

THE NEW ENCYCLOPEDIA OF SOCIAL REFORM

INCLUDING

ALL IMPORTANT SOCIAL-REFORM MOVEMENTS & ACTIVITIES,
AND THE ECONOMIC, INDUSTRIAL, AND SOCIOLOGICAL FACTS
& STATISTICS OF ALL COUNTRIES & ALL SOCIAL SUBJECTS

EMBRACING QUOTATIONS FROM THE PUBLIC UTTERANCES OF

HIS MAJESTY KING EDWARD VII.

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HON. THEODORE ROOSEVELT, LL.D.

ENLARGED AND REVISED EDITION

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1908

DENMARK

	Convictions of crime	Per 100,000 of pop.
1885.....	3,525	176
1890.....	3,867	185
1897.....	3,689	161
1904.....	3,863	148

Showing a decrease of crime.

NORWAY

	Convicted of crimes	Per 100,000 of pop.
1891.....	2,548	134
1896.....	3,075	146
1902.....	3,302	151

An increase of crime.

SWEDEN

	Convicted of crimes	Per 100,000 of pop.
1899.....	2,224	45
1904.....	2,393	46

A slight increase.

SWITZERLAND

	Convictions	Per 100,000 of pop.
1893.....	4,426	147
1898.....	3,295	106
1903.....	4,044	118

A decrease of crime.

JAPAN

	Serious crimes	Lesser	Total	Per 100,000 of pop.
1893.....	3,129	172,489	175,618	425
1900.....	2,675	128,525	131,200	382
1904.....	3,866	84,597	88,463	187

A marked diminution of crime, tho serious crimes seem to have increased.

AUSTRALASIA

The following tables are compiled from Coghlan's "Statistical Account of Australia and New Zealand," 1904. The figures are for the year 1902:

STATE	Persons charged	Summarily convicted	Committed	Persons charged per 1,000 of pop.
New South Wales..	60,373	50,776	1,271	42.89
Victoria.....	45,198	33,401	641	37.49
Queensland.....	21,115	17,625	489	41.01
South Australia....	6,608	5,556	209	18.06
Western Australia..	16,443	12,753	335	76.43
Tasmania.....	6,228	4,975	75	35.17
Commonwealth..	155,965	125,146	3,020	40.13
New Zealand.....	28,076	22,125	765	34.75
Australasia.....	184,041	147,271	3,785	39.21

In New Zealand each charge is counted as a separate person—a proceeding which, of course, tells

against the colony; a reduction of about 10 per cent should be made to get at the number of persons.

NATURE OF OFFENSES

STATE	PER 1,000 OF POPULATION			
	All offenders	Serious offenders		Minor offenders
		Against the person	Against property	
Commonwealth..	40.13	2.52	3.81	6.33
New Zealand....	34.75	1.62	3.57	5.19
Australasia....	39.21	2.36	3.77	6.13

YEAR	PER 1,000 OF POPULATION	
	Committals	Convictions in superior courts
1861.....	2.2	1.3
1871.....	1.4	0.8
1881.....	1.2	0.7
1891.....	1.1	0.6
1902.....	0.7	0.4

Showing a steady diminution of crime.

CANADA

	Summarily convicted	Per 100,000 of pop.	Convicted in higher courts	Per 100,000 of pop.
1888.....	33,902	737	3,747	81
1893.....	31,023	646	4,030	96
1898.....	32,419	635	5,787	123
1904.....	48,192	932	6,754	127

Showing an increase of crime.

III. General Conclusions

The general conclusion from these statistics is that (excepting, perhaps, in the U. S., Canada, Germany, the Netherlands, and to a less extent the Scandinavian countries) serious crime is on the decrease, and that if commitments for minor offenses are in many countries on the increase, it is in almost every case due to the enactment of new laws, police regulations, etc., with the stricter enforcement of social and hygienic regulations—an indication, therefore, of social progress rather than of the reverse.

Speaking broadly, statistics therefore unquestionably show that the world is growing better. Comparing for a moment the present with the remote past, this is clearly the case.

For social evils to-day, see PROSTITUTION; but compare these with classic days, when the noblest philosophers practised and openly defended not only prostitution, but unnatural vice; when in the baths of Rome thousands of men and women were abandoned *en masse* to the lowest crimes. Without referring to Rome under her degenerate Caesars, under Augustus 10,000 gladiators fought, and their bloody games were applauded by Stoic philosophers and by vestal virgins. Naturally recklessness of life spread everywhere, and philosophy defended the right of the master to kill or to torture his slaves.

The immorality of Rome and Greece cannot be credited, scarcely described, in a modern encyclopedia. Take it in other lands. In England before the Norman Conquest it was the

custom to buy men and women in all parts of England and carry them to Ireland for sale, the buyers usually making the women pregnant to insure a better price ("Life of Bishop Wolstan"). The one aim of life was to escape being slain if a man, and being violated if a woman. The violence and crime and bloodshed of the Middle Ages are well known. The Peace of God, when for a few days a week men agreed not to murder, was instituted to preserve society from absolute disintegration. Murders, treasons, brawls, poisonings were on every hand. A nobleman declared war against Frankfurt because a lady had not danced with his cousin. Together with good men the vile were also in the Church, at times even in the chair of St. Peter's; priests went from their mistresses to the altar, and the nunneries were like brothels. The Reformation and Puritanism checked immorality with an unnatural condemnation of all joys, that reacted in a carnival of vice and crime.

Of modern times progress is less clear, only because one of the characteristic marks of modern progress has been the enactment of social and humanitarian legislation, technically vastly increasing the possibility of violating law.

Another conclusion that stands out is what Mr. Hall shows in his book, that crime, at least of the lesser sort, is an almost inevitable concomitant of social progress and of steps to a larger gain.

Again, the facts show that in times of war and political agitation, crime so far as it appears in statistics is reduced, partly because the restless find other outlet and partly because society is too much otherwise occupied to arrest or prosecute petty crimes which would be noticed in times