, which, when it is completely told, will enable fishermen to know where they may expect fish at any time during the year.

It is not yet definitely known why fish migrate but the evidence points to water temperatures as being of very great influence. Cod are most plentiful in water which is in the neighbourhood of from 34°F. to 36.5°F. while haddock seems to favour water from 38.3°F. to 41°F. Oceanographers have found out that the temperatures of the sea are determined by the currents of warm and cold bodies of water such as the

Gulf Stream and the Arctic Current. Further they have shown that these currents do not mix haphazardly, but in well defined stratifications. Thus the water of the ocean is made up of several moving layers of water—the coldest not always being on the bottom. These movements appear to be cyclic but are also influenced by the winds, the tides and the atmospheric pressures above the sea. Thus the factors affecting temperature, and therefore fish, are many and varied and so it is important that oceanographers, biologists and meteorologists, the world over, continue their efforts so that they may be able, eventually, to predict these variations, and thus remove some of the guess work from fishing.

There is another very important contribution which the biologist is making, that of determining the effect of fishing effort upon depletion and, when necessary, finding out what must be done in order to maintain the numbers of fish at an economic level. They believe that this is not a serious problem with such fish as the herring, cod and others because they reproduce fast enough to withstand depletion. With others, such as the lobster, salmon, halibut and haddock it is a very serious problem because they are not able to stand more than a certain intensity of fishing.

The study of such a problem is also very complicated because there are so many factors which influence depletion. For instance it is difficult to estimate the degree of depletion in any one place, whether, if there is, it is due to migration, or disease or absence of food, or whether it is simply due to depletion through failure to breed fast enough—more of the sexually mature animals having been caught than should have been. It takes years of time to properly elucidate such a matter, but, it is essential that it should be done, in order that intelligent regulation may be had, which, together with fore-knowledge of fishing conditions, will do much to bring about a continuity and uniformity of supply.

Supply of raw materials is however only half the problem with which science

is dealing. The other half is how to treat them when once they have been obtained, that is, how to preserve fish until they are consumed. The ideal preservative is one that would keep fish in exactly the same condition as they were in, when they first came from the water, for an indefinite period. Canning, smoking, salting and pickling, the familiar methods, all depend for their action upon some change in the nature of the product. In other words a canned, or smoked, or salted fish is never mistaken for an untreated fresh fish. Some detectable change has occurred by which they are easily distinguished. The nearest approach to the ideal preservative is obtained by simply lowering the temperature. Decomposition is a chemical change and it is true of chemical changes that the lower the temperature the slower they are. It is found that in the neighbourhood of -10°F . the change in fish is so slow as to be scarcely detectable, and, providing the fish are quickly reduced to this temperature and stored at it out of contact with the air, the thawed-out product is more like a fresh untreated fish than that preserved by any other means. It is in fact better than unfrozen fish unless the latter are consumed very soon after catching, and this is more difficult to accomplish the more distant the market.

When this knowledge is allowed to have its full effect it will be possible to save the product during times of plenty for use during times of scarcity. However there is still much to be done before this can be fully realized, but most of the difficulty in bringing it about is not technical—it is commercial.

Perfect technology in an industry usually means the employment of machinery and other expensive devices. Moreover it implies that proper control over the quality of the product be exercised from the raw state until it reaches the hand of the consumer. For these reasons the application of science to the fishing industry is making for centralization rather than decentralization. It is a much more difficult thing for, let us say,

one hundred small businesses with little capital to bring about adequate improvement than it is for ten large ones with a correspondingly larger amount of capital. The smaller business units not only lack the capital to bring about improvement but they lack the influence and bargaining power to deal with the large purchasing organization, such as the chain store, which by virtue of its tremendous buying power is in a position to dictate to any but the very largest of producers.

This tendency towards centralization of the industry furnishes science with another problem, that of finding fisheries commodities which may be produced by outlying fishing populations whose means of subsistence is fishing. Efforts are being made to bring about greater utilization of canneries, which are ordinarily used only for a short time during the year for the canning of lobster. New products are being experimented with which may be manufactured on a small scale. Old products must be improved by newer methods. But even if the technical problems are solved, and it is reasonable to suppose that they will be, the principal problem is one of finding a market for these goods. It is here that the establishment of the co-operative movements amongst the fishermen seems to be furnishing a way out for it provides the method of unification and co-ordination which is necessary.

These are some of the ways in which science is affecting the part which fisheries plays in national economy. As I have tried to show, new knowledge is making possible new methods which will inevitably displace the older ones with a consequent change in some of our ways of living. These changes will occur gradually and we shall most probably accommodate ourselves to them. As an aim we should strive to reach and maintain that balance where the people dependent on the industry can secure a proper livelihood when the price of fish bears the proper relationship to that of other food commodities, while at the same time, the raw materials are reproducing fast enough to withstand the demands made upon them.

In summing up the answers to question 2, therefore, we find that a few large items, particularly flour, corn, tropical fruits and vegetables, which constitute an annual cost of from \$4,000,000 to \$5,000,000, cannot be successfully produced in this province. Half of the \$4,000,000 spent for dressed meats is made up of fresh beef. Only a portion of this product could probably be successfully produced by Nova Scotia farmers. The other items for pork could no doubt be met by efficient production and marketing. With butter, poultry and eggs there is a large field and this situation is gradually being met by producers.

The answer to Question No. 3, while the most important, is no doubt the most difficult. To state that Nova Scotia annually imports a large quantity of food stuffs and that because of this farmers here should produce these, will not remedy the situation. There must be constructive thinking and constructive programs. One program alone will not be sufficient. If, however, one were asked to give one remedy only to meet the situation, the writer is of the opinion that the answer would be "improved soil management and fertility."

The major products which probably could be produced here are grain and grain products for live stock feeding, certain dressed meats, butter, poultry and eggs. The cost of feed is the biggest item in "cost of production" with live stock production. We have in Nova Scotia conditions suitable for producing economically, high class pastures, large crops of hay and excellent crops of roots. Today the majority of the farmers are making a fair success in connection with these items. Their big costs are for grain and grain products purchased. If the soil were improved by judicious use of lime, more efficient fertilization, coupled with crop rotation and the use of good seed, the yield per acre could be greatly increased. This is especially true in connection with grain. At present Nova Scotia produces annually around 90,000 acres of oats, 10,000 acres of barley and 7,000 acres of mixed grains. The average production per acre on the

bushel basis for the past five years for these crops is 33.8, 27.4 and 32.7 respectively. These yields, while quite comparable to yields in other provinces in Eastern Canada, are pathetically low. By better soil management and general improved crop production, the yield of these grains on the present acreage could be increased ten bushels per acre. This would result in an annual increased production of close to 20,000 tons of live stock feed. This would represent at least half of the present purchases and greatly improve the production costs. This therefore seems like the logical method to follow in increasing total grain produced and decreasing annual importations.

When yields have been brought to a higher level it would then be very practical to slightly increase the acreage in each farm. Yields per acre, however, cannot be increased overnight. Soils must be built up and this is a costly and slow process. Many yields at the present time are low because of inadequate drainage. Considerable land is not producing satisfactorily because the soil is sour. The application of limestone would remedy this situation. The average cost of this, however, would amount to over \$6.00 per acre, which is a large item. Individual farmers throughout the province, however, realize the necessity for action in this regard and are making their plans accordingly. The main drawback is lack of finances.

In connection with the production of hogs, it has already been pointed out that considerable progress has been made along this line. Farmers in many areas are endeavoring to turn off each year two bacon hogs for each dairy cow maintained. Cooperative live stock shipping, with sales made on the live, graded basis, have materially assisted in bringing this about. Three times as many hogs were marketed thus up to date in 1937 compared with the corresponding period of 1936. With better production the tendency is upward. The quality of the breeding stock is fairly high.

Statistics show that there are 114,000 dairy cows owned in the province. Ap-

proximately three quarters of these are producing milk for butter production, the balance catering to the fresh milk trade. An increase of 50 lbs. of butterfat per cow each year would be sufficient to meet the annual importations. The low production of butterfat per cow is at present largely due to inadequate feeding rather than inferior breeding. Increased crop production per acre and per farm will remedy this situation.

Real strides have been made in poultry and egg production. Each year the quantity of imports is decreasing. Probably poultry presents one of the best examples of what can be accomplished in a short period of time by a constructive program in breeding, feeding and marketing. Poultry producers in Nova Scotia have complained for many years that they have found it difficult to satisfactorily market their dressed poultry each fall. They contended that it was difficult for them to find a market that would take their product in volume and pay a price comparable to what the imported product was realizing. They also contended that the existing system of purchasing on a flat rate with no differentials for quality was not conducive to improvement. With the view of remedying this situation, poultry associations were organized in a number of sections of the province. Instruction was given in a number of matters including breeding, feeding, care and management, finishing and dressing. At the end of the season the birds were brought together at a central grading house where the poultry was graded, packed in an up to date manner and offered for sale to the wholesale trade. Under this pool system some 9,000 lbs. were marketed in 1934; 12,000 in 1935; 42,000 in 1936; and it is estimated that 100,000 will be marketed under this system in 1937.

These figures indicate a fair gain.

The figures covering improvement in quality are even more outstanding. In 1934, 25% of the birds were placed in the first grade, and 41% in the third or lowest grade; but in 1936, 60% were in the first grade and 10% in the third grade, which clearly indicates the necessity of

sale and purchase on a graded basis. Farmers cannot be expected to improve quality if the resulting improved product, which has entailed increased labor and expense, does not bring an increased price over an average or a low grade product.

This year, Nova Scotia graded poultry is a factor in Nova Scotia markets. Producers are selling their products at a price comparable to the imported product and farmers have been encouraged to increase and improve their flocks. If the present rate of gain continues, Nova Scotia will shortly be not only able to produce her own requirements but have a certain quantity for export.

In the foregoing, the writer has merely dealt with some of the highlights in connection with the general question of making the province agriculturally self sufficient. He has not endeavored to deal with the broader picture of balancing importations against exports. All sections of Canada are not equally fitted for the producing of the same kind of crops. Nova Scotia has no peers in the production of many other agricultural commodities, particularly apples, potatoes, vegetables, hay and pasturage. The annual value of the exported apple crop alone amounts to around \$5,000,000. This at least would neutralize importations of flour.

The greatest improvement in meeting the present situation has been brought about through farmers working collectively on a community basis. The problem must be first met by improving the soil. As this improves, production costs will lower and if these activities are associated with a sound marketing policy, with payment to the producer on a graded basis, production will gradually increase to a point where we become agriculturally self sufficient. Such production, however, will not preclude the importation of certain agricultural products which other sections of Canada or other countries are in a better position to produce, but it is hoped that the production can be increased to a point where the net exports will be greater than the net imports.

Fire Protection In Rural Areas

BY DEWAYNE E. NOLTING*

WHEN fire destroys the lives of 347 men, women and children and consumes over twenty-one million dollars' worth of property in one year, as it did in Canada during the year 1936, there should be no question in the minds of public officials as to the important part played by fire protection in both urban and rural communities. The following is an analysis of the Canadian fire loss in 1936, and a brief account of the successful practices in the States in combating the rural fire loss, with suggestions as to their further adaptation in the provinces.

Analysis of the Fire Loss

Table I, page 59, shows the number of fires and the fire loss in all the provinces last year as compiled from statistics furnished by J. Grove Smith, Dominion Fire Commissioner. While the number of fires per 10,000 population in the Maritime Provinces averages less than that in other provinces, the per capita fire loss is slightly higher. Over 50 per cent of the 42,644 fires in Canada last year involved losses of less than \$25 each. More than one-third of the total fire loss of \$21,549,484 resulted from fires causing losses between \$1000 and \$5000 each. Out of 37 fires resulting in losses over \$50,000 each, five occurred in the Maritime Provinces—three in Nova Scotia and two in New Brunswick. In comparison to the Canadian figures, estimates for the United States in 1936 show 52.4 fires per 10,000 population and a per capita loss of \$2.47.

Approximately 75 per cent of the 42,644 fires occurred in residential properties. According to information issued in April, 1936, by the Dominion Fire Prevention Association, a survey covering the 10-year period from 1926 to 1935 indicated that there was one fire in

every sixth dwelling in Canada and an average loss in each fire of \$630. On the basis of data supplied by the provincial fire marshals of New Brunswick and Ontario, there were about four times as many urban dwelling fires as rural dwelling fires last year in Canada. The total losses in the two classes, however, were approximately the same. In other words, when a fire starts in a rural dwelling, the chances are that the loss will be four times as great as a similar fire in an urban dwelling. The obvious reason for this is that rural dwellings are generally some distance from a fire department and therefore burn down, while in cities more adequate fire fighting facilities are close at hand. In addition to dwelling fires, there were 3,526 fires in other farm property last year resulting in a loss of nearly three million dollars. About 44 per cent of the total Canadian fire loss occurred in rural districts, and an additional 12 per cent occurred in villages under 1000 population.

That progress has been made in fire prevention and protection in Canada is indicated by the gradual reduction in the total fire loss of \$47,117,334 in 1931 to less than half that figure in 1936. However, the deaths due to fire have shown an increase from 251 in 1931 to 347 in 1936. Through more adequate protection in the rural areas, it appears reasonable that losses could be reduced much further. In addition to adequate protection against fire, fire prevention education is necessary to encourage people to exercise care in their daily activities so as to keep fires from starting. Table II indicates that common carelessness is responsible for the majority of fires.

Rural Fire Protection in the States

The first consideration in rural fire protection is the organization, equipment, and maintenance of a fire department and some arrangement such as by tele-

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Table I.
Comparison of Fires and Fire Losses in the Maritime and Other Provinces During 1936.

Maritime Provinces	Population	Number of Fires	Fires per 10,000 Population	Fire Loss	Fire Loss Per Capita
New Brunswick.....	435,000	935	21.7	\$ 885,644	\$2.04
Nova Scotia.....	537,000	1,218	22.9	1,246,767	2.32
P. E. Island.....	92,000	208	23.1	164,141	1.78
Total.....	1,064,000	2,361	22.1	\$ 2,296,552	\$2.15
Other Provinces					
Alberta.....	772,000	1,501	19.5	1,098,889	1.43
British Columbia.....	750,000	2,659	35.4	1,689,718	2.25
Manitoba.....	711,000	2,045	28.8	846,283	1.19
Ontario.....	3,690,000	14,782	40.0	7,867,483	2.13
Quebec.....	3,096,000	17,949	58.0	6,645,210	2.15
Saskatchewan.....	931,000	1,347	14.5	1,080,925	1.16
Not Reported.....				24,424	
Total.....	9,950,000	40,283	40.5	\$19,252,932	\$1.93
Total, Canada.....	11,014,000	42,644	38.7	\$21,549,484	\$1.95

Table II.
Causes of Fires in Canada in 1936*

Cause	Number of Fires	Property Loss
Smokers' carelessness.....	11,797	\$ 2,772,934
Stoves, furnaces, boilers and pipes.....	4,738	2,767,208
Defective chimneys and flues.....	4,562	2,363,079
Electrical wiring and appliances.....	3,901	1,285,763
Sparks from chimneys on roofs.....	2,119	937,671
Hot ashes and coals.....	1,422	363,474
Petroleum products and other volatiles.....	923	592,116
Sparks from open fires.....	907	103,259
Portable lamps, lanterns and open lights.....	699	44,486
Exposure to adjacent building fires.....	547	743,520
Children with matches.....	546	139,028
Lightning (buildings not rodged).....	342	167,132
Incendiary (supposed).....	214	1,248,053
Fireworks.....	206	31,247
Hot grease, oil, wax, asphalt, etc.....	183	64,002
Spontaneous ignition.....	116	201,429
Miscellaneous known causes.....	851	1,106,358
Unknown causes.....	8,571	6,618,725
Total.....	42,644	\$21,549,484

*Condensed from data supplied by J. Grove Smith, Dominion Fire Commissioner.

phone for the prompt turning in of an alarm. Also, proper training in fire fighting and fire prevention should be provided the volunteer firemen. The second consideration is provision for adequate water supplies near each farmer's property for fire fighting purposes. Obviously every farmer in a certain rural area must be sold on the idea of rural protection to obtain his wholehearted cooperation. It is true that each farmer can do much to provide protection

for himself such as having fire extinguishers handy in the house, barn, and other farm buildings. If the fires are discovered soon enough they can be stopped before they do much damage. Too often, however, rural fires get a head start before they are noticed, and unless the farmer has made some definite arrangement beforehand to have a fire truck arrive upon the scene in short order, and there is plenty of water near at hand to pump on the fire, the chances

of saving his property from complete destruction are pretty slim.

Thousands of rural areas in the United States have within the past 20 years made definite arrangements of some sort or another for fire protection service similar to that enjoyed in urban areas. There are now approximately 12,500 volunteer fire departments in cities and towns of less than 10,000 population. The importance of these departments is evident from the fact that 60 per cent of the annual fire losses in the States occur in rural sections. Experience indicates that excellent results in saving life and property from destruction by fire have been obtained wherever such departments have been established on a reasonably efficient basis.

In many communities throughout the States farmers make arrangements with nearby towns or villages to provide them with protection in case of fire. It isn't good practice for small town fire departments to send their only fire truck far beyond the town boundaries. The people of the town pay for this service and they shouldn't be expected to run the risk of having their truck 10 or 15 miles out in the county when a fire starts in their own town property. One practical solution is for the farmers in a designated area such as a township to raise money to buy a piece of apparatus and have the town fire department maintain and man it for them. Town officials are usually glad to do this because they can also use it at their own fires, and for rural runs they can send only a few of their firemen with the apparatus. The farmers themselves supplement the fighting force according to a prearranged system.

There are many other possible schemes. Typical arrangements could be cited for every state. In an Iowa town the town council cooperated by purchasing a community truck and forming an organization which the farmers joined for \$25, entitling them to free service. Farmers who were not members and called for help were charged \$75 for making the run.

In a Minnesota community a village

and the surrounding farmers organized and incorporated to provide fire protection. The farmers bought a total of \$2000 in shares at \$15 each (one share per farmer), and the village bought \$1000 worth. Service is free to members and no service is rendered to non-members.

After a disastrous rural fire in a Maryland county, a county committee was organized to raise money for a rural fire truck. The county commissioners and the town council of the county seat pledged \$500 each, and the rural residents pledged \$4000. The truck is housed at the county seat and manned by its volunteer fire department, and the town council and the county commissioners share the cost of maintaining it. The truck is sent to any part of the county. This is an agricultural county with only one other town besides the county seat that has a fire department and equipment, and before this set-up was put into effect the county outside these two towns had no protection at all because the volunteer firemen were prohibited from answering rural calls.

Farmers within an eight-mile radius of a small town in Wisconsin contributed toward the purchase of a truck at the rate of 50 cents per \$1000 assessed property valuation. The volunteer fire department in the town takes care of the truck and takes it to farm fires. The department makes a small charge for their work which is based on the number of hours worked and the number of men responding with the truck.

Within the past 15 years scores of communities in Michigan have organized for fire protection. The usual arrangement is to purchase a special rural fire truck with the farmers paying part of the cost, or paying a small upkeep fee—or combination of these, and to let the city or village fire department take care of it and supply the service. In a few counties, the county-seat city and the county supervisors divide the initial cost and maintenance cost of the truck which serves the entire county. Many Michigan communities have purchased a truck by collecting contribu-

tions from farmers in proportion to the amount of property to be protected. After buying the truck, arrangements are made with the nearby towns to provide them with 24-hour fire protection service. The town is benefited because it can use the truck when needed to help fight its own fires.

Financing rural fire protection by popular subscription and holding fairs or entertainments to raise funds does not always work out successfully. It is recommended that control of a rural fire department be in the hands of a governmental unit such as a county, township, or special district incorporated for the purpose so that the project may be supported by a tax levy. Probably the majority of rural fire departments are financed in this way. The matter of providing water supplies such as ponds, water holes, cisterns, wells, creeks, etc., from which the pumper can take suction to quench fires is generally the responsibility of each farmer. Adequate training of volunteer firemen in the best and newest methods of fighting and preventing fires is developing rapidly in the States. Thirteen years ago there were only two state schools, while last year there were over 400 state or regional schools to which firemen could go for a few days in the summer. A few schools were held in Canada, but a much larger number is desirable in order to reach the volunteers in the rural communities.

Conclusions

Each rural community should decide for itself how to provide proper protection, and whether to organize and equip their

own department or to contribute to the support of an existing town or village fire department for rural service. A number of states have laws on how rural fire departments may be organized and financed. No doubt there are similar laws in the provinces, and any community considering the organization of a rural fire department should thoroughly investigate the various schemes now in operation. Carefully prepared information on the best methods and the best types of fire protection for rural areas has been issued by the National Fire Protection Association (60 Batterymarch Street, Boston, Massachusetts) and is available without charge to anyone interested in organizing a rural department. The provincial fire marshals, the dominion fire commissioner, the Maritime Fire Chiefs' Association, provincial fire underwriters' associations, and similar officials and organizations are interested in establishing more adequate rural fire protection and local public officials should secure their assistance in developing any plan.

Just as cities and towns have found it their public duty and well worth their while to expend funds for fire protection to prevent the destruction of their property and the lives of their citizens, so have rural communities. Once a barn full of dry hay catches fire it burns so fast that it may be too far along to check it unless a truck is there promptly and has plenty of water to use. Most of the hundreds of rural people burned to death and the millions of dollars in rural property destroyed each year in Canada can be prevented.

Prison and Penal Reform

By T. E. HARVEY, M.P.,* and JOHN KIDMAN*

I—ENGLAND

By T. E. HARVEY

THE last thirty years have witnessed a series of changes in the treatment of offenders in England which have already had remarkable results that deserve to be more widely known.

In 1910 the daily average prison population in England and Wales was 20,828. This daily average fell to 12,238 in 1934, to 11,306 in 1935, and to about 10,600 in 1936, the latest year for which figures are available. The reduction of the number of prisoners by one-half has been achieved in spite of the growth of the general population and in the face, in recent years, of prolonged unemployment and trade depression which might have been expected to have brought a large increase of certain types of offences. In consequence it has been possible to reduce the number of prisons from 56 to 26. The financial gain to the community is obvious, but far more important has been the improvement in the fabric of human life of which these figures are an inadequate symbol.

A series of Acts of Parliament have made it possible to keep out of prison thousands who less than thirty years ago would have been sentenced to imprisonment. The largest class were those who came to prison through failure to pay fines or money payments enjoined upon them by the Courts. The Criminal

Justice Administration Act of 1914 allowed magistrates to order the payments of such sums by instalments and this was supplemented in 1935 by an Act which provides that before a person is committed to prison for failure to make a money payment, he shall be brought before the Court with a view to inquiry into the reason of the default, so that if the cause be poverty, the fine may be suspended or paid in instalments.

The object of the law is that no man should go to prison simply by reason of his poverty.

In 1907-08 three children under 12 and 566 children between the ages of 12 and 16 were sent to prison. In 1908 the age for committal to prison was raised to sixteen and in 1933 to seventeen. In 1909 Borstal treatment in special training institutions was introduced as an alternative to prison for young offenders and has since been increasingly made use of with valuable results, while the method of placing prisoners on probation which was made possible by the Probation of Offenders Act of 1907 has been applied with great advantage (though it is still insufficiently made use of) not only in the case of young offenders but of adults.

In 1910, 10,217 persons were placed on probation under supervision, and in 1933 there were 18,937 similarly placed.

While by these measures many thousands of persons who formerly would have been sentenced to imprisonment have been otherwise dealt with, to their own and the general advantage, the prison system itself has been undergoing a gradual but profound transformation.

Twenty years ago English prisons worked with rigid and mechanical uniformity. Inside the prisons the rule of

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Mr. Harvey has for many years been a fighter for prison reform in Great Britain. He spoke recently in the House of Commons on the problems which are the subject of this article.

*EDITOR'S NOTE: John Kidman is a staff member of the News Editorial of The Gazette, Montreal, was London Correspondent during the Great War, has been Secretary of the Prisoners' Aid & Welfare Association of Montreal from 1919, also of the Canadian Penal Association and was delegate to the International Prison Congresses of 1930 (Prague) and 1935 (Berlin).

absolute silence was enforced. Not only was all conversation between prisoners strictly forbidden, but the prison officers themselves were not allowed to speak to any prisoner, except to give orders or instructions. Prisoners wore an ugly dress, their hair was close cropped on entering, but they were not allowed to shave, thus increasing their sense of degradation. The atmosphere was one of distrust and repression. Apart from classes for illiterates, no attempt was made to educate. Some prisoners exercised their wits to evade the rules; others lost heart and hope. At best the system seemed aimed at the production of obedient prisoners, not at fitting them to regain a place of usefulness in the world on their discharge.

The prison of today, although the buildings are still, unfortunately, largely the same, is already a different place. The prison crop has been long abolished; prisoners may shave, they no longer wear a degrading dress, the hideous broad arrow of the convict's clothing has disappeared, adult education has become a regular part of prison life, and evening classes in a variety of subjects are held in every prison, physical instruction has been added to the previous inadequate open air exercises, and the absolute silence rule has been abolished; the regulations of the Commissioners at present provide that during working hours there should be no more conversation and there need be no less than in a well regulated factory. Officers are expected to encourage the prisoners in their progress and are no longer limited to giving commands and instructions. Prisoners are not pampered and prison life is necessarily monotonous, while for most their isolation from the ordinary life of the world is an ever present punishment. Realising this, the English Prison Commissioners decided some fifteen years ago to appoint a number of unofficial visitors in connection with each prison. These visitors are authorised to visit a number of prisoners alone in their cells, the visits being paid at the close of working hours during the week and at the weekends, when no work is being

done and prisoners are especially lonely. They may speak freely on any subject except that of religion, which is the province of the prison chaplain. Such visitors can be peculiarly helpful in the case of young prisoners and first offenders; they sometimes are able to help in restoring a prisoner to work on his discharge or in finding some new opening for him; they form a link with the ordinary outside world from which he is now cut off and help him to realize that everything and everyone is not against him. The prisoner can unburden his mind to the visitor when he realizes that he is only there to help him, and often the relief of being able thus to "let off steam" is a great one: sometimes, the visitor may give friendly help at what proves a turning point in a man's life. Prisons in the past have been too exclusively places of punishment and repression. The Prison Commissioners in recent years have made it clear that it is their object that the prisoner should be able to go out of prison a better citizen than when he came in.

No mechanical system can achieve this result, though it may effectively hinder it. The prison staff, from the Governors downward, must enter into the spirit which is needed to make any prison reform effective. There has been a remarkable response by the prison staff to the responsibilities now placed upon them by the Prison Commissioners, while new entrants to the prison service go through a course of special training at the Prison Officers' Training School at Wakefield, which is now also offering training to men from overseas.

Meanwhile a far more thorough classification of prisoners has been effected, both in the individual prisons and to some extent as between prison and prison, several of which are now reserved for younger prisoners of particular age groups. Wakefield Prison, which is fortunate in containing a large area within its walls, has been turned into a training centre where a wider variety of employment is possible, including gardening and the raising of vegetables for use there and at Leeds Prison. To this prison are sent from all parts of the coun-

try, prisoners who have sentences of six months or more and are either first offenders or thought likely to make good. They are divided into groups of eight, with a leader or "stroke", who is chosen by the Prison authorities; the group have their meals together, and have opportunities for recreation not generally available in other prisons. Each prisoner is expected to attend two evening classes a week after the day's work is over, these being taken principally by volunteer teachers from outside the prison. The prison is divided into houses, each under the charge of a housemaster, several of them young Army officers who have undertaken the task in the spirit of social service. The housemaster gets to know the individual prisoner, advises as to their careers on release and sits with members of the Discharged Prisoners' Aid Committee to assist in the provision of care and assistance on their discharge. For some time a small weekly payment has been earned by prisoners at Wakefield, which may be spent in the prison canteen or remitted to their families. The payment is not an individual one: it is earned by a group of workers when the work exceeds a certain standard, this method promoting *esprit de corps* as well as encouraging diligence. The improvement in output has been very marked and the general effect so good that this system of payment (which is not a wage) is being extended to other prisons. The most remarkable improvement at Wakefield is perhaps to be found in the farm colony which has been at work with success for over a year. An

isolated upland wooded valley some seven miles from the prison was chosen for the seat of this experiment. Here a carefully selected group of prisoners erected for themselves a group of wooden huts, to serve as dormitories, living rooms and kitchen. At first the men were taken to and fro to their work, then they were able to live on the spot, felling trees, clearing brushwood, preparing and draining the land and planting some acres of potatoes. A number worked at some distance from the officer in charge; there was no high boundary wall, not even a barbed wire fence. There has not been a single attempt at escape. The men worked in conditions approximating to freedom and gained visibly in health, muscle and morale. This farm colony proved especially useful in providing a transition to normal life at the closing period of a man's sentence. But the experiment points the way to future prison reform.

The heavy and expensive prison buildings bequeathed to us by former generations should be replaced by such simple and inexpensive camp buildings situated in the country, with reception centres instead of prisons in the cities. Hard work in the open air is the healthiest and best occupation for most prisoners whose physique permits it. They are not cut off from comradeship, they can learn something of the team spirit as well as of the need for individual effort. They may go out fitter in body and mind to take up life afresh when their prison sentence is over, not embittered against the world, and with hope in their hearts.

II—CANADA

By JOHN KIDMAN.

PRISON Reform in Canada has been handicapped since Confederation by the fact that the B. N. A. Act divided the jurisdiction in penology, leaving the courts of Justice and the jails to the provincial governments and the Criminal Code and the penitentiaries to the Government of Canada. In England reform only became really effective when in the latter part of the last century all

the prisons were placed under Whitehall. Previous to that many of them had been under county or municipal direction. The ABC then of reform and satisfactory administration of the penal system, whether courts or institutions, is a strong central administration.

Reform of any institution must come generally from those who know of it and who are free to speak of it. Prison

reform in Canada has been held back, first, because those responsible for the administration of the system would not in many cases admit its weaknesses, and second, because the inmates who could speak, do not generally care to make known, after freedom, that they are ex-convicts, and even if they waive that feeling, their word is discounted owing to their record.

Penitentiaries

Since 1867 the Dominion penitentiaries have been administered by the Department of Justice at Ottawa under the Penitentiaries Act, and up to the period of the Great War very few improvements were introduced. That means to say, the only conception of these institutions was that they were places for punishment, hence the silence rule, the solitude of the cell, the meal eaten in the cell, the absence of any education and recreational facilities, the lack of any welfare visitation, plus the existence of cruel punishments such as the shackling to a cell door of its occupant in an upright standing posture, the application of a hose on the body of a refractory inmate and the corporal punishment with instruments known as the paddle and worse.

Following the war the penitentiaries were administered with more humane-ness; the libraries were improved; some measure of education provided; the silence law was not enforced rigidly, and occasional concerts were permitted. The industrial system of "shops" was improved in this early twenties period by General W. S. Hughes, who in his annual reports for several years made various recommendations in the direction of better segregation or classification methods, only possible by the erection of one or two more penitentiaries and the more extended use of the State plan of using the prison "shops" for the furnishing of government requirements in whatever was produced in these establishments. Unfortunately not very many of these recommendations have been adopted and carried out.

Around 1932 there was an epidemic of prison riots and outbreaks throughout the North American continent, and it touched Canada and every penitentiary. Just at this time the administration had passed to a new superintendent, who made a very detailed examination of the situation and interviewed several hundreds of inmates. The men who rebelled, that is, the ringleaders, were punished through the courts, some very severely in Quebec Province and others comparatively lightly in Ontario and elsewhere. But shortly thereafter Major-General Ormond, the new superintendent, announced various ameliorations in the prison regulations, among which were the following:

- Issue of cigarette papers (for which convicts buy their own tobacco out of allowance).
- Standardization of corporal punishment weapons.
- Cancellation of punishments formerly existing, such as the Oregon boot, shackling a man to cell door, application of water hose.
- Provision for physical exercise in the open air.
- Increased visits by relatives of convicts and increase of letter-writing privileges from one letter to three per month.
- Cancellation of silence rule and permission for cell-to-cell conversation at certain hours.
- Abolition of hair-cropping.
- Increase of electric light from 10 to 24 candle power in cells.
- Library improvement.
- Authorisation for Salvation Army to hold popular religious and musical services.
- Authorisation for Prisoners' Aid bodies to have certain officers registered for periodic visitation of inmates to discuss family and personal problems, arrange for rehabilitation on release, etc.

Further developments were the introduction of a new classification, the "Y" grade, 16-21 years, in the penitentiaries in the summer of 1935 designed as a nucleus of the Borstal system. This movement has made good progress since classification of all inmates in the penitentiaries is now directed by a board of officers who meet periodically in each institution.

Finally a Royal Commission was appointed to investigate the penal system of Canada. By the time this article is read the report of the Commissioners

may have been issued or will be due shortly. It may be hoped that it will meet with better success than the reports of two previous commissions (1914 and 1921).

Jails

In the year 1890 there was appointed in Ontario a Royal Commission which was empowered to survey in that province the causes of crime, its treatment, and what improvements could be made in the light of modern study. This turned the light on what are known as county jails, and the evidence in a somewhat voluminous report showed that these jails at that time were marked by an entire lack of industry, by old and unsuitable and often unsanitary buildings, with no provision for taking physical exercise, or even fresh air, the situation being complicated also by varying length of sentence (from ten days to two years, less a day), also by the fact that no attempt could be made at segregation in most of these institutions. The Commissioners agreed that conditions in these county jails were unsatisfactory; yet could not recommend their abolition or replacement, on the ground that the cost would be ruinous to the public exchequer.

But time and the prison reform policy of the Hon. W. J. Hanna, Provincial Secretary of Ontario in the first decade of this century, led to the establishment of the Guelph Farm Reformatory, and to-day there are seven such institutions for adults, with others for juveniles, and even these institutions are graded for different types.

History repeats itself, for in Nova Scotia in 1931 there was appointed a Royal Commission, the findings of which were on a par with the Ontario 1890 report, that there was practically nothing good to be said of the county jail. The writer of this article made a subsequent tour in company with Prof. C. H. Mercer, of Dalhousie University, and was satisfied that the dark colours had not been laid on too thickly by the Commissioners.

From samples of county jails visited in the provinces of Quebec and New Brunswick, together with information

received, one is compelled to admit that the jails' situation is equally bad in these provinces. There is a very commodious building in Montreal, with splendid equipment; but even there, classification, except on very elementary lines, is not attempted, and although there are shops, there is not sufficient industry to keep more than 50 per cent employed.

This jails' situation in all these provinces is serious for this reason, that whereas there were released from penitentiaries in 1935, 2,145 persons, the number discharged from jails was 53,128 and unfortunately this latter total included quite a large proportion of young men and teen-age youths.

Ontario and British Columbia have shown the way with these adult reformatories, and most of the western jails are run on the farm basis, but Quebec and the Maritimes still lag behind.

Probation

Having dealt with penitentiaries and jails, which embody the old, old conception of dealing with the law-breaker, let us look at a more excellent way, the way of probation. England and the United States have justified this procedure in justice, which consists of allowing the first offender to go free from the court even though guilty, but to report to a friendly officer, not a police station. A federal law has made it possible for the provinces to enact a Probation and Parole system, but here again, while Ontario and British Columbia have acted, there has been nothing done in the province of Quebec and its neighbors to the east. Thus, while Ottawa and Toronto have probation officers, Montreal and Halifax have not. Fortunately the situation is saved in Montreal by a voluntary probation system, and there are in the criminal courts representatives of the Salvation Army, the Prisoners' Aid & Welfare Association of Montreal, and the Association Jeunesse Ouvrière Catholique (which last organization has a delinquency group). So, nowhere more than in Montreal has this court probation for adult offenders been

more justified, as every year hundreds of first offenders benefit by the intervention of these social workers. Further, Montreal is the home of the experiment in legal defence for indigent accused persons, through the Prisoners' Aid, which, according to the nature of the case, either provides counsel, or acts on its own responsibility. In Great Britain there are nearly 1,000 adult probation officers, about half of whom are paid by the county Justice authorities, while others are partially paid by them and partly by a voluntary agency. That is what is needed in Canada: probation should be consolidated and should not be left to any one voluntary agency, except in so far as the agencies are recognized and registered by the State.

To recapitulate:

- (1) Consolidation of Canada's prison system is desirable: the division between penitentiary

and reformatory and jail (often dealing with the same customers in turn) is arbitrary and stultifying to a really effective administration.

- (2) The Dominion penitentiaries have seen great improvements under the present administration and are likely to see more when the Royal Commission has reported. Such ameliorations are both negative and positive, the dropping of certain things and the introduction of new and more constructive policies.
- (3) The jails are the weak spot in the penal institutional system of eastern Canada (Ontario excluded). The substitution of adult reformatories such as Guelph and its sister institutions in Ontario and of Oakalla in British Columbia shows the way out.
- (4) But the ideal way out is for probation to be used so freely that half of the present jail population will disappear and half of the half will go to reformatories, and the remnant of vagrants, drunks, etc. will go to farm correctional establishments.
- (5) The study of all these problems should be undertaken in an annual congress, as was done at the First Canadian Penal Congress held in Montreal in June, 1935.

The Larger Unit of School Administration Application to Nova Scotia

BY G. A. FERGUSON

Research undertaken at Dalhousie University.

During the summer months of this year research work on the reorganization of school units in the Province of Nova Scotia has been carried out under the supervision of the Committee of Research in Public Administration at Dalhousie University.

The objectives of this research were as follows:

1. To study the inequalities and defects of the present section system of school government in Nova Scotia.
2. To study experiments in enlarged units in the United States and Canada, and to evaluate them with a view to applying a similar technique in Nova Scotia.

3. To employ the findings of the above studies in drawing up a suitable plan for reorganized school units for Nova Scotia.
4. To select a suitable area for an initial experiment in the enlarged unit organization.
5. To make a detailed study of that area and to show what educational and financial advantages would arise over a given period on a larger unit basis.

The Present Situation.

In 1936, 1713 rural and village school sections were in operation in Nova Scotia. Each section appointed three trustees and a school secretary, making a total of 6852 local school officials, operating 2058 rural and village schools, and providing for the education of 61,335 children. Each school section calculated its own tax rate, collected its own school taxes, and administered to the educational needs of its own particular area.

EDITOR'S NOTE) G. A. Ferguson, B.A., is a graduate of Dalhousie University. He won an I.O.D.E. Scholarship a few months ago and is at present doing post graduate work in Education at Edinburgh University.

This system of school government has resulted in serious inequalities. These inequalities may be classified as follows:

1. Inequality in educational opportunity.
2. Financial inequality, including inequality between sections in ability to support schools, in the burden of school support, and in the amount spent per pupil on education.

The following table selected from a great many prepared during the course of the survey shows how great are the inequalities in eight School Sections within a restricted area.

TABLE

Section Number	Per Pupil Expenditure	Amt. Spent per Pupil
1	\$40.00
2	20.40
3	17.80
4	14.60
5	11.50
6	9.94
7	5.70
8	3.88

A study of per pupil expenditure in any county will show variations similar to these.

The only way to overcome the evils and inequalities of the section system is to organize education on the basis of a larger administrative unit.

Reorganization Elsewhere.

In twelve States of the Union the county is the paramount unit of school government. Partially developed county unit systems are found in five States, while five others have optional county unit laws. No province of Canada is completely organized on the county unit plan, although numerous experiments have been attempted. In Ontario, York and East York, are completely organized on this plan. In Manitoba, Minota is organized on this basis. The Alberta Department of Education has entered upon an extensive scheme of larger unit organization. The enlarged unit is termed a "division", and is formed by combining from 70 to 85 small districts into a single unit for administrative purposes. When the plan of reorganization is complete, it is expected that from 50 to 60 "divisions" will be in operation. At

present 11 "divisions" are in operation, the first units being established at Berry Creek and Turner Valley in 1933. Two areas in British Columbia have been organized on the basis of a larger unit, the Peace River Consolidated Area,⁽¹⁾ and the Matsqui-Sumas-Abbotsford Administrative Area.

A study of larger school units in operation elsewhere shows that:

1. Wherever larger unit organization has been tried distinct educational advantages and considerable financial economy have resulted
2. Optional legislation, however, desirable, is generally ineffective.
3. A school administrative system cannot be transplanted from one area to another and expected to flourish. The new system must be adapted to suit local conditions, the culture, ideals, and traditions of a people, and the topography of an area.
4. Wherever possible school units should be made to correspond with already existing units of civil government.
5. Local school trustees are capable of performing a useful function and should be preserved under any larger unit plan.

A Municipal Unit Plan for Nova Scotia.

The principal features of a hypothetical municipal unit plan such as might be applied to Nova Scotia were drawn up rather rapidly in order to find out what might be expected to follow if such a plan were applied for a four year period. The plan is not regarded as anything more than a convenient hypothesis. In the plan:—

1. Nova Scotia could be divided into 24 units of school government corresponding to the 24 units of civil government. Urban sections, the two cities, Halifax and Sydney, and 43 incorporated towns would form separate administrative units.
2. Each unit would be administered by a Municipal Board of Education, consisting of five members, three of whom would be appointed by each Municipal Council, and the remaining two by the Council of Public Instruction.
3. A school rate, uniform throughout the whole municipality, could be set up for the purpose of maintaining all schools. School taxes would be collected along with other municipal taxes.
4. School trustees would still be preserved with certain well defined functions concerning the maintenance, equipment and upkeep of school property.

¹ See article "The Peace River Experiment" by B. A. Fletcher, PUBLIC AFFAIRS, August issue, p. 26.

5. A teachers' salary schedule, uniform for all teachers within the municipality would be set up, with due regard for certificate held, years of experience, and type of school, whether elementary, ungraded, elementary graded, junior high or senior high.

Such an organization would not only provide for a greater degree of efficiency in dealing with educational problems, but also a greater degree of equality in educational opportunity and in the burden of school support. The advantages of a municipal school unit may be outlined as follows:

1. Inequalities in tax rates would be eliminated by spreading the cost of education over an entire area, thus assisting those sections where the cost is oppressive.
2. Economy in operation would be effected by:
 - A. Economy in administration.
 - B. The centralized buying of supplies.
 - C. The centralized allocating of insurance.
 - D. Readjustments in taxation.
3. A Municipal Board of Education, being a centralized authority, could deal more efficiently with:
 - A. Problems relative to the establishment of an adequate system of rural high school education.
 - B. The consolidation of attendance units, thus eliminating the excessive cost per pupil in very small rural schools.
 - C. Night classes and vocational training.
 - D. Adult education.
 - E. Library facilities.
 - F. Health service.
4. Teachers could be placed in a position more suited to their training and ability.
5. Teachers would be free from the feeling of dependence on local authorities.
6. A system of teacher promotion could be arranged. Professional interest and teaching efficiency would thereby be stimulated.
7. In many municipalities an additional source of revenue would be secured by making all property within the boundaries of the school unit subject to taxation.

Financial Aspects of the Unit Scheme.

In the research, the financial features of this plan were worked out for an actual municipal unit. The county in question numbering 32,000 inhabitants has 153 schools and spent for these in 1936 about \$133,000.

By establishing a uniform rate of \$1.92 throughout the unit, a rate that would produce revenue equal in amount to that at present derived by separate small section rates, the following would result:

Number of sections with increased rate.....	65
Number of sections with decreased rate.....	76
Maximum increase.....	\$1.32
Maximum decrease.....	\$8.08
Estimated saving under municipal unit organization	\$7,735

Improvements over a Four Year Period.

The following plan outlines the educational improvements that might be expected in the reorganized unit over a four year period of municipal unit organization, without increasing the burden of taxation on the present tax payer.

1. The building and maintenance of additional departments at sixteen points.
2. The expenditure of \$20.00 per classroom annually on books, supplies and equipment. Over a four year period all schools in the unit would be reasonably well equipped.
3. The adoption of a uniform salary schedule, incremented with licence held and period of service, and showing an average increase of at least ten per cent to all teachers in the unit.
4. The building of three or four new schools to replace obsolete buildings.
5. General improvements in school property, painting, decorating, reflooring, etc.
6. The establishment of an efficient pupil health service, employing three full time nurses.
7. The building and maintenance of two new rural high schools.

At the end of a four year period of municipal unit organization no school in the unit would be overcrowded, and no school would be badly equipped. The quality of teaching would be improved by the elimination of weak teachers, the careful adjustment of teachers to more suitable positions, and professional interest stimulated by higher salaries and a more progressive outlook towards the future. Each school child would receive capable health inspection and advice. Secondary education for children in rural communities would be in the process of becoming an accomplished fact. The burden of school support would be more evenly distributed upon the shoulders of every citizen in the municipality. Equality in educational opportunity and equality in the burden of school support would no longer be mere shadowy ideals in the mind of the educationalist, but facts capable of realization.

The Nova Scotia Poor Law

BY T. D. MACDONALD*

II

THE poor district finally responsible for the support of a poor person is the district in which such poor person has a settlement. (Section II of the Poor Relief Act). A person has a settlement in a poor district;

(a) if he or she has resided there for five consecutive years after attaining the age of twenty-one without receiving aid from the Overseers of the Poor.

Under the views expressed and already referred to, it would appear that the Overseers here contemplated are the Overseers of the poor district in which such person is residing. It is submitted, however, that the Overseers of the poor district in which a person has a settlement could not, by supporting such poor person in a different poor district, enable him to acquire a settlement there. Such a procedure would be a fraud upon the latter poor district and it might be said that the poor district of the person's settlement, in supplying such person with relief, interrupted the five year period necessary to enable him to acquire his new settlement.

A person also has a settlement within a poor district if,

(b) he has been assessed for, and has paid, one year's poor rates and one year's county rates, other than poll tax, in the poor district, or if the poor district is an incorporated town or city, has been assessed for and has paid at least one year's rates rated on real or personal property or on income; or

(c) has been elected or appointed to any public office, the holder of which is appointed yearly, and has entered upon the performance of the duties of such office; or

(d) being under the age of twenty-one years has served for two years an

apprenticeship to any trade within the poor district; or

(e) has for one year preceding application for relief lived within such poor district as a hired servant under an agreement to serve for not less than one year.

A married woman takes the settlement of her husband, but if he has none she does not give up her own settlement by reason of her marriage if she has any. A legitimate child has the settlement of the father, or if he has none, of the mother if she has any. An illegitimate child has the settlement of the mother and if the mother, by reason of a subsequent marriage, acquires a new settlement, that becomes also the settlement of the illegitimate child.¹ Any child who has no settlement by parentage takes as his or her settlement the place of his or her birth. Any former settlement is lost as soon as a new one is acquired within the Province and once lost the old one never revives. Temporary relief should be afforded to an indigent person who applies to the Overseers of the Poor, even though he has no settlement within such poor district, under the views previously expressed, and such person should then be taken before a Justice of the Peace to be examined on oath as to his settlement, and if he is found to have a settlement within the Province a copy of the depositions, certified by the Justice of the Peace, together with a memorandum of the necessary expenses of the examination and the relief given, should be transmitted to the Treasurer of the municipality in which such poor person's settlement is found to lie, and the Treasurer must pay the expenses and have the person removed to the place of his settlement. If the Treasurer fails to so re-

*The first part of this article dealing with the general principles of Poor Law Administration appeared in No. 1 of "Public Affairs". The author is Assistant Deputy Attorney General of Nova Scotia.

1. Re Settlement of Main 10 M.P.R. 263.

move such person, he may be removed on the warrant of two Justices of the Peace and must be received by the Overseers of the poor district where his settlement lies, and the Municipal Treasurer must pay the Overseers of the poor district from which such person was removed, the costs of relief, examination and removal. If the Treasurer has no money on hand to the credit of the poor district in which the pauper's settlement was found to lie, such poor district stands charged with such costs which are to be added to the amount to be levied on such poor district by the next poor rate. If the poor district to which the pauper is removed is a city or town, the depositions and memorandum of expenses are transmitted to the Treasurer thereof who pays the same out of the money of such city or town. When a pauper, whose settlement it is necessary to determine, is insane or otherwise incapable of, or refuses to undergo examination, the Justice may take other testimony under oath to determine the pauper's settlement. A Stipendiary Magistrate has the powers, jurisdiction, and authority of two Justices of the Peace, and a warrant for removal of a pauper may, therefore, be granted by one Stipendiary Magistrate.^{2,3} In the case of a pauper whom it is desired to have removed from one poor district within a municipality to another poor district within the same municipality, a Stipendiary Magistrate who at the same time was the Municipal Treasurer, would of course, be an improper person to act in the examination or removal of such pauper.³

In the order named, the father, mother, stepfather, stepmother, foster father, foster mother, child, children, brothers, sisters, grandfather, grandmother, grandchild and grandchildren, of a pauper are, if of sufficient means, liable for such pauper's support and must support such pauper to the extent and in the manner directed by the Overseers of the Poor, and in

case of their failure to do so the Overseers may recover from the person so directed a sum not exceeding Six Dollars per week for such pauper's support. Before such an action will lie, it would appear that there must first be a specific direction by the Overseers of the Poor as to the extent to which and the manner in which the person sought to be charged is to relieve such pauper.⁴ Illegitimate children are not within the scope of this provision so as to charge their grandparents with their support.⁵ If the pauper is an inmate of a municipal poorhouse, the persons vested with its management are the proper persons to direct the parties above referred to, to support the pauper and to recover in the name of the town or municipality in the event of failure to do so. If any of the above mentioned parties, when directed to support a pauper, objects that he has not sufficient means, the persons authorized to so direct him may have the party so objecting examined before the County Court Judge of the district in which lies the pauper's settlement, and the Judge will make such order as he deems just; if he finds that such party's objection is justified, he may proceed to summon and examine the other parties above referred to in the order in which they are given, and make such order against any of them for the pauper's support as he deems just.

When a husband or father forsakes his wife and children, or a woman who has no husband forsakes her children and leaves them a public charge, the Overseers may apply to two Justices for a warrant to seize the goods and let the lands of such husband, father or woman, and such goods may, as occasion requires, be sold at public sale by any two of the Overseers and the proceeds, together with the rents and profits of the lands, are to be used for the support of the wife and children. When any person who has obtained relief is possessed or entitled to property, the Overseers may recover from such

2. "Of Stipendiary Magistrates", R.S.N.S., 1923, Chapter 37, Section 5.

3. Overseers of the Poor, District No. 7, Pictou, vs. Overseers of the Poor, District No. 6, 36 N.S.R., 326.

4. The Overseers of the Poor vs. Stevens et al, 44 N.S.R., 170.

5. Butts vs. Town of Sydney Mines, 59 N.S.R., 90.

person or his estate the amount expended for such relief, and for such purpose may take out Letters of Administration of his estate. Where the owner of real or personal property applies for relief, the Overseers may take a conveyance of such property and hold it in trust for the benefit of the poor district, or upon the authority of the Municipal Council may sell and convey the same and appropriate the proceedings for the benefit of the poor district.

If a person not liable for the support of a pauper nevertheless necessarily incurs expense for his relief, such person may recover such expense from the Overseers from whom the pauper is entitled to relief, if such person, before incurring such expense, has requested the Overseers to furnish relief to the pauper and they have failed to do so; but the Overseers are not liable in this way for the use or occupation of any building leased to or occupied by the pauper. It has been seen that under the views referred to, the Overseers from which the pauper is in the first instance entitled to relief are the Overseers of the poor district in which he resides, and that the course to be adopted by such Overseers is to proceed to have him removed to the poor district of his settlement, so that under this view, a person who has given the required notice, may recover from the Overseers of the poor district for relief necessarily given a pauper, even though such pauper has no settlement within such poor district. Even a person named in the preceding paragraph but one, as one of those liable to relieve and maintain a pauper at his own expense, may recover under this provision if he can show that he is not of sufficient means to relieve and maintain the pauper at his own expense,⁶ and so may the wife of such a person⁷, but where an action is brought by such a person to recover from the Overseers of the Poor, the burden is upon him to show that he is not liable for the pauper's support by reason of the fact that he is not possessed of sufficient means or that

there are others liable in priority to him.⁸ It would appear that even a person who, without the knowledge or consent of the Overseers, has removed a pauper from the place provided for him by such Overseers may, by giving notice, cause the duty to provide for the pauper to revert to the Overseers and may recover against them in the event of their failure to do so.⁹ Expenses necessarily incurred would include bills which the claimant has not paid but for which he has rendered himself liable, and would include burial expenses⁹. The Overseers of the Poor cannot apparently limit their liability by stipulating the amount which they are willing to pay a person for maintaining a pauper, and stating that if he does not consider it enough they will make other provisions for the pauper's support; if such person replies that the sum stipulated is not enough and states that he will hold the Overseers responsible, he need not turn the pauper out of doors, but the Overseers, if they do not wish to incur liability in favour of such person, should proceed to make other provision for the pauper.¹⁰ It would appear that no special form of notice to the Overseers is necessary and that a notice is sufficient which acquaints them with the circumstances and requests them to take action,¹⁰ and that in the case of a poor district notice to one Overseer is sufficient.⁷

No person may, under penalty for doing so, not exceeding \$80.00, bring a person whom he knows to be indigent into a poor district where such indigent person has no settlement and leave him there with intent to charge such poor district with his support, nor may the Overseers of the Poor provide for the poor by putting them up at public auction and confiding their maintenance to the person who will accept it at the lowest remuneration.

All penalties imposed and collected for violations of the Act are applied to the support of the poor in the district concerned.

8. McGillivray vs. Overseers of the Poor District of Arisaig No. 1, 6 M.P.R., 35.
9. Naas vs. Overseers of the Poor, District No. 3, 35 N.S.R., 316.
9. Town of Antigonish vs. Overseers of the Poor, Arisaig, 38 N.S.R., 112.
10. Bushby vs Town of North Sydney, 46 N.S.R., 35.

6. Munro vs. Overseers of the Poor, Wallace 13 N.S.R. 501.
7. Sillers vs. The Overseers of the Poor, Section 26, 46 N.S.R., 224.

Industrial Relations and Social Security

Following a conference on Industrial Relations which was held in Halifax this fall, it was decided to devote a special department in PUBLIC AFFAIRS to problems of Industrial Relations and Social Security.

THE ROLE OF INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS IN MODERN INDUSTRY

by J. E. MACPHERSON

Extracts from an Address given at the first Maritime Conference on Industrial Relations in Halifax October 29 and 30.

THERE is much confusion concerning the objectives of industry and much more confusion concerning the objectives of different groups who are part of the industrial organization. For example, it is said that a distinguished professor of economics at a well known university frequently asked the question on his examinations, "What is a foundry for?" and only one answer was acceptable—"to make a profit". This is the attitude of mind of many business executives. On the other hand, some would apparently answer this question by saying that the purpose of a foundry is "to provide shorter hours and more pay for the workers". Many government officials, if they answered in accordance with their actions, would say that the purpose of a foundry is "to provide more taxes for the government."

The demands of these groups do not represent, however, the real objectives of industry, but only the immediate desires of specialized groups. The most intelligent and far-sighted of all these groups would agree that the objectives of industry are far broader and more significant than the current demands of any of these groups would imply.

Sooner or later we must come to see that the major objectives of industry are:

1. To produce a continuously increasing amount of consumable wealth for distribution among the members of society.

2. To provide an equitable opportunity for all members of society to share in the distribution of this wealth on the basis of what these members contribute as a result of physical and mental effort.

3. To provide a form of organization and develop a plan of human relations that will enable all members of industry to receive the maximum amount of pleasure and the minimum amount of discomfort in their cooperate industrial activities.

4. To aid in the development of a form of society and an attitude of mind which will result in the use of this increased wealth and opportunity in such a manner as to develop our intellectual abilities and spiritual characteristics to as great a degree as possible.

These objectives are inter-related and inter-woven with each other. It is impossible to achieve any one of these to a satisfactory degree without achieving to some degree each of the others. For example, if there is not an equitable distribution of wealth, in the end there will not be a satisfactory amount to be distributed because the members of industry will be so dissatisfied that combat and strife between different groups will result in inefficient production. Again we cannot be efficient in the production of wealth in the long run if we do not develop the intellectual abilities and spiritual characteristics of the people. On the other hand, intellectual and spiritual development will be hampered if the amount of wealth produced is limited or that produced is distributed inequitably.

The achievement of such objectives is not an easy task. There are many ways in which the requirements for their achievement might be stated. It is impossible to state them all because some are so intangible that we cannot

*EDITOR'S NOTE: J. E. Macpherson is Vice-President of the Bell Telephone Company of Canada. Parts of the address are based on ideas expressed in the book by the Right Hon. W. L. Mackenzie King, "Industry and Humanity."

describe them adequately by use of words. Some of these requirements probably can only be felt and not expressed. As a means, however, of making our thinking somewhat concrete, we can state the major requirements for achieving these objectives as the following:

1. An understanding on the part of those who would achieve to leadership of the causes and nature of our present problems. Confusion is the word which probably most accurately describes the state of mind in which the world finds itself today. We have confusion of thinking and this leads inevitably to confusion in action. This confusion in action again leads to maladjustments which create many of our most important problems. To correct this confusion it is not enough that we have knowledge; we must also have understanding. Knowledge without understanding may lead to worse confusion. Some of our best informed people are more confused than some of our most ignorant. At least the latter are not so confused in their action as the former because they are usually guided by a single purpose.

In seeking to understand, we must search for causes before we seek for remedies.

2. An understanding on the part of each of the groups in our industrial society of the attitudes of the other groups. Our objectives will not be achieved if each group belittles its own shortcomings by magnifying the shortcomings of each other group. Too many have engaged in the sport of mud-slinging for a long period of time. This sport was not so dangerous as long as they did not hit each other or any of the innocent bystanders and as long as the bystanders did not take a part in the game. Unfortunately, many of those engaging in the contest and of the bystanders have taken the game seriously. As a consequence, we have had industrial society broken up into groups with distinct class consciousness, each of which is trying to benefit itself at the expense of the other. For example, the term "collective bargaining" of which we hear so much at present is indicative of an assumed

antagonistic interest of management and labor. I do not mean to imply that collective bargaining may not be a necessary and useful plan of organization at our present stage of industrial development. In fact, I can conceive that this plan, if rightly used, may serve as a means of enabling management and labor to come to a better understanding of each other. It may serve as a means by which these groups may work together in the achievement of certain mutual objectives.

I do say, however, that it should not be necessary for labor to bargain to secure its "rights" or for management to bargain to protect its rights. The objectives for both should be the same. I also say that collective bargaining in the sense in which the term is now used would not be necessary if management had performed its task properly in the years gone by. I do not think that management has failed because it has not developed efficient methods of performing industrial operations. I do not think that it has failed because it has taken too much of the material rewards of industry and given to labor too little. I do think it has failed, however, because it has not developed mutual understanding and mutual trust among the members of industry and has not made labor feel that it is a part of a cooperative effort seeking objectives in which all members of industry have a mutual interest.

There must be an understanding among these various groups before there can be confidence and trust between them; and without confidence and trust there cannot be cooperation; and without cooperation it is impossible to achieve the objectives we have stated.

It is the role of industrial relations, in whatever form, in a society highly industrialized, to find the ways and means by which the parties to industry may mutually express their energies. Co-ordination is to be achieved, not by one act, but by a process.

What are the main problems which these parties to industry must consider?

Security of Employment. Foreign competition, seasonal character of certain industries, changing markets, cyclical depressions, are factors beyond the control of the most skilful management.

In some cases individual industries have kept plants going at a loss rather than lay people off, but that can be done only for a short time, and some form of social security legislation must come. Much better that it should come in a form and on terms which the parties to industry agree upon as fair—and that agreement can best be reached through the mutual understanding brought about by proper industrial relations.

Other accidents of life against which security should be provided are sickness, industrial accident, old age, death (involving provision for the worker's family).

The loss of earnings, current and potential, through industrial accident is now generally provided for under Workmen's Compensation laws—an instalment of the body of social legislation which will gradually develop. In many instances enlightened industry has provided against these contingencies and in so doing it is undertaking in a progressive spirit its share of social obligation. It will be really saddening to those who have undertaken these farseeing policies if they find themselves obliged to merge them in legislative plans of more widespread application, and perhaps of less value to those engaged in that particular industry.

There are insurance plans, thrift plans—all of them good—some of them very good—if they contain the possibility of the man doing something for himself, something to arouse his ambition, hope, and courage. Not so good if they smack too strongly of paternalism.

The glow of paternal benevolence is very warming to the parent—but independence is a very precious thing and must be respected. Above all, conscientious fulfilment or indeed anticipation of social duty should never be considered as an offset to proper pay for proper work.

The main items of the workers' industrial interest, however enthusiastic about the common enterprise, are wages

and working conditions, including opportunity for promotion. And a voice as to these and as to the several matters earlier referred to is also the centre of industrial relations, no matter how carried on.

Management must carry its responsibility, but under fair industrial relations it can do so only by the establishment of Faith—and the frankness and honesty of purpose which will create that faith demand a like frankness and establishment of Faith by the Labour partner.

In an experience of some years, I have found that informative discussion of the objectives of the business, its problems, their possible clearance, is a solvent of apparent difficulties and discloses in the worker an intelligent comprehension of matters outside his daily job. Reticence, particularly in competitive fields, may doubtless be necessary, but it must be reticence as honest as is the confidence.

All these relations in whatever form must be in the clear light of honesty.

CONFERENCE ON INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

SPONSORED by a group of Maritime industrialists headed by J. B. Hayes, Manager of the N. S. Light & Power Co. a Maritime Conference on Industrial Relations was held at Dalhousie-Kings October 29 and 30. Similar conferences are regularly held for central Canada at Queens University, for the eastern part of the United States at Princeton University, and at various other universities in the United States. It is the purpose of these conferences to give careful study to the problems affecting the relationship between companies and their employees and also to the efforts of governments to promote the welfare of the worker.

The first session under the chairmanship of J. B. Hayes was occupied by papers and discussions dealing with the employer-employee relationship. J. E. Macpherson, Vice-President of the Bell Telephone Company of Canada spoke on "The Role of Industrial Relations in Modern Industry". F. M. Blois, Superintendent of Stanfield's Limited, gave a paper on "Wage Determination". Dr. F. H. Sexton, Principal of the Nova Scotia Technical College, chose as his subject "The Human Factor in Scientific Management".

In the foreground of the second session which was presided over by D. R. Turnbull, Managing Director of the Acadia Sugar Refining Company,

was the problem of social security. Dr. F. W. Gray, Assistant General Manager of the Dominion Steel & Coal Company, and B. J. Waters, General Manager of the Mersey Paper Company discussed "Security Against Accidents", while Professor L. Richter of Dalhousie University, dealt with the methods applied in the United States to provide "Security Against Unemployment". A paper on "Security Against Sickness" which was on the programme could not be given as the speaker, Dr. A. Calder, President of the Medical Society of Nova Scotia, was detained by urgent cases.

The last session, presided over by Dr. H. F. Munro, Superintendent of Education for Nova Scotia, was given to educational problems. H. A. Weir of the Halifax Academy spoke on "The Need for Skilled Workers", pointing out the need for vocational training in many parts of the province. The successful steps taken by the Provincial Government to train unemployed young men from mining areas as hard rock miners in the experimental mine in Chester Basin, were shown by A. R. Lawrence of the Department of Mines in Halifax. D. W. Morrison, Mayor of Glace Bay who was to speak on "Bringing Unemployed Back Into Industry" was prevented from coming by a labour conference in New Brunswick.

The programme also contained two luncheon meetings. At the first, under the chairmanship of J. H. Winfield, President of the Maritime Telephone & Telegraph Company, Hon. Michael Dwyer, Minister of Labour for Nova Scotia addressed the meeting on "Recent Labour Legislation in Nova Scotia". At the luncheon closing the conference, Prof. H. L. Stewart of Dalhousie University spoke on "The University's Contribution to Industrial Relations". A. N. McLean, Saint John, President of Connors Bros. was in the chair.

The conference was attended by more than forty industrialists from all parts of the Maritimes and a number of other invited guests. Three companies sent, in addition to their local managers, industrial relations officers from the companies' headquarters in Ontario and Quebec. The provincial governments were represented as well as the Federal Department of Labour.

The conference proved so successful that it was decided to make it a permanent institution as is the case in Central Canada and in British Columbia. A committee was formed to carry on the work and to prepare next year's conference. The committee is composed of the following: J. B. Hayes, Manager, Nova Scotia Light & Power Company, Chairman; J. A. Ford, Manager Swift Canadian Company, Moncton; F. W. Gray, Asst. General Manager, Dominion Steel & Coal Company, Sydney; D. R. Turnbull, Managing Director,

Acadia Sugar Refining Co., Halifax; B. J. Waters, General Manager, Mersey Paper Co., Limited; A. N. McLean, President, Connors Bros., Saint John; and Geo. E. Graham, Dominion Atlantic Railway, Kentville. Professor L. Richter of the Dalhousie Institute of Public Affairs will serve as Secretary to the Committee.

UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE

Prime Minister Mackenzie King has announced that the Dominion Government will submit to Parliament this winter an Unemployment Insurance Bill, provided the provinces agree to an amendment of the B.N.A. Act authorising the Dominion to legislate in this field. Such authorisation is necessary since the Privy Council has declared unconstitutional because *ultra vires* the Employment and Social Insurance Act introduced by the Bennett Government and passed by Parliament in 1935.¹

Under these circumstances it is interesting to learn what progress the United States have made in that field and what unemployment insurance means to their citizens. We quote from a recent article written by Arthur J. Altmeyer, Chairman of the Social Security Board, in the *American Federationist*:

"To-day, every State and Territory under the United States Government has an unemployment insurance law. The workers in nearly 21 million jobs throughout the country are protected by these laws. One State, Wisconsin, has been paying out-of-work benefits for over a year. In January of next year nearly half of the States will begin paying benefits. This means that a very large part of the country's wage-earners are now, for the first time in American history, assured of regular weekly payments for a definite time in case of future unemployment. And what is more, they are assured of these benefits as a matter of right by virtue of their own earnings and industry. This sweep of unemployment compensation laws is beyond question the greatest advance in labor legislation ever made in so short a time. It has taken a quarter of a century to make comparable progress in the field of accident compensation—and even to-day two States do not have workmen's compensation laws."

But unemployment insurance is also on its way throughout the whole British Empire. In South Africa the Unemployment Insurance Benefit Act, 1937, which was passed a few months ago, provides the Union with a compulsory system of unemployment insurance, and in Australia a report on the same subject by a prominent British expert, drafted on request of the Government, has just been submitted to the Parliament of the Australian Commonwealth. In the introduction to the Report it is stated that while the institution of a

(1) For criticism of this decision see article "The Canadian New Deal" in PUBLIC AFFAIRS 1, No. 1, p. 36.

system of unemployment insurance in Australia presents a number of difficulties, a scheme based on the principles of the British system and modified to suit the conditions existing in the Commonwealth is quite practicable.

UNIFORMITY OF OLD AGE PENSIONS

A conference seeking to co-ordinate old age pension laws in the nine provinces, held its initial meetings Nov. 1st, under the chairmanship of Hon. C. A. Dunning at Ottawa. If there needs to be nine different administrations of old age pensions, one for each province, the desire is that there be reasonable uniformity throughout and also that any abuses which have developed be eliminated. These are the objectives of the conference, which was in the nature of an experience meeting and comparison of notes.

The Dominion Government contributes 75 per cent of the total costs and the provinces attend to administration. This is because the constitution places social services under the provincial authorities. The Dominion Government might be inclined to assume the whole obligation of pensions and their administration, but for the present it is necessary to go on with the system as it is.

The ultimate responsibility is one of the matters to be dealt with by the Royal Commission on Federal and Provincial Relations. If it makes such a recommendation and the provinces are favourable the reform suggested could be brought about only by an amendment to the B. N. A. Act.—From *The Municipal Review of Canada*, November, issue.

EMPLOYMENT SERVICE FUNCTIONS

What are the functions of an efficient employment service?

It should collect and provide necessary statistical information on which broad planning to meet present and future labour requirements of industry and agriculture can be based. It should be a repository for accurate information on (1) the labour demands of industry and (2) the available supply of employable workers;

It should procure reliable data on the qualifications, ability, experience, and general fitness of each worker;

It should link up with the school, on the one hand and the employer on the other, providing the young man or woman, boy or girl, who has completed his or her education, with some degree of vocational guidance;

It should devise and operate for thousands of workers, systems whereby these workers may be registered, classified accurately, referred to suitable employment and kept informed of basic changes affecting their trades and professions;

It should go even farther than those men and women workers now in the employable category. Its ingenuity and enterprise should be utilized in an effort to include among the employables many of those now on the border-line. This may be possible either through retraining or such treatment as may be necessary to restore physical fitness;

It should look into the future, be as it were, the advance agent for labour requirements;

With the date at its command, it should be able to advise on suitable training projects for youth and retraining for displaced workers.

A glance at these suggested functions reveals immediately the paramount importance of public interest in and support for any system of employment agencies. Only as directly interested parties and the community participate in its work can a district or local employment office function successfully. This joint participation and interest can be created and developed through the establishment of local advisory councils supplementary to employment offices. Such councils provide the foundation on which the employment service rests. They are the link between the service and the community, bringing the needs of the community to the service. The councils should, through their intimate knowledge and study of local conditions, be in a position to advise the service, not only on employment requirements of the district, but also as to the best type of plans for increasing employability in both the young and older groups. Once the public becomes a friend and active ally of the Employment Service, its success is assured.

This fact has been emphasized in connection with the operation of the Labour Exchanges in Great Britain. There, it is stated, local employment committees are the foundation on which the exchange system rests. Members of the committees take their work seriously and often devote large amounts of their time to it. Without them public opinion might be less cordial to the exchanges. Composed of leading employers, representative workers and influential members of political philanthropic and educational organizations, they constitute public relations bodies for the system. They make it truly national as well as official.

It is not the intention to convey the impression in this article that the employment service should enter into the administration of aid. Indeed it is important that it should not. Naturally it would be required to determine the employability of aid recipients, and for this purpose certain standards would have to be set up. This fixing of standards of employability would be an important function of an efficient employment service system. To carry it out effectively constant occupational research involving both job analysis and analysis of individual worker's degree of competence, would be necessary.—From *The Information Service of National Employment Division*.

Current Public Affairs

EXTENSION COURSE FOR GOVERNMENT OFFICERS

UNDER the auspices of the Institute of Public Affairs, there is being held at Dalhousie University this winter a series of extension lectures for officers of the dominion and provincial governments stationed in Halifax, and for employees of the City Hall. The aim of the course is to give the students an insight into such subjects as political science, economics, the elements of law and the basic principles of public administration, the knowledge of which is so important to all public servants whatever their departments may be.

The course consists of about twenty-four lectures. Up to Christmas the topic is "The Canadian Constitution". At the beginning of next year a series of lectures will be given by practical administrators headed by Mr. C. H. Bland, Chairman of the Civil Service Commission, Ottawa, who will speak on "Principles of the Canadian Civil Service". Later the class will be divided into groups of students who will concentrate on specialized subjects.

The venture has proved most encouraging. Altogether 208 persons have registered. Of these 8 are heads of departments, 26 accountants, auditors and assessors, 23 engineers, surveyors and draughtsmen, 8 inspectors, 98 clerks and 45 stenographers.

INSTITUTE OF PUBLIC AFFAIRS

The number of representatives of universities on the Council of the Institute of Public Affairs has been completed by the appointments of Professor A. B. Balcom, economist of Acadia University, and Mr. Alan M. Fraser, M.A., Professor of History and Economics at Memorial University College, Newfoundland.

OUR JOURNAL

The first issue of PUBLIC AFFAIRS has received very friendly reception from the Canadian press. Not only did the Maritime papers carry reports on it, but even newspapers circulated throughout the whole Dominion, such as the *Winnipeg Free Press*, the *Montreal Gazette*, *Saturday Night* and the *Financial Post*, published more or less comprehensive reviews. The *Montreal Gazette* welcomed the new publication in a special editorial, as did the *Winnipeg Free Press* which expressed appreciation of the article of "Econ-

omist" on "The Deadlock in Dominion-Provincial Relations", which by the way was written before the Rowell Commission had been set up. Most gratifying also is the welcome extended to PUBLIC AFFAIRS in the *Extension Bulletin* published by the Extension Department of St. Francis Xavier University. The reviewer finds that PUBLIC AFFAIRS "is a journal that should be read and studied by every thinking citizen of the Maritimes".

HOUSING COMMISSION NOTES

By PROF. S. H. PRINCE

Member N. S. Housing Commission.

The initial project of the Nova Scotia housing plan, sponsored by a Citizen's group in Halifax contemplates a development of 52 homes. In the projected plans every conceivable economy has been made. Each unit, however, is to have a kitchen-living room, a bath room and three bed rooms. The preliminary estimates indicate that these new sanitary homes can be made available to families at \$4 per room, per month. A local survey made by the Nova Scotia Housing Commission reveals a considerable number of families now living in Halifax who are paying a rental greater than this amount while at the same time being compelled to occupy houses condemnable as unfit for human habitation.

The draft and details of the new project have received the approval of the Government Commission, have been passed on favourably by the City Engineer and received the sanction of the Chairman of the City Board of Health. They were also presented to the Trades and Labour Council and received a resolution of endorsement from that body. Unfortunately the support of the Halifax City Council is still lacking, and the development is at an impasse.

At least three other Nova Scotian communities have under consideration low-cost housing schemes of the character required to take advantage of the Nova Scotia Housing Commission's enabling conditions, as set forth by the Act.

A provincial housing survey is being carried out by the Commission with the assistance of the Department of Health. In the communities thus far examined there has been a disclosure of overcrowding and discreditable sanitary conditions, approaching in seriousness, if not in extent, these found to exist in the Capital city.

The Commission, as directed by the Act, has had in mind the need for town-planning as an important auxiliary in the matter of housing reform. Upon enquiry it is found that while there are several competent town-planning engineers in Canada there is no government channel through which such services are available to provinces or municipalities. Requests for surveys by a town-planning engineer have been received by the Commission, and it has under consideration plans for the provision of town-planning services to communities so desiring them. Authorities agree that housing projects should be preceded and protected by adequate town-planning legislation.

The Commission has been giving attention to the revision of, and additions to, existing legislation on housing, building regulations and sanitary requirements, which will be submitted in due course.

The distribution of information concerning better housing is one of the requirements of the Housing Act. This obligation has not been overlooked by the Commission office, the activities of which have included public addresses, conferences and correspondence.

GOVERNMENT LOANS TO NEEDY FISHERMEN

During the depression years many fishermen in Nova Scotia have lost a large part of their gear and equipment. Leaders of the industry therefore suggested that short term loans at a low interest rate should be made available for fishermen wishing to re-equip themselves. In this way they would be enabled to take advantage of any improvement that might arise in the industry.

The plan was approved by the Provincial Government. Through representations made in Ottawa, a fifty per cent contribution was obtained from the Federal Government. The other fifty per cent and the cost of administration are borne by the Provincial Government. A Board known as the Provincial Fishermen's Loan Board was appointed to administer the loans. In addition county advisory committees were formed in each county, the number on the committee depending on the number of fishermen in the county. The duties of the committee are to receive applications and make recommendations as to the eligibility and need of the applicant for the loan.

Loans are given to individuals and to organisations. Individual loans are limited to \$40, while organisations receive \$40 per eligible member. The loans are issued in the form of credit certificates which can be taken to any dealer and exchanged for fishing gear and equipment.

Since its inception in June 1936, over 5000 individual loans and twenty organisation loans

have been granted totalling approximately \$145,000. In addition to the loans, the Provincial Government made a grant of \$100,000 for the payment of assistance in the form of bonuses on dried salt fish produced in Nova Scotia. \$1.00 per quintal was paid on dried salt cod and 66½ cents per quintal on hake, haddock, cusk and pollock. At the end of the fiscal year, November 30th, the full amount of the grant had been expended.

TRAINING UNEMPLOYED YOUTH IN PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND

An agreement about the training of unemployed youth was reached between the Dominion Government and the Provincial Government of Prince Edward Island. This agreement provides for the total expenditure of approximately \$25,000 which, as in the case of the other agreements, is to be shared equally by the Dominion and the Province.

The projects are open to "unemployed young people" between the ages of eighteen and thirty. Provision is made for the establishment of courses for women in Charlottetown and other centres to provide training for household workers as well as instruction in home management and economics, handicrafts and physical education.

There is also provision for the establishment of special courses at the Prince of Wales College where instruction will be given in agriculture and subjects related to farming. Assistance will also be provided for selected young men to attend the agricultural courses at the Truro Agricultural School as well as the courses in rural leadership and co-operation at St. Francis Xavier University, Antigonish.

Occupational training will be provided in carpentry, blacksmithing and repair of farm machinery by means of special courses.

For the benefit of those engaged in the fishing industry special courses will be given dealing with the curing, processing, packing and marketing of fish.

For young men desiring to become sailors provision will be made for instruction in navigation and seamanship.

Under the terms of the agreement where young people have to attend a course of instruction away from their homes, living allowances will be paid.

The agreement is effective up to March 31, 1938.
—From the *Labour Gazette*, November, 1937.

COURSE FOR LEADERS IN INDUSTRIAL AREA

To meet the growing need for trained leaders and to consolidate the advances made in the industrial areas of Cape Breton, the Extension Department of St. Francis Xavier University con-

ducted a series of short courses at Glace Bay, Sydney, New Waterford and Sydney Mines during the first weeks of November. The work of forming and conducting study clubs will now be done for the most part by those who have attended these courses instead of by Extension Department workers. The chief advantages of this new procedure are the development of a larger number of individuals capable of leadership, the acceptance of responsibility for continued progress by the groups themselves, and the additional time allowed the Extension workers to carry on their program in less progressive or hitherto untouched communities.

PRODUCERS AND CONSUMERS MEET

A promising situation exists in Sydney where milk producers and consumers, working on a co-operative basis, have come together to ensure satisfaction to both. The Cape Breton Co-operative Dairymen's Association opened a modernly-equipped pasteurizing plant on the Esplande, March 1 with 7 shippers supplying 267 quarts of milk. There are now 33 shippers with daily sales of 1800 quarts. Directors of the farmers' co-operative and of the Sydney Consumers' Co-operative Society, which is doing a weekly trade of \$2600, meet to determine the price and conditions under which milk will be distributed. Milk is sold to others than members also. A similar arrangement exists between the dairymen and the consumer society at New Waterford, another flourishing association which has had to open up a second store to take care of its rapidly expanding business. Its trade for the past six months amounted to \$93,000, an increase of \$19,000 over the corresponding period in 1936.

This situation would seem to indicate one way to meet a problem that has bothered many co-operators, namely the relationship that should exist between consumer and producer. It also illustrates the value of developing co-operatives from the consumer end, for it is the existence of the consumer societies that assures success to the dairymen

FURTHER PROGRESS OF THE HOME IMPROVEMENT PLAN IN NOVA SCOTIA

In the last issue of PUBLIC AFFAIRS we reported that under the Home Improvement Plan about

\$550,000 had been loaned by the banks to home owners wishing to take advantage of the Plan. By December 1st this amount had increased to about \$850,000. Going on the assumption that the sum mentioned above represents only a fourth of what has been spent on work assisted by these loans, we may estimate that during the one year which the Home Improvement Plan has now been in operation, about \$3,500,000 have been expended in Nova Scotia on home improvement.

This success is certainly to some extent responsible for the favourable employment situation enjoyed by the province. In November of this year there were altogether only about 6,400 people on relief compared with 14,000 twelve months ago. Relief is now only paid in Halifax, Glace Bay, New Waterford, Sydney Mines, some parts of Cape Breton County and Joggins. While relief figures in previous years used to go up slightly in November, we find a decrease this year. Though unemployment is, as a rule, greatest in Nova Scotia during January, February and March, we may expect that the present favourable conditions will not be changed to a great extent during this winter.

CO-OPERATIVE HOUSING

It now appears as if Co-operative Housing were to be a reality in Nova Scotia. Several groups have been studying the matter of supplying themselves with homes under the Provincial Housing Act of 1932 whereby companies may be formed to build houses costing \$2500 or less in units of ten or more. The most promising group is at Reserve Mines where ten miners have been studying the question thoroughly since January past. The Housing Commission, appointed under the Act, has shown considerable sympathy for the efforts of this group who plan not only to build co-operatively but to form a co-operative colony as well. It is an experiment that stimulates much interest, indicating as it does the capabilities of the average citizen to provide for his own needs when he works intelligently in a group and when he has first accomplished those tasks which are most evident and feasible. Reserve Mines was the first industrial community to have a credit union and the first to possess a community library. It also has a co-operative store and a beginning has been made towards developing a program of community recreation.

What Municipalities are Doing

Contributions from Municipalities to this Column will be most welcome.

Thirty-Second Annual Convention of the Union of Nova Scotia Municipalities

THE Convention in Sydney was one of the best attended in the history of the Union.

It is difficult to say whether the fine programme, the beautiful scenery of Cape Breton, or the proverbial hospitality of its inhabitants, proved most attractive, but by whatever inducement members of the Union were brought to Sydney, they were certainly not disappointed. The committee in charge of the preparations, headed by Mayor Muggah of Sydney, had done everything to make the conference interesting and enjoyable at the same time. A tour through the Sydney steel plant and through one of the coal mines gave an insight into the working of two of the most important industries of the Province. A motor trip to picturesque Louisburg made conference members acquainted with Cape Breton's early history. Another successful venture was the banquet. It was not held at an hotel but on board a steamer cruising in Sydney Harbour.

The names of prominent speakers from in and outside the Province appeared on the conference programme. The provincial government was represented by the Honourable Michael Dwyer, Minister of Public Works and Mines and Labour, who gave an address on "The Problem of the Young Man". He discussed the successful efforts made by the provincial government to train youth, especially the unemployed, for jobs in trade and industry. Dr. F. W. Gray, Assistant General Manager of the Dominion Steel and Coal Corporation spoke on "The Coal Trade in Eastern Canada", emphasizing the importance of the industry to the welfare of the province. Mr. R. M. Hattie of Halifax, editor of *The Maritime Merchant* and former Alderman of Halifax, gave a paper on "Town Planning and Civic Improvement". This led to the adoption of a resolution approving the principles of planning and to the appointment of a committee which will take the matter up with the provincial government. Municipal legislation in Nova Scotia for 1937 was ably reviewed by Mr. G. E. Romkey, M.L.A., former President of the Union.

The two speakers who came from outside the province were Dr. W. C. Clark, Deputy Minister of Finance from Ottawa, and H. E. Manning, K.C., from Toronto. Dr. Clark's comprehensive paper dealt with "Housing", giving the social, economic and financial implications of the problem. Mr. Manning, who is a recognized authority

on municipal taxation, in Canada spoke on "Land Taxation and Municipal Finance". Nothing will be said here about the contents of the two papers, as they will appear in the *Dalhousie Bulletins on Public Affairs* early next year and may be obtained by Maritime readers of this journal free of charge.

A number of resolutions were passed of which some of the more important may be mentioned. Problems of public health were touched on in no less than four resolutions dealing with Relations between municipalities and hospitals, the settlement under the Hospital Act, the care of tubercular patients and marriages of feeble-minded and diseased persons. Resolutions were also passed on the larger school unit, prison reformatories and vocational schools, problems which for this reason have been made the subject of special articles in this issue. Finally, as might be expected, problems of municipal taxation were in the foreground, (issuing and retiring debentures, land tax on lands of a municipality, debentures for sewerage and water services, exemption of the land of municipalities from provincial taxation).

Existing relations between the Union and the Institute of Public Affairs were made closer still as this journal *PUBLIC AFFAIRS* was declared to be the official organ of the Union, and the Institute of Public Affairs was asked to prepare for the Union a memorandum on municipal finance in Nova Scotia to be submitted to the Royal Commission on Dominion-Provincial Relations.

For the year 1937-38 the following officers were elected: President: A. H. Sperry, Municipal Clerk at Lunenburg; A. M. Butler, C. A., 1st Vice-President and R. A. McKinnon, 2nd Vice-President; Judge Arthur Roberts was reelected Secretary-Treasurer

Union of New Brunswick Municipalities

THE Annual Convention of the Union of New Brunswick Municipalities which was held at Campbellton on September 22nd, 23rd and 24th was largely attended.

In addition to dealing with a number of more local matters the convention adopted the following resolution on Tuberculosis control, which was considered to be a matter of national importance equally with or even more so than leprosy:

"Whereas it is the opinion of the Union of New Brunswick Municipalities that Tuberculosis could

be greatly curtailed and eventually reduced to a minimum by means of proper facilities and treatment and preventative measures, and

Whereas we believe that the care of indigent Tuberculosis patients is fast reaching the point where it will be impossible for the several municipalities of the Province to meet their financial obligations in that respect,

Therefore Resolved that the Union of New Brunswick Municipalities in annual session assembled respectfully urge that the Provincial Government assume full cost and control of such patients in the Province of New Brunswick, and that a special tax be levied and earmarked for that purpose to defray the expenses thereof."

Other matters dealt with included a complete revision and modernization of the system of assessment and collection of taxes in the Province.

The Union approved of the appointment of a Law Committee under the chairmanship of the Honorary Secretary-Treasurer, whose duties it would be to scrutinize all legislation, drafted for submission to the Provincial Legislature, and to protect the interests of the municipalities should they be adversely affected by any such proposed legislation.

The speakers at the convention included the Honourable A. P. Paterson, Minister of Federal and Municipal Affairs and an Honorary Member of the Union, who reported to the Union on the progress being made by his newly formed Department of Municipal Affairs in studying the problems of municipal government.

Other speakers were Mr. F. Lansdowne Belyea of Saint John, Chartered Accountant, who spoke on the various municipal problems of finances; and Professor John Willis of Dalhousie Law School whose subject was the University and Municipal Government.

By an unanimous vote the convention approved of the adoption of PUBLIC AFFAIRS, journal of the Institute of Public Affairs, as its official organ.

The officers elected at the meeting included the following:

President: Frank A. Menzies, Warden of Northumberland County.

Vice-President: J. W. Howard, Alderman, Campbellton.

Honorary Secretary-Treasurer: Arthur McF. Limerick, Fredericton.

Executive

J. E. Andrews, County Secretary, Victoria.

G. C. Blight, County Secretary, Albert.

J. R. G. Brander, Mayor, Newcastle.

W. G. Brooks, County Secretary, Gagetown.

A. H. Cameron, Councillor, York.

Wm. Hickman, Councillor, Westmorland.

G. W. Montgomery, County Secretary, Carleton.

F. S. Mundle, Alderman, Fredericton.

W. E. McMonagle, Mayor, Moncton.

D. L. MacLaren, Mayor, Saint John.

Oliver Ormrod, Town Clerk, St. Stephen.

J. H. Proux, Mayor, Edmundston.

L. P. A. Robichaud, M.P., County Secretary, Kent.

G. H. Simpson, Warden, Saint John.

C. J. Veniot, M.P., Bathurst.

C. M. Vail, Councillor, Kings.

From the inspiring address delivered by the then President of the Union, Mr. Thomas H. King, Moncton, the following paragraphs may be quoted:

"New Brunswick entered 1937 with a decided optimistic feeling—much more than the year previous, and justly so. This has been a year of activity for New Brunswick, particularly forest products. Considering the increase in the production of lumber and pulp with the rise in prices, wages and increase in employment, I believe I am conservative when I say New Brunswick is better off by at least four millions of dollars than at this time in 1936.

"Once again may we congratulate the government in the establishment of the Fair Wage Board and we sincerely trust that should any person or group of persons who may have disagreement with employers, make full use of this Board as this Union is in full accord with fair wages for fair exchange of services rendered.

"As an observer, a few remarks concerning the government's road policy which is progressive. I believe as a whole the people of New Brunswick are in accord with a progressive road policy and are fully aware that with our main highways hard surfaced, the tourist will be this province's largest cash business, at least for the four summer months. With Nova Scotia having a very aggressive advertising program for tourists, we also will profit. Our geographical location is such that all Upper Canadian and United States cars must use our roads to visit the other two Maritime Provinces.

"Yet, one views the next five years with deep concern. Many men are being used on the highways who are farmers' sons. Should they not be trained for future farmers? These men are being trained to government pay cheques and farms are being neglected. What will be the reaction when this work stops? On the other hand, the government has an agriculture program and policy. Yet compare the difference. Agriculture has for its appropriations less than 4% of government revenue while the highways shall we say—what is the limit? This union supports a wide agriculture policy and commends the work of the Honourable Austin Taylor and his department.

"Again let us try to see through the next few years and endeavour to estimate the reaction

after 1940, when, to a large degree the highway work will be very small compared with 1937-38-39. We have suggested the government consider this carefully, firmly believing that it should have some bearing on a larger, more aggressive agricultural program.

"This year I had the pleasure of attending the Nova Scotia Convention of the Union of Municipalities at Sydney and was received most graciously and greetings were exchanged. Mayor Muggah, of Sydney, then president, accepted our invitation to have representatives at this gathering of ours. I listened to some very fine addresses, particularly by Hon. Michael Dwyer of the Nova Scotia Government on "Training the Youth" and H. E. Manning, K.C., of Toronto, who is an authority on municipal finance.

"To-day it is the duty of all governing bodies—large or small to look after the people's business and the people's business to-day is the biggest business we have. Yet for every other kind of business, there are training schools aplenty. How many places have we to impart education and efficiency in handling municipal affairs. Dalhousie has its municipal department and we believe the leading colleges in every province would be doing a real service by having such a department...A further suggestion—a two weeks municipal course might be set up where-by county, town and city secretary could attend.

This Union used to prepare a whole fleet of resolutions. It has adopted a different attitude by picking out some important issues such as—Improvement of Rates and Taxes Act. Something in the way of a general tax, provincial wide in its scope—on sound and equitable basis.

"We are concentrating on four major problems as we see them—

The Tax and Rates Act
Valuation and assessments
Agriculture
Hospitalization

"All these questions will be up for discussion at this session and all are provincial wide in their scope.

"May I close with the words of John Ruskin and which I commend to every one interested in municipal affairs—

"When we build, let us think that we build forever. Let it not be for present delight nor for present use alone. Let it be such work as our descendants will thank us for, and let us think, as we lay stone on stone, that a time will come when those stones will be held sacred because our hands have touched them, and that men will say as they look upon the labour and wrought substance of them, 'See! This our fathers did for us.'"

DARTMOUTH

At the commencement of the year the bonded indebtedness of Dartmouth totalled \$1,354,000, including the bonded debt of the ferry of \$188,000, but against this is a credit investment of \$53,000 held by the town in trust, while the Ferry Commission has a separate sinking fund of about \$8,000. Included in the total bonded indebtedness of the town are the following important items:

Schools.....	\$318,500
Water and Sewerage.....	379,700
Permanent Sidewalks.....	35,000
Permanent Streets.....	266,000

The credit of the town stands high and since the first of November an attractive offer was accepted from financial brokers for a \$15,000 bond issue, at 3½ per cent, maturing in twenty years. The bid of slightly higher than 98 received for the issue would command better than par on the basis of 4 per cent.

The total value of assessable property, both real and personal, stands at \$4,932,100, less \$1,871,650 exempted property, made up principally in exemptions on public schools, provincial, federal and church properties. The tax rate now stands at \$3.78 but the assessment is on a reasonably low level and the tendency is for a slightly lower tax rate for 1938.

Dartmouth also controls and manages the Dartmouth ferry, the administration of which is in the hands of a separate commission, although the tax payers are responsible for the debt of the ferry which to-day only stands at about \$150,000 with sufficient reserves to wipe this debt out.

COUNTY OF CUMBERLAND

Central Assessment

By adopting the recommendation of a Special Committee appointed to look into the matter of Central Assessment, Cumberland County Council, at its semi-annual session of 1937, definitely moved to establish a new system and appointed a Board consisting of three members selected from different sections of the County. This Board replaced assessors previously appointed in each of the sixteen districts and its personnel of Messrs. E. E. Anderson, Amherst, S. F. Purdy, Westchester, and A. E. Tower, Port Greville, have been travelling throughout the entire County during the summer, visiting individual properties and delivering schedules. These gentlemen have all had considerable experience in assessment work and their duties are being carried out in accordance with the "Nova Scotia Assessment Act". They are now busily engaged in compiling information obtained and completing the final rolls.

Cumberland County Council made this change of method with a view to securing a complete

assessment of all properties lying within the County bounds and as well an adjustment and equalization of values as relating to districts. While it is too early to forecast the actual results, from reports received, the work is progressing favorably, and it is hoped will be of material benefit to both the County and Ratepayers.

The Cumberland Home

"Cumberland Home" with its beautiful situation on the Eastern shore of Pugwash Basin, a short distance from the village of Pugwash and surrounded by 200 acres of land sloping gently to the water, is one of the largest, if not the largest Municipal Institutions for the care of the Aged Poor and Insane in Eastern Canada.

Throughout the years by adding to or replacing the original wooden buildings with new and up-to-date brick structures, in 1932 it reached its present challenging dimensions, with a capacity of 225 and ceased to be termed the "County Asylum" for Aged Poor and Harmless Insane. From an occupancy at that date of ninety-four inmates, it has, in the short space of five years, become the refuge of 193 souls. Of these, only thirteen are poor patients, while 180 are suffering from various types of insanity, all of which are cared for here and sheltered under a common roof.

"Mens sana in corpore sano"—A sound mind in a sound body should be the watchword of every institution for the care of mental cases. The Builders and Management of Cumberland Home have made it theirs. The modern, well appointed hospital rooms, equipped with hospital beds, ten for female patients and ten for male, provide ample accommodation for those requiring medical and nursing care of physical ills.

The farm surrounding the Home provides milk, cream, butter, meat, and vegetables for the inmates, much of the work being done by them, under careful supervision. This fact more than any other, is responsible for the excellent therapeutic record of the institution—fifty cases discharged as cured in five years.

MONCTON

In line with the adopted policy of the New Brunswick Provincial Government, the City discontinued Direct Unemployment Relief on the 1st May, 1937, disbanded its Relief Bureau Staff, and referred all future indigency to the jurisdiction of the Almshouse Commissioners. This action having been anticipated in February, when the year's appropriations were being considered, an increase in the Almshouse item was authorized and assessed. From present indications it would seem that the Commissioners will overrun their item very little, if any.

A rather large programme of Capital Works has

been undertaken by the City, assisted by the Province as to labor costs. This work was done largely for the purpose of insuring work to those who were unemployed in previous years. Preference in receiving employment on these works was as follows:—Heads of Families who had been on Relief; Sons of Widows who had been on Relief; Single men who had been on Relief. A rather unique deferred wage arrangement was effected. Each man taking employment was required to sign an agreement whereby 25% would be deducted from his wages each week, this deduction to be paid to him on the Friday of a corresponding week during the winter months—the first week of July to correspond with the first week of December for this purpose. In order that the workman's summer receipts and the winter payments should not be too small, the City raised the hourly rate of laborers from the 25c. which obtained in the spring, to 30c., and set a limit to the number of hours to be worked at 48 hours per week. Those employed on these works are now assured of regular weekly cheques during the winter months provided they proved satisfactory as workmen and remained on the work, and this will be received whether other work is accepted during the winter months or not.

NEWCASTLE

Only a few towns in the Maritime Provinces have passed through the depression with its finances their in such perfect order as the Town of Newcastle.

Newcastle has a bonded debt (apart from schools) of \$231,000.00 of which \$40,000.00 is not due until 1947, \$50,000.00 in 1952, \$25,000.00 in 1951 and a like amount in 1952. Against this debt she had at the end of 1936 a sinking fund of \$202,000.00—an amount far in excess of legal requirements. She finished the year with a surplus of \$2,793.00 on current account after charging up \$2,500.00 to reserve for uncollectable taxes and after having spent over \$2,000.00 on capital account. She has not made any temporary loans during the past three years.

How was this brought about? Succeeding Councils over a period of years were firm in the conviction that in order to pay our bills, it was necessary to assess sufficient that the amount of money collected would be at least equal to expenditures. The result of this policy was a gradual building up of the sinking fund over and above legal requirements during the years of prosperity, and when the depression fell, as it did fall most heavily along the Miramichi, the Town was in a position to carry on without unduly pressing any one. There were no tax sales of property, no one was placed in jeopardy, and yet pay rolls were maintained, and interest arrears punctually met.

Decisions of the Law Courts

Under this Heading Decisions of Particular Public Interest will be Quoted
or Discussed by a Competent Authority.

Early Closing By-law.

TOWN Officials, who frequently have to struggle with what is commonly called an "early closing by-law", will be interested in a judgment of Mr. Justice Hall handed down on behalf of the Supreme Court of the Province of Nova Scotia, in *R. vs. Awad, et al*, reported in volume II, Maritime Provinces Reports, page 389.

Section 263 of The Towns' Incorporation Act of Nova Scotia empowers a Town Council to make by-laws and ordinances in respect to all matters coming within the classes of subjects enumerated in the sub-sections of that Section, and sub-section 82 reads as follows:

*(82) Providing that during the whole or any part of the year all or any class or classes of shops, stores or places in which goods are exposed or offered for sale by retail in the town shall on any day or on certain days be closed to customers during certain hours.

Acting in pursuance of this authority, the Town Council of the Town of Truro passed a by-law which is quoted in the judgment referred to, as follows:

1. (a) That from the 1st day of June until the 1st day of October in each and every year all retail shops, stores or places in which goods, wares, merchandise, meats, fish, produce and foodstuffs are exposed or offered for sale by retail in the town of Truro shall be closed to customers on Wednesday in each and every week during said term from twelve-thirty p.m. to six o'clock a.m. the following morning.

(b) That subject to the provisions of subsec. (a) in each and every year all said retail shops, stores or places in which goods, wares, merchandise, meats, fish, produce and foodstuffs are exposed or offered for sale by retail in the town of Truro shall be closed to customers on Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays from six o'clock p.m. to six o'clock a.m. the following morning.

(c) That from the 1st day of January to the 1st day of April in each and every year all said retail shops, stores or places in which goods, wares, merchandise, meats, fish, produce and foodstuffs are exposed or offered for sale by retail in the town of Truro shall be closed to customers on Tuesdays from six o'clock

p.m. until six o'clock a.m. the following morning.

2. That the regulations for closing set out in subsecs. (a), (b) and (c) of sec. 1, shall not be in force or apply during the two weeks previous to Christmas day nor to the day previous to any legal holiday.

3. (a) The provisions and regulations as to closing set out in secs. 1 and 2 shall not include or apply to drug stores, pool-rooms, tobacco shops, restaurants, ice cream parlours, candy shops or barber shops.

(b) The expression "tobacco shop" in the preceding subsection shall include and be intended to include any retail shop or place of business in which more than sixty per cent of the merchandise carried for sale shall consist of tobacco, cigars, cigarettes and pipes; the expression "candy shop" in the preceding subsection shall include and be intended to include any retail shop or place of business in which at least sixty per cent. of the merchandise carried and offered for sale shall consist of candy and confectionery.

4. Any person, firm or corporation that contravenes or fails to comply with any of the foregoing provisions in respect to keeping their place of business closed during the hours mentioned therein shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding forty dollars and in default of payment to imprisonment for a period not exceeding thirty days.

The defendants, merchants of the Town of Truro, were separately prosecuted for a violation of this by-law and were severally convicted by the Stipendiary Magistrate of the Town and fined. In the course of appeals, which finally reached the Supreme Court, the principal argument on behalf of the defendants was that the by-law was unreasonable, oppressive and discriminatory. A further suggestion made by counsel for the defendants, to the effect that the provisions in The Towns' Incorporation Act prescribing a pecuniary penalty for a violation of a by-law, with imprisonment in default of payment, were in effect a matter of criminal law and hence ultra vires of the Provincial Legislature, was disposed of by a reference to Section 92 (15) of the British North America Act, which expressly provides for the imposition of fines or imprisonment for the enforcement of any law which the Province has authority to enact. On

*NOTE. Sec. 263(82) Towns Incorporation Act later amended, but not so as to affect this judgment.

the question of the unreasonable, oppressive and discriminatory character of the by-law, the words of the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of Canada in a case involving the same point were quoted with approval, as follows:

"The by-law in question is impugned as unreasonable and oppressive. To establish this contention in any sense *germane* to the question of the validity of the by-law it was necessary that the respondents should make it appear either that it was not passed in good faith in the exercise of the powers conferred by the statute or that it is so unreasonable, unfair or oppressive as to be upon any fair construction an abuse of those powers."

The decision of the Court was that the by-law in question was valid and that the convictions under it were properly made. The Town Council, it was held, had authority to define classes of shops, to determine what class or classes of shops should close and to exempt classes of shops from the closing provisions. The Town Council had properly done this by the simple method of providing that *all* retail shops should be closed at specified times and then exempting certain classes of shops which it wished to allow to remain open. No question of the Council's good faith arose and the by-law was held not to be discriminating, because it affected alike all merchants in the same category and in discriminating between categories or classes, the Town Council was merely carrying out the plain powers conferred upon it by sub-section 82 of Section 263.

Appropriations of Payments.

Stepney Corporation vs. Osofsky, (1937) 3 All E. L. R., page 289, is a case

of failure on the part of the debtor to make express appropriation of instalment payments, made to the Corporation, to any specific item of his indebtedness. Apparently, the collection of certain sums due by the defendant was barred by statute, but through his failure to appropriate his payments, the debtor lost the benefit of this provision. The facts, as cited in the headnote of the report, are as follows:

"On Sept. 17, 1935, a certain sum was owing by the respondent, a licensed street trader, to the appellant corporation, in respect of removal of refuse and other services. During the period from Sept. 18, 1935, to March 17, 1936, further sums became due for similar services, and, during the same period, certain payments were made by the respondent to the appellant corporation. The respondent did not specifically appropriate any of these payments to any particular charges. The appellant corporation purported to appropriate the payments in satisfaction of the arrears of earliest date, and, on March 17, 1936, sought to recover the balance alleged to be due. The justices thought that the respondent believed that he was making payments towards current dues, and decided that the appropriation by the appellant corporation was not, and could not be properly made, and they held that the appellant corporation could not recover a sum larger than the difference between the money due in respect of the period from Sept. 18, 1935, to March 17, 1936, and the amount paid by the respondent during that period. The appellant corporation appealed, contending that, in the absence of specific appropriation by the respondent, the appellant corporation was entitled to appropriate the payments, to satisfy any arrears, even though the arrears might be irrecoverable at law."

Since the justices who first tried the case had not found that there had actually been any appropriation by the defendant, the contention of the Corporation was maintained.

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MARCH, 1938

A Maritime Quarterly for Discussion of Public Affairs

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Herbert A. Bruce

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"Economist"

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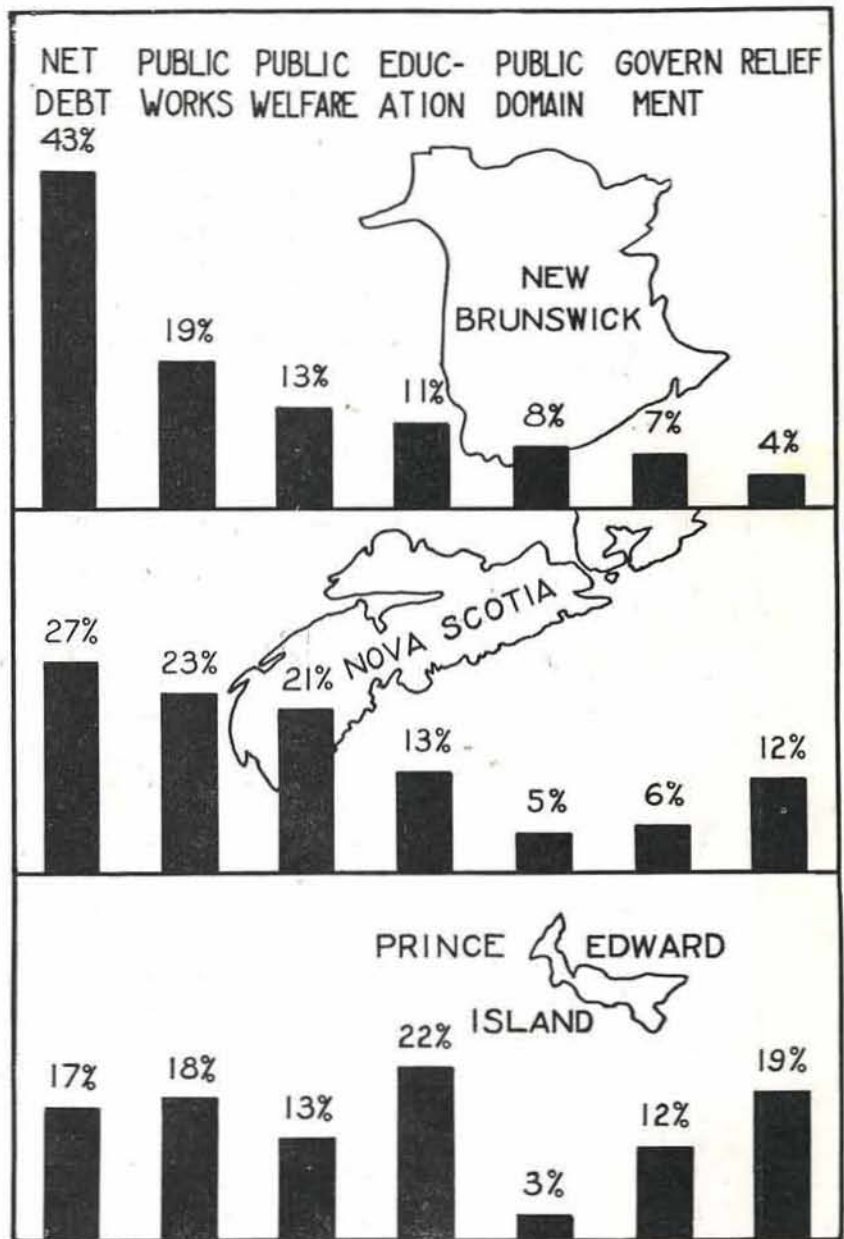
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The Human Factor in Scientific Management
F. H. Sexton



HOW THE MARITIME GOVERNMENTS SPEND THEIR CURRENT REVENUE

From the Public Accounts for 1936—See article: "The Financial Position of the Maritime Governments" on page 93.

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Maritime Committee on Industrial Relations

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Low Rent Housing

By HERBERT A. BRUCE

SLUMS in Canada as elsewhere are due to the lack of decent housing for low wage earners. Their existence proves that social improvement has not kept in line with economic development.

In many other countries, especially in Great Britain, Germany and Austria, the problem is being successfully tackled. Plans have been prepared, blue prints have been made, building contracts have been signed, work has been begun and completed, in a concerted effort on the part of governments and communities to make what we call civilisation more truly civilised. The result has been renewed hope and fresh vision for hundreds of thousands of poverty-stricken men and women and children. It seems to me that we as Canadians need no longer appear, by our apathy to covet the dubious distinction of being the only civilised nation which has not yet actively engaged in slum clearance.

When we learn from Fire Marshal Grove Smith of Ottawa that in ten years 3,000 people have been burned to death in shacks in Canada, we begin to wonder whether the increase in infant mortality, the far greater dangers of disease and epidemics, the moral ruin of young men and women, and constant additions to the criminal population are by any means the only evils that slums record in bold, legible strokes on the debit side of the accounting books of a nation. When thinking of the increasing population of Canada, we read that at the beginning of last year the building of houses was less than one third of what it was nine years ago, then we begin woefully to imagine what sort of legacy we are piling up for ourselves and our

children. During the same period, by the way, the silk industry has quintupled its profits. That is not a reflection upon this great industry.

When we speak of slums we are actually speaking of the homes of those who cannot afford to live anywhere else. The slum dweller would like to live in a place fit for human habitation. All the handicaps of ill health due to insanitary surroundings and overcrowding would then be removed. It would give him the opportunities for self-improvement which every human being should have. The one insuperable obstacle to the slum dweller's chances of improvement is the simple fact that owing to his low wages he cannot pay what is called an economic rent for a dwelling fit to live in. All the evil, all the sickness, all the moral and physical decay, indeed the whole weight of that social degeneration caused by slums, which is borne by the State and inexorably paid for by the State, is based upon our inability or our unwillingness to answer the question: What shall we do to help Canadians pay for something better than a hovel to live in? The increase of slum areas or the wiping out of them and all their vile consequences depends upon our answer to that question.

In seeking an answer, one thing upon which we all agree is that co-operation between Federal, Provincial and Municipal authorities is the first essential upon which any solution to the problem must be based. Without it nothing can be done. Aid must be given to low wage earners to enable them to live in decent homes and to take them out of slums which destroy body, mind and spirit. This aid may take the form of a subsidy or a loan; it may be simply a government guarantee designed to encourage the razing of slum areas and the erection of new dwellings;

EDITOR'S NOTE: Colonel the Honorable Herbert A. Bruce, M.D., F.R.C.S., (Eng.), up to a few months ago Lieutenant-Governor of Ontario, is one of the best housing experts in the Dominion. The article follows in part an address Dr. Bruce gave in Guelph in October 1937.

or it may be an arrangement by which such dwellings shall be tax free. More probably the aid given would have to be a combination of some of all these necessary Federal or Municipal measures.

It is obvious too that there is little or nothing in any slum clearance project to encourage private investors or the participation of private capital. Yet they must be encouraged to participate, and this will be possible when slum clearance, the erection of low rental homes for our lowest wage earners, is recognised as an essential part of a great housing policy for the whole Dominion—something in which all governmental and municipal authorities may engage in active co-operation. But at the same time we shall have to avoid as unnecessary, the additions of bureaus and commissions and administrative bodies which will impose too heavy a burden upon the various governmental bodies. Likewise we shall in all our plans have to avoid any undue competition with housing as it already exists and with the private investor interested in housing. Finally we shall have to make sure that the low rental houses erected with government aid are never occupied by those who are able to pay a full economic rent. All this presents a difficult problem but by no means an insoluble one.

How can the task be accomplished? Let us assume that the Dominion granted a subsidy that would be one third of the cost of constructing low rental houses and of getting the necessary land. The grant would be made to municipal housing commissions or housing corporations approved by the government housing administrator. On all projects of this kind there must be normal commercial earnings, otherwise there will be no commercial inducement. The Dominion subsidy, therefore, would preferably be capital but, as an alternative, it might be an annual equivalent computed at $5\frac{1}{2}\%$ interest and 1% amortization for a period of thirty-five years. $5\frac{1}{2}\%$ is about the normal earnings in enterprises of this kind.

The Dominion subsidy, in my opinion, should be restricted to projects which

contemplate building a fairly large number of houses. Slum clearance is much too big an undertaking to take cognisance of isolated, sporadic and necessarily futile attempts to improve conditions by building single dwellings or small groups of dwellings here and there. The cost of building, including land on which the subsidy would be granted to approved projects, would be, let us say, in Toronto, not more than \$750 for the accommodation of each adult in the housing project. For the purposes of calculation a baby would not be counted and children from one to ten years of age might count as half an adult.

These figures are only suggestions though they have been carefully considered. They embody the conclusions arrived at by those associated with me in the Housing Centre in Toronto.

The contribution would be a joint one—Federal—Provincial—Municipal—and its purpose would be to reduce rents, to bridge the gap between what the tenant can pay and what he would have normally to pay—the economic rent, that is, for accommodation comparable to that afforded him by government assisted housing. Let us suppose then that the joint contribution was about \$1.25 per month for each adult accommodation provided and covering a period of thirty-five years. The Provincial-Municipal contributions might be direct monthly payments; on the other hand they might be in land provided rent free, or finally, they might be funds lent for the purpose at less than say $5\frac{1}{2}\%$ interest. In the case of rent free land the contribution would be calculated at $5\frac{1}{2}\%$ on the fair value of the land. If funds are lent, then the contribution would be calculated as the difference between the actual interest that would be payable and $5\frac{1}{2}\%$. As for the Dominion, its contribution toward these necessary rent reductions would be calculated as $6\frac{1}{2}\%$ per annum of the capital amount of whatever Dominion subsidy is granted. The $6\frac{1}{2}\%$, by the way, is $5\frac{1}{2}\%$ plus *one* per cent amortization over thirty-five years.

The whole project would be under the administration of a Dominion Minister.

He would make sure that there were real evidences of the necessity in any particular place for such housing. He would see to it that, wherever such projects were to be carried out, the areas would be adequately planned and suitably located to safeguard the investment and ensure its continued value. Finally, he would see that care had been taken to *ensure* that the design of the houses and their construction and the purchase or lease of the land had been as economical as possible. The whole thing would be carried out as an important function of the Dominion authorities. They would receive from Provincial Governments and Municipalities plans for the building of low rental housing. They would decide what assistance should be granted. They would give advice to those who sought it. They would keep all records and statistics. And they would constitute a centre from which accurate information concerning all plans of housing would be disseminated throughout the Dominion.

Finally some more general aspects of the housing problem may be considered.

Better housing means better national health through better national living conditions. It is social progress in its most virile and most comprehensively beneficial form.

By stimulating the building of low rental houses a strong stimulus would be given to the building of homes without, however, helping competition *against* the private builder, and in this way far more building would be encouraged than would be possible by subsidies.

We have also to think of all the employment that would be created by such large scale building projects—far more employment than could be created by public works however large in their scale. The building of low rental houses as suggested here would be an important part of that larger housing problem which the Federal Government is so admirably tackling through the Home Improvement Plan under the Dominion Housing Act.

The Financial Position of the Maritime Governments

BY "ECONOMIST"

IT is customary to group the three Maritime Provinces when their economic or financial position is being considered. But this method must not be allowed to hide the fact that each Province has problems of its own. Prince Edward Island, with its dependence on agriculture, has had to face questions since 1929 rather like those that confronted the Prairie Provinces. The "potato" counties of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia have suffered in the same way as the Island, while the "timber" counties have met the same difficulties as parts of Quebec and Ontario. In Nova Scotia, the mining and industrial counties have faced the same questions as the manu-

facturing areas of central Canada. Accordingly, each of the three Maritime governments has had to attend to the development and maintenance of its own particular distribution of resources, and this was true even before the war, although the effects of the recent depression have served to emphasize the different problems that confront each of the three Provinces when they try to increase the use of their own set of resources.

Dominion Subsidies to the Maritimes

The basis of Dominion grants to the Provinces was laid down in 1867, but modifications were made from time to

time. While each government has made claims of its own over the last seventy years, the case for the Maritimes as a whole has rested on three grounds. For the good government of any federation, certain principles have to be observed, but three in particular: (1) the principle of territorial integrity for each Province; (2) the principle of equal political power between Provinces; (3) the principle of equality of economic status. At one time or another, the Maritimes have complained about the breach of all these principles in the Canadian federation. With respect to the first, it is true that the Maritimes never have had reason to complain about interference with their own boundaries, but they have pointed out frequently that the creation of new Provinces in the west, and the enlargement of the boundaries of Ontario and Quebec, served to increase the potential wealth of all these Provinces. Since the accumulations of wealth that have been made in Canada have largely depended on the development of frontiers, and since the Maritimes alone of all the Provinces were limited in area, they were denied the opportunity of such increments of wealth. With respect to the second principle (equal political power), the Maritimes had reason to complain before the war that their loss of population involved a loss of representation, and therefore of power, in the federal parliament. With respect to the third principle (equal economic status between Provinces), the Maritimes were able to show quite early that their limited area and resources, and the federal policy of protection, immigration and opening of the west, were not promoting a rate of progress in the Maritimes equivalent to that present everywhere else in Canada. Instead, the Maritimes lost population, and had to adjust their provincial economies to greater agricultural and industrial imports from other parts of Canada. This process of readjustment was especially severe after the war, and particularly in New Brunswick and in Nova Scotia where there was some evidence of economic retardation. The Duncan Commission in 1926 took most

of these circumstances into account when it recommended higher Dominion subsidies to the three Maritime Provinces and suggested some remedial policies that might be followed by the Dominion government to aid certain Maritime trades. The White Commission in 1934 recommended additional Dominion subsidies. As a result, Dominion subsidies form a fairly high proportion of Maritime revenues. In 1936, Prince Edward Island received about 42% of its revenue from the subsidy, New Brunswick about 23%, and Nova Scotia about 20%, whereas the Canadian Provinces as a whole got only about 8% of their revenue from subsidies. (Of course, in the last few years, the four Western Provinces received Dominion assistance for relief payments, which if included with the subsidy, would greatly increase their share of Dominion help. But theoretically, these relief payments are to be distinguished from the subsidy.)

Maritime Expenditures

The expenditures (and revenues) of the Maritime governments are greatly conditioned by the economic difficulties that have been especially evident since the war period. The lack of resources, the loss of able populations, and the burden of national policies have all combined to produce effects which have had time to sink into the Maritime economy, to curtail expectations as to the future, and to induce labour and capital to flow away, rather than to, these Provinces. This has affected government expenditures in three ways: (1) The Maritime Provinces have been compelled, especially in the last ten years, to provide relatively more investment in capital equipment than have other Provinces. They have been spending a higher proportion of their revenues (and debts) on roads, hydro-electric development, etc. than have other Provinces. (2) The Maritimes are being induced also to give considerable attention to industrial betterment, to the aiding of agriculture, to the more orderly working of their forest resources, to assistance to fisheries, mining development, etc. (3) At the same time, in

common with other provinces (in which economic difficulty has been less prolonged and less deep-seated, and in which therefore less attention has had to be given to (1) and (2) above), the Maritimes have had also to enlarge their welfare services, to try to ameliorate the effects of economic retardation in some areas, and to try to maintain standards of health, pensions, and education that are as nearly as possible equivalent to those given by other Provinces. Accordingly, the expenditure needs of the Maritimes tend to be greater than those of other Provincial governments.

The full significance of the expenditure needs in this region can hardly be overstressed. In some parts of the Maritimes, physical exhaustion of resources is evident (i.e. in some forest, and in some mining localities), and the maintenance of these regions is costly, even if the Provinces concerned adopt remedial policies of additional education, and aids to labour transference, in order to increase the mobility of the people in the distressed areas. Again, in other portions which are not exhausted but are economically weak, the governments may have to pursue development policies to encourage rural households and firms to utilize fully the capital equipment laid down in new roads, rural electrification, and public works. These needs put strain, not only on the budget, but also on the debt situation, and tend to delay the growth of certain welfare services that are necessary, especially in rural medical work, and in education. The Maritimes, unlike all other provinces, can have little hope of some future frontier development that will increase productivity, and for that reason their expenditure needs, to maintain development and to offset the social effects of certain economic difficulties, may prove fairly insistent.

Maritime Revenues

It has been shown that the Dominion subsidy now forms a larger share of Maritime revenues than it does of other Provincial revenues. With respect to the revenues raised by the Provinces themselves, the Maritimes get about 40% of

the revenue from taxes, over 20% from licenses and fees, about 10% from trading profits, mainly from Liquor Commission (Prince Edward Island gets only 2%), and about 8% from natural resources (which are absent in Prince Edward Island). They get less from taxes than do other Provinces, both New Brunswick and Nova Scotia having neglected to use the income tax that is now almost universal among other Provinces, and concentrating more on other taxes, in which they tend to charge higher rates than the others. The failure to impose income taxes in New Brunswick and Nova Scotia has laid them open to the charge that they are not making the same tax efforts as other Provinces. However, it has to be remembered that the taxable capacity of any Province is directly conditioned by its economic position. In the Maritimes, the persistence of certain adverse economic conditions has limited the number of taxable subjects, and the presence of a Dominion income tax unduly limits the possibilities of getting adequate revenues from an additional income tax laid on by the Province. In conditions of economic retardation, taxes must not be made to lie heavily on too sensitive places (either industries or persons). Instead, and this is particularly true of Nova Scotia, greater resort has been made to other taxes, and their rates have been put comparatively high (e.g. bank and other corporation taxes, succession duty taxes on higher incomes, gasoline taxes, and licenses, etc.). In short, with persistent economic difficulty, there seems to be a tendency to try to put new taxes on extra-Provincial subjects (including tourists through heavy gasoline taxes), more than on internal subjects, and insofar as industry within the Maritimes needs all the encouragement it can get, there is considerable economic justification for this sort of policy.

Furthermore, the economic difficulties have compelled the Maritime governments to make comparatively large expenditures for development purposes (roads, aids to industries, etc.), which lay new charges on government earnings.

If the governments try to meet these new charges by income taxes laid on already economically weak subjects, they will tend to offset whatever beneficial effects may arise from the development expenditures. In short, the taxable capacity of the Maritimes is gravely limited, and so also are therefore the revenue possibilities of the governments. The important new revenues of the last ten years have been secured partly from the Liquor Commissions, partly from taxation of corporations (particularly extra-Provincial corporations), and mainly from the increased gasoline taxes. But these cannot be expanded indefinitely. Too high gasoline taxes would hinder the tourist trade that the Maritimes are so anxious to develop, and economic re-

tardation limits the number of taxable corporations.

While the expenditure needs of the Maritimes tend to be comparatively great, their revenue possibilities are narrowly circumscribed. The rapid growth of debt in the last ten years (in Nova Scotia from \$35 million dollars in 1926 to 98 millions in 1937, and in New Brunswick from 34 millions to 76 millions in 1937), has been only slightly attributable to recent depression difficulties, and mainly to the fundamental long term disabilities under which these Provinces find themselves by reason of lack of resources, and incidence of national policies. New roads seemed to be a possible method of meeting the underlying difficulties.

The Trend of Rural Population in Nova Scotia

By A. B. BALCOM

THE census returns for 1881 mark an important turning point in the story of rural life in this Province. Prior to that time a slow but fairly steady increase in rural population was taking place. But each census since that date records a steadily decreasing number of rural residents. By 1931 the number classified as rural was some one hundred thousand smaller than it was half a century earlier. In part this was merely a matter of classification, since the census lists as urban all who live in incorporated areas. Thus the number shown as rural residents was decreased as each new town was incorporated. This, however, was of minor significance. The fact remains that for more than half a century the rural population of this Province steadily decreased, whereas it should have doubled during that time from natural increase

alone. The total rural loss, therefore, can scarcely have been less than half a million people.

An estimate of the significance of these population trends requires an appreciation of the causes which occasioned them. The explanation of the earlier immigration is clear. The opportunities offered by the resources of this Province were sufficient to induce a goodly number to brave the hardships of pioneer life and settle in this land. The reasons for the more recent rural exodus, however, are not so obvious. The inducements to migrate were many. Greatest importance, however, must be attached to the far-reaching changes which the so-called Industrial Revolution effected in all phases of social life.

The influence of two aspects of these revolutionary occurrences on conditions in Nova Scotia during the period of this emigration is easily discernible. In agriculture the mechanization of farm process-

EDITOR'S NOTE:—A. B. Balcom is Professor of Economics at Acadia University and represents this University on the Council of the Institute of Public Affairs.

es, the application of science to farming, improvements in transportation, etc., all of which tended to increase greatly the productivity of farm labor, also tended to decrease the proportion of the population engaged in agriculture, because the quantity of product the market would absorb profitably could be produced by a smaller number of farmers. A supplementary influence tending in the same direction was exerted by the substitution of factory-made products for things formerly produced in the homes or by rural craftsmen. This likewise tended to reduce the opportunities for getting a living which the rural community provided. Simultaneously the factory was acquiring a dominant place in industry. The growth of large-scale manufacturing with all its supplementary institutions, located in urban centers, presented a pressing invitation to the country youth to migrate to the cities and participate in the manifold opportunities which these new developments offered.

That all this has profoundly affected the life of Nova Scotia is beyond question. All forms of collective enterprise, whether by the state or by voluntary associations, have been more difficult than would have been the case could we have kept here in prosperity and contentment all those who have gone. In some sections the maintenance of such basic institutions as the highways, the school and the church has become an almost impossible burden. To the extent that the emigrants were the natural leaders, the biologically fit, the loss is incalculable.

But there is another side to the story. Migration occurred because the opportunities elsewhere proved more attractive than the opportunities at home. Had all remained here it would have been necessary to resort to poorer and poorer land with a constant downward pressure on rural standards of living. The rural exodus should be viewed as a much-to-be-regretted necessity.

The purpose of this article, however, is not to evaluate past occurrences, but to call attention to the fact that circum-

stances during the last few years have started a reverse trend. According to the estimates of the Dominion Bureau of Statistics, the rural population is now increasing—the exodus has been stopped.

The reasons for this sudden reversal are not difficult to ascertain. A major cause is the decreased demand for labor incident to the depression. This might lead one to assume that recovery will restore the old order. The fact is, however, that the extent to which industry will, in the future, be able to absorb a constantly increasing supply of labor is problematical.

This uncertainty as to the future of emigration is increased by a second major influence—the restrictive immigration policies of the United States, the country to which most of our immigrants went. While the limitation of Canadian immigration into that country since 1931 is due more to rigid enforcement of old regulations than to the imposition of new restrictions, the United States is now so definitely committed to a policy of preserving its labor market for its own citizens as to make it doubtful if the former ease and freedom of entrance is ever again restored to Canadians.

Only time can tell with certainty what the long-run trend will be, but if present tendencies shall prove to be permanent, our rural economy must be adapted to a steady increase in population of considerable dimensions, possibly reaching fifty thousand per decade. To accomplish this adjustment successfully will be no easy task. Both private effort and public policy must be directed towards discovering the best possible opportunities for applying additional labor, towards making this information available to all those seeking new opportunities, and towards inducing the most efficient exploitation of all our resources, native and acquired. But all this is most desirable whatever turn events may take in the future. Present tendencies merely make more emphatic and more urgent the development of constructive policy. There is no time to lose if serious consequences are to be averted.

Where Youth May Look for Employment

BY H. A. WEIR

SOONER or later almost everyone is faced with the necessity of choosing a vocation. And of all the decisions which a young person is called upon to make, probably none is of greater importance, probably none may have more far-reaching consequences, than this. Nor was the difficulty of choosing a career ever greater than it is today. Specialization, division of labour, the decline of the crafts, scientific discovery and invention—all these and many other influences have combined to present to the young man and the young woman a situation so complicated and so diversified that the choice of a vocation is no longer the comparatively simple matter that it once was. Add to this the rapidity with which established industrial and economic institutions are constantly changing, and the difficulty of mapping out a career which promises a reasonable measure of success becomes more and more apparent.

Today more than ever before, is it imperative that parents and teachers acquaint themselves with the conditions and requirements of modern business and industry, in order that they may be able to offer to our young people increasing assistance in making this all-important decision. The need for this is particularly apparent in the Maritime provinces, where for some time to come, conditions will probably not permit the establishment of organized departments of vocational guidance, except perhaps in the larger centres. For the present at least,

the responsibility for the dissemination of such information among our young people must rest largely with parents and more particularly with teachers and principals of our secondary and technical schools.

But before either parents or teachers can be expected to assist in this work, the necessary information must be made available. We must have accurate and detailed knowledge concerning the requirements, both immediate and anticipated, of Maritime business and industry. It is true that numerous surveys have been made elsewhere in order to acquire data of this nature, but these findings are generally quite inapplicable to conditions in Nova Scotia, and the problem at hand is to find satisfactory employment for our young people here and now. Time was when many of these boys and girls might seek employment elsewhere, as evidenced by the large numbers of Maritime people who have reached responsible positions in Central and Western Canada, and in the United States. But not so today. The time has come when the majority of Maritime youth must avail themselves of Maritime opportunities. That these young people are in real need of intelligent advice and guidance was amply illustrated by the youth unemployment survey conducted in Halifax a few months ago.¹ Consequently, it was deemed advisable to conduct an additional survey in order to determine not only to what extent local industry might be in a position to absorb the employable youth of this province, but also to provide accurate information as to the skills, abilities, and the physical and intellectual qualifications required by the various branches of industry. With a view to ascertaining the best

EDITOR'S NOTE: H. A. Weir, M. A., has for the past few years given special attention to the problems of vocational guidance in Nova Scotia. He took part in the survey of juvenile relief recipients in Halifax conducted by the Institute of Public Affairs in the spring of 1937, and in the fall and winter has, on behalf of the Institute, made an inquiry among the main industries in Halifax to determine what chances there are for the employment of juveniles. Mr. Weir, who has meanwhile been appointed Inspector of Schools for Colchester County, will continue his inquiries in that district giving special attention to rural industries. The results of the survey will probably be published later on by the Institute.

(1) See "Youth on Relief" by L. Richter, "Public Affairs", Vol. 1, No. 1.

methods of collecting such data, the Research Committee of the Institute of Public Affairs, Dalhousie University, decided to carry out a limited survey in Halifax and vicinity and it was the writer's privilege to conduct this initial investigation. Although the work has not yet been brought to completion, some very interesting facts have been divulged which might very well be recorded at this time. It should be noted that the firms were chosen almost entirely at random, the only consideration being that they represent, as widely as possible, a cross-section of Halifax business and industry. Although in a few cases the questionnaire method was resorted to, the major proportion of the information was obtained by direct personal interview.

Almost without exception, the executives of these firms spoke as one in their insistence upon the necessity for an early academic training. In the case of most of the larger institutions, junior matriculation was an essential requirement for all prospective employees, while one of the largest corporations was loath to consider any candidate who did not possess a certificate of Grade XII. When one considers the startling lack of such training revealed by the findings of the unemployment survey mentioned above, one is impressed by the difficulty of finding any sort of employment for these young people in the skilled trades and vocations.

Generally speaking, the more highly skilled branches of industry demanded technical training or experience, or both, while the less skilled trades preferred to train their own employees while they worked. This demand for experience and training in the skilled vocations introduces a real problem to young people seeking employment. Time was when they might apprentice themselves to their chosen trade on leaving school and thereby obtain the necessary skill and ability, but such opportunities are very rare at the present time. Today, employers seem not to be particularly interested in young men and women who are not in a position to take over the work and begin production at a reasonably high level of efficiency.

One phase of the investigation which contributed much of interest was the record of miscellaneous remarks made by the various business heads and executives. Two general comments were repeated so frequently that they seem to merit mention in this report. In the first place, many employers deplored an attitude of *laissez faire* and a general indifference to responsibility which seems to prevail today among young people seeking employment. Not that these young men and women can be said to lack ambition, for most of them are very desirous of attaining promotion and success, but they seem to be unwilling to observe the necessary formality of "earning" the positions which they seek. Secondly, a surprising number of employers expressed a preference for the country, to the city-bred lad. The general consensus of opinion was that the country boy, accustomed as he is to the rigours and difficulties of rural life, is more capable of withstanding the hard knocks and discouragements of an early apprenticeship—is sooner able to assume a position of definite responsibility—than is his city-born contemporary.

But what of the opportunities of employment offered by local business and industry? In general, it may be said that openings occur quite frequently in the skilled and the semi-skilled trades, while in the unskilled branches of labour the problem seems to be one of finding openings for those who seek employment. In short, there is in the Maritimes immediate evidence of an actual shortage of skilled labour, while the keenest competition and the major proportion of unemployment exists among the unskilled workers.

There is, in Halifax at the present time, a shortage of skilled mechanics and trained sheet metal workers for the automobile trade. Of five garages, chosen at random as being representative of the industry, all but one reported an immediate or anticipated need of skilled repair men as well as competent body men and finishers. Two of these firms offered positions at once to seven or eight experienced mechanics. Only one of these shops, how-

ever, offered facilities for the training of prospective employees. Without exception, the other firms stated that skill and experience were most essential. Positions were available also in service stock-rooms and, here again, mechanical training was a decided asset. The major proportion of these positions pay from \$25.00 to \$40.00 per week, with no lay-off during the winter season.

Capable automobile salesmen are apparently at a premium, employers reporting that it is not an easy matter to obtain candidates for these positions who combine the necessary qualifications of efficiency and experience. Contrary to general opinion, the opportunities offered in the sales department of a large, modern garage can hardly be termed undesirable. Many of these men experience no seasonal lay-off and, although wages are usually paid on a straight commission basis (or commission with drawing account), earnings range from \$25 to \$50 or more per week. Employers were generally of the opinion that it is not in the interests of the business to retain the services of a salesman who is incapable of earning a monthly income of at least one hundred dollars.

One service which has become increasingly essential to the automobile trade during the past few years is that supplied by the modern chain of automobile service stations. While the operators of these stations can hardly be classed as skilled workers, it should not be supposed that capable attendants can be developed without any form of special training. One large chain of such stations reported that they had increased their staff by seventy persons during the past three years and that the business was steadily continuing to expand. There seemed to be no reason why an equal number of new employees should not be engaged during the ensuing three years. At present, prospective operators are being trained at one of their own branches under the direction of a capable manager, but the director went on to point out that, with more than fourteen hundred gas outlets now operating in this province

employing well over two thousand five hundred men, there is need for some sort of organized training for young men about to enter automobile service. Whether or not the establishment of such a course of training is advisable, the incident does go to show that, even in the less-skilled branches of industry, the demand for specialized preparation is ever increasing. Wages with this particular organization ranged from \$10 to \$20 per week. And it is interesting to learn that the larger chains of stations are making concerted efforts to reduce the weekly hours of labour which have been generally so exacting in the past.

In the field of radio repair service a different sort of picture presents itself. It is of course quite impossible for any young man to experience even moderate success in this work without a thorough study of the subject. Here is a vocation, too, which seems to offer little, at least locally, in the way of financial returns. It should be noted that this criticism refers only to the hired repair man and takes no account of the individual service operator. This trade seems to be seriously lacking in regulation and organization, with the result that competition between the various repair shops is extremely keen and the workers are poorly paid. Earnings are not by any means in keeping with the degree of preparation required, and the technical skill demanded, by employers. Radio service men would do well to establish some sort of organization devoted to standardizing qualifications, regulating fees for service jobs, and setting up a scale of minimum wages.

While retail salesmanship can hardly be classed as a skilled vocation, nevertheless when one considers the number of young people entering this field each year, the necessity for detailed information as to wages, requirements, openings, possibility of advancement, etc. becomes very apparent. Two exactly opposite expressions of opinion were elicited from the managers of two of the larger department stores. The first, who employs about twenty new salesmen and salesladies each year, was convinced that there was a real need in this city for an organized course of training in the niceties and skills of modern retail selling. Not so the manager of another large department store. He remained unconvinced that

such a course of instruction would serve any very useful purpose, not only in Halifax but anywhere else in fact. Yet his organization draws from twenty-five to fifty young people annually from Halifax and vicinity. He much preferred to train his own staff while they worked. It is interesting to note that the weekly wage scales of these organizations were \$11 to \$40 and \$10 to \$25 respectively. Some idea of the possibility of employment may be gathered from the above figures of yearly absorption, and in neither case were opportunities for advancement lacking. In fact, clerks with the qualifications necessary to take their places as supervisors and department managers were very much in demand.

In the case of all firms interviewed, information was elicited concerning the office staffs. Needless to say, those seeking employment of this nature must have successfully completed a recognized course in commercial training. Not a few employers, however, pointed to the difficulty of obtaining really efficient stenographers, and they cited many instances where they had employed young graduates possessing excellent qualifications only to find that they were lacking in speed, in accuracy, and not infrequently in the fundamental requirements of spelling and composition. Openings for capable stenographers were not by any means wanting and wages were reasonably uniform throughout, averaging from \$12 to \$25, or even as high as \$35, per week. Several businesses anticipated expansion of their office departments during the next three years, which would provide not a few openings for capable commercial graduates.

A matter that occasioned no little surprise was the disclosure that there seems to be, in Halifax at the present time, an actual shortage of registered drug clerks. While it is not possible to draw general conclusions owing to the restricted nature of the survey, nevertheless one local drug chain reported an immediate need for two such clerks and anticipated openings for six more during the next three years: fifteen or more certified clerks would probably be required over the same period. The former positions pay from \$25 to \$40, the latter

from \$15 to \$30 weekly, and real efforts are being made by the more progressive stores to effect a reduction in the hours of work of their employees which have been so long and exacting in the past. Facilities are provided whereby junior clerks may avail themselves of correspondence courses in pharmacy which, followed by a six weeks finishing course, provides a certified clerk's diploma. Then, too, for the ambitious registered clerk, there is always the possibility of promotion to a position as branch manager.

While newspaper journalism, with all its related vocations, does not correctly fall within the scope of the present survey, it was thought that information concerning the possibilities of employment in this type of work would be of real interest to young people whose aptitudes and abilities seem to fit them for such a career. For such young men, in the opinion of the editor of a large local newspaper, this field offers excellent opportunities. But he went on to state that it was very difficult to locate anyone who was particularly trained along these lines. And while the writer felt that the possibilities were entirely too limited to justify the establishment of such a course of training, this editor was disinclined to think so. Be that as it may, the important fact divulged by this phase of the investigation was that, for those who anticipate a career in newspaper journalism, opportunities are not entirely wanting.

Again, for the young man in good physical condition who is obliged to leave school without matriculation requirements and who possesses average mechanical tendencies, the possibilities offered by the composing, press, and stereotype departments of the modern newspaper should not be overlooked. Here is one of the few remaining opportunities for a boy to enter a working apprenticeship which, after five years of training, may conceivably lead to a position yielding \$30, or more, per week.

Unfortunately, space does not permit anything like a complete report on the findings of the vocational survey now being brought to completion. It is earnestly hoped, however, that the necessarily brief discussion presented here will convey some idea of the direction in which our young people may turn in their search for employment. A comparison of the results of the present investigation with the findings of the survey of youth on relief reveals, at one and the same time, widespread unemployment on the one hand and, on the other, available employment in the skilled and the semi-skilled trades. Certainly, the existence

of such a discrepancy points to three very definite conclusions:

1. There is a real need for additional facilities in technical and vocational training in order that the non-academically inclined may be able to take advantage of the opportunities offered by the skilled and the semi-skilled trades.
2. That our young people may be able best to

avail themselves of this training, vocational advice and guidance should be made increasingly available,—guidance which has particular reference to Maritime business and industry.

3. In view of the increasing demands made by employers for a minimum scholastic attainment, it is essential that vocational education be paralleled by at least a rudimentary course of academic instruction.

Prince Edward Island's Library

By NORA BATESON

FROM 1933 to 1936 the Carnegie Corporation of New York granted funds for a library demonstration in Prince Edward Island to show what can be done today to provide a rural population with a good library service. Since July 1936 the library has been financed by the Prince Edward Island government.

Within the last generation there has been a great development in the conception of what constitutes good library service for a rural community. The status of the public library today may be judged from a recent statement by an English authority: "The public library is no longer regarded as a means of providing casual recreation of an innocent but somewhat unimportant character: it is recognized as an engine of great potentialities for national welfare and as the essential foundation of that progress in education and culture without which no people can hold its own in the struggle for existence." It is the logical continuation of the public school: public schools for the awakening and training of the faculties and public libraries for the further use of them. This implies that the library will have, besides a

wide range of literature of a 'recreational' character, books and printed information on every subject likely to be of interest to its users. It is the aim of the modern public library to put at the disposal of its readers all the resources of the printed word which they need for information, amusement and that enrichment of mind and spirit which art, literature and philosophy can bring.

The last twenty years has witnessed a great change not only in the conception of the public library but also in the extension of its service to rural communities. The day of the small independent village or small town library is over. A revolution started in English library history about twenty years ago when a committee, investigating the reasons for the stagnation of small libraries, made the pronouncement that, "For a public composed of general readers with a variety of wants, no small library can provide an adequate service. A community of 5,000 may include readers with as great a variety of tastes as a community of 500,000 and will therefore require to have access to as wide a range of books." It was recognized that the only way to give country dwellers access to this wider range of books was through the establishment of a larger unit of library administration and support. Within ten years county

EDITOR'S NOTE: Miss Nora Bateson, a distinguished librarian from Baltimore, has helped to organize Prince Edward Island's library system which she describes in this article. A few months ago she made a survey of conditions in Nova Scotia that may lead to the establishment of a similar system in this Province.

libraries had become practically universal throughout the country.

In the United States there are today 256 county libraries. These however serve only a small fraction of its rural population, most of which is still without library service. Before satisfactory progress can be made towards meeting this need two things are felt to be necessary: an enlarged unit of service (the county in many cases being too small), and financial aid from the state. During the last year the need for state aid has been recognized and granted in several States.

In Canada the Fraser Valley Union Library covers an agglomeration of some twenty local units combined into a library district and serves a population of 40,000. The success of this library is leading to the establishment of similar regional libraries on the same pattern in the Okanagan Valley and Vancouver Island.

Prince Edward Island is the one province in the Dominion with a population small enough to serve as a library unit. The Prince Edward Island Library, therefore is a provincial concern serving a population of 88,000. The headquarters of the system is at Charlottetown and the book collection of approximately 45,000 volumes is distributed through the twenty-four branches of the library. These branches were established in obvious local centres, where people go to do their business, and are open from eight to eleven hours a week at times most convenient to the district and always on Saturday afternoon and evening. Each branch contains a collection of 1,000 books upward, with several thousands in Charlottetown and Summerside. About one third of the collection consists of children's books and more than half of the adult collection is non-fiction. In addition to the books at least ten current magazines are received at each branch. In charge of each branch is a custodian selected by the Director and paid at the rate of twenty-five cents an hour.

All the professional work of selecting books and preparing them for circulation, as well as the supervision of branches is in the hands of headquarters staff,

consisting of three trained librarians and three clerical workers.

For library accommodation which is the responsibility of the localities, the essentials are a room centrally situated if possible, with simple equipment for the shelving and charging of books, a stove for the winter and proper lighting. Cream walls and brown stained woodwork make the branches attractive, friendly places.

Emphasis was put from the beginning on the fact that not only the small collections in the branches but all the books in the Prince Edward Island Library were at the disposal of every reader. As a result great use is made of the "request" system by which any book, other than the lightest fiction, or reading material on any subject can be obtained. The requests are sent to the headquarters in Charlottetown and every week new books are bought and about a hundred and fifty books are sent out to branches in answer to requests.

Every summer the book stock in each branch is completely changed, which means that even small villages will, in the course of ten years, have 10,000 books put before them.

As a further means of making the full resources of the library available, mimeographed lists of books have been issued on subjects of special interest. These are annotated and copies available for circulation.

In every branch there are several hundred children's books. To accommodate children who live too far away to use the branches, books are distributed through the rural schools. Teachers may take out a collection of books up to one per pupil for a period of two months. At the end of that time, or before, the collection may be changed. In this way even the smallest school has a variety of literature at its disposal. Teachers wishing for special books for use in connection with their classes are encouraged to ask for them. In the provision of children's books, however, there is a preponderance of the sort of book that is read for pleasure, "supplementary" reading being the responsibility of the schools.

Probably ninety per cent of the population of the Island is within reach of the branches but for districts too isolated to use the branches a service was contrived through boxes of books. A book-mobile service, such as is used in the Fraser Valley, bringing not only books but advice and suggestion is not feasible in Prince Edward Island where during the winter, which is the reading season, the roads are closed. About seventy boxes of thirty books are sent out and distributed through the Women's Institute which is easily the most representative, responsible organization in the province. Great care was taken in the selection of these books, as it was felt that where only thirty books are sent to a community it is desirable that each of the thirty should count. The boxes are portable book cases and are sent by express, the library paying the outgoing and the Institute the return charges.

The establishment of a public library in a community which has been without one always uncovers a wealth of unsuspected reading interests. During the short term of the library demonstration in Prince Edward Island over twenty-five per cent of the population became registered readers and this did not take account of the thousands who used the collections sent out to Women's Institutes and schools. The books were selected with the special interests of the people in mind and very few were allowed to remain unread on the shelves. Fiction, biography, adventure, history, psychology, economics, science, books on all these subjects written in a popular style were in great demand. Attention was directed from the beginning to the practical books giving a range of information on a great variety of subjects, covering every agricultural and fishing activity in which Islanders were engaged, from fertilizers to oyster culture, meeting the needs of women who wanted new designs for their hooked rugs or carpenters looking for information on new ideas.

As an information bureau, the library received requests as varied as that of a farmer who wrote in for information on the building of a well-lighted, well-

ventilated barn and the request from a man who had read a variety of books on social reconstruction from the socialist point of view and wanted suggestions of books dealing with the same subject by writers who believed in "a spiritual basis of human society." Then there was the clerk in a store who read with eagerness everything published on the reign of Queen Anne, spotting the books in magazines as soon as the publishers announced them and sending in a request at that early date. There was the fox-farmer who had never gone beyond grade five who practically taught himself to read after the library came and dipped into many subjects with the delight of one discovering new worlds. Certainly the library demonstration in Prince Edward Island converted many sceptics there and proved once again that people will read, given books they are interested in and easy access to them. The majority read largely for recreation or amusement, others to get information or satisfy an elementary curiosity and some impelled by interests very vital to them.

To continue the library as it was administered during the Demonstration and allow for necessary developments would cost thirty-five cents per capita. This is a very modest sum as compared with the minimum of \$1 per capita set by the American Library Association. The appropriation made this year by the Prince Edward Island government is about twenty cents per capita. The impetus given to the library during the Demonstration period will still be evident for a year or two and the well-wishers of the library are hopeful that by that time it will receive more adequate support.

That Nova Scotia is aware of the need for libraries is clear from the fact that almost every socially-minded organization in the province has in some way tried to meet the need. The library as a necessary, publicly-supported institution, staffed by people specially trained for the purpose, has not yet however received recognition. According to a recent report published by the Canadian government on libraries in Canada and the United States, Nova Scotia appears at

the bottom of the list, with Mississippi and Arkansas, in its per capita expenditure on public libraries and its per capita book circulation. The Prince Edward Island demonstration attracted the attention of many people in Nova Scotia and there is now considerable interest in the possibility of establishing similar systems in Nova Scotia.

This could be effected through a system of county libraries, each conducted on lines similar to the Prince Edward Island

Library. Where the population of the county is less than 40,000 the unit could be enlarged to include two or three counties. According to library authorities the minimum population for effective library service is 40,000 to 50,000 and the minimum budget \$25,000, or fifty cents per capita. The cost would be the joint concern of the cities, towns and rural municipalities with possibly, some assistance from the government.

Cape Breton Highlands National Park

By R. J. C. STEAD

CANADA'S great chain of national playgrounds has recently been augmented by the addition of a remarkable sea-shore area—the Cape Breton Highlands National Park. Situated in the northern part of Cape Breton Island, one of the most picturesque of all the interesting sections of Nova Scotia, the Park contains an area of approximately 458 square miles. It includes sections of the counties of Inverness and Victoria, and lies between the Atlantic Ocean and the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

One of the great attractions of Cape Breton Island is the diversified nature of its scenery, and the new Park exemplifies its wild and rugged coastline and its beautiful rolling interior. Along the western coast steep well-timbered hills rise sharply from the sea to a height of from 1,200 to 1,700 feet and bold headlands jut out to form delightful bays and sandy coves. In the interior of the park are beautiful green valleys, snuggling between rolling blue-green hills, that resemble greatly the Highlands of Scotland. On the great plateau which forms the central portion of the Park are numerous little lakes, which feed streams that flow both to the Atlantic and to the Gulf

of St. Lawrence. Along its eastern coast are the picturesque fishing ports and villages, out of which ply the sturdy individuals that gain their livelihood from the sea.

Another distinctive feature of the region is the retention of old customs and handicrafts by the inhabitants of the vicinity, many of whom are of Scotch descent. Their native songs and dances have also been handed down through generations and make public celebrations and festivals most interesting.

Access to the Park is provided by a motor highway called the Cabot Trail, which connects with the main provincial highway system. Entrance to the Park may be made over an eastern route leading through the famous Bras D'Or Lake region to Sydney and Ingonish, or by way of a western route via the well-known Margaree Valley to Cheticamp. The Cabot Trail practically girdles the Park on three sides in the form of a vast horseshoe, and traverses many delightful scenic regions.

One of the most popular approaches to the Park from the mainland of Nova Scotia is made via highway No. 5 from Port Hawkesbury to the Margaree Valley, connecting there with the Cabot Trail. From Margaree Forks the route is follow-

EDITOR'S NOTE: R. J. C. Stead is Superintendent of Publicity and Information in the Department of Mines and Resources at Ottawa.

ed northward through the village of Cheticamp to the northern boundary of the Park. North of Cheticamp comes one of the most thrilling sections of the drive. The road rises as high as 1,200 feet above the water, particularly in the vicinity of Cape Rouge, where magnificent seascapes and remarkable views of the coastline may be obtained.

About two miles from Cap Rouge, the road turns inland, climbing gradually through wooded valleys to the top of French Mountain with an elevation of 1,260 feet, and from there to the top of Mackenzie Mountain, with an elevation of 1,200 feet. From these points wonderful views may be obtained of the surrounding country and the adjoining coastline.

The next point of interest to be reached is Pleasant Bay, located just outside the Park boundary. Pleasant Bay is a popular summer resort and a place of great beauty, and is noted for the excellent fishing in the vicinity. From Pleasant Bay the road turns eastward across the Park following the valley of the Grand Anse River across the height of land to the Aspy River Valley. Between Pleasant Bay and Cape North are several lookouts which furnish spectacular views of the great valley which runs inward from Aspy Bay on the Atlantic Ocean. Before reaching Big Intervale the motorist leaves the Park, and re-enters a few miles beyond the settlement of Cape North, near South Harbour.

Continuing southeastward, the highway emerges on the Atlantic coast at Neil Harbour, one of the most picturesque of all the fishing villages in the vicinity. Here the mighty Atlantic rolls in to break in clouds of spray on the rocky shore, while in the little sheltered harbour numerous fishing craft ride at anchor. From Neil Harbour the route turns southward, crossing a number of beautiful little streams. One of these, Mary Ann Brook, tumbles below the highway bridge in a series of falls into a quiet pool.

Farther on are the villages of North Ingonish and South Ingonish, lying in the shadow of Cape Smoky. This bold prominence towers more than 1,000 feet above the sea, overlooking the twin

bays separated by the long narrow headland known as Middle Head.

South Ingonish Harbour has many features of interest to the visitor. Entering the harbour boats pass through a narrow gap past a lighthouse, into a broad well-sheltered bay. Lying at anchor are large sword-fishing boats with their tall masts equipped with lookout stations, and their "pulpit" or spear throwing station located on the bow. From South Ingonish the Cabot Trail is followed out of the Park over Cape Smoky and south to Englishtown Ferry, where a turn westward may be made to Baddeck on Bras D'Or Lake, or eastward to Sydney, the metropolis of Cape Breton Island.

During 1936 an administrative centre for the Park was established at North Ingonish, where a resident superintendent is located. A park warden service, responsible for fire and game protection has also been established and development work has been commenced on a modest scale. Improvements to date have been confined for the most part to highway and trail construction. Portions of the Cabot Trail are being rebuilt to park standard, and revision made to provide easy grades. Other improvements which are planned for the future include the provision of additional facilities for recreation, and the extension of accommodation for park visitors.

Accommodation of a limited nature is available in nearly all the small villages and fishing ports in the vicinity of the Park, including Cheticamp, Pleasant Bay, Neil Harbour and Ingonish. It is anticipated that the gradual development of the Park will result in the erection of additional hotels and bungalow camps, as well as camping areas for visitors carrying their own camping equipment or travelling with motor trailers.

Opportunities for recreation in the Park as yet are limited mainly to fishing, bathing, boating and hiking, as well as motoring along the park highway. Many of the smaller streams and lakes of the Park abound in sporty trout, and salmon also ascend the larger streams, providing excellent sport for the angler. Deep

sea fishing enthusiasts may also gratify their ambitions, for one of the finest sword-fishing grounds in the North Atlantic lies off Ingonish and Neil Harbour.

Commercial fishermen use both the small "snapper boat" carrying a crew of about three men, and the large schooner, with its tall mast and lookout stations. Both types of boat are equipped with the picturesque "pulpit", or station on the bowsprit, from which the harpoon is thrown at the swordfish. Angling for swordfish, as well as other large species, including tuna, is becoming very popular in Nova Scotia, and recently new North American records were established for both tuna and swordfish caught by rod and line in Nova Scotian waters.

Cape Breton Highlands National Park is still in its early stages of development as a national recreational area and wild life sanctuary. However, as time goes on, orderly development along approved lines will be carried out, including the construction and improvement of highways and trails, the restoration of mammalian wild life indigenous to the area, and the provision of additional facilities for accommodation and recreation. Endowed by Nature with many natural advantages Cape Breton Highlands National Park for years to come will serve the aesthetic and recreational needs of the people of Canada and visitors within her gates.

The Danish Farmer, His Cooperative and His Folk High School

BY PETER MANNICHE

DENMARK is not an Eldorado, but there are certain aspects of its life and activities which are of significance to foreigners who are interested in social and educational reform. It has been called a cooperative commonwealth and though this is an exaggeration it is true that Danish farmers have carried cooperation through to a greater extent than the farmers in any other country.

A Danish farmer is now environed by cooperation. He gets the working capital he needs from a cooperative credit association. He buys a great deal of imported fodder and fertiliser through cooperative purchasing societies. Though the consumers cooperatives cover one fifth of the selling of the country as a whole, the cooperative stores in the

villages cover seventy per cent of all sales out there.

As to producers' cooperation more than eighty-six per cent of the milk is sent to the 1,400 cooperative dairies and some eighty per cent of the pigs to the 50 cooperative slaughter houses.

The chief services of cooperation to the Danish farmer have been: (1) that it has made it possible for him to unite the advantages of intensive small-scale farming with the advantages of large-scale machinery in dairies and slaughter houses; (2) that it has freed him from the commercial responsibility of his job and allowed him to concentrate on the production of good crops and stocks; (3) that the dairies and slaughter houses, through mutual cooperation, are able to adapt their production to the changing needs of the markets in a quicker and more expedient way than would otherwise have been the case; 4 finally there is little

EDITOR'S NOTE: Peter Manniche is Principal of the International Folk High School in Elsinore, Denmark. He has done a great deal to promote the idea of Folk High Schools in other countries. He has repeatedly been in Nova Scotia and other parts of Canada speaking about his work.

doubt that cooperation has helped to raise the ethical standards of the farmer. When the farmers are cooperating the failure of one man cannot be the stepping-stone for the success of his neighbour. They all go up or down together.

Why is it that the Danish farmers have been able to cooperate so well?

It is often said that there is a very close connection between the economic and the cultural emancipation of the farmer. When Sir Horace Plunkett, the Irish land reformer, went over to study Danish agriculture he discovered that it was the Folk High Schools, which taught general culture to the farmer, and not so much the technical and agricultural schools which was the secret of their success. By trying to make the young country people better men and women they eventually made them better farmers.

There are, however, important external factors which must be taken into consideration. First of all the fact that Danish agriculture for many years has been dependent on foreign markets for its export. Therefore it was fortunate for Denmark that when America, Argentine and Siberia with their large-scale production came in on the European market as irresistible competitors, England did not shut its gates to Danish products. Not only did it remain open, but with the development of the industrial population the English farmers found it more profitable to sell their milk directly to the towns rather than to work it up in the form of butter. Thus the Danish dairies and cooperatives found a ready market in England for their output. But this was not the only factor to help the cooperative movement along. Just as cooperation helped the small farmer to maintain himself against the competition of the large farmers the fact that there was created an increasing number of small and medium-sized farms on the Danish soil has greatly helped cooperation. There is no class distinction between small farmers. They mix socially and therefore it is easier for them to join in economic cooperation. There are now about 125,000 small holders

in Denmark. Some 665,000 medium-sized farmers own between 35 and 150 acres of land and only about 5,000 own more than that. As these small holders and medium sized farmers were exporting a large part of their products to another country and this necessitated wholesale transportation, uniformity of quality and steadiness of supply, they stood before the choice of handing over their products to big private firms or of joining a cooperative society and thus avoiding the middleman's profit. They chose the latter course. They were able to do this and to direct the cooperative movement without any help from State or University because the Folk High Schools had been operating among them since 1844 and had rapidly developed especially after 1864, the year when Germany defeated Denmark. Between one third and one fourth of all Danish farmers have attended these schools. The boys go there for five months in the winter, this being the time when they can best be spared from their work, and the girls for three months in the summer. In between terms, especially after harvest time, big meetings lasting for several days are held at the schools for farmers from the neighbourhood. The majority of the leading men in Danish agriculture and cooperation have been educated in these schools.

The schools may be briefly characterised as personal in method, individualistic in educational principle and ethical in purpose. They are personal in method because they are residential schools, situated out in the country apart from the distraction of the big city and emphasizing the value of personal contact and the power of the spoken word. The founder of the Folk High Schools, Bishop Grundtvig, called the spoken word "the living word" because it is an expression of life extant in the moment. Through the spoken word, in lectures and, in recent years, also in study circles the Folk High School has acquainted the Danish peasants with many new activities and created a thirst for intellectual pursuits.

The schools are individualistic in educational principle because they try to adapt

themselves to the needs of the farmers. They do not work for any examination or degree. Though they are supported by the State the schools are not controlled by the government. They are allowed to form the curriculum as they like and to specialise in the subjects which they consider particularly valuable for their purpose. Grundtvig maintained that the method of the true folk school is not to put questions or examine the students, but to help them to get an answer to their questions. Therefore he would not appeal to the children. "The child", he said, "is like a young plant and the germ must be kept fresh and green in the early spring. The full development of the flower cannot come until later. The education given to children must be adapted to the standard of the child." Nor would Grundtvig appeal to the adolescent between fourteen and eighteen. This is a dangerous age at which it is not good to be shut up with pen and ink and book without any relation to practical life. "The best school at this time," he said, "is the farm of clever farmers, the workshop of good artisans where youth can get an interest in practical life and live life before they have it described to them. The proper time for educating for good citizenship is the age between eighteen and twenty-five, for then the mind is ripe, the religious life has awakened also the erotic life, the feeling for fatherland and poetry. The mind is full of questions."

Grundtvig took it for granted that the deepest question of all is the question about life itself. Therefore the Folk High School became ethical in its purpose, its main task being to help its pupils to understand the meaning of life. They became schools for life, not for a position in life. History was the main subject, not as a meaningless mass of details but as an organic development, the career of mankind. The religious current was spoken of as the deepest current in this development and the teachers were to help the young to become active participants in the stream of history, not purely passive spectators or analytical observers.

History should teach them to understand themselves and their task in society.

In the ordinary Folk High Schools for the rank and file of the farmers the teaching is simple and easy to follow. The aim is to awaken, develop, give culture, make efficient and form the character of the youths who come to the schools.

Generally speaking, the day begins with prayers; then after a song the principal or a teacher will give a lecture and the closing song will have a bearing on what has been the subject of the lecture.

What often strikes the foreigner who visits Folk High Schools in Denmark is this community singing. Every lecture begins and ends with singing. After the lecture may come gymnastics, a very important item in the curriculum, especially in view of the fact that the pupils are young men and women who are accustomed to an active life. Then may follow an hour of discussion on current events or some special question which a pupil may have brought up. Then all gather for lunch in the big dining hall where the principal presides. After lunch, in the afternoon the lessons may be Arithmetic, Danish or a foreign language, sociology, geography, literature, history etc.

It will be noticed that education given in the Danish Folk High Schools is very general in nature. But one good result is that while farmers in many other countries tend to become rather slow and passive in cultural development the rank and file of the Danish farmers have in a singular way understood how to apply the latest scientific methods in their daily work and to appreciate higher forms of culture. The fundamental idea of the Folk High Schools has always been to bring education and culture to the farmers' sons and daughters, not so that they should become too learned and too fine to handle a plough or do the cooking, that they should be able to put their best into whatever work they are doing with the result that Danish agricultural products has quickly secured a good reputation. Though cooperation was not

taught as a special subject cooperation in building creameries, slaughter-houses and egg-collecting centres grew spontaneously among those engaged in agriculture—on their own initiative and with their own leadership.

Askov, the largest of the Folk High Schools, has about 300 students for its winter course. The others have on an average 50 or 60 students. The International People's College at Elsinore

which receives students from all classes of society and which has an international teaching staff and student body has this winter 136 students, 36 being foreigners. In summer the number of foreign students is comparatively larger. The Folk High Schools have in recent years spread to the industrial workers and it may be that they will perform a similar mission among these as among the farmers.

Dairying in the Maritime Provinces

BY M. CUMMING.

Live Stock vs. Crop Farming.

The rearing and selling of livestock in contrast to the raising and selling of crops is vital to the building up and even to the maintaining of soil fertility. The farmer who raises and sells grain or hay or other farm crop removes from his farm all the elements of fertility contained in these crops and unless the crop has a market value much in excess of the value of its fertilizing ingredients, he will find it practically impossible to make amends to the soil.

The farmer who raises and sells beef removes about 25% and the farmer who produces and sells butterfat about 5% and butterfat plus hogs about 10% of the fertilizing elements contained in the fodders raised to feed the livestock which produces these products. Barnyard manure is the medium by which the remaining 75% to 95% of the fertilizing elements is returned to the soil. In addition, barnyard manure contains organic matter popularly called humus, a vital factor in soil fertility, which is lost to the farmer who sells crops in their natural condition.

Live Stock Farming Constructive.

In practice, the good livestock farmer not only conserves most of the fertilizing

ingredients which are removed from the soil by his crops but, because of extra nitrogen obtained from the air through clover growing, through mineral matter brought up to the surface by deep-rooted plants, and finally by contributing the fertilizing elements contained in purchased feeds, actually increases farm fertility. Anyone, who has a knowledge of farming communities of the Maritime Provinces can recall numerous farmers who have increased the crop producing capacity of their farms two and three-fold through the constructive effects of livestock and good farming methods.

The importance of "majoring" in livestock is often overlooked, at least for a period, on rich farm lands such as those of Western Canada. But, in the Maritime Provinces, where soils are of only average or slightly higher fertility, the practice is inescapable.

Dairy Cattle Economic Producers of Food.

Cattle constitute the most important branch of livestock in these Provinces, notwithstanding which the principles described in the foregoing are alike applicable to other classes of livestock—sheep, hogs, poultry, and horses. Of the two classes of cattle, beef and dairy, Maritime farmers have gravitated strongly towards dairy cattle. Their care and

EDITOR'S NOTE: M. Cumming, B.S.A., LL.D., was for twenty-three years Principal of the Agricultural College at Truro and was Secretary of Agriculture for Nova Scotia from 1907-27.

management require a great deal more work but, from a given amount of feed, a dairy cow will produce about six times as much edible products as a fattening steer, with a cash value, depending upon market conditions, from two to three times as great. There are counterbalancing advantages in favor of beef raising including the need of less elaborate equipment and a great deal less work. But, on most farms and in most countries where the soil is not extra rich, the signal advantage which belongs to the dairy cow as an economical producer of food has made her queen of the farm. Beef reigns on wide, extra fertile farms, of which there are few in the Maritime Provinces. For the most part, conditions in these Provinces outstandingly favor dairying.

Dairying Largest Source of Farm Income.

Dairying provides the largest source of income of any branch of agriculture in the Maritime Provinces. The value in Nova Scotia in 1936 was \$6,495,000 in comparison with \$4,067,000 from fruits and vegetables, \$2,548,000 from farm animals, and \$1,216,000 from poultry and eggs. In New Brunswick, dairying also led decisively in that year with \$5,025,000 credited to dairy products, \$3,421,000 to farm animals, \$1,164,000 to fruits and vegetables, and \$1,323,000 to poultry and eggs. In Prince Edward Island, dairying also led in 1936 but by a lesser margin than in the other Maritime Provinces, the value being \$1,594,000 for dairy products in comparison with \$1,429,000 from animals, \$823,000 from poultry and eggs, and \$172,000 from fruits and vegetables.

Butter Profitable Source of Dairy Income.

In all the Provinces approximately 50% to 60% of the income from dairying has been derived from butter, about 33% from fluid milk, and most of the balance, in Nova Scotia, from ice cream and condensed milk, and in the other Provinces from ice cream and cheese.

Fluid Milk Market Limited.

As to these sources of income, there seems little prospect of any noteworthy change in the fluid milk market although the consumption of milk in urban centres is less than one pint per head and much below the quantity which physicians consider to be desirable for the best health conditions. Yet there has been no material change in market demand for fluid milk for a long period.

Limited Prospects for Advancement in Cheese.

New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island jointly produced, in 1936, 695,000 pounds of factory cheese worth \$93,200. No factory cheese is produced in Nova Scotia and, in all the Provinces, the amount of home made cheese is nominal. The value of cheese imported into the three Provinces is nearly four times as great as the value of the cheese now manufactured, being about \$350,000. The fact that the Maritime Provinces import so much more cheese than they produce has been considered by some as evidence of the opportunity to develop cheese making in the three Provinces. However, most who have studied the subject, believe there is little likelihood of extending cheese making unless conditions change. The principal reason is that when cheese is made, farmers must deliver their fluid milk in fresh condition six times every week whereas creamery managers require delivery of a much less bulky product not more than three times per week in summer and only twice per week in winter. This condition creates a marked premium in favor of creameries versus cheese factories in most communities of the Maritime Provinces where the population is widespread and where, as a result, factories have to draw their product from long distances. The balance is all the more in favor of butter because, over a term of years, the cash return to the farmer sending cream to creameries has been greater than that to the farmer sending fluid milk to the cheese factories and, in addition, the former has had for use on his farm the

skim milk with which to feed various classes of farm animals.

Butter Offers Large Prospect.

As to butter, there has never been any time when there has not been a market for the butter produced in the creameries of the Maritimes and a potential market for a great deal more. Past experience justifies confidence in a continuation of this marketing condition. Prices have been largely a little better than world prices with freight and tariff differentials. Explanatory of the latter Maritime Province farmers, as well as all Canadian farmers, have benefited from a protective tariff of 5c per lb. on direct shipments from New Zealand and Australia; 8c per lb. for shipments from Great Britain, 14c per lb. general tariff and 12c per lb. intermediate tariff, beside which there is protection against dumping.

Because of conditions described in the foregoing, Canadian farmers have received considerably higher prices for their butter than farmers in most parts of the world, especially during periods of depressed markets. For example, when butter was commanding last year a price of about 15c. per lb. in London, England, the corresponding price in Nova Scotia was about 23c per lb. The differential is by no means as great at the present time when butter has advanced approximately 15c per lb. in London and about 10c per lb. in Canada.

Nova Scotia imports approximately 4,000,000 lbs. of butter per annum as against about 6,000,000 lbs. produced in creameries and 5,000,000 lbs produced in home dairies. The actual figures have never been assembled for New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island but there is evidence that the two Provinces together import about the same quantity as Nova Scotia. It may therefore be stated that the total importation of butter for consumption in the Maritime Provinces amounts to about 8,000,000 lbs. per annum. Needless to say, the times appear to be somewhat out of joint when the Provinces that are considered to

be so well adapted to dairying should be under the necessity of importing this substantial quantity of butter to supply their own needs. The writer is one of many who believe that, whatever may be said or written about the importation of other food supplies into the Maritime Provinces, it should not be necessary in the case of butter unless the butter importations were offset by at least a corresponding butter export. Apropos of this view, there is set forth, in the following paragraphs, the small amount of increase that would be necessary to wipe out the present adverse balance.

Production per Cow Capable of Large Increase.

Based on numerous actual figures and some estimates, it is calculated that the average Nova Scotia cow, during the year 1936, produced 143 lbs. butterfat, equal to 179 lbs. butter. The estimates from the other Maritime Provinces are practically the same. In contrast to this, the average production of butterfat in 677 herds, in Nova Scotia for which records were kept in the year 1936, was 275.7 lbs. butterfat, equal to 344.6 lbs. butter. Many herds registered higher production and individual cows produced more than double this quantity. This average for the 677 herds is 165.64 lbs. butter above the general average for the Province.

The number of milch cows in the Maritime Provinces at the present time is estimated at: Nova Scotia, 115,700; New Brunswick, 111,400; Prince Edward Island, 46,100; a total of 273,200. If just a quarter of the increased production of the Nova Scotia herds, in which records were kept, over the general average herd production, was effected in all the Maritime Provinces, there would be an increase of 11,484,400 lbs. butter, sufficient to wipe out the adverse balance and leave about 3,000,000 lbs. for export.

Methods of Increasing Production per Cow.

Two principal methods of improvement have built up production in the better

herds of these Provinces: (1) breeding and selection; and (2) feeding and management.

Good Breeding Important.

There have been so many demonstrations of improvement in production by the use of good sires that one wonders more farmers have not taken advantage of this method. The fact remains that, whether it be due to lack of faith or to indifference, there are numerous farmers in the three Maritime Provinces who have, as yet, made little effort to improve the breeding of their cattle. Fortunately, it is believed that their numbers are growing less. At any rate, great efforts have been exerted by Departments of Agriculture and by various leaders in agriculture to impress upon farmers the possibility of improvement through better breeding. It is but reasonable to look forward to greater achievements along this line in future years.

Better Feeding Essential.

The second method, better feeding, has also been widely adopted but costs have prevented the masses from making material changes. Hence, particular stress is now being laid upon better methods of feeding that will involve a minimum outlay of cash. It has been urged that, to a greater extent than now obtains, it will pay the average farmer to grow his grain feed rather than to buy it—a point which is thoroughly approved by numerous progressive farmers of the Provinces but which, if one may judge by cultivated acres, has not yet impressed itself on the mind of the average farmer. Likewise, it has been strongly advised that the present acreage of roots (Swedes and mangels) of one-third of an acre per farm in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick and about two-thirds of an acre per farm in Prince Edward Island, should be materially increased, especially when it is considered that the cool, humid climate of these Provinces is particularly suited to this class of crops. But, it must be admitted that, except on a few farms, there has

been little evidence that the teaching has been endorsed.

Pasture Improvement Vital.

Latterly, in fact within a very few years, it has been strongly advised that improvement of pastures by top-dressing with fertilizer offers a valuable means of increasing dairy production at a minimum expenditure of labor and cash. This method has been widely adopted in Germany, England, New Zealand, and on a considerable number of farms in Nova Scotia to say nothing of other parts of Canada and the United States. The writer was so much impressed with the possibilities of this practice that, twenty-five years ago, he established at the Agricultural College, Truro, the first large demonstration in pasture improvement on the Continent of America. Little interest developed in the practice at that time but the years of depression have directed attention to costs of production to such an extent that pasture improvement has now received attention in a great many parts of the world. The value of this method is all the greater when one considers that the price of butter in summer time, when it can be cheaply produced from pastures, is not much lower than in winter, in contrast to the wide spread in years gone by before the days of large cold storages.

British Grass Improvement Policy.

Added prestige has been given to pasture improvement by the announcement of the Land Fertility Committee of the British Ministry of Agriculture that, commencing September 6, 1937, a contribution of one-half of the expenditure for lime and one-quarter of the expenditure for basic slag will be made by the exchequer to any occupier of agricultural land in the United Kingdom. Associated with this announcement appears an article in the Journal of the Ministry of Agriculture for October 1937 entitled "Britain's Grassland Must be Improved", in which the use of lime and basic slag for this purpose is strongly recommended.

Some Past Losses.

During the last thirty years, 21,596 so-called farm holdings in the Maritime Provinces were abandoned, a loss of 19.4% and during the same period there was a reduction in the number of dairy cows of 36,458, a loss of 12%. Most of the abandoned farms were either small properties occupied by part-time farmers who earned considerable of their livelihood in pursuits other than agriculture, or were "marginal" lands that offered small opportunity for development. While there are no actual figures covering the point, it is altogether likely that the abandonment of these holdings involved a loss of dairy cows considerably greater than the actual loss of 36,458 cows. This points to a small increase in the cow population on the presently occupied lands.

A Much Bigger Gain.

However, the outstanding development during this period has been the increase in

production per cow of approximately 1,000 lbs. of milk and 50 lbs. of butter per annum. It is in the same direction that, we believe, we should look for progress in the immediately succeeding years. That there is ample scope for this progress is clearly indicated by the figures quoted in the preceding paragraph on "Production Per Cow Capable of Large Increase."

Conclusion of the Whole Matter.

A shrewd farmer recently epitomized the subject, we believe, very sagely when he said, "I do not want to keep the largest number of cows that the feed in my barn will sustain but I do want to keep the smallest number of cows that will turn that feed into the largest quantity of marketable product."

"Good cows, well and economically fed" should, we believe, be the slogan for every Maritime Province dairyman. As this objective is approached, the cow population will take care of itself.

Nova Scotia's Propositions to the Rowell Commission

By G. F. CURTIS

THERE was more than ordinary curiosity attending the submission of the Nova Scotia brief: there was a positive element of dramatic interest. Already Manitoba and Saskatchewan had been heard from and the emphasis they had placed on the need for a thorough overhauling of the structure of Confederation had alarmed some circles in Canada into excited protest. The Premiers of the three Maritime Provinces had at once dissociated themselves from the suggestion that the matter was to be

regarded as a contest of the East against the West; but, beyond the denial of a united opposition to the Western proposals, nothing definite was known.

The first significance of the Nova Scotia brief therefore lies in the fact that it envisages the problem before the Commission in large terms. The method of approach is similar to that adopted by Manitoba and Saskatchewan. There are important differences in detail—less stress, for instance, is laid on the dangers arising from the huge totals of provincial debts—but the general line taken is the same. The central position is that no improvement can be expected without fundamental constitu-

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tional adjustments. The notion that our present difficulties spring from no worse causes than excessive cost of government and over-spending receives no countenance; indeed the charge of extravagance is repudiated with some force and it is shown that the administration of the province has been, and is, carried on economically. The trouble is more deep-seated; as the brief shows, it is largely that, under the constitution, burdens have fallen on provincial governments which they have not the resources to meet and many of which, even were the money available, they could not deal with effectively, a province being too small a unit of control.

The brief grasps the nettle at once by suggesting, as its first proposal, that the power to amend the British North America Act should reside in Canada. The growth of Canada and the other Dominions from colonial status to the position of autonomous units within the Commonwealth is reviewed in some detail and it is noted that both Australia and South Africa have the power to amend their constitutions. The same right is asked for Canada and a sound ground is taken for this request. It is that the transfer of the amending power to our own hands would quicken our sense of national responsibilities. There is high good sense in this. As long as the power of amendment continues in London we shall see the unedifying spectacle of necessary reforms being held up by a plethora of argument over the method by which the appropriate constitutional amendments should be brought about. The case of unemployment insurance is in point. There being no established way by which action by the Imperial Parliament is to be secured, we now run the risk of finding ourselves in another depression before the insurance scheme can be gotten under way. It may of course very well be that in this particular case we shall make more progress than seems likely at present, but the delay already has been grievous and therefore the suggestion that the whole matter should be settled once and for all by definite provision

for action by Canada herself seems fully justified.

The desire to get away from the crippling rigidity of our present constitutional framework also lies behind the second proposition. It is that the Dominion and the provinces should be given the power to delegate legislative authority to each other. The hope is expressed that the way would thus be opened for one province to secure the enactment within its borders of a measure which did not commend itself to the other provinces. If, for instance, Province X was in favour of Dominion control of the marketing of its products, it could delegate its power of legislation over local marketing to the Dominion and thus the Dominion would be in a position to set up a complete scheme of marketing so far as Province X was concerned. Conversely, the Dominion by transferring an item of jurisdiction which now resides with it to one of the provinces could give the latter the opportunity of bringing into force within that province legislation to which other parts of the country objected. Besides marketing, the other subjects mentioned as suitable for this sort of treatment are labor legislation and unemployment insurance.

Indeed, Nova Scotia is prepared to go the whole way in respect of these subjects and is willing that the Dominion should at once be given jurisdiction over them. The case for Dominion control of marketing is stated with some emphasis. As matters now stand, jurisdiction is divided. The Dominion can control export and inter-provincial trade, the provinces intra-provincial. But the compartments are watertight; and so far all efforts to draw up acts which keep within the respective areas of legislative competence have come to grief. This uncertainty should be ended. An even more substantial reason is that the legal division between export and inter-provincial trade on the one hand and intra-provincial trade on the other is, for business reasons, unsatisfactory. The local, the inter-provincial and export sides of nearly all the natural products industries in

Canada are, as a matter of economics, indissolubly linked together. Hence, regulation of the sale of natural products can be effective only if it is in the hands of one central body and this is precisely what the constitution forbids. The brief puts it very well when it points out that our products are sold abroad, not as Nova Scotian or British Columbian, but as Canadian, and uniformity of grade and standard is consequently essential.

Economic reasons also are adduced for placing unemployment insurance and general labor legislation under the Dominion. If the provinces were to act individually, there would be a tendency for workers to stay in jurisdictions where the benefits were greatest. This would militate against the adjustment of labor forces within the Dominion. A second reason is that the enactment of such legislation would have the effect of raising the costs of production, and the entrepreneurs of a province which adopted such measures would be handicapped in competition with those of other provinces who would not have to meet these extra costs. The truth is that unemployment and the exploitation of labor are Dominion-wide evils requiring Dominion-wide cures.

A strong appeal is entered for more collaboration between the various governing units in Canada on constitutional matters. The brief concedes that something already has been done by the various Dominion-Provincial Conferences, but it implies—and few will be found to doubt—that the results, in contrast to the magnitude of the task, have not been impressive. The recommendation is that the Conferences should be made annual affairs and also that a permanent secretariat should be set up to assure that sufficient preparation is made for them. This seems altogether sound. It is well-known that the failure of many conferences on international affairs has been due precisely to the lack of preparation and the same may very well be the case with respect to the Dominion-Provincial Conferences. It seems clear that, if the latter can be made

into effective institutions for resolving our constitutional difficulties as they arise instead of leaving them to accumulate to the proportions that they presently assume, the proposal is of the utmost value.

Two specific suggestions have to do directly with taxation powers. One of them concerns the imposition of consumers and sales taxes such as the gasoline tax. These taxes now form an important source of provincial revenue but their validity is doubtful. Under the B. N. A. Act, the provinces are confined to "direct taxation" and the difficulty with the taxes in question is that, as they are passed on by retailers to consumers, there are strong arguments for the view that they are indirect. The provinces insist that they cannot do without this form of revenue and that an appropriate constitutional amendment should be made to give them the undoubted power to raise funds by these means. The anxiety however has been that, unless kept within narrow limits, a power to resort to indirect taxation will lead to discriminating taxes whereby the products of the home province will be preferred to those coming in from other provinces. Such a state of affairs would mean the disappearance of a free trade area within the borders of the Dominion and the destruction therefore of one of the cardinal terms of Confederation. It will thus be of the highest interest to see how this proposition is received by the Commission. The task will be to evolve a formula which will validate consumer and sales taxes of the kind now existing without opening the door to the imposition of discriminating taxes by the provinces.

The second suggestion has to do with income and inheritance taxes. There is no doubt about the validity of these taxes; they are unquestionably, and indeed typically, direct. The difficulties lie in another quarter, namely, those of efficient enforcement. Nova Scotia does not impose income taxes but does derive some of its revenue from succession duties. The trouble with respect to the latter, however, is that with the

province doing the collecting there are opportunities of evasion which would not exist were the Dominion to undertake the task. The Dominion income tax department has information about sources of income which would enable it to detect non-disclosure of wealth in respect of the estates of deceased persons. Nova Scotia, therefore, suggests that the Dominion should take over these taxes. Then there is this further aspect. If, as is suggested, the Dominion assumes new responsibilities for social services, it will require additional sources of revenue, and the province is accordingly willing that these two items should be transferred to the Dominion. In this connection some figures cited in another part of the brief have considerable interest. Of the total succession duties collected in Canada in 1934, Ontario collected 59.1%, Quebec 24.4% and the other seven provinces altogether only 16.5%.

The low taxable capacity of Nova Scotia, of which the figures just cited give some indication, forms the burden of the second part of the brief. From the first days of Confederation Nova Scotia has required special assistance from the Dominion. The history of the whole question of subsidies from that time on yields nothing in the way of consistent principle and the strength of this part of the brief lies in the powerful argument made for a recognition of fiscal need as the proper determinant for federal aid. It is conceded that the frank acceptance of this principle would mean a new departure in Dominion-Provincial relations but it is insisted that, whatever the attempts have been to explain the various grants of "better terms" that have been made to the provinces since Confederation on other grounds, the actual basis for the grants has in fact been fiscal need. This seems to put the matter in the proper light. Indeed all talk of "equality of treatment" is largely pointless; what the provinces are asking for is unequal treatment. It is precisely because certain of the provinces suffer disabilities peculiar to themselves either for reasons of geog-

raphy or climate or because of the effect of federal policies that aid from the Dominion is essential. This is borne out by the record of the grants made for relief in recent years. There has been the utmost variety in the payments made to various provinces depending in each case on the gravity of the problem. The same is true of the contributions made towards old age pensions: the amount the Dominion supplies depends, not on the population of the province as do subsidy payments, but on the number of pensioners. Allowance is thus made for the greater need of a province like Nova Scotia with a higher proportion of old people than there are in the newer provinces.

The case for basing federal assistance on fiscal need is enforced by extended reference to the injury done Nova Scotia by the tariff. This is a matter which is not capable of precise demonstration; we are without adequate statistical data and in any event the tariff policy has become so deeply woven into the fabric of the Canadian economy that it is hardly likely that such information could ever be come by. This, however, does not destroy the fact that an area which derives a large part of its wealth from export trade suffers a handicap by having to buy the manufactured goods it needs in a protected market. The concern expressed in the brief is lest such a state of affairs should lead to an impoverishment of the outlying members of Confederation so that a reasonable standard of living cannot be maintained in such areas. The problem thus raised has clearly to be attacked along a wide front and this view is indicated with emphasis. The experience of Australia is drawn on as affording some indication of what can be done to relieve the stresses of a federal system. The Grants Commission which operates there has given full recognition to the need, within a federation, of ameliorating the effects of federal policies and the amount of grants to the less favoured States has been very considerably increased in recent years. The setting up of a similar commission in Canada is recom-

mended and an indication of the extent which Nova Scotia requires financial assistance is given by a detailed account of the present fiscal need of the province. The figures strikingly bear out the contention of those who have argued that the constitution as it now stands overburdens the provinces with services. For general education the amount "immediately required" yearly is placed at \$650,000 for health, \$500,000, for agriculture \$100,000, for general services \$100,000. The truth is that the province, having had to find money for services which ought to be a Dominion concern, such as relief and pensions, has had to starve its normal services. Nor is it possible to expand revenues to any great extent. In that connection a comparison in respect of such matters as the ownership of motor vehicles, radios, and telephones, and the assessment for income taxes, with the situation in Canada generally reveals Nova Scotia to rank appreciably below the average. The result of this comparative poverty in terms of taxable capacity is that, in contrast with Ontario, Nova Scotia gets a smaller revenue from its taxes despite, in most cases, a higher rate of taxation.

It will be seen therefore that the broad argument of the brief is that the

time is ripe for far-reaching changes. Modern conditions and new conceptions of the functions of government have placed duties on the provinces which were not contemplated in 1867 and which they have not the resources to meet. There must be a re-allocation of functions between the Dominion and the provinces, the Dominion assuming responsibility for matters which in fact are national in character but which fall at present to the provinces. The increased demands on provincial governments in respect of services, they normally can be expected to provide because of the local nature of such services requires also a revision of the financial arrangements of Confederation. In addition the passage of time has accentuated the exceptional disabilities under which Nova Scotia labours because of the way the Canadian economy has developed. The need for special treatment of a more comprehensive kind than has hitherto been accorded therefore bulks large in the submission. This is asked on the ground of national interest and changes are urged only that Confederation be strengthened and the constitution be modernized to fit new needs and conditions.

Industrial Relations and Social Security

THE HUMAN FACTOR IN SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT

By F. H. SEXTON.

IN recent years the scientizing of every phase of production has developed with amazing rapidity. We have made some progress in industrial relations between management and labour but we are still a long way from industrial democracy. Advances have been most uneven and the leading employers are a long way ahead of the rank and file. The hard-boiled boss is still with us but labour legislation, popular sentiment, and union policies are trimming his claws.

Needless to say, there have been and still are many employers who have adopted certain portions of a scientific management program which increase their profits but they neglect to carry out the policy in its entirety. They are the ones who seek to exploit the worker as a producer and who do not seem to have any interest in the employee as a human being. These men have been responsible for giving this form of management a very unsavoury reputation with labour organizations. There are other employers who have gone far beyond any legal requirements and the commonly regarded considerations in securing as complete satisfaction as possible for their workers in earning power, enjoyment of their jobs, continuous employment, general welfare, and old age pensions. The human factor in the leading corporations of today is looked after by a department which usually is given the title of Personnel or Industrial Relations Department. The person in charge is usually a specialist in psychology who has proved his capacity for dealing fairly, intelligently and sympathetically with all kinds of people.

Of course it is only a large plant that can afford to set up a department or even hire a person who has no other duties than to look after the human aspects of the enterprise. In smaller concerns this falls on the superintendent or the manager, but he is supposed to have the attitude and employ some of the methods which have been found valuable in making the workers efficient and contented. The main objectives are to secure people fit for the jobs, train them on the jobs and to build the general morale of the workers to the highest possible point.

The first consideration of an employer is to secure a worker who is fitted for the job. The selection used to be more or less a rough, hit-or-miss affair which depended on the snap judgment of the foreman, the recommendation of an employee, or other casual reason. The high degree of specialization and the heavy investment in equipment which are common today, make it necessary to select new employees with an extra degree of care. The best workers usually produce two to three times the amount of the output of the poorest ones so that this reduces overhead costs per unit from one-third to one-half. In late years management has learned the indirect costs of labour turnover. For labourers the expense of replacing a man and breaking in the new one may be as low as \$5.00. For a department store clerk it is usually as much as \$50.00, while for a sales representative it may be as much as \$1000 or \$2000. The worker's welfare also requires that he be placed in a job for which he is well fitted and that he can successfully hold.

In matching men and women with jobs it is necessary to analyze both as far as possible. This is now done and a specification is drawn up for each job showing the physical, mental, and personal qualities necessary for success in the work. Industrial psychology has made

EDITOR'S NOTE: F. H. Sexton, LL.D., is president of the Nova Scotia Technical College. The above article is part of a paper given at the Maritime Conference on Industrial Relations in Halifax in October 1937.

great progress in the last few years in developing reliable tests for finding objective values in traits, aptitudes, and skills. The field has been only partly explored, but it is becoming common to have applicants for certain kinds of work submit themselves to a series or battery of tests which will give the employment representative a basis on which he can form a fairly sound judgment as to the fitness for definite occupations. Public utility companies and department stores have been leaders in this practice. Even such occupations as motormen, switchboard operators, taxicab drivers, weavers, and cigarette packers are now satisfactorily chosen on the basis of special tests. A manufacturing concern has found that it can choose apprentices on the results of a test that takes 30 minutes as well as by means of a whole year's tryout in the factory. We may expect to see the application of these methods expand rapidly with the development of reliable tests.

Physical examination is becoming more common in occupations where this is of primary importance. This is usually not carried out until the applicant has been deemed fit for employment on the basis of other qualifications. For aeroplane pilots the examination is exceptionally broad and severe. In Ontario all men who apply for jobs as hard rock miners must submit to an X-ray examination to prove they have no weakness or lesions in their respiratory organs. Very often physical defects are found which do not affect the employee's efficiency and he is able to have these remedied later and thus increase his general well-being. Many workers and labour unions have strong objections to the physical examination because it is feared that rejection will result if the person is not perfect health, or that some defect will be used to refuse a job to the man who may have a position as a labour leader.

When a worker is hired it is the usual practice to spend some time and effort in introducing him to his job and helping him to adjust himself to it. He is given an explanation of the real aims and policies of the enterprise and his sphere

of action and responsibility is gone over in detail. This is often supplemented by giving him a specially prepared booklet with his name on it which contains the same information and can be read over at his leisure. A personal introduction to the man under whom he will work is made by the personnel interviewer. This official introduces him in turn to the others with whom he will work and tells him of the plant routine such as regulations, time clocks, safety rules, methods of securing pay, etc. He is followed up and visited on the job by the personnel department during the period immediately after he is taken on the payroll to find out if he is satisfied and also is satisfactory to his foreman.

Transfers and promotions are usually a responsibility of the personnel department and often involve problems more ticklish to handle than the actual hiring of the worker. They are generally carried out with great care to be sure that justice is done to the individuals concerned and to the general aim of improving plant morale.

Policies in different firms vary a great deal in delegating authority for the discharge of a worker. The day has gone by when a foreman can summarily fire a man in a fit of temper or for personal prejudice. In some concerns it is only the employment department that has the power to discharge. This means that no one can be dismissed without a hearing and gives a worker a little more security. Even when he voluntarily quits his job he must check out through the personnel department and give his reason for going. This gives a good chance for a check-up on the general labour policy of the company.

The necessity for training the worker to perform his task well is also recognized and provided for in some measure. The specialization in jobs has made part of this problem comparatively easy. There are now many operations with machines which can be learned thoroughly in a few days or weeks. The newcomer can be placed as a helper with a competent operator and soon become fully able to fill the job. Some firms maintain what

they call a "vestibule" school in which an instructor is given a number of machines and the duty of making the learners capable operators under actual working conditions. There has been a tendency for industry to abandon the old-fashioned apprenticeship of three or four years for preparing skilled craftsmen in certain trades. Only a few of the larger and more progressive firms continue this form of training, and the state through its public education service has organized technical courses to fill this need. At the present moment there is an acute shortage of skilled mechanics and there is a general demand for a revival of apprenticeship.

Safety work is now a common policy in almost all establishments and becomes more efficient in each succeeding year. The consideration given to it points clearly to the general concern of management in the worker's welfare.

There are many human instincts outside of the primitive drives for food, shelter and clothing that call for continuous satisfaction. The wage incentive may be the principal one that drives men to work and keeps them at it, but careful investigation has proved that it is not as powerful as it is usually supposed to be. There are many other desires that call for fulfillment such as to be recognized as of some worth, to construct creatively, to be free of supervisory control, to be gregarious. It is doubtful if industry can be organized at present to satisfy these, but with the increased leisure that is coming with the shorter working week each person can find the opportunities outside the job to develop his own special ambitions.

We have just passed through the severest depression the world has known in recent centuries, and have learned many valuable lessons from this period of adversity. We are now in a period of moderate prosperity, but are facing problems of finance, production, unemployment, and distribution that seem to defy complete solution. Labour is becoming militant and aggressive and

social legislation involving heavier contributions from production through increased taxation is extending rapidly. There are some signs that labour may try its strength in the political arena in the United States, but it seems to have enough influence with the governments in Canada so that it can secure most of its reasonable demands through social legislation. There is no serious sign of revolution in either country. Management in the industries of North America is meeting heavier responsibilities with a fair measure of success, but is finding it more difficult to produce large dividends. The tables are now turned and labour is making management sweat for its wages.

It seems clearer than ever that the solution of the difficulties of economic society lies in greater production and lower prices. Only thus can the full possibilities of our power and machine age be realized. More people than ever are convinced that consumption must be increased and are willing to support a policy of higher wages and a shorter working week. Such a change could not be brought about without a closer and fuller co-operation of labour and capital, but this seems more capable of realization than at any time since the Great War when it was made possible under the spur of patriotism. The engineer and the inventor are making life easier and simpler. They are working to make wealth, power, leisure, and happiness the common possessions of a greater proportion of our people than has been true in any other age. Social reformers rail at some temporary conditions of industrialism but these are only moths which can be easily removed from their eyes if they desire to do so. Industry is acquiring a higher ideal of service to humanity inside and outside its own plants. It seems that we have the power and knowledge to establish a social and economic order nearer to the heart's desire if only the leadership will arise to take us into the land of Canaan.

EMPLOYMENT CONDITIONS IN CANADIAN INDUSTRIES

Information as to employment conditions in Canadian industry is contained in a report published recently by the National Employment Commission. It has been compiled from replies to a questionnaire sent to employers of labour throughout Canada. The list used by the Commission included names of more than 10,000 employers. Some 7,725 replies to the questionnaire were received.

Enquiries were directed only to those employers having in their employ 15 or more persons. The enquiry did not extend to those engaged in agriculture, hunting, fishing, banking or domestic service. While the figures given cannot therefore be regarded as complete, in view of the fact that they come from 7,725 firms employing 1,028,750 workers, as of September, 1936, they can be held as giving a definite indication of trends in the many phases of employment conditions covered.

Hours of Work.

All but about 200 of the firms reported on hours of work. Approximately 4,800, or 64 per cent of the total number reporting stated that their regular work week was 48 hours or less; 2,696, or 35.8 per cent reported a work week of 49 hours or over. In terms of numbers of employees, 639,720, or 68.3 per cent of the 1,015,636 involved, worked a week of 48 hours or less; while 321,916, or 31.7 per cent put in 49 hours and over a week.

Sick Leave and Holidays.

The granting of sick leave with pay appears to be a common practice so far as it applies to executives and office staffs, some 5,028 firms reporting that sick leave was confined to this group. The remaining 1,468 of the total 6,496 reporting payment for time lost through sickness, extended it to all their employees. Only 13.3 per cent of the firms stated that no sick leave with pay was granted, while 2.6 did not report on this point.

The questionnaire produced some interesting information on the extent to which holidays with pay are granted in Canadian industry. While 6,743 firms with a total of 958,295 employees reported a system of holidays with pay in effect, closer examination revealed that these were not granted to all classes of employees. In 5,072 firms with 656,252 employees, holidays with pay were granted to salaried employees only; 1,273 firms with 227,925 employees extended them to wage earners as well as to salaried employees; while the remaining 387 firms with 74,218 employees reporting holidays with pay did not specify the classes to which they applied.

Pension Plans.

Canadian industrial organizations to the number of 722 reported pension plans in effect. The combined pay-roll of these firms comprised 386,677

employees. Once again, however, it must be noted that while pension plans were effective in all these firms, they did not necessarily apply to all employees. In the primary industries only 14 firms, all engaged in mining, reported pension plans. Employees of these firms numbered 11,554. A total of 708 firms with 375,123 employees in secondary industries reported pension plans. Of this number of firms, 320 with 124,626 employees were engaged in manufacturing.

Housing.

Answers to questions on housing revealed that 930 Canadian firms with 293,474 employees gave housing assistance in one form or another. All employees of firms with housing plans were included in this figure of 293,474 whether or not such employees actually benefited from plans in effect. Of the 930 firms mentioned, 268 with 54,633 employees reported of assistance in acquiring houses. Plans providing for free or low rent housing were reported in effect by 512 firms with 185,134 employees. A total of 150 firms with 53,707 employees reported both assistance in acquiring houses and free or low rental housing.

Maritime Telegraph and Telephone Company Welfare Plan Twenty Years Old

At a time when governments are preparing plans to introduce social insurance for wage earners, it is interesting to note that one of the most important public utilities in Nova Scotia, the Maritime Telegraph and Telephone Company, for twenty years has provided welfare services aiming to give social security to its employees.

The plan operated by the company provides for old age pensions, sickness disability benefits and death benefits.

1. Eligible for a pension on their retirement are all male employees who have reached the age of sixty years, and whose term of employment has been twenty or more years. Women are eligible at the age of fifty-five. Under special circumstances employees younger than sixty or fifty-five may also be given a pension.

The pension is one and one-half per cent for each year of employment of the average annual pay during the ten years preceding retirement. The minimum pension is \$30 per month. The maximum is eighty per cent of the average annual pay. In 1937 the Company spent for pensions the sum of \$17,115.

2. All employees of the Company after a term of employment of two years who by reason of

sickness are unable to work, are entitled to sickness disability benefits. These are also granted in case of accidents which do not justify any compensation under the regulations of the Government's Workmen's Compensation Act. The benefits consist in continuation of salary during the absence of the employee beginning with the eighth calendar day. Persons with two years of employment are entitled to a maximum of four weeks full pay and nine weeks half pay. The benefit periods increase with the duration of employment in the Company to a maximum of thirteen weeks full pay and thirty-nine weeks half pay reached after ten years of employment. In 1937 sickness disability benefits were paid in eighty-three cases, amounting to \$6,830.

(3) In the case of persons who have been employed by the Company for at least five years, death benefit is paid to their beneficiaries. It increases with the number of years spent in the employ of the Company beginning with six months pay after five years employment and extending to twelve months pay after ten years employment and over. While the costs of sickness benefits and pensions are fairly constant, those for death benefits vary considerably. In 1937 the Company spent on that item \$445, while the costs in 1936 were \$1662.

In the twenty years in which the pension plan has been in operation, the Company has spent altogether \$267,750. The largest part of this sum, \$132,420, was for sickness benefits while pensions amounted to \$107,325, and death benefits to \$28,000. All these benefits are given without any contributions on the part of the employees. The Company also provides in addition for a group life insurance.

Another interesting feature in the Industrial Relations system of the Company is an employees' stock saving plan which entitles employees to purchase shares of the Company's stock. All permanent employees may invest up to ten per cent of their yearly wages or salaries in stock of the Company, which is given to them at par, while their actual market value is \$16. Since the principal object of the plan is to encourage thrift among the employees, the stock is held in trust and remains in the hands of the trustees together with all dividends accruing until the employee either leaves

the Company, reaches the retiring age or dies.

Should the employee be faced with a grave emergency or be in need of money, the trustees are entitled to lend him up to seventy-five per cent of the par value of the shares for which he holds certificates. A great number of the Company's employees take advantage of the stock savings plan. At present there are three hundred shareholders of that type.

COLLECTIVE BARGAINING

Although, perhaps, a few of the more conservative of our industrial leaders would not be prepared to admit it, the principle of collective bargaining is gradually invading Canadian industry. With the progress that has already been made in cementing friendlier feelings between employer and employee, this is not surprising, since it does not involve any particular loss of prerogative or pride on the part of the former. Indeed, if the vision of an essentially Canadian labour federation, under government control and supervision somewhat similar to that in Great Britain, were to be translated into reality, there would be less reason for Canadian industry to regard that invasion with misgiving, especially as the state reserves the right to intervene in any dispute that may threaten to disturb international peace. In fact, it could be made a condition of any further recognition of collective bargaining power through the medium of Canadian unions that, (1) in the event of the parties in an industrial dispute unable to agree upon a settlement, no lock-out or strike could be called until the matter had been referred to an official board of arbitration, and until a certain period of time had elapsed, and (2) it should be an offence for the employees of institutions, such as hospitals; public utilities, such as water, gas and electric service systems; and businesses supplying the necessities of life, such as dairies, bakeries, etc., to strike. There is little doubt that Canadian Labour would be reasonable enough to recognize the justice of this, where the employers recognized the right of the workers to bargain through their Canadian labour organizations.

From an Address by J. J. Gibbons, President of the Toronto Board of Trade before the Convention of the Canadian Chamber of Commerce, Vancouver, September, 1937.

COUNTY HEALTH UNIT

In an address given recently at Amherst, Dr. J. W. Sutherland stressed the need for a county health unit in Cumberland. He referred to the importance of vaccines and serums for preventive purposes and asserted that doctors today are

interested in keeping people well. Dr. Sutherland stated that health units had already been established in Ontario, Quebec, and Cape Breton Island were doing great work in this regard.

PENSIONS FOR BLIND COMING ON P. E. ISLAND

Payment of pensions to the blind in Prince Edward Island would begin in February, according to an announcement of Hon. Mark R. MacGuigan, Minister of Health and Education. Sixteen of the hundred applications received had already been approved.

The maximum pension is \$15 a month to persons without income and proportionately less to anyone with a certain amount of income. Only persons forty years old or over who were unable to work because of blindness were eligible. It was expected that out of the total number of applications about forty would receive pensions.

Dr. J. P. Lantz of Charlottetown was appointed by the Department of Pensions and National Health, Ottawa, to examine applicants to determine the degree of their blindness. Following approval by Ottawa the local Pensions Commission, headed by Hon. M. R. MacGuigan, will determine the amount of pensions based on whether or not the applicant has other sources of income. No duplication of pensions will be made in the case of blind persons who are now receiving old age pensions.

SICKNESS AND POVERTY

The United States Public Health Service has recently completed the most comprehensive survey of national health that has been made in this country. The survey relates sickness to the economic and social background of the families included in the study. The sections of the report thus far made public, deal with the amount of disabling illness in the Nation as a whole and illness and medical care in relation to economic status.

The survey finds that on the average winter day 6,000,000 persons are incapacitated for normal duties—of these, 2,500,000 are suffering from chronic

illness; 1,500,000 from colds, influenza, pneumonia, etc.; 2,500 (chiefly children) from acute infectious diseases; and 250,000 from acute diseases of the stomach, liver and appendix. On an average every man, woman and child is incapacitated by disease at least ten days each year from illness lasting one week or more.

The survey shows a definite relation between low incomes and illness. Low incomes mean inadequate funds and clothing, poor housing, the mental consequences of insecurity and inability to pay for adequate medical care. Disability in the low income families is double that in the higher income groups. Chronic illness is nearly twice (87 per cent) more in the small income families than in the higher. The days of disability per year are three times higher in the lower income families than in the higher.

Those families whose incomes are less than \$1,000, but who are not on relief, have twice as much illness as the families in the higher income group—but the higher income families have 46 per cent more medical care.

A by-product of the study is the light on distribution of income. Of the urban population interviewed (some 2,250,000 in 81 cities), 40 per cent were members of families existing on incomes of less than \$1,000; 65 per cent were in families with incomes under \$1,500 and 80 per cent in families with less than \$2,000. Only one person in five were in families with incomes over \$2,000. The minimum income providing standards of health and decency is \$2,500. Inadequate incomes mean more illness and sickness of dangerous duration.

The proportion of disabling illness for which no medical care was given was: 17 per cent for families with incomes of \$3,000 or more; 30 per cent among relief families and 28 per cent among those families not on relief with incomes under \$1,000.

It is estimated that approximately 1,250,000,000 days are lost from normal pursuits annually through illness lasting one week or longer.

From the *American Federationist*, February 1938.

RATES OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOUR IN VARIOUS INDUSTRIES IN NOVA SCOTIA, 1937.

Building Trades

	Halifax		Sydney		New Glasgow	
	Wages per Hour	Hours per Week	Wages per Hour	Hours per Week	Wages per Hour	Hours per Week
Bricklayers.....	\$.97½	44	\$.90	48	\$.75	48
Carpenters.....	.60	44	.65-.80	48	.45-.50	48
Plumbers.....	.75	44	.72-.80	44
Labourers.....	.30-.40	44	.30-.35	48-54	.30	48

Municipal Service

	Halifax		Sydney		Amherst		Windsor	
	Wages per Hour	Hours per Week	Wages per Hour	Hours per Week	Wages per Hour	Hours per Week	Wages per Hour	Hours per Week
Labourers.....	\$.40	48	\$.35	48	\$.35	48	\$.30-.33	54
Truck drivers.....	.45	54	.45	48	.35	50

Iron and Steel Foundries, Machine, Boiler and Ship Repair Shops.

	Halifax		Sydney		New Glasgow and Trenton		Other localities	
	Wages per Hour	Hours per Week	Wages per Hour	Hours per Week	Wages per Hour	Hours per Week	Wages per Hour	Hours per Week
Moulders.....	\$.65-.70	44-48	\$.46-.65	48	\$.54	48	\$.45-.50	44-54
Machinists.....	.65-.70	44	.57-.65	48	.50-.54	45-48	.40-.55	44-54
Boilermakers.....	.50-.62½	44	.57-.65	48
Helpers.....	.37½-.42	44-48	.40-.45	48	.30	48	.30-.35	44-54

Logging

	Wages per Day	Hours per Week
Choppers and sawyers.....	\$1.00-1.25(a)	53-60
Teamsters.....	\$1.25(a)	53-60
River drivers.....	\$1.50-2.00(a)	70-84
Pulpwood cutters.....	\$3.00-4.00(b)

(a) with board and lodging.

(b) without board and lodging, 75 cents per day.

Current Public Affairs

INSTITUTE OF PUBLIC AFFAIRS

The Presidency of the Institute of Public Affairs which had become vacant through the death of Sir Robert Borden has been filled. Sir Lyman Poore Duff, Chief Justice of Canada has agreed to accept the office. Sir Lyman has already a link with Dalhousie by holding the honorary degree of Doctor of Law conferred upon him in 1936 at a Special Convocation held during the Convention of the Canadian Bar Association in Halifax.

AVIATION IN NOVA SCOTIA

Ten years ago aviation as it affects our youth became a live subject of discussion in Halifax. Spectacular flights had been made, aeroplanes were becoming more efficient, they also became less expensive in cost and upkeep. Still, learning to fly was an expensive process and clubs were formed to foster amateur flying and make it less expensive to the candidate.

In Canada the Government which had an efficient Civil Aviation Department that had for all the post war years made slow, methodical and quiet progress, decided to support any clubs that might be started under certain conditions, by supplying two aeroplanes and later supplied one machine for every machine purchased by such clubs themselves.

Thanks to assistance from Mr. J. A. Wilson, Director of Civil Aviation, Major J. H. Tudhope and Major General Sir James MacBrien, Halifax was one of the first cities to start an Aero Club and obtained the first machines, two Moth seaplanes in July 1927. The first President of the Halifax Aero Club was Mr. R. J. R. Nelson, succeeded recently by Mr. G. R. Harrison, and the Club Instructor was Professor J. H. Reid of the Nova Scotia Technical College who was an Instructor in the war years. Mr. D. W. Saunders succeeded him a short time after and continued as the Aero Club Instructor up to this year.

The successful operation of the Aero Club led to great interest in the question of an Airport for Halifax, and fortunately we were able to secure our present Airport at a most favourable time. This Airport has kept Halifax on the air map ever since and situated as it is only about ten minutes from the Post Office, is an ideal location for a municipal airport.

When compared with location of airports in other cities it is readily seen what an advantage we hold in this respect.

Since those days great developments have occurred in aviation, aeroplanes are more efficient,

speedier, more comfortable, blind flying is general and not the exception, and we are on the eve of greater developments still.

A trans Canada Air Route is practically organized with emergency fields constructed at suitable intermediate points. A trans Atlantic air service by aeroplanes is shortly to go into operation and no one can say what the future will bring.

Halifax is fortunate and Nova Scotia is fortunate in having two centres well organised—Sydney and Halifax, both important ports for trans Atlantic and trans Canada air routes.

Sydney formed its Aero Club some time later than Halifax but has had a successful Club for some years, not as large as Halifax but nevertheless a good supporter of aviation in Nova Scotia.

The greater development of the air force in Halifax of recent years has also added to our air mindedness, and the air service between Saint John and Halifax has made a good start in inter-city air traffic.

The Canadian Flying Clubs Association, with their great Pageant in 1931 and the meets that have been held since then, has done much to promote interest in flying, and the model aeroplane Clubs supported by the Association, have given our boys just the encouragement they needed to acquire knowledge by making scale models of all kinds of planes and learning to fly them.

W. E. TIBBS.

RURAL ELECTRIFICATION

During the past year the Nova Scotia Light and Power Company, Limited, largely through its subsidiary companies, has built and put into operation more than 100 miles of rural distribution line, to serve some 600 farms and rural homes. This achievement was made possible by three influencing factors; first, the development of a new design for low cost distribution lines; second, amendments to existing rate schedule and third, by government aid through the passage of the Rural Electrification Act of 1937.

With the co-operation of manufacturers, new materials and equipment were designed that permitted the erection of distribution lines employing higher voltages than had been used in the past, at materially reduced capital costs. Outstanding among these was the high strength conductor now standard for rural lines. Its use allows pole spacings roughly double those formerly used with a consequent large saving in poles, crossarms and hardware. The second major development affecting the design of rural lines was the so-called rural transformer

having a capacity small enough for the demands of individual customers. Its use has eliminated the necessity of erecting secondary distribution wires, operated at house service voltage, from the larger transformers formerly used.

Existing rates were amended by the addition of a schedule of variable monthly minimum bills applicable to new territories, the amount of which, for any one district is determined by the number of customers per mile of extension. The effect of this schedule is to return to the Company sufficient revenue from any extension to carry that extension and thereby to assure its present customers that its rural extension program will not have the effect of postponing any possible rate reduction.

This schedule is applicable to extensions having as few as five customers per mile, and at this point the Rural Electrification Act becomes operative. The Act empowers the Governor-in-Council to contract with any Public Utility or municipality, to subsidize a rural extension into any district having potential customers to average six per mile, if a minimum of three per mile contract for service on the completion of the extension. The individual contracting customers are required to guarantee only the same revenue as an individual taking service from an extension having five customers per mile, the government subsidy making up the difference. This Act has paved the way for extensions into sparsely settled districts, that otherwise could not be served except at costs prohibitive to the average rural home in Nova Scotia.

R. M. BARTEAUX, B.Sc., A.M.E.I.C.

NEW BRUNSWICK GOVERNMENT ACHIEVES A BUDGET SURPLUS

AFTER a series of deficits, the Province of New Brunswick closes its fiscal year, ended October 31st last, with its first surplus since 1929. Instead of an estimated deficit of \$293,729 including supplementary estimates, in the 1937 budget, the Government has realised a surplus of \$29,090 of ordinary receipts over ordinary expenditures, an improvement of \$322,819 over the estimate, it was disclosed in the audit report of P. S. Ross & Sons, published in a special issue of the Royal Gazette, January 11.

This surplus has been achieved after the Government had set aside from the ordinary revenue the sum of \$315,593 to be applied toward reduction of public debt.

The Government had estimated an increase in revenue of approximately \$600,000 in 1937 over 1936, but this estimate has been exceeded by \$389,128. This was not accidental nor was it due to new taxation. It was caused by systematic collection of revenues legitimately due to the Province. The Provincial income has further been stimulated

by increased forest operation encouraged by the Government, and though the agency of heavier automobile traffic due to the hard surfacing of the main highways. This surplus it is stated by the Premier of New Brunswick, Mr. Dysart, has not been brought about at the expense of curtailed services. "On the contrary", to quote the Premier, "during the last two years we have improved efficiency and substantially enlarged the field of public service. We have provided old age pensions which alone cost the Province more than a half million dollars per year. We have restored free school books. We have increased assistance to vocational schools. We have started to bring our educational system to a standard of modern requirements and we have launched seriously into the field of adult learning. We have established a new Department to administer federal and municipal relations. We have set up a fair wage board. We have vastly extended services in the field of agriculture. We have sought independently and successfully to promote new markets for the products of this province. In the matter of public health and various other departments of government service we have likewise improved and extended facilities to serve the best interests of the people."

MERIT SYSTEM FOR FORESTRY SERVICE IN NEW BRUNSWICK

Establishment of a merit system for the appointment of forest rangers, fire wardens and other personnel, so that the efficiency of organized forest fire protection in the Maritime Provinces might be increased, was recommended at Fredericton, December 11 at the first annual meeting of the Maritime section of the Canadian Society of Forest Engineers. The recommendation was included in a report of the committee on forest fire protection, which was adopted by the organization.

Under the terms of the proposed system, which will be presented to governmental authorities for their consideration, examinations would be set for qualification for the appointments. No appointment of a forest ranger would be made to the service unless the ranger first passed forest ranger examinations that were required when the New Brunswick forest service staff was organized in 1918. Since that time, it was pointed out, the requirements had been allowed to lapse, and rangers had been required only to hold scaler's licenses. From *Fundy Fisherman*, Dec. 15, 1937.

MODEL BUILDING CODE PLANNED BY RESEARCH COUNCIL

The National Research Council announced from Ottawa that it had approved the preparation of a model building code for Canada and had formed an administrative committee to supervise the work.

The code will be designed to serve as a model for municipalities wishing to enact building by-laws but lacking the money to conduct investigations themselves which would guide them in such work.

The council said that "by enlisting the cooperation of outstanding authorities in the field of building construction throughout the country, it is expected that the code when completed will be a major contribution to the improvement of the standard of all types of buildings in Canada."

The organization being established is under honorary chairmanship of Finance Minister Dunning and active chairmanship of Major-General A. G. L. McNaughton, president of the council. A. F. Gill, of the council's research information division is general secretary.

Three central committees will be formed to deal with main phases of the work, covering construction, fire protection and requirements bearing on health and sanitation. All construction interests and manufacturers of building materials and supplies will have an opportunity of presenting their views.

So that findings of the committee may be scrutinized by all authorities interested, an advisory committee will be established. It will consist

of federal, provincial and municipal authorities, professional associations and industrial or trade associations organised on a national basis.

From *The Municipal Review of Canada*, January 1938.

THE JOURNAL "PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION".

By an arrangement made with the Institute of Public Administration in London, England the quarterly journal *Public Administration* issued by the Institute may be obtained by governmental and municipal officers and officials in the Maritimes at the reduced price of \$2.50 a year, the regular price being \$4.00. The journal which has among its editors and contributors many distinguished British public servants and university teachers, contains articles and notes on all phases of Public Administration in Great Britain. It also gives attention to the developments in the Dominions. Of particular value are its book reviews informing the reader about all important new publications in the field.

Subscriptions at the reduced rate may be obtained through the Institute of Public Affairs at Dalhousie University, Halifax, N. S.

What Municipalities are Doing

Contributions from Municipalities to this Column will be most Welcome

Recommendations of the Union of Nova Scotia Municipalities to the Rowell Commission

Municipalities are a creation of the provinces. They are entrusted by the provinces with important tasks and have been endowed with certain sources of income to perform them, but the provinces could give them only so much as the division of financial powers between the Dominion and the provinces would allow. If, therefore, this system should have become inadequate to cope with the needs of modern government, this will, to a certain extent, also be reflected in municipal finance and in the way the municipalities perform their functions.

That is why the Rowell Commission, set up to examine Dominion-Provincial relations, has given in all its hearings throughout Canada considerable attention to municipal problems. For the same reason the Union of Nova Scotia Municipalities at its last annual convention decided to submit to the Commission a brief containing propositions of the municipalities for an improvement of their conditions. At the same time the Union enlisted the cooperation of the Institute of Public Affairs at Dalhousie University for preparation of a memorandum on municipal government in Nova Scotia that was submitted to the Royal Commission by the Union, together with its brief. The memorandum was based on new hitherto unpublished statistics obtained through a survey of representative municipalities in the province.

The brief and the memorandum were presented to the Royal Commission at its hearing in Halifax February 8th, by the President of the Union, Mr. A. H. Sperry and Mr. R. M. Fielding. They submitted on behalf of the Union the following suggestions:

- I. That arrangements should be made between the Dominion and Provinces which will make it possible to:
 1. Relieve municipalities from their responsibilities for:
 - (a) administration of justice.
 - (b) public health.
 - (c) care for harmless insane.
 - (d) unemployment relief.
 - (e) vocational education.
 2. To provide for or to increase provincial grants to the municipalities for:
 - (a) general education.
 - (b) poor relief.
 - (c) hospitalization of indigents.

- II. The Employment Service of Canada should be strengthened so that it might efficiently cooperate in bringing unemployed back to work.

- III. Federal funds should be provided for low rent housing.

- IV. Tax exemption enjoyed by the Canadian National Railways should be repealed or grants given in lieu of railway taxation.

From the memorandum accompanying the brief it can be seen by which considerations the Union had been guided in making its recommendations. In its introduction it is stated that for a good many years municipalities have been accused of overburdening the ratepayer and of accumulating steadily increasing debt. On the other hand it has been claimed that many municipalities do not make the necessary provisions for the poorer classes of the population and that educational health and other municipal services in many parts of the province are inadequate and inferior to those offered by municipalities in central and western Canada. Representatives of municipalities have admitted that some of these criticisms are not unjustified. They have, however, pointed out that the revenues at the disposal of the municipalities have, for quite a while, been out of proportion to the tasks with which the municipalities are charged. They contend that the disparity results in an overburdening of real estate with taxes without, however, raising adequate revenue to enable the municipalities to discharge their functions properly. The memorandum carefully examines the facts underlying that controversy.

The memorandum contains in its first part a statement on the legal basis of municipal government in Nova Scotia. It is followed by a chapter explaining the way in which municipal responsibilities are discharged. Finally the financial situation of the municipalities is briefly reviewed, especially as it has developed during the last few years.

The legal part discusses the responsibilities of the municipalities and of the four local authorities of the Overseers of the Poor, school trustees, local boards of health, and local boards of firewards. It describes at some length the situation in rural municipalities and later discusses the differences existing in towns and cities.

The second part is concerned with some municipal activities which have been the subject of public criticism and are believed to stand in need of reform, namely, justice, health and other social services and education.

It is pointed out that in the opinion of the mun-

icipalities the administration of justice should be a provincial rather than a municipal responsibility, especially in view of the fact that the province collects all the fees. In particular there is one function in this field that the municipalities have found difficult to perform—the administration of jails. Here reference is made to the unpleasant conditions in various jails revealed by the Report of the Royal Commission on Jails. Since its publication in 1931 no noticeable improvement has taken place, nor may it be expected as long as the county jails are not replaced by a central provincial institution as recommended by the Royal Commission.

Discussing health services the heavy burden is shown imposed upon municipalities by the hospitalization of the indigent poor.

In 1922 the Town of Amherst spent \$797 on this item but in 1936 the amount was \$2,825, almost four times as great. The expenditure of the City of Halifax increased from \$17,000 to \$43,000, Dartmouth's from \$1,446 to \$4,689 in the same period. The Town of Glace Bay which, in 1922, spent the almost negligible sum of \$19 had in 1936 to shoulder a burden of \$12,201. (The increase is due largely to the number of tuberculosis patients supported by the Town.) Yarmouth's expenditure in the same period increased from nothing to \$1,664, Guysboro County's from \$362 to \$7,666, Lunenburg County's from \$5,012 to \$9,027. Twelve municipalities whose budgets were surveyed, spent \$25,237 on hospitalization in 1922—in 1936 the same municipalities required \$96,069, or nearly four times as much to meet their liabilities.

Attention is then drawn to the homes for the mentally defective. Nova Scotia is among the provinces who still cling to the county method of caring for the harmless insane. After a discussion of the practice prevailing in the municipalities and the cooperation between them and the Nova Scotia Hospital in Dartmouth, the difficulties are explained which face the municipalities, especially the smaller and poorer ones. They find it almost impossible to provide for the necessary facilities or to hire trained attendants to look after the insane. Furthermore the combination of poorhouse and asylum is in itself undesirable and though as a rule special departments have been established for the two groups of inmates, the separation is not in practice a very complete one. It therefore seems rather doubtful whether the municipalities with their comparatively small area and limited sources of income are the proper bodies to care for the insane. The solution of the problem calls for a change to a system of fewer and more efficient institutions, supported by a larger unit than the municipality.

There is also room for improvement in other health services. In the majority of the municipalities, especially in the rural areas, there does

not exist any pre-natal care, no baby or child public health clinic. Nor have municipalities, with one exception, been able to supplement the twelve public health nurses appointed and paid by the Provincial Government. The important tasks entrusted to the municipalities by the Provincial Health Act have hardly anywhere been carried out, nor have the local health boards displayed much activity except in the case of contagious diseases. The municipalities fully realise the value of and the need for increased health services but have hitherto not been able to afford them.

Just as hospitalization of the indigents is the largest item among municipal health services, so poor relief is the most expensive among the other social services of the municipalities. Its cost has increased steadily during the last few years, in the towns and rural municipalities which were covered by the survey, by not less than fifty per cent. This increase took place in spite of the introduction of old age pensions in 1934. That does not mean that old age pensions have not been a great help to the municipalities. Indeed there has hardly been in recent times any piece of social legislation that has proved equally successful, but owing to the depression, the need for help among large groups of people never assisted before became so great that savings due to the payment of old age pensions were more than offset by these new demands on the resources of the poor districts.

In that connection the fatal effects are shown which unemployment relief had on municipal finances during the depression. In 1931 the municipalities spent about \$90,000 for this item. In 1933 it had become about \$645,000. In Sydney Mines the relief expenditure was in 1931, \$3.50 per head and it represented 21% of the total. In 1934 it had risen to \$4.20 per head and was 17% of the total. When the other poverty charges are added to that of direct relief, it is easily seen why the municipalities have had to borrow heavily to meet the costs of their increasing responsibilities in the field of social welfare.

According to the experience gained in the province it seems rather doubtful whether the municipalities are the suitable authorities to take care of the unemployed. They can do very little to bring men back to work or to improve their employability since they have no employment exchanges and, with few exceptions, no public works. They are even handicapped in granting relief by lack of trained social workers.

Introduction of unemployment insurance, welcome as it is, will not solve these problems. For there will always be in the province a large group of workers who, on account of protracted unemployment or belonging to the groups which will be exempted from an insurance scheme—fishermen, sailors, waterfront workers, agricultural labourers—will not be entitled to insurance benefits. Some

form of public assistance will therefore be needed for them. To judge from the experience of the past, the municipalities do not seem fit to organise such a system. It may be more advisable to entrust that task to the governmental agencies which will be responsible for labour exchanges and unemployment insurance.

The section of the memorandum dealing with Education gives an interesting account of the development of schools and school expenditure during the last fifty years, but space does not allow it to be repeated. It is stated that in spite of increased provincial contributions the municipalities have to shoulder steadily increasing burdens which many of them have found unbearable. Out of \$100 spent for education within the school districts in 1936, \$81.50 had to be levied by local taxation.

Education it is stated in the last part of the memorandum dealing with municipal finance, is chiefly responsible for the increase of municipal expenditure in rural areas, while in the case of towns and cities, poor relief and debt charges are factors of equal importance. The total expenditure of Nova Scotia Municipalities in 1936 was \$13,384,385, as compared with \$10,294,304 in 1925.

The bulk of this burden falls upon the general property tax. In 1936 the proceeds of this tax were approximately \$6,675,000 out of a total municipal income, apart, from borrowing, of \$11,025,000. According to the law both real and personal property are liable to the tax, but in fact, of the total assessed value of \$160,597,962 in 1936, \$137,176,180 consisted of real and \$23,521,752 of personal property. This can scarcely correspond to the proportion between the value of real and personal property in the Province, but is due largely to the fact that real and personal property in the Province, but is due largely to the fact that real property cannot be concealed, whereas intangibles can. The general property tax tends, therefore, to be a tax principally on real property. In addition to this, the property tax is open to the same objection as the poll tax, that it does not distribute the tax burden equitably over the community. For example, it does not take account of incomes derived from the sale of services which do not involve the ownership of much property.

The difficulty experienced by the municipalities of Nova Scotia in providing for an increasing expenditure out of the resources of the poll tax and the general property tax, is revealed by the increase of tax arrears and the growth of municipal debt. Tax arrears which between 1925 and 1930 had been reduced from 4.7 millions to 2.6 millions, had risen again in 1936 to 4.9 millions. The municipal debt increased in the same period from \$29,230,253 to \$36,968,655. But compared with other provinces the amount of borrowing by Nova Scotia municipalities has been on a relatively small scale and there has been no default on their loans. This

creditable record is not due, however, to any affluence which they enjoy but to the fact that they have restricted their services to a very meagre scale, and below what it is in the public interest should be provided.

The question of tax exemption enjoyed by government and railway property is only briefly touched upon in the memorandum, since it was the subject of a special comprehensive brief submitted to the Commission by the City of Halifax. In a later issue of PUBLIC AFFAIRS the contents of this brief will be outlined.

NEW GLASGOW

At the beginning of the year the Council reduced the rate by fifteen points. In spite of that the tax collections show approximately \$5,000 increase over last year.

The poll tax this year reached a figure in excess of \$4,000, an amount larger than in any one previous year. Water tax collections were higher, as many back rates were paid in 1937.

The street work was carried on very carefully. Just recently one and a half miles of hard surfacing on the Antigonish and Halifax approaches to New Glasgow have been completed on a fifty-fifty basis with the Provincial Government. Although the expenditure was high, the amount of gravel and salt placed on the roads was such an improvement that the large appropriation was justified.

The police due to the heavier traffic problems added an extra officer to the force. This made possible a better collection of dog tax, poll tax, etc.

Expenditures on behalf of the poor and the unemployed were heavy. Direct relief in the town has ceased and assistance was given by the Committee on Poor only to those too old to get employment or unable to work on account of illness.

NEW WATERFORD

With the beginning of the civic year the total assessment for the town of New Waterford was approximately one and three quarter millions of dollars. There have been no extensions in water or sewerage. Both utilities are owned by the Eastern Light and Power Company.

The town is in the enviable position that while actual expenditures have fallen below estimates, actual revenue has exceeded estimates. Debentures outstanding amount to \$470,000; an addition of \$15,837.50 to the sinking fund has brought the fund up to \$65,202.45. As the interest rates of the securities owned by the sinking fund have declined, the town had to increase its annual sinking fund instalments.

Salaries and wages during the depression had been cut. Those under the employ of the town as teachers lost 5%, while those employees as a town staff received two cuts amounting to a total of

20% of the original salary. These cuts have been partially restored, the town staff receiving an increase of 5% and the teachers 2%.

The receipts and disbursements of the Direct Unemployment Relief Commission amounted to more than \$35,000. Approximately \$25,000 has been received from the provincial government for this purpose.

GLACE BAY

While the official census shows that the town of Glace Bay has a population of slightly over 20,000, the actual population is nearer 30,000. Prior to the depression years the young people had left for New England and the West, with the hope of finding better jobs. Since 1929 many have returned, and added to the natural increase, afford the basis of the unofficial estimate mentioned.

The problem of the town has been to absorb these prodigals (average age about 21 years) in different jobs. On the suggestion of Dr. Sexton of Halifax, the Town Council, under his supervision, made a preliminary survey among 100 young men in order to test their fitness for an apprenticeship. Jobs were offered at the mines on the surface and ranging from electrical engineering to carpentry. The plan met with great interest and the majority of the young men concerned applied for participation in the courses. The costs of this plan are to be borne by the Federal, provincial and municipal governments. The first experiments are to be begun in the spring of 1938.

Since 1930, when relief was first given out, the expenditures for relief have approximated nearly half a million dollars. Last year's relief work in round figures amounted to \$40,000, with a weekly cost of about \$800. The amounts vary each week, with an increase during the Christmas period of 25%. The recipients of relief have to work for all the relief they receive. It is through these workers that the town of Glace Bay has been able to carry on its projects of sewerage and water extensions. Sanitary conditions have been improved as a direct result of the judicious administration of relief.

MUNICIPALITY OF RESTIGOUCHE COUNTY, DALHOUSIE, N. B.

The financial position of the Municipality has considerably improved during the last few years. Old debts have been wiped out. The bank loan has been reduced from \$50,000 to \$25,000. The current liabilities are punctually met and payments made into the sinking fund. The whole bonded debt of the municipality amounts to \$140,000 maturing between ten and twenty years.

Collections of taxes in 1937 were \$3,000 more than in 1936 and the expenses actually paid were less by \$5,700 than in the previous year.

Among the expenses—next to education which cost the municipality \$18,000—social services were the greatest items. \$12,400 was spent for poor relief, \$6,200 for direct relief, \$13,500 for hospitals and homes and \$6,800 for other grants for purposes of public health.

Decisions of the Law Courts

Under this Heading Decisions of Particular Public Interest will be Quoted
or Discussed by a Competent Authority.

Council Vacancies.

Newspapers contained an item that in the recent municipal elections no candidate for the office of mayor of a Nova Scotia town was nominated. What was then the situation? On reference to the Town's Incorporation Act, Section 49 as amended, it appears that a Mayor holds office "for two years *and* until his successor is sworn into office". Similar provision is made for Town Councillors. Sections 8 and 10 of the Halifax City Charter make similar provision in the case of its Mayor and Aldermen. What happens if no candidate is nominated to a municipal council seat? The Municipal Act has no such section.

Section 74(2) of the Municipal Act reads:—
"Subject to the provisions of this chapter the warden and councillors shall serve until the first meeting of the Council after the general election of councillors succeeding the election at which such warden and councillors were elected."

Two questions arise:—

1st. Does Section 16 apply? That section says that "if at the time at which an election for councillor should be held in any polling district no such election is held, the Governor-in-Council may fix a day for nomination of candidates and a day two weeks later for taking the poll" etc. Can it be said that no election has been held when a Presiding Officer has been appointed and has given notice of

election and has sat to receive nominations although none were filed? It is submitted that such is not the case and Section 16 has no application.

2nd. Is there any vacancy until the first meeting of Council so that the warden or clerk can call an election as provided in Section 14 to fill vacancies? It is submitted that no action can be taken until the first meeting of council. Should not the Municipal Act be amended to conform to the Towns' Incorporation Act in regard to tenure of office of councillors?

Peddler's Licenses.

In a Quebec case recently reported (Montreal vs. Brisette 63, Que K.B. 32) a peddler who owned two vehicles and was obliged to take out two licenses sued the city for return of one fee. The action was dismissed. The by-law provided that a license plate should be exhibited on the vehicle. While this was referred to in the judgment the principle of the decision went further and said that the license was required of anyone in whose possession the goods were for sale. No one can take out a license and send someone else to peddle on his license. There is an increased fee payable if there is an assistant but that means one accompanying the licensee.

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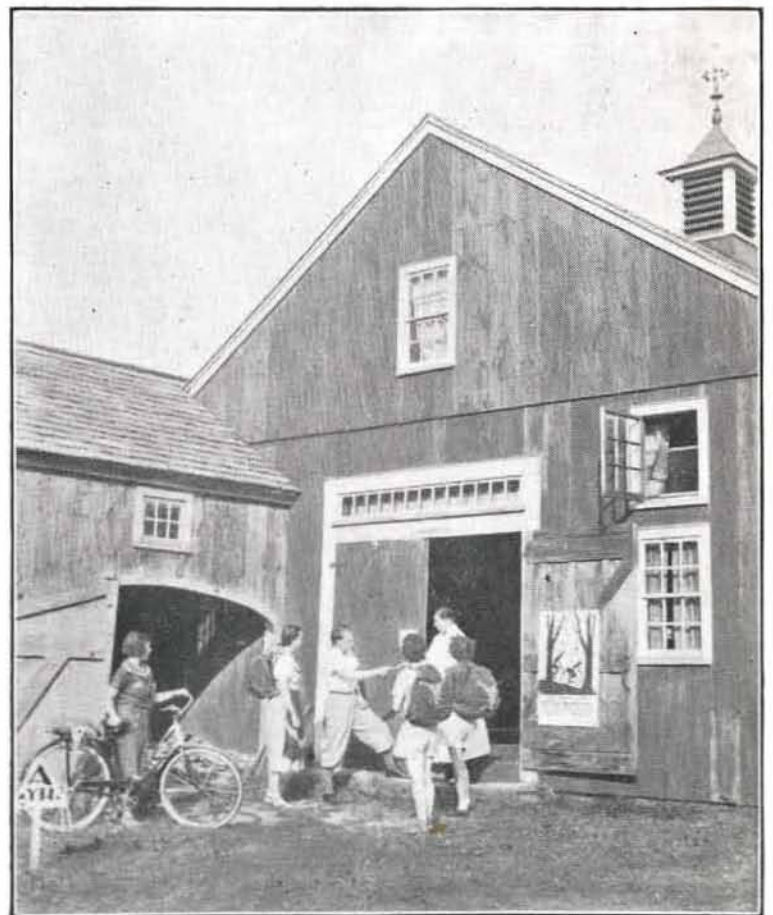
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A Plea for Youth Hostels for N. S.
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ARRIVING AT THE YOUTH HOSTEL

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YOUTH HOSTELS

Two Contributions to an Important Problem

I.—Opening the World to Youth

By DOROTHY M. ALLEN

In this day and age of social and economic insecurity, war scares, political strife, religious difficulties, it is so easy for us to dwell on these disturbing forces and forget those elements that are a power in building a happier world. Youth hosteling is one of these.

What could better establish a happy state of mind than to pack a light knapsack, and in rough hiking clothes, to start off on the youth hostel trail; meeting other hikers and bikers; enjoying the enchantment of the out-of-doors; stopping at a hostel in the evening 10 or 15 miles away; preparing supper in light-hearted camaraderie and with many an exchange of stories of the day's experiences; singing and folk dancing; and then to bed, or rather to "bunk", where a healthy weariness brings dreamless sleep.

Youth Hostels are inexpensive lodges where those who are travelling by foot, bike, canoe, horseback, ski (in other words in any way as long as it is under their own steam) may stay overnight for 25c. There is adequate supervision with a housefather and housemother in charge. The hostel has separate sleeping quarters, washing and toilet facilities, for boys and girls and is usually equipped with double decker wooden bunks, straw mattresses and blankets. There is a common kitchen where the hostellers can prepare their own meals and a common recreation room where they gather for an evening of song, folk dancing and gay chatter. The houseparents greet the hosteler who presents his Pass (a membership card which costs \$2.00 a year for those over 21 and \$1.00 for those under 21) and

registers in the hostel book. Hostellers respect the hostel customs formed by the youth themselves and uniform in all hostels of the world. These are based on the needs of hostel living and consideration of the group. A spartan regime of self service, early bed hours, an early start, simple food, and no smoking and drinking, is essential for a full enjoyment of hosteling.

The idea of youth hosteling is not new. It dates back to the time of the cave man, who felt the urge to see what was beyond his front door. That spirit of adventure has prevailed down through centuries and today we still have young people and old, keen for adventure, wondering what is over the hill.

The need for youth hosteling has been felt through many generations and has come mainly from this urge to get out and see the world, or "wanderlust" as the German language expresses it, and from the need for a healthy, natural outdoor exercise which will bring one "back to nature." People have written about it, talked about it and even tried it themselves, but until 1910 no one was able to extend the benefits of such a life widely to other people. In that year Richard Shirmann, a school teacher, in Altena, Germany, originated the youth hostel idea and proved that it is possible in a very simple way to enjoy the advantages of travel and to gain the benefits of rugged living in the out-of-doors.

Richard Shirmann was so interested in the boys whom he taught that he wanted to get them away from the four walls and paved streets of the cities, into the open air, where exercise in the sun and wind gave them healthy bodies and where their lessons, interpreted through their trips, became much more

EDITOR'S NOTE: Miss Dorothy M. Allen is National Secretary of the newly formed Canadian Youth Hostels Association. The headquarters of the Association are at 59 Victoria Street, Toronto, Ont., and further information may be obtained by writing to Miss Allen at that address.

interesting and more vital. Soon the teacher longed to extend the trips, but he needed economical stopping places where they could spend the night, where blankets would be provided and cooking facilities available. At first he used his school house attic for a starting point, but outgrowing that, was able to obtain the use of the Castle in Altena. This Castle became the first youth hostel and Richard Shirmann and his wife the first housefather and housemother. Since then there have been registered in Castle Altena over a million overnights, represented by all nationalities from all over the world. His idea spread over Germany and, according to his plan, hostels were set up about 15 miles apart in chains and loops. Finally, he was able to interest the Government in the idea and it became a part of the school curriculum for all boys and girls to go youth hosteling with their teachers for one day each month and for three weeks at the end of their High School course.

After the war, France, Belgium, Holland, Norway, England and other countries caught the spirit of youth hosteling, and today there are 4500 youth hostels in 20 countries of the world, with a yearly overnight registration of 8 million. In many of the European countries the heads of the Governments endorse youth hosteling and, as in Germany, require that boys and girls youth hostel as part of their school program.

An International Youth Hostels Conference is held each year in one of the countries where youth hostels exist, and delegates, who are usually leading educators, come from the different countries to discuss youth hostel problems and ways and means of facilitating travel for young people from one country to another, and to develop uniformly advantageous ideas. Suggestions for hostels, equipment, publications are exchanged. The Conference decides upon one international stamp so that house-parents in all youth hostel countries, although they cannot read the language, will recognize the youth hostel pass.

Hosteling came to the United States in 1933 when a young married couple

Isabel and Monroe Smith were invited to attend the International Conference in Germany, after having biked through the European countries, visited many youth hostels and with many of the youth hostel leaders. They returned to America with just one thought in mind, that of establishing hostels in America. They saw the plan for hostels not as another organization in competition with already existing organizations, but rather as a facility for the use and benefit of all organizations, so that thousands of American young people who had previously known only a confined city life could experience at first hand the beauties and healing benefits of nature. The first hostel was opened in Northfield in 1934 and at the end of the fiscal year, October, 1937, there was a membership of 7166, overnight registration of 15,181 and 110 hostels. Hostels already established include a loop of over 70 in the New England States as well as smaller loops in California, Pennsylvania, Michigan and New York. Graduates of the National Training Course, held at National Headquarters in Northfield once a year, are in the field now extending those loops as well as setting up new loops in some of the other States—Washington, Colorado, New Jersey, Wisconsin, Illinois. The country is divided into 8 regions and the Field Worker in each one spreads the idea of hosteling by speaking and showing hostel movies to school and college groups, service and church clubs; and by setting up loops with hostels 15 miles apart.

Last summer an experiment was successfully tried of linking the East and West by a Rolling Youth Hostel—a hostel on wheels in the form of a pullman car fitted with separate sleeping quarters and a common kitchen—which was sidetracked at interesting places to enable the hostellers to travel by bike. Their bikes accompanied them in the baggage car free of charge. Their itinerary took them from Northfield to Montreal, across Canada to Calgary and Vancouver, down into California and back across the United States through Colorado, New Mexico, etc. They traveled about 9,000 miles

by train and 1,000 by bike, visiting the hostels in California and Michigan and the Canadian hostels in Calgary.

Another project of the American Youth Hostels is hosteling in Europe. Sponsored groups are limited to 10 people in each, and under competent leadership travel every summer through European countries. It is also possible to hostel on one's own, simply procuring a pass and general advice from National Headquarters. Last year 1901 Americans hosted in Europe, 250 under AYH sponsorship.

Youth hosteling came to Canada in 1933 when a small group of persons in Calgary, Alberta, began to study what was being done in the way of exchange students throughout the world. This investigation was prompted by the project of a local travel company to carry out a trip for high school students to Europe at greatly reduced rates, and the research led to interesting discoveries concerning the activities of School Journeys in England, Youth Hostels all over Europe, the Experiment in International Living started in a New England University, the practice of exchanging students between British and German schools, and also brought to light information about travel scholarships offered by different organizations in America and in Europe. This led to a desire to have youth hostels in Alberta and the first was opened at a little summer resort in the foothills of the Rocky Mountains about 30 miles from Calgary. However, there was no financial backing save the very small surplus from limited private incomes and the West was not hiking minded—the distances are great and the population small. The group persisted in their efforts and in spite of much opposition and hardship were finally able to establish a chain of 10 hostels through the foothills and into the mountains to Banff, the well known Rocky Mountain resort. The trails are as yet too rough for cycles and it is necessary to hostel on foot or on horseback. The hostels are varied and include log cabins on farms and ranches, an Indian school, Indian teepees, private homes and the Y.W.C.A. at Banff.

The management of the association is in the hands of an Executive Committee at Calgary. At its first annual banquet held in March, 1937, Mr. Monroe Smith, National Director of the American Youth Hostels was present and showed movies and told of hosteling in the United States and Europe. At his suggestion, it was arranged that the AYH would help the Canadian Youth Hostels Association to ensure close and friendly development across Canada by establishing a temporary National office at the AYH headquarters with a representative from Canada to study youth hosteling and the National office set-up. One of the members of the Executive Committee in Calgary came to Northfield in May, 1937 and now, in April, 1938, after a very interesting and instructive year including two months of hosteling in Europe, is ready to return and develop the work in Canada. She plans a demonstration loop near Niagara Falls in Ontario which next year will be linked up with the AYH chains when hostels are established in northern New York State. Hostels in Quebec will be linked with the New England loop in Vermont and New Hampshire. On the West Coast, negotiations are already under way for a loop connecting by boat, Port Angeles and Anacortes in Washington with Victoria and Sidney on Vancouver Island. This will no doubt be the first Canadian-American link. When hostels are established in Montana, they will go through Glacier Park, over the Border to Waterton Lakes and through the Foothills of the Canadian Rockies to join the already established chain of 12 hostels from Calgary to Banff, then on up to Jasper Park in the north.

The Canadian Youth Hostels Association now has a Federal charter and is prepared to extend activities across the Dominion. They were admitted to membership in the International Youth Hostels Association as the twentieth member at its Conference in Paris last fall, so that members of the CYH on presentation of their membership card may stay at any of the 4500 youth hostels throughout the world.

Youth hostelting is a healthy way of living. Youngsters who have spent all their lives in the city learn what it really is to be healthy after a summer of living on simple food, regular sleep and plenty of fresh air and outdoor exercise. They also learn how to live economically on a very small allowance—\$1 a day is the youth hostel budget. They learn to live cooperatively through their association with other people in the group and in their contact with other hostelers and the houseparents. There are many stories of how hostelers and houseparents have been mutually benefited.

Youth hostelting teaches the city boy to appreciate the fact that all he has comes from the country. He sees the grain fields and the animals in the pastures

and traces their products to his food and clothing. In the same way, the country lad has an opportunity to visit the city to see art and hear good plays and music.

Youth hostelting has spread very rapidly over the United States. Why should it not do likewise in Canada? It has had a start in the West, but conditions are not as favorable there as they are in the East where there are wonderful possibilities and a real need for youth hostelting. Why should Canadian boys and girls not have the same opportunity as the American boys and girls to get out and see their own country and to broaden their outlook so that they may become better citizens of their own country and of the world?

II.—A Plea for Youth Hostels for Nova Scotia

By IAN F. MACKINNON

"COME on, boys, and pitch off a load while you're resting"—was the encouraging cry of an enthusiastic Musquodoboit farmer of the old school, so it is said, when his summer group of amateur hay-makers from the city stood perspiring by the side of the lofty hay wain they had brought in to the barn from the fields.

Can Nova Scotians of to-day respond to the challenge of a holiday programme of real vigour? With such strenuous recreation as the hay-field, many a now successful Nova Scotian in other parts of the Dominion has formerly employed his holiday time; and the question now is raised for us, would the programme which the Youth Hostel Movement is designed to serve—a programme which calls young folk out of the automobile and the lounge, and away from the street corner and the pool-room—appeal to young Nova Scotians of the present decade? In this degenerate day of "knee-action" cars, power-boats and com-

fortable modern hotels, are there stalwarts willing to shoulder their packs or mount their cycles, and set out to see our province as it can only really be seen, on foot? And could suitable accommodation, clean and inexpensive, be assured them in lodges established along the bracing shores of our province or among its upland farm homes? These are some of the points that seem to be involved in projecting a Youth Hostel Movement for Nova Scotia.

Hiking, cycling, skiing the soft red sand or clay roads winding among the elms of the upper Stewiacke valley or of the East River St. Marys', in this rich month of June, leading off at either side into shady wood paths; the wide expanse of crescent shaped white sands above many a beach on which the blue seas break in August, sands that are bounded farther away by head lands sometimes capped with grey sea-mist; the hard-woods of the Cobequid hills or of the Cape Breton highlands in September; and the same landscape later in the year buried deep in snow and

sparkling in the winter sunshine or under a full moon;—the mind needs merely to pass in review these familiar scenes, in the sequence of the seasons, to realize how perfectly our province is adapted for a scheme of this kind.

Apart from opportunities for physical exercise, and the enjoyment of numerous scenes of natural beauty,—scenes that differ with the different counties,—Nova Scotia offers valuable objectives to the student with a keen eye and an active mind. Places of the greatest historical interest, whose story spans three centuries, are sprinkled more thickly over our landscape and about our shores than in any other area of equal extent in Canada. It is for the wayfarer, walking over the forest ramparts of Annapolis Basin, for whom the morning sun draws aside the curtain of mist to reveal the top-sails to British warships come to demand the surrender of Port Royal; who hears, where the sheep crop the grass over the ruins of Louisbourg, in the wind and the spray from "the deep-voiced neighbouring ocean", the lament of old-time France for her fallen fortress; for whom, when journeying further northward, lonely St. Anne's discloses her far-off fortunes and the date of her earliest settlement.

To these romantic interests are to be added those of a scientific kind. Neither botany nor geology can be studied from a car. For the amateur and the experienced geologist Nova Scotia presents a greater variety of formation, from the early Paleozoic to the remnants of the last Ice Age, than any area of its size in North America. Audubon, Dawson, distinguished scientists of the last century drew their inspiration from an intimate study of our glens and streams.

Who would "take the trail" if these proposed Youth Hostels were established? Would parties be content to go off, under leadership, on tour? It is true, what we sometimes feel about ourselves. Canadians are gregarious only to a point. We prefer very often, even in our 'teens, to make our holiday expeditions singly or with one or two friends at most. Conditions that have

made Youth Hostels a necessity in overcrowded Europe, do not obtain to free and empty Canada. Would there be sufficient interest, then, to justify Youth Hostels here? Would Canadians like the idea?

An answer of a re-assuring kind to these doubts of our sociability is found in the development of Young Peoples work here in the last twenty years. Few Scout, Guide, or Church camps existed in the province in 1920; to-day, a multitude of organized groups camp together and undertake a most elaborate programme under trained leadership. The steady increase of these camps annually tells how greatly these combined holiday arrangements are enjoyed. Such organizations as these would be among the first to take advantage of the opportunity to visit parts of the country otherwise inaccessible to most of their members.

What sort of Youth Hostels would be suited to Nova Scotia? We could not expect to accommodate our young folk overnight at six cents apiece, as is done in some parts of Europe. Nor could we confidently establish in the woods a camp, such as the writer saw just the other day in the Mount Mansfield region of Vermont—stove, bunks, mattress, fuel, shining kitchen ware and camp crockery in plenty, and an invitation to make oneself at home, nailed upon the door! A start might be made with an association of existing permanent camps; for the rest, a farm-house inland; on the seacoast some fisherman's dwelling, carefully selected for position and more carefully for its occupants; in the forest, a group of log-cabins, the gift of some lumber company; or as a novelty, an attraction peculiar and suitable to Nova Scotia, anchored in the harbours a schooner,—one of the many laid up in these times,—with galley in order and bunks below, a float for swimming and diving, and perhaps a couple of small boats for those who wish to explore the coves! Possibly proposals for the coming winter season would meet with the most immediate response. North of Truro run the Cobequid hills, that lie

like a barrier across the isthmus of Nova Scotia from the Bay of Fundy to the Northumberland Straits, with summits of a thousand feet or more and a general elevation above six hundred. These hills end in Pictou County, where at Mount Dalhousie open slopes, the old pastures of abandoned farms, provide excellent ski runs. All the area is honey-combed with ancient logging trails waiting to be marked and mapped; and at the head of the valleys that lie far up among the hills are farm-homes, many available for a scheme linking them together for winter visitors. Finally, the government of the province might be expected to erect one or more hostels for summer and winter visitors in the beautiful park in Cape Breton traversed by the Cabot Trail.

Besides entertaining our own folk,

with such an enterprise in hand, we may look forward to welcoming parties of youthful visitors to our shores. When Nova Scotia is impatiently awaiting the completion of the last two links of hard surfacing, to open this holiday land to the 40,000,000 residents of the Eastern States; and when the hotel-keeper, the gas station man, guides and others are ready to pounce with none too altruistic intention upon the incoming hordes, it may be good for us to turn our attention to some way of entertaining strangers that is not primarily to make money out of them. Such generous interest will save us from becoming a race of flunkeys, and will be a valuable element in the building up of international goodwill and international peace, the supreme task of all far-sighted citizens to-day.

Health Units in British Columbia

By J. S. CULL

ALTHOUGH many evils may have been attributed to the World War, at least one great service that it accomplished was that it demonstrated that a Nation's greatest resource is its population. In the hour of need when all resources were required, we were shocked to learn that a tremendous proportion of the population were disabled, unfit, and also a liability to the Nation through causes which were absolutely preventable. This disclosure of defects that were materially hampering the advance of our civilization, of our financial returns, was a revelation of something that should be corrected, and there ensued an awakening of the public conscience. We in British Columbia were particularly fortunate in having as our Provincial Health Officer a man who was not slow to take

advantage of this change in the public mind, and who rejoiced at the educational advantage that the War had afforded of driving home the fact that co-operation of the public with the health authorities would bring about the same results in the civil population in peace times as co-operative health work had been able to effect with the various armies in the field; namely, the reduction in casualties from 95% *due to sickness* in the South African War, which lasted two years, to 5%, with ten times the number of men engaged in four years, in the World War.

It is to the broad vision and foresight of the Provincial Health Department that British Columbia owes its advanced position today in Public Health practice and administration. As a result of their forceful and continued statement that education of the public was the basis on which all Public Health work and pro-

EDITOR'S NOTE. J. S. Cull, M.D., D.P.H. of the Provincial Board of Health in Victoria, B. C. is assistant Health Officer for British Columbia.

gress must be founded, the first Public Health Nurse was appointed in 1921. The number has steadily increased until today there are over 80 Public Health Nurses employed in the Province, and we are particularly happy to be able to say that in not one instance has it been necessary to withdraw the service once it has been established in a city, town or municipality.

The Public Health Nurse provided a most important link between the School Medical Officer and the home, and the value of her work was clearly demonstrated in the results that accrued. However, it was soon realized that there was a weakness in the scheme. The nurse was not receiving the co-operation or backing that she was entitled to either from School Medical Officers or from Health Officers of the districts owing to the fact that these latter were usually part-time appointments. This was not a criticism of the Medical Officers but rather of the antiquated system. A practising physician must of necessity devote a greater part of his time to his practice in order to make a living and cannot be expected to give much time to preventive work. The next logical step was the development of a full-time health service whereby all health services in the community would be under one head whose sole interest would be the prevention of sickness and disease, and the promotion of health and happiness. This led to the formation of full-time Health Units.

The Staff of a Health Unit consists of a full-time Director, who is a physician with special training which qualifies him for Public Health work; one or more full-time trained and qualified Public Health Nurses; an office clerk; and a full or part-time Sanitary Inspector. This Staff is responsible for all the health work of the district over which they have supervision including food, milk and water control, sewage disposal, child welfare, public education, school health services, control of communicable diseases and so on, but does not carry out any curative treatment or bedside nursing.

The first Health Unit was established

in 1927 in the Municipality of Saanich which is located in the Southern portion of Vancouver Island. This is essentially a residential and farming community with a population of 15,000 and an area of 55 square miles. In this district the administration of Public Health under two separate authorities became so chaotic, the control of communicable disease so inefficient, that at times schools had to be closed on account of epidemics. Saanich was pointed out as a community where there was no health protection and as a menace to its neighbours in spreading communicable diseases. Under the influence of The Provincial Board of Health the Municipal Council and School Board agreed to unite their separate authorities under one full-time, fully trained and qualified health officer. The staff at the outset also included four Public Health Nurses.

Within a short time very tangible results began to accrue as a result of the work done by the Health Unit. The control of infection and the correction of handicapping defects resulted in raising the standard of health of the school population to such an extent that retardation began to decrease and attendance to rise. This was commented upon by the then Municipal Inspector of Schools: "While retardation had cost Saanich over \$17,000.00 in 1928, last year (1929) the cost of 'repeaters' had been cut down to \$11,000.00". In 1926-27 the average attendance of enrolled pupils was 82.9%, while in 1934-35 the average had risen to 92.9%. About 80% of the school population had been vaccinated and about 65% to 70% immunized against diphtheria, there being not a single case of diphtheria for six years, nor a case of smallpox for seven years. Mounting costs for isolation indicated a lack of control over infection and in 1926 reached the figure of \$5,500.00. A very readily appreciated indication of the efficiency of a full-time health service was shown by the immediate decline in isolation costs and in 1935 the figure had been reduced to nil, a direct monetary saving to the municipality of over \$5,000.00 apart from the saving

in life and health which is so difficult to evaluate in dollars and cents. Child welfare clinics and dental clinics are held regularly throughout the district. These are the highlights but all other phases of a generalized public health programme are adequately covered.

The Kelowna Health Unit was the second to be established and serves the City of Kelowna and the rural district surrounding the City. This location is in the Southern interior of the Province and is known as the Okanagan Valley. The staff consists of a part-time Director and two Public Health Nurses. The work is in general similar to that which has been described for Saanich. An extract taken from the Annual Report of the Provincial Board of Health for the year 1935 shows how conditions have improved: "Before the Health Unit was established many cases of typhoid fever occurred. The original number of from 30 to 40 yearly has now dropped, until in 1934-35 no cases were reported." Close supervision of all cases of communicable disease is kept by the school nurses working under the direction of the Health Officer. Immunization clinics have been held to protect the children against smallpox and diphtheria. In 1928 there were no children protected in these rural areas but in 1935, 90% of the school children were thus protected.

In 1929 the third Health Unit was established to serve the City and District of North Vancouver. Here again, as in Saanich, the Councils and School Boards of the City and surrounding Municipality agreed to merge their health services into one administration under the supervision of the Health Unit Director who was appointed Medical Officer of Health for the whole area. In addition to the Director the staff has two Public Health Nurses, an office clerk, and a part-time Sanitary Inspector. The relative freedom from communicable disease, the improvement in the health of school and pre-school children, the improved sanitation, and last but not least the whole-hearted support of the community speak well for the efficiency of this full-time health service.

In 1935, the Peace River Health Unit was established in the North Eastern section of the Province, but on an entirely different basis to the former Units. The Peace River district is essentially a frontier country, covering an area of about 5,000 square miles and with a population of about 10,000. Settlements are small and widely separated from each other. In 1934, the Department of Education instituted an experiment, unique in Canada, in which all the schools were consolidated into one school district and the entire administration of same placed under an Official Trustee. A considerable financial saving resulted and to complete the picture it was decided to establish a full-time health service. This was the first Health Unit in Canada operating under dual head of the Departments of Education and Health and is, in my opinion, without doubt the ideal system, for, after all, health and education are really inseparable—each being necessary to complete the other. A very complete health service is now available to the people of this frontier and isolated section of the Province. At present the Staff consists of a full-time Director; four full-time and three part-time nurses; there is an office clerk; and the Provincial Police co-operate with the Department as Sanitary Officers. Dental service is offered annually for all school and pre-school children; surgical attention for tonsils and adenoids; immunization against communicable disease is available for all; eye examinations and glasses are available at a low figure for children with defective eyesight; goitre prophylaxis is provided, and a host of other services too numerous to mention. Public education is carried on continually and particularly in regard to sanitation and the proper feeding of infant and pre-school children. Naturally all the people are thoroughly appreciative of such a service in a rural community.

So successful did this larger Unit of Administration prove itself in a rural community that a similar plan, together with its associated Health Unit, was started in a combined semi-urban and

rural district. This was located in the lower Fraser Valley and so was begun the Sumas-Matsqui-Abbotsford Health Unit. This follows the lines of the Peace River Unit and essentially the same services are provided and are available to the inhabitants of the community.

The dental services are made available by the employment of dentists either full-time for one or two months, or part-time throughout the school year. In view of the fact that the Health Unit staffs carry out no curative treatment, there has been nothing but co-operation between them and the practising physicians of the districts.

The International Health Division of the Rockefeller Foundation have lent financial assistance and the British Columbia Provincial Board of Health owes them a debt of gratitude for thus being enabled to develop the Public Health work of the Province and to provide health services of which these various communities may be justly proud. The Rockefeller grant is usually for a period of three years, and at the end of that time the community, together with grants from the Department of Education and the Provincial Board of Health carry on the expense of the service.

No article of this nature would be complete without a brief mention of another experiment which is proving successful and which is unique on the North Ameri-

can Continent. In 1936, the Vancouver Metropolitan Health Board was formed and under this scheme Vancouver City and all surrounding municipalities are joined into one administrative area so that their forces and resources are combined for the most effective carrying on of Public Health work. Communicable diseases pay no heed to municipal boundaries and for this one point alone it is essential that all control should be uniform and under one administration. The area concerned is divided up into a number of districts and each one is essentially a Health Unit. Each has its full-time Director, with a staff of six or more Public Health Nurses, an office clerk, and the services of a Sanitary Inspector, and each Unit is directly responsible to the Senior Medical Health Officer who has complete charge over the whole Metropolitan area. In such a plan the specialized services of a City Health Department are available to the suburban districts, and the staff may be concentrated or distributed as the Senior Officer sees fit for the solution of any particular problem.

We in British Columbia feel that the Health Unit plan of administration for Public Health work has proven itself efficient and effective and look forward to the time when it will be more generally adopted not only in British Columbia but in Canada as a whole.

Problems Of A Country Doctor

By C. G. CAMPBELL

THE problems of a country doctor are the problems of agriculture, or more specifically, the difficulties of the rural population of his district. In a section where the farmers exist precariously on marginal land, where periodic drought and flood or the slow impoverishment of the soil results in a steady decline of

the population curve the problem of securing adequate medical services is a very difficult one. The scattered residents of such areas, most of them in the older age groups, are held captive by a constant struggle with their material necessities. One sees what were formerly well populated districts now marked by abandoned school houses; the roads are neglected in favor of more travelled highways, and they are impassible for motor

EDITOR'S NOTE: C. G. Campbell, M. D., a frequent contributor to the Nova Scotia Medical Bulletin, is practicing medicine in Pictou, N. S.

vehicles for many months of the year. Electricity is unknown and many of the more widely separated farm houses are without telephone communication. Distance from a stable market largely precludes the raising of money crops and the major cash return for the farmer is secured by working in the woods in the winter months when timber is moving to railheads. In such districts as these the problems of the rural physician are very difficult. His work is arduous and time consuming. His costs for transportation and supplies are high and his material compensation is quite inadequate.

In parts of the country that are better favored with natural resources the doctor does not escape embarrassment. Here also one may observe a drift to town and city of the younger people. Proximity to town and good motor roads makes competition keener, for people will drive past the rural doctor's door to seek what they consider better medical services where there is a hospital, and specialists to consult. Again, the country districts, with the development of modern highways are accessible to town practitioners. All these factors operate to lower the standard of living of rural physicians.

Figures are available from Vermont, an agricultural State, to illustrate these points. In 1890 there were 638 medical men in the State most of them country boys who had worked their way through college and settled in their own home districts. Judged by present day standards they had, possibly, a poor technical equipment; but they knew their people and were giving good service. In 1935 the number had been reduced to 415. The number of doctors in towns with hospitals increased from 243 to 249 and these towns gained 29000 in population. Towns in peripheral areas without hospitals lost 13000 in population and the number of doctors declined from 395 to 165. One can see the trend toward urbanisation of the population and the decline of medical services in the outlying districts. The problem is acute in a settled area as old and static in its habits as Vermont. The elimination of

120 small medical colleges in New England, a necessary move if educational standards were to be kept high, has made medical education largely unattainable for the sons of small farmers and artisans, because in the large universities the premedical requirements are high, costs are very steep and the time required for training is increasing. Consequently many men who would on graduation settle as a matter of course in the smaller towns or in the country are not entering the field at all.

Medicine on the economic side moves to the tempo of industry. Specialism is the watch-word of the times for good or ill. And the field of the specialist must be in the larger centres where he may secure an adequate return on his very valuable investment in time and money. The schools are not turning out men who can see any future in country work and they will not settle there. They regard the work as too arduous and time consuming, the rewards at best uncertain and the chances of raising their standard of living as negligible.

The country doctor finds it very difficult to maintain a high standard of quality in his work. He may be too far from hospital to take personal charge of those of his patients who are more seriously ill and his work becomes more and more a matter of routine dispensing for minor illnesses many of which are self limited and reversible in the nature of things. As medicine is taught and practised today the hospital has become almost indispensable as the doctor's workshop and more important still as an arena for contacts which are necessary for his continued education and self development. The rural doctor lacks the attrition of contact with others who may be doing things a little differently and a little better. He becomes suspicious of innovation and indifferent to change. He finds it difficult or impossible to be away for extended periods in post graduate work for economic reasons. Long hours of routine work result in a deadening of initiative and in the loss of those habits of study which were the greatest acquisition of his early years.

Comparative isolation means the solitary facing of difficulties and the necessity of self reliance in making important decisions, and this may result in a disproportionate growth of self esteem indeed of complacency that will tend to minimize defeat and enhance the fruits of triumph. The county society meets perhaps in a distant town. Time and effort are required to attend the meetings and compare experiences with others. As time goes on he comes to care less about these things and what is more important he feels that he has less need of them. As he gets older his mental life becomes more static his habit patterns more firmly fixed, his many successes stand out in unbroken relief and the medical fashions of the day seem to him to be so impermanent as not to be worth the effort of marching in step. These are some of the psychological hazards of rural practice and they are not inconsiderable.

But much has been done and much can and should be done to overcome these handicaps. Workman's Compensation for injuries received in group activities has been a great boon to the rural doctor. He is assured of adequate remuneration for at least part of his activities by this agency. Again in these days people everywhere are alive to the necessity of preventitive methods in medical work. The press, the radio, farm magazines and other agencies constantly emphasize the importance of prevention rather than belated palliation in disease and the rural physician can accomplish much in this growing field by co-operating with public health authorities.

In the sphere of public health the state has shared the responsibility to a large extent with local medical services. Organised health work in rural districts is expanding, but much remains to be done. In the United States out of 2,500 rural counties only about 500 or one fifth have as yet any form of organised health services on a modern scale. Only about 50 have budgets and personnel of reasonable adequacy. In Ontario in 1936 there was only one rural health centre in which 4 of the 44 counties were represented.

Under these units rural health problems are systematically dealt with, and their solution depends to a large extent on the co-operation of family doctors in the area. Where there are no such services available the responsibility rests entirely on the shoulders of the family doctor and because he has in many cases little aptitude and very little training for the work the responsibility is certain to be heavy indeed. The central Provincial Laboratory and in some areas branch diagnostic centers providing insulin, anti-toxins, vaccines, arsenicals, diagnostic outfits for mailing specimens is another instance of the state assisting the rural doctor in his work and what is perhaps more important keeping him reminded of modern methods.

The universities by establishing refresher courses which are given yearly and are planned to meet the needs of busy general practitioners have done much toward keeping these men in touch with the newer advances in diagnosis and treatment. The country doctor no matter how isolated he may be geographically is interested in whatever will help his patients and as these courses are largely clinical he has the opportunity of seeing for himself what modern therapy can accomplish and he will go back to his work with a new zest and optimism in addition to whatever technical acquisitions he may have gained. Here too he comes into contact with his fellows and the crippling isolation of his position is minimised. It has been the experience in the Maritime Provinces that these annual refresher courses are exceptionally well attended.

The country doctor is usually particularly happy in his relations with his patients. He is essentially a family doctor with all the rich associations that this good old term implies. In rural areas the floating population which has become such a problem in cities is much smaller. There are exceptions to this. But in general the farmer is more sessile than his city cousin. He is less vulnerable to political uncertainty and the wide fluctuations in industrial production which are plaguing us today.

As a consequence the family remains firmly established as the unit of communal rural life; and as a corollary to this the country doctor remains the medical adviser, counsellor and friend of families that he knows well rather than the somewhat casual mentor of individuals who may be here today and gone tomorrow. That the sympathetic advice of a friend in whom one has had confidence since childhood is good medicine is well known to anyone who has ever tried it. The doctor is repaid by a trust in his skill and a gratitude for his good offices which is only too uncommon among city people.

So it may be said that there are compensations which should make country practice tolerable, indeed attractive to certain types of men. The establishment of scholarships which would make the study of medicine possible for country boys is needed on a larger scale. For these are the men who will make the very best country doctors as they have in the past.

The efforts of the rural and small town doctor are of particular and far reaching

importance because it is so often he who sees the patient first and it is his responsibility to be able to recognise the presence of serious disease in its very earliest stages when prompt treatment is so often effective. Again, he is the keystone in the arch of preventive medicine for without his co-operation public health workers can accomplish little. They will find him at times critical but rarely unkind, somewhat attached to the old ways but willing to share the burden of all good works even to the point of being careless of his own rights. His life is no idyll. It has nothing of the romantic or sentimental about it and many of its values achieve permanence by a kind of indirection. In the unaccented reality of each days effort and gain or loss he learns the simple courage of things that seem drab and ordinary, the courage of the poor who conquer pain in silence asking no pity yet knowing compassion. And from such as these he learns respect for suffering and can come to endure not only hardship but his own hopeless imperfection.

Public Library Systems

By SIRHINDI

I MAKE no apology for classing Public Library Systems as Public Affairs. They are admittedly desirable. If books are truly medicine for the soul they are as necessary to public well-being as departments of public health. Unfortunately in public affairs it is too often customary to leave matters of the soul for Sundays only. When it comes to libraries I deplore it.

Considering their literary traditions, the Maritimes should don sackcloth and ashes when contemplating their library systems. Prince Edward Island may claim to be excused. The particularly small province tempted the Carnegie Trust to venture on an experimental hand-out and the Island accepted; nevertheless we seem to have heard little of

that system of late. New Brunswick has a system as inactive as the Sleeping Beauty, and Nova Scotia has not even that.

Let us look first at things in general, however. It cannot be much more than a decade ago that the library-conscious first heard of county libraries. It was natural that when the limitations of city and town libraries were recognized the county should be the first regional unit tried. Soon a larger administrative unit than the average county was found desirable. Regions were formed and these usually were and still are groups of counties.

Every library region requires a central circulating and reference library, and as many branch libraries as population

demands and communications permit. Book depots and reading rooms may form library outposts and these may or may not be embryonic branch libraries. Usually a rural population without easy access to libraries or depots needs a travelling library or bookmobile system. The "open shelf" is a service of great value; it is a collection of the more expensive books such as professional people in the country districts—e.g. doctors, clergymen, teachers and so on—would like to read but cannot afford to buy. Generally they are circulated by mail. Methods of moving books round among the libraries of a region vary according to geography, climate and existing transport facilities. Those wishing to study regional policy and practice might well begin with California, then British Columbia and Ontario, bearing in mind that in application of principles to other regions various characteristics may entail changes. In the Maritimes, for example, the Acadian element is a factor to be considered.

Once regional libraries came, it was inevitable that a co-ordinating state or provincial system should be demanded. It is logical too. Within one recognized governmental unit it is absurd to have varying regional systems and even one area with and another without regional libraries.

Be it stated here and now, it is useless to play with makeshift, modified, half-and-half provincial library systems. If a province is not prepared to establish a complete system, it had better leave libraries alone. For example the idea of a bookmobile service is a sure-fire attraction for the politician; it is so easy to dress up as a vote-catcher. But it, or any other feature, alone is trifling with the affair; it is not a suit of clothes unless trousers, coat and waistcoat are all there.

A comprehensive view of the purpose of public libraries should never be lost. There are some who think of a library system as educational only. It should never be so limited. It is designed to place at the disposal of the public the entire range of literature. That requires a balanced combination of the instruction-

al and the entertaining in books and periodicals. The stomach of the average soul cannot stand its medicine too strong.

A department of education should not be given control of a province's library system. The reason is that a sparrowhawk and an eagle in the same cage are likely to end in the slow starvation of the former and some bitter fighting before that happens. Ask Ontario librarians.

Immediately before hard times descended on us the government of New Brunswick had given sympathetic ear to a scheme designed for provincial libraries in a system. A Library Bill was enacted and a Commission appointed. This law provides for a Provincial Library Council as an advisory body to the Commission.

The Commission worked out a definite scheme, dividing the province into five regions, one to be established annually. The yearly cost during the organization period was estimated at \$30,000, to be borne one-half by the province and the other half by the county and municipal councils of the regions organized. The councils would thereafter assume maintenance, the province, through the Commission, undertaking certain functions and apportioning grants from the province as necessary.

In the first year of its existence a region would be set up with its initial requirements of central and branch libraries, book depots and travelling libraries and coached in their administration. Emphasis was laid on a correct start. The Commission was prepared to operate an open shelf system for the whole province, at first in any case. It also proposed to maintain a central index, listing every known book in libraries—not in its system alone, but also in university libraries if these would co-operate. The advantage of this to meet demands by inter-regional loans is self-evident. The Commission envisaged a co-operative purchase plan, if desired by regions.

It happened that, while details of this were being worked out for presentation to the legislature, a committee investigating the library situation right across Canada on behalf of the Carnegie Trust

visited New Brunswick. This committee, as its report shows, heartily commended the plan and one member gave it as his personal opinion that the New Brunswick act is the best in the Dominion. It is highly significant that the Prince Edward Island experiment, financed by the Carnegie Trust, adopted almost exactly the plan devised for a single New Brunswick region, the Island's population being roughly one-fifth that of its neighbor. Operating a province as a single region simplified the financing of the system as there would be no need to divide cost between two or more taxing authorities.

It was the fate of the promising New Brunswick plan never to be presented to the legislature. The onset of the depression made it imperative to retrench and no launching out could be considered. The system sleeps somewhere in Fredericton.

The Nova Scotia system is soon disposed of—*non est*.

Now what about it? Is this state of affairs to go on? The governments are unlikely to move without pressure. There will be no demand until the Maritimes become more library-conscious and library intelligent as distinct from library-emotional. Here and there in the Maritimes are excellent local libraries, isolated and bereft of the support of a provincial system, mostly starved, inadequately staffed and struggling gallantly. Their utility is therefore circumscribed, their expansion precluded. Yet I dare declare that, speaking generally, there is a keen desire for libraries that really reach the whole population. It is less widely appreciated that only through provincial systems can it be brought about—unless the unlikely were to happen and the three provinces combine to the extent of operating a joint system covering the entire section.

Emotionally there is a desire for proper library organization. That would be a powerful force if directed. Who is to do this? It must not be left to librarians. Look upon librarians as the officers of a regiment and the chief librarians as colonels; but how many are fit to become

generals, plan and direct campaigns involving all arms? Few, obviously.

There are others also who are inclined to talk about library systems without knowing the first thing about them. Their talk may be encouraged, but they must not be accepted as authorities. There is no need to play with half-baked ideas. Regional library science has been reduced to formulae, though doubtless vast unexplored possibilities remain. So mistrust him who whispers that he can influence the Carnegie people. Do not be misled by the adult education enthusiast who thinks in terms of textbooks only. Discount the facile suggestions of some Womens' Institutes speakers for the danger that lies in a little knowledge. Enlist all these to help, but when a plan is needed, let one who has really studied the subject frame it.

We want to find out who have studied library systems—again let me emphasize, not libraries, nor librarianship, but library systems, the library acts, the technique approved by real authorities. Then we want to get library systems discussed and pick out those willing and able to study until we have a body of leaders capable of bringing library systems definitely within the visible orbit of public affairs and organizing the mass of public opinion already existing.

I have sometimes wondered whether a kind of Friends of the Library Association in every community might not help. An F.L.A.'s function is that of a supporting auxiliary, actively giving moral and material backing to a library in being. By the same token, Saint John has set a feather in the Maritime's cap by establishing the first F.L.A. in Canada. Well, it has occurred to me, why not organize F.L.A.'s before libraries, in order to start systems from which libraries will spring? I know it is a cart-before-the-horse notion. On the other hand it has never been decided whether the chicken or the egg comes first. Another point is that something of the sort lies behind the Library Council in the New Brunswick plan. Advising on local conditions was only a part of the Council's

proposed functions. Its members were intended to return to their homes as missionaries. At any rate it is an approach worth consideration.

I shall leave it at that. My purpose has been to start a few people thinking of library systems as a definite phase of public affairs. If I manage to set a few talking, so much the better. If action follows, that will be splendid.

I believe there is unlimited enthusiasm, most of it dormant. I know there is a quicksand of loose thinking about library matters, and somehow we shall have to

build a firm road across it. A very trifling steadying agent may suffice to provide the first step over shifting grains. A blanket thrown on the surface is often enough—just as often it is not, and then a blanket is lost. However, it is worth trying. I look on what I have written as a blanket cast on the quicksand. If it is swallowed up and disappears, not anything of value is lost. But if it starts the crossing, why then it will have proved of that much value. And I hope it does.

Pasture Lands in the Maritime Provinces

By C. F. BAILEY

THOSE who have had the privilege of visiting the rural communities in the British Isles must have been impressed with the relatively large number of live stock carried on the average farm. There are several reasons for these heavily stocked farms. Undoubtedly the British farmer is a lover of good livestock, but it will also be found that his splendid pastures play an important part in the development of this industry. Apparently these farmers are quite prepared to devote as much and oftentimes more attention to their pasture lands than to the area set aside for cereal and forage crops. In fact, the maintenance of pastures in a high state of fertility is considered of national importance and we find that the British Government has recently announced that a liberal allowance will be made to all land owners for the purchase of fertilizer to be used in keeping pastures in a high state of production.

Let us contrast conditions in the British Isles with those in the Maritime Provinces. It is true that we have a large number of progressive farmers who

have become "pasture conscious" and the number is increasing annually. Unfortunately however, there are a great many farmers who look upon their pastures as a cheap and convenient place to carry live stock during the summer months. Some of these pastures are so unproductive that the animals have great difficulty in finding sufficient food to meet daily maintenance requirements. These farmers show the same lack of interest in their live stock and we find their animals are usually undersized and generally unprofitable.

In spite of the apparent lack of interest on the part of many farmers, the future looks bright for the development of good pastures "down by the sea." The soils of the Maritime Provinces vary greatly, but generally speaking, it will be found that they are deficient in phosphorus, potash and organic matter. However, they respond rapidly to the intelligent use of fertilizers and good pasture management. This is mainly due to favorable climatic conditions which are not unlike those found in the British Isles, especially during the growing season. The most important factor contributing to the development of pastures in these provinces is the annual precipita-

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tion. It will be found from a study of the meteorological records covering a number of years, that the annual precipitation at Fredericton, New Brunswick, was 38.62 inches; at Nappan, Nova Scotia—38.81 inches, and Charlottetown, P. E. I.—41.29 inches. In addition to the liberal rainfall, we have relatively cool summers and the moisture is fairly well distributed throughout the growing season. If we compare our weather conditions with Ontario, we find the annual precipitation at Guelph was 31.52 inches, a difference of approximately 7 to 10 inches. Ontario usually experiences hot, dry weather during the latter part of July and August. While the soil in Ontario may be more fertile than in the Maritimes, the lack of moisture and the dry weather in mid-summer present problems much more serious than those faced in the Maritime Provinces.

While climatic conditions in the Maritime Provinces are favorable to the development of good pastures, we are required to provide more or less supplementary grazing each year to relieve our main pastures during the dry period. To meet this problem economically, it is suggested that haying begin two weeks earlier than is generally practised. In this way, early aftergrass will be made available for the milch cows. Early haying has another advantage that should not be overlooked. The early cut hay is more palatable and nutritious and it is safe to say that several hundred thousand dollars would be saved to the Maritime farmers each year if haying operations were started two or three weeks earlier. Oats have also been used quite satisfactorily as a supplementary pasture during the dry season. In some sections where pasture fertilization has not been practised extensively, farmers are growing soiling crops such as peas and oats and millet. Hay and grain are also fed during this period. However, the feeding of green feed, hay and grain in the stable represent increased labor and should be avoided if possible.

A brief report of the pasture improvement work conducted at the Dominion Experimental Station at Fredericton, New

Brunswick, will serve to show what can be accomplished by modern methods of pasture improvement. Ten years ago, the pastures at this Station were typical of many in the Maritime Provinces. The sod was thin, containing ten per cent moss and the balance was made up largely of brown top and weeds. A start was made to improve these pastures in 1928 and has continued annually since that time. To-day these pastures are recognized as being among the most productive in Canada. A deep sward has developed, moss has practically disappeared and the character of the herbage greatly improved without having to resort to ploughing and reseeding. The securing of this rather remarkable change is due simply to the use of commercial fertilizers, combined with what we consider to be good pasture management. These pastures were carrying one-half cow to the acre prior to 1928, whereas to-day one and one-half cows per acre are being carried in a normal year at a much reduced cost. In the early days the cows received grain when at pasture. To-day grain is discontinued shortly after the cows go to pasture in the spring. In fact, the cows refused to eat grain, especially during the early part of the summer. Cows are also being turned out approximately two weeks earlier in the past two years. It is safe to say that the saving made in feed and labor during these two weeks will more than pay for the fertilizer used on the pastures. It should also be stated that the fertilizer treatment during the early days cost approximately \$6.00 per acre, whereas to-day the average cost per acre would be in the neighborhood of \$2.00.

Cost of milk production records at the Fredericton Experimental Station also present rather interesting information. The average feed cost of milk and butterfat production for the four years 1932-35 inclusive in January was \$1.18 per hundred pounds milk and 30c per pound butterfat, while in June, the feed cost was 30c per hundred pounds milk and 8c per pound butterfat. On May 11, 1936 under barn feeding conditions, the production from 23 cows, comprising the

milking herd, was 683 lb. milk. Production increased steadily after the cows went to pasture and grain feeding was discontinued after May 20. One month later, the same 23 cows produced 756 pounds milk. Even though 1936 was a favorable year for pastures, it is perhaps safe to say that without improved pastures, these cows would have been barned for two weeks longer and the production would have been lower.

Many similar instances could be cited to further emphasize the importance of improved pastures, but space will not permit. That pastures well selected, properly fertilized and well managed, will prove a boon to the Maritime farmers in specialized dairy districts, is generally admitted. Some farmers located in remote districts may hesitate to improve their pastures due to the cost involved. However, new information is continually being made available, and to-day we

find that fertilizer treatments recommended represent a much lower outlay of money than was recommended a few years ago.

This whole problem of pasture improvement is being studied extensively in almost every country where live stock raising is an important industry. In Canada every Agricultural College and Experimental Farm is devoting special attention to this problem and the Extension Branches of the Provincial Departments of Agriculture are continually taking the latest information on the subject to the farmers. With conditions so favorable to the development of productive pastures in the Maritime Provinces, we should look forward with confidence to seeing these provinces becoming more prosperous through the greater development of the live stock industry, made possible in part by the improvement of our pasture lands.

Tourist Tides and Tidings

By D. LEO DOLAN

WITHIN the last three or four years, Canadians have become more fully cognizant of the potentialities of the tourist industry of this country. Particularly unobservant must be any Canadian who has not been aware of the annual influx of visitors to Canada for recreational purposes, for this influx is now said to be the largest enjoyed by any country in the world. Anyone who cares to delve into recent statistics bearing on the subject will find that our travel industry ranks high among the great export industries of the Dominion. The monetary value of this industry in 1937 reached the figure of \$295,000,000; a staggering sum—one which is greater by 100% than the entire gold production of this country. It is a figure which equals the total amount expended by the provincial governments throughout the country on the educational system of the Dominion. Its influence extends

from border points far into the interior of the country and even to the far north. Few other industries have such widespread ramifications as has the tourist industry.

It is just about five years ago that the Government of Canada decided the promotion and development of our tourist industry should become a part of our national effort. To efficiently carry this out, there was organized in Ottawa the Canadian Travel Bureau as a branch of the Federal Government. Briefly, this organization was charged with the responsibility of selling the recreational resources of Canada to the travellers of the world. The result of the campaign which this Federal Government organization has carried on in close co-operation with all tourist agencies, both public and private, has been tremendous. To-

EDITOR'S NOTE: D. Leo Dolan is chief of the Canadian Travel Bureau, Ottawa.

day Canada takes its place among the other nations of the world as a great recreational area. Its tourist industry has become a major industry and there have been developed through the length and breadth of this country, many establishments and concerns which are now engaged in the very profitable business of catering to the wants and needs of our annual visitors.

There is a factor in connection with the tourist trade which I think should be stressed. This tourist industry has become one of the most important, if not our most important, medium of securing monies for the stabilization of our exchange. In the House of Commons but a few days ago, the Right Honourable R. B. Bennett made this very striking declaration, "Every time a tourist tears off a \$10. express order on New York, this means that a contribution of \$10. has been made towards the stabilization of exchange, and every dollar that we spend which results in large tourist expenditures in this country, does much, not only to stabilize exchange, but to give value to our dollars in other parts of the world as well as in the great republic to the south."

It is indeed significant that public men in Canada are today giving intense consideration to ways and means to develop our tourist trade. Banking institutions, transportation companies and, I may say practically all business interests, are at this time becoming fully informed on the potentialities of this industry. It is becoming more and more apparent that a greater development and expansion of our tourist industry can mean much to the future progress and welfare of this country. As an example, take our trade with our southern neighbour. In the ordinary course of our commerce with the United States, we sell to that country an enormous volume of goods of all kinds. Up until the last few years, it has not been so widely appreciated by our people that side by side with this commodity export business, we sell also to the citizens of the United States another huge bill of goods and services, one not itemized in

our trade reports. Enormous as are the regular commodity exports of the country, that trade is seriously rivalled in value and in volume by the tourist business. The record of recent years illustrates the case and shows that during the last five years taken together, for every five dollars worth of goods, i.e., lumber, newsprint, farm produce, etc., shipped to the United States in the normal course of commerce, we sold in addition, four dollars worth of goods and services representing the purchase by American tourists in this country. We have characterized this industry as an export business. It is an export business inasmuch as we have, in its promotion and development, brought to this country, nationals from foreign lands to purchase the goods and services which are available within the Dominion. In other words, instead of exporting the goods and services to these nationals in other countries, we bring the people here to purchase the goods and services available within the country.

As a factor in our international trade balance, the tourist industry, within recent years, has become most important. Last year we had a favourable trade balance on the tourist item alone of more than \$173,000,000. Indeed, it may be safely said that over a period of the last ten years, Canada would have faced rather difficult financial complications had it not been for the huge sums of money left in this country by tourists from all parts of the world.

It must always be borne in mind when considering the advancement and expansion of the tourist industry in Canada that more people cross the international frontier between the United States and Canada than any other international boundary in the world. In 1937 there were more than 18,000,000 visitors who came to Canada for tourist purposes alone. In addition, there were some 4,511,000 automobiles which crossed the boundary between these two countries; the greatest exchange of motor traffic experienced by any two countries in the world.

There is no section of Canada with greater possibilities for tourist expansion

than the provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island. The scenic beauty of the Maritimes is unexcelled during the summer months, and there has always been the great appeal of the sea, the moving magic of ships. A timely question is "What is the future of the Maritime provinces in the tourist development?"

Recent years have witnessed the progressive development of the highway systems in the three Maritime provinces and herein lies the real basis of prosperous tourist industry. The tourist traffic of today is for the most part a traffic on rubber wheels. Twenty-five years ago, our railways carried the bulk of our tourist trade, but today between 80 and 85% of Canada's travel industry is represented by the motoring public. For years the Maritimes were losing millions of tourist dollars because of the lack of modern, hard-surfaced highways. Now, with all provinces marching forward in the matter of highway construction, there opens up a new tourist vista to the people of the Maritimes.

This important highway system, I am sure, will result in a flow of tourist traffic to the Maritime provinces heretofore undreamed of. We have only to read the history of the development of the tourist industry in the State of Maine to visualize what is likely to occur in the three Maritime provinces. During the last twenty-five years we have seen Maine become highly advertised as one of the great recreational areas of the North American continent. There has been a tremendous development of districts and areas within that state due in a large measure to the modern system of highways which lead to the most attractive regions. There has been as well, if I may say so, a great tourist consciousness among the people of that state and today Maine values its tourist industry at anywhere from \$100,000,000 to \$120,000,000 annually. I am almost compelled to venture into the dangerous realm of prophecy and predict that once the highway systems of the three Maritime provinces are completed in the modern

way, the tourist industry of that section of Canada will eclipse in monetary value, that of the State of Maine.

Coincident with the development of modern highways in the Maritime provinces, there must also go a development for better and more modern accommodations for the tourist. As I see it, the problem concerning the Maritime provinces today is no longer a highway problem, but it is the problem of properly providing that type of accommodation which the tourist of today demands and is willing to pay for. There should be established in those numerous areas, small but comfortable and modern summer hotels constructed on much the same lines as we find these hostelries in the Adirondacks, the White Mountains and in other New England states along the Atlantic seaboard. Hotel accommodation must be modern in the Maritime provinces if the people are to reap the full benefits of the tourist "gold mine" now awaiting development in these provinces by the sea.

I think all of us should be concerned with developing the tourist industry on purely Canadian lines. I think we should endeavour at all costs to maintain that foreign atmosphere within the Dominion. In brief, we should be truthful to the visitors to our country that when they come to Canada they will find here an atmosphere wholly different from that of their own country. For that reason I think we should discourage, as much as possible, the flying of foreign flags over cabins and roadside stands. The display of foreign flags in this country should be an act of courtesy. Let us not make it an act of commercialized courtesy. We should, I think, also encourage those who are engaged in the business of catering to our visitors to present to them on Canadian menus, Canadian food and a distinctly Canadian atmosphere all around.

There are few areas in the world with such a variety of attractions as we find in the Maritime provinces. Here the traveller can find delightful marine scenery, excellent highways, fish and game

resources in abundance, and the quiet, restful atmosphere that goes with a beautiful urban and rural countryside. I am convinced that if hand in hand with the program and policy which the governments have initiated, there goes a well

devised tourist consciousness on the part of the whole people of these provinces, the next ten years will see a development of a travel industry greater than any that has ever been known on this North American continent.

Coal Mining In The Maritime Provinces

By F. W. GRAY

THE problems of Coal Mining in the Maritimes are not unique, that is to say the industry is affected by the same economic changes that have adversely affected coal consumption in the British Isles, in the United States of America, in Western Canada and in those countries whose currencies are included in the sterling-dollar-franc orbit. While the world consumption of coal is now larger than it was in 1913, the increase comes from Asia and Africa. The export of coal from Great Britain to the Far East has declined, forcing the British exporters to look for other markets. The drop in coal production in the United States has been more drastic than in any country. Both these changes have increased the competitive pressure of American and British coal upon the markets of Canadian producers, specifically upon the markets of Nova Scotia producers.

The reduction in the consumption of coal in Canada and in the United States has been an outstanding economic phenomenon of our times. Canadian consumption dropped from 4 tons per head of population in 1923 to 2 tons per head in 1932, and has only so far recovered to 2½ tons per head.

The causes of reduced coal consumption include the shrinkage of world trade, with consequent lessened use of every form of energy in industry and trans-

portation, accompanied by progressive replacement of coal by petroleum and its products, water-power electricity and remarkable economies in the use of coal itself.

It is probable that the replacement of coal by oil and waterpower electricity has passed the maximum swing away from coal and that the pendulum is swinging back to coal, a tendency that is being assisted by the economies that have been and are still being attained in power generation from coal.

The brake imposed upon world trade by the extreme form of nationalism supervening upon the Great War is without doubt responsible for the extreme downward swing of the trade cycle in the period 1928 to 1937 and the hesitant nature of the partial recovery since occurring. No form of currency or bill of exchange, not even metallic gold itself, is acceptable in commerce as formerly. It is axiomatic that until such exchange becomes once more possible through the return of world-wide business confidence and national conciliation, world trade must remain contracted and the Poverty of Nations reign where once the Wealth of Nations prevailed.

Under these limiting conditions it is significant and hopeful that world coal consumption has increased over the previous peak of 1913. Should trade once more flow through the ancient channels of confidence and national honesty, who can doubt that coal production will once again become a mainstay of world trade exchange, as it was through-

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out the Nineteenth Century and up until 1914?

This is the hopeful aspect of world' coal trade. As this improves the coal trade of the Maritimes, relatively small as it may be, will benefit.

Meantime, however, our coal industry must cope with its chief economic difficulty, namely, relatively high production cost and distance from large consuming centres.

The coal-mining industry in Nova Scotia is very old. It is now almost 113 years since coal production commenced, on a comparatively substantial scale, in 1825.

The coal reserves of Nova Scotia were never really large in extent of recoverable tonnage. Their economic importance is very great, quite fundamentally so in regard to Canadian national independence and economics—more or less synonymous terms—as events of our time are teaching us. This economic importance is, however, chiefly a matter of geography. Our coalfields are some 800 miles from the nearest United States coal deposits, and over 1700 miles from the Western coalfields. The St. Lawrence River permits cargo vessels to reach the large centres of Canadian population. The growth of the Nova Scotia coal trade has been a result of the market afforded by the industrial growth of Montreal and Toronto and their satellite towns, and of water carriage via the St. Lawrence River and Gulf.

The development of the water carriage of coal from Nova Scotia to Montreal has been possible because the coal producers have had access to the world freight-market for chartering of ships. This is a necessary privilege, because the coal-shipping season occupies only six to seven months of the year, and Winter employment must be found for the coal-shipping fleet, otherwise the cost of freighting would rise to prohibitive figures.

There have from time to time been indications that this free maritime status of "The Maritimes" was not fully understood in Canada. The coal transport enterprise of the Maritimes has been

incorrectly visioned as a coasting trade subject to restrictive legislative regulations that do not apply to vessels coming into Canadian waters from overseas.

No reconsideration of provincial and federal relations in Canada should ever overlook that the Maritime seaports depend upon world-trade and access to world shipping. Our free maritime status in trading from a Maritime port to Canadian inland waters should be most jealously guarded.

It is a matter almost of ironic interest that the crude nepotism of the days of the Georges should have resulted in public ownership of Nova Scotia's coal resources, and while this is not the place to recount the surprising outcome of the Duke of York's grant, it is interesting to note that Nova Scotia has since 1857 controlled the leasing of coal areas in a rather more thorough manner than the British Government is at this time endeavoring to achieve by purchase of the privately-owned coal-seams in Great Britain.

Whatever benefit may accrue to coal-mining in Great Britain by state control of leasing and ownership of coal royalty rights, has accrued to the Province of Nova Scotia since 1857. At one time the main source of the revenues of Nova Scotia came from the coal royalties. Not so very long ago the amusement taxes and gasolene tax began to overshadow the importance of the coal royalties as a source of government income, a development that might form a text for moralising!

A factual discussion of the operating economics of the several separated coal districts of the Maritimes is not possible within the space allotted to this essay. Costs of production vary not only with districts but by seams, and these are overshadowed by the accident of location. It is possible that a colliery with poor physical conditions of coal occurrence and quality, and consequent high cost of production, may be profitably operated if it has a convenient and cheaply reached local market; whereas a colliery with much better conditions may be unable to operate if situated in a district which contains

other collieries having still better conditions. For these reasons wage rates and steadiness of employment will vary with localities.

The one factor that has been outstanding in fostering the Maritime coal-trade since 1928, and saved it from disaster in 1932-1933, is the Federal coal transportation subvention.

In Canada the coalfields are at either end of our vast country. The railways and the population are in between. The central portion of Canada has the greatest density of population and the bulk of coal-consuming industries, but is furthest removed from the western and eastern coalfields, an elementary fact with an important bearing on our national economy. If we want to use Canadian coal and give work to Canadian miners, the transportation costs must be minimised,

which is the *raison d'être* of the coal transportation subventions. So far as Nova Scotia is concerned all that is required is the apportionment, out of 12 million tons of bituminous coal imported annually into Central Canada, of two million tons to the Nova Scotia collieries which will secure the soundness and permanence of the Nova Scotia coal-mining industry.

In 1936 the Maritime Provinces contributed 46 per cent of the total Canadian coal output of that year, but this is equivalent to less than one-quarter of the consumption of coal in Canada.

The measure of the importance of the coal production of the Maritimes in respect to our national fuel independence is so great as to require no emphasis beyond the citation of these figures.

How To Build Cheaply And Efficiently

By S. D. RITCHIE

TO build cheaply yet efficiently is no mean accomplishment, because the two rarely go together. Cheapness usually means the reverse of efficiency. The problem is complicated and involved.

Everyone about to build wants to have a comfortable and attractive looking house. To achieve this, the house must be warm in winter, cool in summer, dry at all times and having as convenient an arrangement of rooms as possible.

The kitchen should be fitted with labor saving equipment and be well planned, so that steps can be saved in the preparation of food.

The following is an attempt to describe the design and construction of such a house.

Certain designs and plans of houses can be built at less cost than others of equal size. This is owing to the fact that the house has a type of construction

familiar to the builders and a straightforward clean cut plan free from costly shapes, corners, etc., and where partitions on one floor are placed over the partitions on the floor below.

A house that has well proportioned doors, windows, wall surfaces, roofs, etc., and therefore looks well and attractive can be built at less cost than one badly designed and having unnecessary features to achieve interest.

Color and texture are vital to the appearance of a low cost house. Fortunately these two do not add to the cost in proportion to their contribution. For example, whitewashed common brick or sound cull bricks look well in houses of good design. These bricks are of uneven shape which adds to their desirability for whitewash finish.

Houses of decided charm can be built with the help of very inexpensive materials providing they are incorporated into the building with understanding and skill.

EDITOR'S NOTE) Mr. Ritchie is an architect living in Montreal. He has enjoyed particular experience in the construction of low cost houses.

The shape and section of the house affects the cost. Houses of simple and direct forms are naturally easier and quicker to build. Broken roof surfaces and lines or other complicated features must be avoided if cost is to be kept down. They should be simple in design and of a dignified and quiet color.

The Site

In locating the house advantage shall be taken of any feature of contour in order to reduce cost of removing excess material from the excavations.

Careful study is required to have all rooms in the house correctly orientated and related to the garden and view, should there be one.

Some saving can be effected by using this earth to form a grass or flagstone terrace across the front of the house. This helps to get a lawn terrace for the house on the site and permits setting the basement higher out of the ground than would look well otherwise.

Basement walls showing high above the lawn ruins the look of the house especially with basement windows showing, so that every care must be taken to get as low an effect as possible.

Foundations

At this point we will begin the study of actual construction methods and materials to be used.

This will be of interest only to one about to build as it must necessarily take somewhat the form of a specification.

Concrete for this part of the work is probably the best material for this purpose, and should be mixed with as little water as is workable, as an excess of water makes for porous concrete. Good practice in the mixing and proportion of materials should be followed.

The foundation walls could be built on large flat boulders instead of the usual concrete formed footings. The boulders should extend throughout the entire area of the basement floor. This permits water following the walls down on the exterior face of the foundations to pass under the wall and cement floor, into

drains and on out to pit or to sewer if running trap is provided.

If the site is exceptionally dry this method would not apply and the usual footing could be used.

In no case should the concrete for the basement floor be laid directly on the earth. Farm tiles placed outside the footings and below the basement floor level are advisable in many localities. These drains should be carried out to a pit or through a running trap into sewer connection. These unglazed tiles should lie on a cinder or broken stone bed.

Waterproofing the basement walls is of great importance in house construction. There are several ways of doing this, such as by the use of integrally waterproofed concrete, or by covering the exterior face of the foundations with a tar or asphalt membrane.

Should the site be wet, the floor should be waterproofed as well.

The site permitting, a saving occurs if the garage is placed in the basement or at a point half way down with a room or rooms above.

Where the cost of a reinforced concrete slab over the furnace room is prohibitive, ceiling protection can be helped by the use of two thicknesses of plaster board one inch apart.

If at all possible, the partitions in the basement should be of cement or tile blocks or of concrete.

The garage, if attached to the house or if in the basement, must be of fireproof material, especially the ceiling or walls between the garage and any part of the house.

Should there be a door leading directly into the house it would be of standard fire door construction.

Exterior Walls

For the walls and framing of the house, wood will be considered here.

Wood being plentiful in this country, still remains the logical and economical material for house construction. The fireproof house is still beyond the reach of all but the wealthy.

The walls of a frame house would be tongued and grooved spruce sheathing of a suitable quality (3rd or better) nailed to either side of the stud framing. If costs permit this space (4") could be filled with an insulating material.

On the outside and inside face would be placed a layer of fifteen pound asphalt felt to form a wind break.

The walls of the solid plank construction consist of either one thickness of 3" plank on edge, having upright members at corners and around openings or of two thicknesses of wood.

One of 2 inch plank and one of one inch tongued and grooved nailed together and having a layer of fifteen pound asphalt felt between. For greater rigidity, the sheathing is applied diagonally.

Furring strips two by one are then nailed over this and on the outside the finishing material could be applied.

This might be one of the various types of sheathing shiplap or clapboarding and stained, painted or whitewashed. Or the finish may be a 4" brick veneer properly attached to the wood sheathing.

On the inside over the furring strips would be placed the lath for plaster. This lath could be of an insulating type such as wood pulp lath or other fibre board make. Some of these lath boards have reflecting aluminum foil mounted on the back.

A finished wall board without plaster could be used. Some of them have insulating qualities and thus serve a dual purpose.

The same applies to the finish for ceilings.

Plaster on good quality wood lath is still the best finish for walls and ceilings in the opinion of the writer. Two coat plaster finished with a fine sand finish, wood floated, produces a very satisfactory effect, as also does a putty coat painted.

The construction and finish of a house should always be along lines familiar to builders in the district in which the house is to be built. Materials easily obtainable and in general use would be preferable.

Roofs

Here it is important to use a material that adequately holds down the building.

Heavy materials such as tile, slate or hand split cedar shingles have the necessary weight for this effect. Unfortunately they are too costly for the great majority of houses.

Several types of roofing material are usually available. Slate surfaced asphalt shingles make a satisfactory roof.

The same material can be used for flashing the roof or metal as for other roofing materials. The writer prefers a good grade of cedar shingles "clears" or better at least 16" long. These shingles should be pre-dipped in a colored creosote shingle stain or given two brush coats.

The appearance can be further improved by placing the butts slightly uneven, producing a broken effect. A mechanical look must be carefully avoided in doing this.

Sheet metal flashings could be of 26 gauge galvanized copper bearing sheet steel or 16 oz. copper. Where possible these flashings could be concealed. At chimneys and brickwork or masonry the metal must be turned into the joints. At all points where water could penetrate the roofing such as at chimneys, dormers, valleys and ridges, flashing must be provided.

The construction of the roof itself would be of ample sized rafters, properly framed and tied to prevent movement.

The rafters resting on a suitable wall plate and tied by collars.

Recommended spacing for roof rafters is 20". These should be doubled at dormers or other large openings in the roof. Also at hips and valleys the size should be slightly increased.

The construction of the floors in wood joists of suitable size and spacing and firmly bridged takes care of this phase of the work.

The rough or underflooring would consist of one inch boards finished one face and about 6" wide. These should not be tongued and grooved. The boards should be placed with a small space between to eliminate danger of squeaks.

16 oz. carpet felt or 15 oz. asphalt felt will make a good lining between the rough and finished floors.

Windows

The subject of windows calls for careful consideration.

Casement sashes are essential to some types of residential design and double hung sashes to others. Double hung sashes provide less of a problem on the inside should Venetian blinds be required. They are more weather-tight than casement.

Casements, held in place by suitable holders, provide more air and unobstructed view and placed in horizontal rows look very well. Should the house be near others and on a street, high narrow windows are more fitting.

Casement windows need a good quality interlocking weatherstrip.

If the climate demands winter sash one of the new type double glazed sash can be used eliminating the use of outside or separate sets of sashes which have to be taken down and stored when not in use. The dead air space between the two glasses also insulates the house in summer as well as in winter. Another good method is by the use of a small metal sash glazed and hinged to the permanent sash.

When beating rain storms are encountered the bottom rail of the double hung sash should be double checked and the sill cut down slightly and well sloped.

All windows should be well caulked with oakum behind the frame and the outside joint filled with a mastic compound before the stop bead is applied. A strip of metal flashing is sometimes advisable along the head of the window as in some locations rain drives in at this point.

This also applies at the joint between the wood main house sill and top of concrete foundation. Too much care can hardly be taken to keep driving rain and other water from penetrating walls and windows.

Solid concrete, covered with metal, makes a practical chimney cap. Chimneys are advisable in brick. Flue walls at least 8 inches in thickness and finished inside with a cement mortar coat.

Glazed tile flue linings make for cleaner and safer flues. Care must be taken at

the joints so that water carried down the face of the tile shall not penetrate the brickwork at the joints.

No framing wood work should enter chimneys or fireplaces. A two inch clearance at these points is essential.

Fire place hearths should have concrete or brick trimmer arches, no wood forms or other wood framing remaining under the hearths. These hearths are safer if supported directly on the chimney itself by means of corbels or projecting steel members, or cantilevered concrete slab.

The fireplace should be equipped with a suitable damper. The inner hearth sides and back lined with fire brick. The flue must be at least one-tenth the area of the fireplace opening.

To avoid smoke trouble the fireplace must be built to conform with well known rules which call for certain fixed proportions and dimensions, smoke chamber, etc.

The exposed face of the fireplace in rooms of moderate size should be reduced to a minimum. If brick facing is used, not more than 6" at each side and 8 inches at the arch. Massive brick fireplaces in a great many instances have ruined many an otherwise attractive room.

Fireplace heaters are useful adjuncts to the heating system. Fresh air is taken in from outside the house and passed through an air chamber at the back of the fireplace, discharging into the room through ducts leading to grilles in the chimney breast; preferably on the side returns.

Fire stops, as a precaution in frame houses, can be formed in the exterior walls by the insertion of three courses of brick resting on wall plates at floor levels. This acts to retard the passage of fire up the four inch air space. This practice is seldom indulged in these days.

Should sound insulation be desired in some cases, this can be accomplished to a certain extent by the use of fibre board lath as a base for plaster or the space between the studs filled with a material suitable for this purpose.

One of the items where costs can be kept down without serious loss of interest, is in the matter of interior trim. This need be only of such a nature as is essential to permanency. Base boards of less than six inches in height are sufficient as on door and window trim of small sizes. Room wall cornices can be omitted also and picture moulding as well. Woodwork painted in with wall color apparently increases the size of rooms. The reverse is true of dark stained trim and doors in small rooms.

Finished Floors

Wood floors for use in rooms other than bathrooms and kitchens should be at least 13/16" thick, nailed every fourteen inches to the underfloor, which is best laid diagonally.

Birch, oak, maple or beech are satisfactory for floors, No. 2 grade or better.

There are several very good materials for finishing the wood floors, among them asphalt solutions, mineral wax, penetrating and rubbing waxes. All wood floors should be stained to a rich deep tone before other finish is applied.

Dark or medium dark floors go a long way towards getting charm into the house with no extra cost. Light colored wood floors undermine the decorative scheme at the start. Dark floors form a perfect foundation for furniture, rugs and everything else in the room.

For bathroom and kitchen floors, linoleum or asphalt tiles are satisfactory. A perfectly dry and especially prepared wood underfloor must be provided for these materials to be cemented thereto.

Bath Room Walls

Lacquered pressed wood 1/8" thick makes a good wall and ceiling finish for the bathroom. Wall dadoes of a few

feet in height are not as popular as previously. Broad wall surfaces in plain color and colored fixtures make a smart and modern looking bathroom.

Kitchens

The planning and finish of kitchens should be a familiar subject to everybody if one can judge by the amount of attractive advertising.

The floors, walls, woodwork and ceilings will all be of easily cleaned and durable materials. The same applies to counter tops.

The installation of the wiring, plumbing is subject to local rules and regulations.

An ample and well placed supply of electric outlets must be provided.

Heating

Hot water provides a uniform and steady heat free from draughts. Forced hot air installations are cheaper and quite satisfactory in certain instances. Air conditioning systems of a dependable make can also be recommended.

Painting

This is one of the vulnerable spots in house building. Good paint is the cheapest. Honest sandpapering and careful application make for lasting satisfaction.

Short cuts and too cheap materials should be carefully avoided if disheartening upkeep expenses and repairs are to be avoided.

If the house is not beautiful when completed, some at least of the money invested has been lost. A beautiful house is an asset that safeguards the owner's investment. It is surprising that this important fact is so often overlooked.

A last word of advice: Build beautifully, from plans by an architect who knows how to design beautiful houses.

Industrial Relations and Social Security

Profit Sharing for Wage Earners

By C. C. BALDERSTON

PROFIT sharing for rank and file employees is likely to be ineffective if relied upon as a substitute for other more fundamental personnel devices. It ought not to be thought of as an incentive that can take the place of piecework and bonus plans, or even as a mild incentive to increase efficiency in operations that do not lend themselves to the objective measurement of performance. Nor does the initiation of profit sharing eliminate the need for some kind of joint dealing between an employer and his workers. It is not a satisfactory solution for a strike involving wages, nor a good answer to a demand for a wage increase.

When a well rounded personnel program that includes properly financed schemes designed to protect the employees against such contingencies as unemployment, disability, old age and death has been developed in a company, however, the management may be justified in undertaking some means of sharing profits with the workers. The history of such protective measures indicates that this point of view has had some acceptance. While some 193 American profit-sharing plans have been found by a recent study, no fewer than 385 pension plans, exclusive of those in railroad companies, were discovered in 1932. There has been an increasingly better provision for pension plans in recent years. In 1932 some 163 pension plans were underwritten by insurance companies and during succeeding years this means of

funding pensions grew in favor to such an extent that the contracts in force increased to 405 by the end of 1935.¹

Impetus to the spread of such devices for employee security has come through realization by management that employee reserves are also necessary for reasons of efficiency. Any company that looks forward to a long-continued existence is certain to face the necessity of eliminating from the organization those who for any reason are unable to function properly. If, at the time employees reach the age when they are no longer effective in their jobs, a company has no financial reserves in the shape of a pension fund or paid-up annuities, the management will be tempted to sidestep the problem of retirement entirely by retaining such workers on the payroll long past the time when they have slowed up so much as to be a handicap. Similar arguments can be advanced with respect to other crises such as the necessity for laying off regular employees during a depression. Though the very continuance of the business may necessitate the reduction of the payroll, most managements will feel a responsibility toward those who are the sole support of families. Consequently, they delay taking the steps called for by the business conditions of the moment because they hesitate to cast out such individuals to seek jobs when no jobs are to be found. Retirement and dismissal wage plans are at least a partial answer to these problems.

Granting the importance of these agencies from the points of view of employee security and managerial efficiency and

Editor's NOTE: C. Canby Balderston is Professor of Industry at the Wharton School of Finance and Commerce which is part of the University of Pennsylvania. He has just published a book "Profit Sharing for Wage Earners" which was brought out by the Industrial Relations Counselors, Inc., New York. It is one of the most valuable contributions made in recent years to that important problem and should be read by all students of Industrial Relations. The price is \$2.00.

1. Industrial Relations Counselors, Inc., Industrial Pension Systems in the United States and Canada, New York, 1936, (mimeographed), p. 15.

the need for their sound financing by predetermined procedures, companies might well consider the use of a share of the profits in good years to strengthen the financial bases of the schemes, or to shorten the period of amortization of pension plans, for example. Boards of directors have frequently so acted without previously announcing to employees any formal plan for the use of exceptional profits. Such informal allocation of surplus, while they leave the company free of commitments for the future, are no doubt in most cases less likely to improve employee morale than an announced formula for devoting exceptional profits to furthering employee security.

This combination has the distinct merit of conforming to what is here favored as the long-run objective of managers, i.e., the protection of the business itself and also of the families of workers dependent upon it, which requires flexibility of total payroll and stability of individual employee earnings. The continuance of a business in periods of competitive pressure and economic crisis calls for policies that keep current payroll expense somewhat responsive to fluctuations in volume and prices. Individual employees, however, need security of job and earnings. They need security against all, not merely a few, of the difficulties that befall them as family heads. They need earnings sufficiently stable to permit the budgeting of family expenditure to maintain a living standard that will not be subject to sudden changes. To be "in clover" one year and on relief the next is not conducive to a satisfactory life or to reasonable attitudes in work relationships.

Employee reserves which are built up, at least in part, by profit sharing according to a predetermined formula permit companies that make substantial profits, even occasionally, to pursue simultaneously both phases of this objective—flexibility in payroll for the company and stable earnings for its workers. The payroll to which the company is committed will be reducible to the extent that payments to individual employees in slack times are shifted from the pay-

roll to the reserves created in prosperous periods. The stability of family incomes will be enhanced because the regular family budget will be based in boom years upon the regular full-time pay and supplemented in time of sickness, unemployment or old age from the reserves set aside by the company for this purpose.

The maintenance of the standard of living and the peace of mind of the working population are of the utmost concern to all citizens, whether they be employees, managers, investors or consumers. The state of the nation and the stability of government reflect the scale of living that business is able to provide for those dependent upon it. And from still another point of view, business needs the purchasing power in lean years of consumers who, for one reason or another, have no jobs or have decreased earnings at the moment. In addition to these broad considerations a company wishing to pay its workers high real wages cannot, without some danger to its competitive situation, pay much more than the going rate as current wages. But after each fiscal period is ended, profits, if they have been earned, can be used to provide extra compensation in a form that will enhance the security of employees by protecting and even elevating their living standards.

Some state that leading companies already have plans of the type recommended. The rebuttal to this argument is simple. Although, as already noted, many corporations have given much attention to the perfection of pension and other security plans and have devoted large sums of money to them, the companies known to have provided fully for their accrued pension liabilities and for all other needed forms of employee protection are few. Managements have so frequently protected stockholders, the owners of the business, by paying dividends in dull times from company reserves that the parallel treatment of employees cannot be dubbed paternalistic.

To the contention that employees should get in their pay envelopes or in cash bonuses whatever their company can afford to pay them above the going

rate, the appropriate reply is to consider realistically what happens to such exceptional earnings. Are they either saved or spent in such a way as to advance the long-run scale of living of the family? Some families do have the habit of saving; even these lack access to the mechanisms through which their savings may be invested safely and in a form adapted to all of the major risks to which the family is subject. In the majority of American families it is probable that the windfalls of boom years are spent for purchases which though desirable at the moment may not be warranted on the basis of the family's average yearly income. In these circumstances such employees are prone to look to the company for aid in the emergency at the time when it may be suffering losses, and therefore from the management's point of view the protective type of profit sharing is preferable to the immediate distribution type.

Gist of the Experience

Profit-sharing arrangements have been used in England for three-quarters of a century and in the United States for about half a century, but despite the help of a considerable number of ardent advocates have not been widely accepted.

How extensively has profit sharing been used in the United States? The survey previously mentioned revealed 193 plans in 186 companies that fall within a strict definition of profit sharing. Of the 144 for which information was secured directly from the companies which operate them, sixty-seven (46.5 per cent: were still in use in 1937)

The Group I plans, four in all, were those in which the profit-sharing principle had been applied by the unusual process of arranging for the employees to own at least a majority of the stock. This group would have been a large one, of course, if regular stock purchase plans had not been omitted, for the reasons stated earlier.

Of the Group II plans, which announce a definite formula for distributing profits, direct contact was made with eighty-eight, of which twenty-nine were still

in active operation and fifty-nine discontinued or in abeyance.

In general, the American plans in Group III, i.e., plans announced in advance but less definite than those in Group II as to the portion of profits distributed, seem to have had proportionately fewer casualties than those in Group II. Only eighteen of fifty-two for which information was received directly had been suspended or abandoned, leaving over 65 per cent still in operation.

Of the seventy-eight plans started in Great Britain and Northern Ireland in the years 1922 to 1936, the majority, about 60 per cent, were of the Group III type.¹ Since any plan in which the bonuses depend on dividends, not profits, was classed as Group III, the large number of British schemes in this group is to be expected in view of the popularity of profit sharing among the gas companies, where profit sharing is linked to their sliding scale provision for increasing dividends as gas prices fall, and vice versa.

Returning now to a more detailed examination of Group II, it appears that 28.5 per cent of the 123 American plans discovered as a result of this and other surveys were originated by companies located in the Middle Atlantic states and somewhat more than 30 per cent by companies in the East North Central states. About 14 per cent were in New England plants, and, curiously enough, the great industrial community around Philadelphia has shunned profit sharing almost completely.

Of the Group II plans in the United States and Canada whose starting dates are known, 43 per cent were initiated between 1911 and 1920. Though the 1920's were so prosperous that the starting of a number of plans was to have been anticipated, only fourteen were discovered—probably a reflection of the popularity at that time of the stock purchase idea, which proved disappointing in so many instances.

The total number of Group III plans found in the United States and Canada

(1) Stock purchase plans have been omitted from this count.

is sixty-six, of which one-half are, or have been located in the Middle Atlantic and East North Central regions. Still another quarter belonged to New England firms—a fact which indicates that in this area the wage dividend and other plans with an indefinite relation to profits were preferred to those of the Group II type in which the connection with profits is definite. Examination of the starting dates of these Group III plans indicates that only 33 per cent of the known dates fell in the period 1911 to 1920, whereas 43 per cent of the Group II plans were started during that interval.

Guiding Policies

Assuming that a company decides to adopt the principle of profit sharing, what policies and methods should it use? What are the characteristics of a sound plan? The most important decisions have to do with the policies upon which the plan is grounded.

The following policies are suggested:

1. The regular wages should be at least as high as the going rate paid in the community and by competitors in communities of the same size and with approximately the same living costs.
2. The profits to be distributed to employees should not be regularly paid in cash but should be placed in a fund to be used primarily to further employee security.
3. Funds created through the operation of a profit-sharing plan should be trusted and administered jointly by management and employees.
4. A substantial portion of the fund should be placed in investments such as are suitable for savings banks. Employee savings certainly should not be invested in the company's common stock.
5. Funds created through profit sharing should be so administered that, although an employee is limited in his use of the funds placed to his account to prevent them from being dissipated, his right to join any labor or other organization he may

choose or his right to leave the employer's service is in no way affected. In short, each employee should have a vested right to some part or all of the funds deposited for him and to his share of the interest accumulations.

Conclusion

It may be concluded that profit sharing has real merit, but in its application extreme care must be exercised to determine the suitability of the particular situation and the soundness of the plan in relation to it. It is sound policy for profit-making businesses to adopt profit sharing provided they have established well rounded personnel programs which include properly financed plans to protect employees in periods of reduction or complete loss of earnings. Standing alone, it is a weak device upon which to depend and cannot be recommended except as the culmination of a personnel policy so effective that the sharing of profits is regarded as a further recognition of the mutuality of the enterprise and is not under suspicion as a scheme to evade more fundamental responsibilities. Moreover, managements must be reasonably certain that the financial provisions for the protective measures of the personnel program already in operation are adequate, so that having entered upon a profit-sharing system they will not be compelled to deliberalize or abandon it in order to divert its funds to the bolstering of these other primary obligations.

Nova Scotia Motor Carrier Act

Regulations under this Act, approved by Order in Council on April 20th, limit for the first time in Nova Scotia the hours of labour of drivers of public vehicles carrying passengers or passengers and freight for gain. Taxis carrying seven passengers or less and regularly operating in a city, town or village and making a trip outside such boundaries are exempt.

No driver may be allowed or required to drive or to ride on a public vehicle

as a helper or relief driver for more than ten hours in any 24-hour period. No person after having been employed in any other capacity may drive a public service vehicle when the total number of hours of his employment as a driver or otherwise exceeds ten in 24.

Overtime may be worked on written permission from the Registrar of Motor Vehicles when a written application has been made in advance and the Registrar is satisfied that such overtime is justifiable. Employers are required to keep a record of the hours of employment of all drivers and the vehicle or vehicles driven by each during such hours.

Other regulations relate to the medical examination of drivers, insurance and safety measures.—*The Labour Gazette.*

Industrial Conciliation Legislation in New Brunswick

The New Brunswick Legislature has enacted a Labour and Industrial Relations Act providing increased facilities for conciliation in industrial disputes, while retaining the provisions made in the Fair Wage Act (which is repealed) for a fair wage officer and a fair wage board to inquire into complaints and fix minimum wages and the maximum hours to which such rates apply. The new sections of the Act, like those of the Alberta and British Columbia Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Acts of 1938 and 1937 respectively, enable the Minister to appoint a conciliation commissioner to whom a dispute may be referred and, failing a settlement, to appoint a tripartite board of conciliation which, if unable to settle a dispute, is to make recommendations for a settlement. In New Brunswick, the Minister is not required to appoint a board unless the dispute affects 30 or more employees. A report of a board is not binding on the parties to a dispute but both employers and employees must take a vote on the question of accepting or rejecting the recommendations.

The Act prohibits any strike or lock-out until a dispute has been reported upon by a board of conciliation or has

been dealt with by the Fair Wage Board but, where there is a collective agreement between an employer and an organisation of employees providing for the arbitration of disputes and the procedure laid down in the agreement has been followed, this prohibition does not apply.

In addition to the direct provisions for the settlement of disputes, the Act contains sections declaring the right of employers and employees to organise in associations or trade unions and the right of employees to bargain collectively through representatives elected by a majority vote or through the officers of the organisation to which the majority of the employees belong. Any condition in a contract of employment tending to restrain an employer or employee from exercising his rights under the Act is unlawful and a penalty is provided for any employer who, by threat of dismissal or by dismissal or loss of employment, or for any person who, by any threat of intimidation, attempts to induce any person to join or refrain from joining or belonging to any organisation or to work or abstain from work.

Organisations of employers and employees may be required by the Minister to file in his office a copy of their constitutions, by-laws or other documents, the names of their officers and a statement of their receipts and expenditures.—*The Labour Gazette.*

Health Insurance in Great Britain

Important changes may be expected in the system of health insurance existing in Great Britain since 1911. If they should become effective they would mean the greatest progress made in that important field since health insurance was established.

The British system of health covers, with very few exceptions, workers in all industries, but it extends only to those engaged themselves in a gainful occupation and does not protect the members of their families. In that respect it differs from the German and French systems which include all members of

the insured persons' families. Now the British Medical Association has proposed to take the same step in England and to give the services offered under the national health insurance plan also to the members of the insured families. If the Government should carry out that suggestion it would mean that more than half of Britain's population would be under the protection of health insurance, an addition of between 18 to 20 million people. This measure would, however, according to the proposition of the British Medical Association, be restricted to families whose income does not exceed £250 a year. Although at the current rate of exchange this amount corresponds to \$1,250, the purchasing power of the sum is much higher. It is interesting to state that the proposition worked out in 1933 by the Canadian Medical Association—which, by the way, also provided for the inclusion of members of the families—set an income limit of \$2,500 for persons with dependents while this limit in the Health Insurance Act of British Columbia was \$1,800. The British Medical Association further recommends an extension of the benefits available for the insured. Hitherto only a medical practitioner might be consulted. Now it is proposed to provide for the services of every type of medical consultant and specialist as the needs of the patients may indicate. The system is further to be extended so that it includes full dental and eye services. Finally the establishment of a complete maternity service is proposed, based on the provision of a family doctor and a certified midwife with "home helps" to relieve the mother of household trouble during the lying-in period, and a specialist in reserve to deal with complicated cases.

Hospital Costs in Canada

Statistics from Canadian hospitals reveal that it costs on the average in Canada \$5.01 per day for a private room, \$2.79 for a semi-private room, and \$1.98 in a public ward. These figures prevail in the average Canadian centre. From the amount of revenue thus received one might imagine that the hospitals should be paying institutions. On the debit side of the ledger, however, is the cost per patient per day. This amounts to \$3.23 for all patients, so that there is a deficit shown with the exception of private room revenue. It might be argued that the charge for other services might be increased, but anyone entering a hospital for any length of time finds the prevailing rate sufficiently high. While conditions in the business world may vary, the hospital rates are fairly constant. In the past twelve years they have shown an increase of only 3.6 per cent.—*The Municipal World*.

Profit Sharing in British Industry

According to a report of the British Ministry of Labour, there existed in 1935 in Great Britain 404 firms which had introduced profit sharing for their workers. The average share that was distributed each quarter from the profit of the enterprise amounted to £10.12.3. It was equal to 5.8% of the wages. Recently the Morris Motors Limited, in order to introduce profit sharing, established a special fund which consists of one million shares of stock of the enterprise. From this fund the amounts payable to the workers will be taken. A committee has been formed by the firm on which the workers are represented.

Current Public Affairs

Towards Educational Reform in New Brunswick

In the latest Report of the Department of Education of New Brunswick the following paragraphs are contained dealing with the larger school units and public libraries, problems repeatedly discussed in the columns of "PUBLIC AFFAIRS."

The Supervision of Schools

Under modern educational practice the work of school inspectors becomes helpful, constructive supervision rather than police duty. Such supervision cannot be rendered by an inspector if he has so many teachers under him that each can only be visited once or twice a year as has been the case in New Brunswick. To correct this abuse the inspectors have been relieved of their regular duties in communities having ten or more teachers, which already receive supervision from superintendents and principals. Two new inspectors have been appointed and others will be named if necessary, so that each may be responsible for not more than 125 rural and village teachers. The inspectorial districts of the Province are now being re-organised on this principle to bring better service to rural areas.

Larger Units of Administration

Without larger units of administration it will be impossible to put our rural educational service on a par with that of urban centres. Consequently careful studies are being made of this vital question. A survey was made of Kings County by a Summer School class under Dr. Plenderleith. Similar studies are now being conducted in Madawaska, Carleton, and Westmoreland Counties, and many discussion clubs through the Province are making intensive studies of rural education.

The Re-organization of the Rural Set-up

The rural school district is a pioneer institution which, although it has rendered good service in elementary learning in the past, is entirely inadequate to provide a modern education programme for the country today. The better financial set-up in the cities has put urban education facilities much ahead of rural during the present century. A study of the situation here and abroad should lead to a thorough re-organisation of Rural Educa-

tion, and the adoption of the County as the unit of administration.

With a County board of education working on the advice of a progressive and enlightened County Superintendent or Inspector it would be possible to very quickly improve primary rural schools and establish an appropriate programme of secondary education through Regional High Schools strategically placed. Thus rural areas may have an educational service in relation to their needs better than that of the towns.

Adult Education—Libraries Needed

The high percentage of illiteracy in New Brunswick, and the very limited amount of organisation for study after leaving schools indicate that facilities and encouragement for Adult Education should be widely extended. With the help of local leaders Study Clubs are being formed and a temporary agent has been appointed by the Department to supervise work in literature, speech and dramatics. The adults of the province are showing a gratifying activity in these subjects.

The most pressing requirement for progress in Adult Education is a public library service that will reach all rural districts. Without this basic tool such education cannot go far in New Brunswick. The Province should initiate such a service in a small way and extend it year by year.

Nova Scotia's Fire Losses Per Capita Highest in Canada During 1937

Nova Scotia's fire record in 1937 was rather unfavourable according to the Report of the Provincial Fire Marshal. While fire losses as a whole have been steadily declining during the last eighteen years—they are at present only 38% of what they were in 1920—the year 1937 showed a not inconsiderable increase over the previous year. Total losses in buildings amounted to \$1,347,000 compared with \$1,298,000 in 1936, and the per capita loss rose from \$2.53 to \$2.62. This per capita loss was higher than in any other province, while in the number of fires on 10,000 of population, Nova Scotia occupied fourth place. The number of fires reported, 1660, was the highest on record, an increase over 1936 of 418.

In the Table below the principal causes of fire are:

CAUSE OF FIRE	No. of Fires	Increase or Decrease	% of Total	% of Loss	Loss	Increase in Loss
Sparks on Wood Shingle Roofs.....	413	*145	24.8	4.5	\$ 60,826	\$24,399
Chimneys.....	200	* 32	12.	10.4	140,304	95,877
Careless Smoking.....	161	* 26	9.7	9.8	132,612	56,705
Stoves, Furnaces and Pipes.....	172	* 46	10.3	8.8	119,388	66,708
Electricity.....	64	* 6	3.9	8.6	116,293	46,345
Sparks ;other than W. S. Roofs:...	94	* 27	5.7	9.1	121,404	72,752

These causes cover over half the loss and two thirds of the number of fires.

If we inquire more thoroughly into these causes, we find that about 75% of the fires might have been prevented. They are due to carelessness or negligence.

One quarter of the fires were caused by "sparks lighting on wooden shingle roofs", one eighth by faulty chimney conditions, one tenth by stoves, furnaces and pipes not properly protected.

There was an increase of \$57,000 in the loss caused by electric current. One fire alone resulted in a loss of \$86,825 and the cause was established as due to an overloaded circuit—additional wiring installed by an unqualified man. This hazard is becoming more serious every year. The absence of a licensing system and reliable inspection (except in Halifax and Sydney) and the extension of electric current not only in towns but also through rural districts have led in many instances

to the employment of the cheapest of those who claimed to be wiremen, and work has been performed by unqualified men without sufficient knowledge or experience, and material and workmanship which would never be passed by a competent inspector has been covered up and used.

The only permanent remedy, according to the Fire Marshal's Report, is further legislation providing for thorough inspection, and that no contractor, journeyman, apprentice or other person shall engage in electrical installation or the operation of electrical machinery without first being declared legally qualified. Such legislation is in force in Halifax and Sydney.

What important protection is provided by water supply and fire fighting organisations is shown by a comparison of the districts enjoying and those lacking these facilities.

1937	Protected Areas		Non Protected Areas	
	No. of Fires	Loss	No. of Fires	Loss
Barns.....	19	\$ 14,073	82	\$117,420
Dwellings.....	883	193,241	376	288,589

Fires caused by lightning numbered 51, all but two of which were in unprotected areas. This is an increase of 22 over the previous year.

The total human life which must be charged to carelessness and negligence included six men, two women and eight children.

In the first three months of 1938 fire

losses were even more serious than in the first quarter of the already unfavourable year 1937. The number of fires increased from 344 to 499 and the losses from \$179,000 to \$419,000. This is due to an unusually large number of fires where each loss has exceeded the \$5,000 mark. In the same period ten persons were killed by fire and eighteen injured.

Credit Unions in the Civil Service

Nova Scotia has pioneered in organising Credit Unions on a large scale. As early as 1932 the Credit Union Societies Act was passed. This Act enabled a community or industrial groups in Nova Scotia to organise their own cooperative banks under provincial charter and supervision.

The Act itself is regarded as a model, the result of nearly one hundred years of cooperative banking the world over. Other provinces quickly realised its worth, and very soon New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Alberta, Manitoba and other provinces passed Credit Union legislation, patterned more or less after the Nova Scotia Act.

During the short period of less than six years, there have been about one hundred and fifty Credit Unions organised and operating successfully in this province.

This development, at first, was centered in Eastern Nova Scotia, the parts most directly under the influence of St. Francis Xavier University.

In 1936 the postal employees of Halifax were organised and became the first Credit Union in Western Nova Scotia. They were very successful and as a result, a great amount of interest was aroused in Halifax.

In the spring of 1937 the Provincial Government employees organized the second Union in Halifax. During the year, since that time, there was a very rapid growth in the movement; many industrial, community, and parish groups received charters to operate, after a period of intensive study and discussion.

It is of interest to note that in Halifax as in the United States and elsewhere, Civil Servants have shown the way. They were the first to appreciate the need and advantages of Credit Unions; and they have been responsible for the rapid development and organisation among other groups.

At present, practically all large groups of Civil Servants in Halifax are successfully operating chartered Credit Unions.

The Postal Credit Union in two years of rapid progress, has increased its membership from twenty to two hundred and has enabled them to save over \$13,000, besides rendering an invaluable credit service.

The Provincial employees are just about to celebrate the first birthday of their Union, having increased to two hundred and seventy-four members with savings of \$7,300.

The Halifax Federal, the next civil group to organise, have influenced one hundred and eighty-five members to save over \$2,000 in three months.

Our Civic employees are also proud to operate their own Credit Union, with a membership of one hundred they have accumulated \$850 in almost three months.

Other public employees have recently obtained Credit Union charters, including the Nova Scotia Liquor Commission employees, and the different branches of the Canadian National Railways.

Our Government employees deserve much credit for their service in the Credit Union movement. They have found a new and better method of attacking the old problems of thrift and budgeting, a new system of mutual aid through self help; and perhaps the most important discovery is that of a new and better code of relations with their fellowmen.

JOSEPH BEED

Cost of Government in Canada

THE total expenditure on current account of all governments in Canada—Dominion, Provincial and Municipal, including schools and expenditures on direct relief whether or not such expenditures were funded—amounted in 1936 on the basis of the compilation made by the citizens' Research Institute of Canada to \$1,070,731,792. This figure is after deduction of intra-governmental expenditures and also does not include gross expenditures of publicly-owned trading enterprises, including the deficit on the Canadian National Railway system.

This governmental expenditure amounted to \$97.10 (1) for each man, woman and

(1) On the basis of a population for 1936 of 11,028,000—the estimate of the Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

child in Canada and was equal to 24.4% of the national income (2) for 1936.

The figures following show the growth in current expenditure of Canadian governments, Dominion, Provincial and Municipal, including schools, over a period of years. The figures are "net", that is, after deducting intra-governmental payments. They do not include gross expenditure on public utilities or trading operations, but do include "deficits" such as those on the operation of the Canadian National Railways. They also include expenditures on direct relief whether or not these were met out of borrowed funds. The last column shows the percentages which this expenditure has represented of the national income in recent years.

Year	Expenditures of all Governments on Current Account		Percentage which total expenditure was of national income
	Amount	Per Capita	
1904	\$ 103,501,909	\$17.76	?
1913	260,436,995	34.12	?
1922	720,309,719	80.76	18.0%
1930	937,191,913	91.80	19.7%
1934	1,008,526,506	93.17	27.9%
1935	1,070,969,241	97.93	28.2%
1936	1,070,731,792	97.10	24.4%

The growth of governmental debt, less sinking funds on hand, in the period, including direct debt of all governments, and treasury notes, bank loans, bank overdrafts, guaranteed debt of the Dominion and the Provinces only, has been as follows:

(2) As estimated by the Institute.

Year	Total Governmental Debt in Canada—Dominion, Provincial, Municipal and School—on the basis explained above—less sinking funds.	
	Amount	Per Capita
1904	\$ 191,108,761	\$ 32.80
1913	412,352,629	54.02
1922	4,669,959,043	523.60
1930	5,597,307,494	548.33
1934	7,064,472,117	652.67
1935	7,393,317,594	676.12
1936	7,426,415,851	673.41

Of this debt, about \$1,850,000,000 was incurred for publicly-owned trading operations such as the Canadian National Railway, Hydro-Electric Enterprises, Waterworks, Street Railways, Telephone Systems, etc.—*Canadian Taxation*, issued by the Citizen's Research Institute of Canada.

Bad Drivers Labeled

Four-inch red stripes are now painted on the cars of motoring offenders at Santa Ana, California. This form of punishment is the idea of Superior Judge James L. Allen. He has ordered the lines to be painted on the cars of many drivers accused of drunkenness, reckless or hit-and-run driving. These drivers, after the cars have been "striped", are forbidden to park within 300 feet of any place where liquor is sold. Expressing his satisfaction at the success of his plan, Judge Allen said: "If they are ashamed to drive their conspicuous machines, they can stay at home."—*The Municipal Review of Canada*.

What Municipalities are Doing

Contributions from Municipalities to this Column will be most welcome.

Submission By City of Halifax to Rowell Commission.

By C. P. BETHUNE

IT has been suggested that a condensation of the Submissions on behalf of the City of Halifax made to the Rowell Commission at its sittings at Halifax would be of interest to the readers of PUBLIC AFFAIRS

Some general data was set out in order to give the Commission a picture of the situation existing here. The funded debt of the City was shown at \$15,175,005.95. The total annual revenue from taxation for the civic year 1937-1938 was \$2,265,357.65 which was expended as to \$1,531,876.24 for so-called "uncontrollable expenditure" and \$733,481.41 for so-called "controllable expenditure."

"Uncontrollable expenditures" included joint expenditures with the County and Town of Dartmouth, Public Schools, Superannuations, repayment of short term debentures, payments into sinking funds, interest on debt, reserve for taxes and Highway Tax to Provincial Government.

"Controllable expenditures" included upkeep of services—Public Charities, Public Gardens and Parks, Library, Health, Police, Fire Department, Administrative Salaries, Prison, Public Works, etc.

Attention was called to the Provincial Highway Tax amounting to \$48,590.32, no portion of which is expended in the City of Halifax.

The next portion of the Memorandum dealt with the exemption from taxation of a large portion of real property in the City of Halifax.

The total value of all real property in Halifax in 1937 was \$89,110,515.00. Of this amount real property to the value of \$40,520,190.00 is exempt from taxation,

leaving only real property to the value of \$48,590,325.00 to bear the real property tax burden.

Of this exempt portion, property valued at \$21,620,820.00 is owned by the Government of Canada, which constitutes more than fifty per cent of the total exemptions and nearly one quarter in value of all the real property in the City—both exempt and taxable.

This property of the Federal Government comprises:

Military Property valued at.....	\$ 2,419,900.00
Naval Property valued at.....	1,346,520.00
Railway Property valued at.....	4,829,600.00
National Harbours Board.....	11,316,400.00
Administration Buildings.....	1,708,400.00

Attention was particularly called to the Railway and National Harbours Board property totalling \$16,146,000.00 in which the Crown is carrying on a competitive commercial business. It was urged in respect of this that where the Government enters the field of competitive business the prerogative of the exemption of the Crown should not exist, and if it does continue to exist, should not be used by the Government as a shield from the same responsibilities, such as taxes and local rates, which private citizens, carrying on the identical types of business and in competition with the Government are obliged to assume.

It was pointed out that the value of military and naval defence property in the City of Halifax was far out of proportion to the benefit received by the City and that in so far as this property is here not only for the protection of this City, but also for the general defence of Canada as a whole, that the rest of Canada should reimburse the City of Halifax therefor. The value of this property is \$3,766,420.00 and it consists of an area of 200 acres lying in the heart of the City, which occupies only 4200 acres. An insignificant garrison is main-

tained and the benefits from expenditures made by the military and naval authorities here are trifling compared with the burden imposed by this quantity of exempt property.

It was further urged that the Federal Government should pay for Local Improvement and Betterment charges in respect of properties owned by it in like manner as private individuals. These charges include sidewalk and pavement assessments, sewer and water pipe rates, street oiling and such other similar matters.

It was also submitted that the Crown should pay for such services as Fire Protection and Sewerage and Drainage facilities supplied by the City and used by the Crown.

It was further urged that in view of the present trend of the Federal Government in housing its offices in Government owned buildings, that many private owners have the premises formerly occupied by the Crown on their hands vacant. Some consideration should be given to this matter and the municipality reimbursed to enable it to ease the tax burden on such private owners.

It was strongly contended before the Commission that the National Harbours Board which occupies a portion of the Harbour front and which carries on a shipping, warehousing and cold storage business in competition with private wharf and warehouse owners should be taxed. Since the Supreme Court of Canada held that the occupation of the Harbour Commission was an occupation on behalf of the Crown and *for the purpose*

of the Crown, it was not liable to be assessed. It is difficult to see that the businesses indicated above in this paragraph are Governmental businesses.

The point was made that in other parts of Canada large sums are paid through Canadian National Railways to municipalities as taxation, but not one cent is paid to the City of Halifax for this purpose for the reason that the Railway in Halifax is the old Inter-colonial Railway, which was owned lock stock and barrel by the Crown, but the railways in respect of which taxes are paid are subject to a fictional ownership by the Crown through ownership in shares thereof, and therefore the corporate entity of such railway companies is liable to taxation, but the taxes are nevertheless paid by the Crown.

It was further urged that the Crown should submit itself to such local by-laws, regulations, ordinances and statutory provisions enacted for the general safety, health and comfort of the citizens, such as snow-removal regulations, sanitation and public health regulations, including plumbing and electrical wiring regulations, building construction regulations and town planning regulations.

The question of Direct Relief was dealt with and the great burden caused thereby to the municipalities.

In the main the Memorandum on behalf of the City was a prayer for financial relief. It was shown in what manner the payment of taxes or sums in lieu of taxes would be reflected in the tax rate, which in the year 1937-1938 was 36.2 mills. The table follows:

Department	Extra Assessment	Adjusted Civic Tax Rate in Mills	Amount of Payment
*M. & N.....	\$ 3,766,420	34.	\$128,058.28
**C. N. R.....	4,829,600	33.5	161,791.60
***N. H. B.....	11,316,400	30.4	344,018.56
M. & N. and C. N. R.....	8,596,020	31.6	271,634.23
M. & N. and N. H. B.....	15,082,820	28.9	435,893.50
C. N. R. and N. H. B.....	16,146,000	28.4	458,546.40
M. & N. and C. N. R. and N. H. B.....	19,912,420	27.1	539,626.58

*Military and Naval.

**Canadian National Railways.

***National Harbour Board.

It will be noted that the Submission did not deal with generalities, but pointed out the various ways in which the City of Halifax suffered great loss from the presence in the City of the various Departments of the Government of Canada which are located in this City not only for the benefit of the City of Halifax, but for the general benefit of the whole of Canada, which should contribute its share of the burden cast upon the City thereby.

Careless Auditing

When sentencing the ex-treasurer of Euphrasia who admitted a default of \$11,000 in the township funds, His Honour Judge G. W. Morley took occasion to make some timely comment anent the penny-wise and pound-foolish policy of so many municipalities of engaging inefficient employees at a mere pittance as salaries. In this case the man was paid \$175 a year to handle \$35,000. "A very meagre salary," said the Judge, who added, "I want this to be published. Municipalities must be urged to pay larger salaries to men in positions of trust. It is not fair to pay what they are doing now, and many of them, aside from Euphrasia Township, are very careless about the audit. I would strongly urge that outside accountants be hired to audit the books." His Honour is quite right. Where, in private business is a \$175 employee expected to efficiently account for \$35,000? It simply is not done. The risk would be too great. Service should be paid for at the market value, and the sooner there is a realization of the fact the better for all concerned. In Euphrasia inefficiency appears to have been the main cause for the present very awkward situation, though the municipality was also contributory to a great extent through neglect of not having had an audit for several years. Both officials and township are now paying dearly for their part. From their experience others may well take a lesson. Cheapness is not always the way to faith-

ful service or to successful economy.—
Collingwood Enterprise-Bulletin.

Sydney Mines

With the fiscal year ending December 31, 1937, the town of Sydney Mines presented a balanced budget, showing a surplus of receipts over expenditures. Cash on hand amounted to slightly over \$1,000. The town's credit is good. A bonded debt of approximately \$300,000 has been provided for by the establishing of a sinking fund. Total receipts for the year amounted to \$187,317.83 compared to the estimated receipts of \$151,475.44.

In line with other municipalities Sydney Mines operates its relief under the new system beginning this year by which the town pays 36 $\frac{2}{3}$ % of the cost, the province 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ % and the Dominion government 30%. The old plan was that each government bore $\frac{1}{3}$ of the cost of relief. Each person on relief receives 80c. per day. A plan to make use of those on relief in public works has not yet been evolved.

Unemployment will probably be decreased with the increased operations of the mine in the near vicinity. During the winter the average time of employment in the mines was about three shifts per week. At present the average has increased to approximately five shifts per week.

Assessable property under real estate amounts to \$1,357,237. The tax rate is \$4.50. No extensions of the town have taken place. About 36 miles of streets are included in the town of which only one street is paved. This paved street is part of the through highway and forms the main street of Sydney Mines.

At present the schools accommodate 1995 pupils. There are two high schools, only one of which has Grade XII. In all the schools there are 39 teachers on the staffs. In 1932 they received a cut in salaries, but in December 1937 they were given raises amounting to 10%, 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ % and 5%, returning them to their previous standing.

Legal Department

The Nova Scotia Instalment Payment Contracts Act.

By W. D. OUTHIT

THE Hire Purchase Agreement and the Conditional Sale Contract have long been known to English Law and in former times, although well recognized and having a definite place in the business life of the community, did not merit exceptional attention and were content to perform their functions in an efficient and unobtrusive manner. However with the development of commerce in recent years, the changes of business and the increase of sales on credit the Hire Purchase Agreement and the Conditional Sale Contract have been forced into a position of prominence. Under present methods of merchandising the sale of many articles is promoted by emphasizing purchase by instalments and the right of the purchaser to use the article while the purchase price is being paid. The Hire Purchase Agreement and the Conditional Sale Contract, wherein the title to the article purchased is declared to remain in the Vendor until payment in full has been made, has thereby become one of the commonest and best known mercantile contracts. In fact the practice of requiring such agreements is now so well established that the purchaser expects to be called upon to sign such an agreement and very rarely reads its contents.

Statutes have been passed in all of the Provinces of Canada, with the exception of the Province of Quebec, making uniform the law with respect to such agreements or contracts. These Statutes are enacted primarily for the protection of creditors of and purchasers from a person who has bought an article under a Conditional Sale Contract. Because it is natural to assume that a person who has an article in his possession and is using it is the

owner thereof these Statutes provide a registration system to be followed by a Vendor if he is to retain title to an article as against creditors of and purchasers from a purchaser and at the same time permit the purchaser to use the article. These Statutes also regulate the manner and time of resale of an article that has been repossessed so as to give to the purchaser some opportunity to redeem the seized article.

During the last few years in the Province of Nova Scotia it became apparent that the use of the Conditional Sale contract and the right of repossession thereunder were being abused by a few unscrupulous Vendors who were selling articles on the instalment plan. Individual cases were investigated and it was found that many persons who could ill afford to pay for the same were being loaded down with instalment contracts and that in many cases upon the occurrence of a default in payment after the greater part of the purchase price had been paid the articles were being unceremoniously repossessed and promptly resold. In other instances high pressure salesmen were selling useless or unnecessary articles to small wage earners and when, after making sacrifices to pay the first few instalments, a default occurred the articles were promptly repossessed and sold to another small wage earner under a similar contract. Such abuses, I suggest, are not due to any abnormal gullibility on the part of Nova Scotians, nor to any lack of principle on the part of Nova Scotian retailers generally, but result from the practices of a few unprincipled traders endeavoring to take advantage of the present system.

The Province of Nova Scotia, in advance of all of the other Provinces of the Dominion, has already taken steps to eradicate these abuses and at the last Session of the Nova Scotia Legislature the Act entitled "The Instalment Payment Contracts Act" was duly passed. It was first proposed to enact a Statute

EDITOR'S NOTE) Mr. W. D. Outhit, LL.B., is a member of the firm of Daley, Phinney, Outhit and Clarke, Barristers of Halifax.

preventing the Vendor under a Hire Purchase Agreement or a Conditional Sale Contract from repossessing under his contract where three fourths of the purchase price had been paid, except by leave of the Court. The Vendor was to be required to make application to Court for leave to repossess and if after review by the Court circumstances were such as to warrant repossession he was then to be permitted to retake the article. After due consideration it became apparent that this method of dealing with the problem would work an unnecessary hardship on the honest Vendor who makes a real effort to investigate a purchaser's credit before making a sale and who repossesses an article only as a last resort to minimize his loss on an unfortunate sale. Furthermore it provided no check on the high pressure salesman or on early, unreasonable repossessions.

At a public hearing to discuss the proposed enactment many comments and suggestions were heard and ultimately a new Act was drafted and the Instalment Payment Contracts Act in its present form was passed by the Legislature. This Act provides that no dealer, that is to say no person, firm or corporation, who in the ordinary course of business sells merchandise by a Hire Purchase Agreement or a Conditional Sale Contract shall do so without first having obtained a license from the Attorney General. The term "dealer" includes not only the original Vendor of the merchandise but also any person to whom the Vendor's interest may at any time be assigned or transferred. It therefore embraces, among others, wholesalers, retailers and finance companies. A fee of \$2.00 is payable for an annual license which expires on the 30th day of November in each year. The Act then provides for the appointment of inspectors who may examine the affairs of any dealer and requires every such dealer to prepare statements to be submitted to the inspectors. Returns are required to be made to the Attorney General on or before the 30th day of September in each year, containing such information as he may from time to time require.

The Attorney General in his absolute discretion may suspend or cancel any license which may have been granted and may issue Conditional certificates during such suspension or cancellation on such terms as he may require. Upon the cancellation of any such license the dealer must thereupon cease to transact any further business as a dealer. Penalties are provided for violation of any of the provisions of the Act and the Act is declared to come into force on the 30th day of June, A.D., 1938.

The Act in its present form should appeal to all persons as providing the logical means of dealing with the abuses hereinbefore referred to. The success or failure in the eradication of these abuses will depend, quite properly, upon the manner in which the Act is administered. The demands made upon the bona fide dealer who conducts his business properly are not great and it is quite probable that an investigation of his affairs will never be required. His sacred right to make lawful contracts, and his right to repossess an article after default have not been interfered with and he may continue his business as heretofore. On the other hand there is adequate machinery provided to prevent the continuance of ruthless practices by unscrupulous dealers and high pressure salesmen. The Act contemplates that these will be dealt with after a fair investigation, following no doubt complaints which have been received. Mere knowledge of the fact that such a Statute is in existence in this Province will no doubt curb their activities and on the whole it would appear that this problem has been met by the Legislature in a reasonable manner and one which will cause the honest Nova Scotian dealer a minimum amount of inconvenience.

Changes in the Administration of Justice in Nova Scotia

AT the 1938 Session of the Legislature of Nova Scotia was passed a Bill which will materially alter the existing system of administration of justice in the Province. Bill Number 71 bears

a long title showing that it amends the Statutes relating to Stipendiary Magistrates, Justices of the Peace, Constables and the acts protecting such officials in the discharge of their duties.

Upon introducing the legislation the Attorney General pointed out that it sets out a long range policy and not one of immediate action. It authorizes the Government from time to time to take action to bring about the reforms provided for in the Act.

The principal features of the measure are:

1. The abolition of the evils of the fee system in justices' and magistrates' courts.
2. The creation of districts for administration of justice which are not necessarily within the territorial limits of any one municipality.
3. The payment of salaries to police magistrates by the province.
4. Raising the standard of magistrates by limiting the appointment of police magistrates to barristers of at least three years' experience, and requiring all police magistrates to devote full time to the duties of their office.
5. Permitting magistrates and justices of the peace as at present to issue summonses and warrants but providing for the return of such process and the trial of all cases by the Police Magistrates appointed under the Act.
6. The bonding of police magistrates.

The bill received assent on the 14th day of April, A.D., 1938.

It should be noted that it does not entirely abolish the fee system, but all fees taken by police magistrates are to be paid over to the province. The magistrates will be salaried officers. From the point of view of the municipalities it will reduce the cost of administration of justice, for no longer will justices receive fees from municipalities for in-

dictable cases or any case where the informant is a constable. This saving may in part be off-set if the districts are enlarged and more travel fees be payable to constables and witnesses. It is not now the practice however for officers of the Royal Canadian Mounted Police to claim fees from municipalities.

The measure is a step toward acceptance by the province of the full costs of administration of justice within the province, which is the practice in most of the Canadian provinces.

The bonding of police magistrates is a very desirable feature of the new legislation.

It may be assumed that stipendiary magistrates now in office and satisfactorily performing their duties will not be disturbed but that on their death or resignation new appointments will be made under this Act. However, where a new district is created and a police magistrate appointed, some stipendiaries exercising jurisdiction within a part of its territorial limits may be affected.

In some provinces the trial magistrate is never the functionary who issues warrants or summonses. No party has any opportunity of telling the trial magistrate anything which is not given in evidence on the trial. In practice this may prove true of the police magistrates appointed under this Act, since justices are authorized to issue summonses returnable before police magistrates. This is certainly the better practice. Unless this practice grows under the new Act some amendment may be necessary to complete the reform so that the initials "J.P." shall not be construed as "Judgment for the Plaintiff."

The passing of the legislation follows a demand from many quarters for improved conditions in our magisterial system. Those same demands should ensure its early application.

R. M. FIELDING.

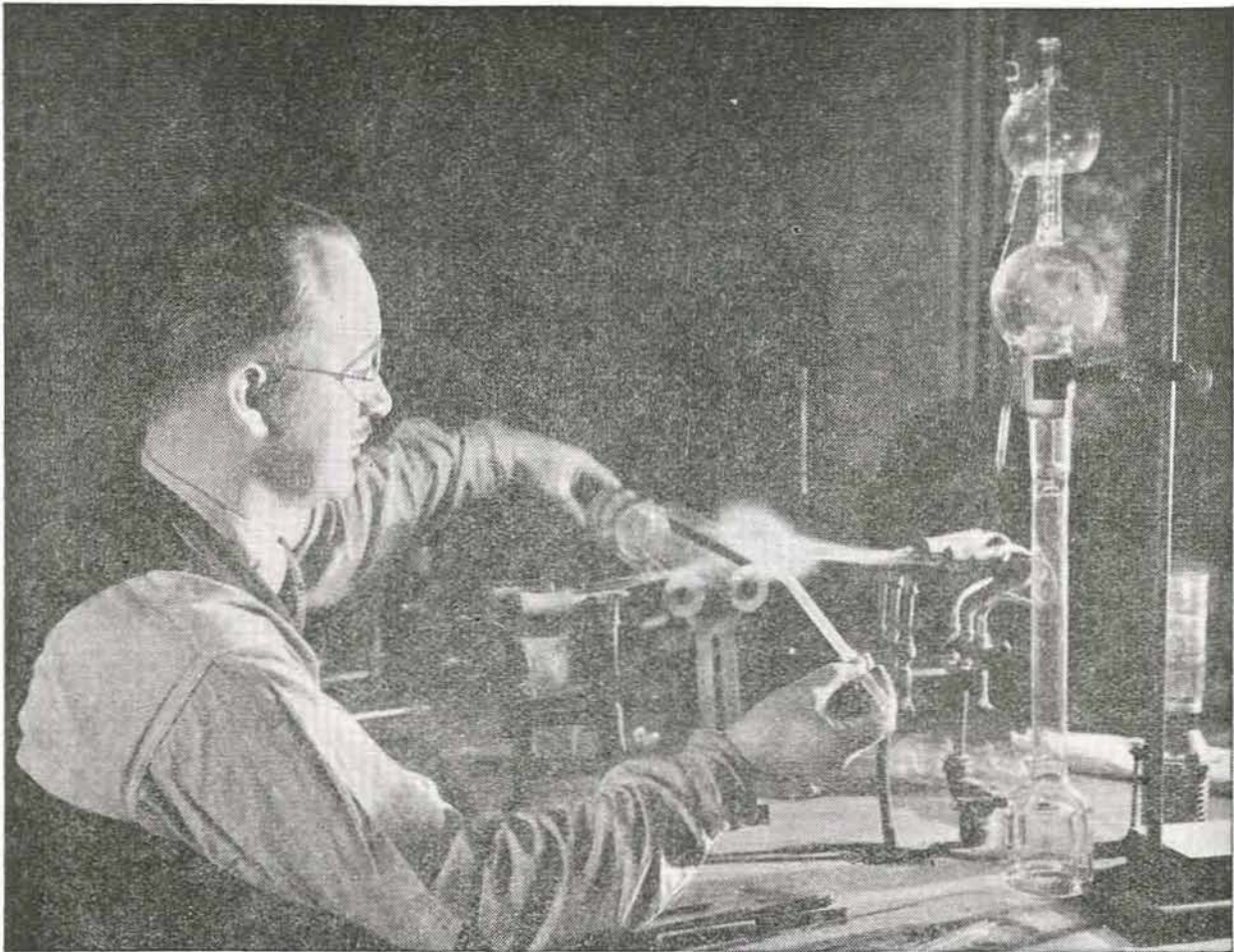
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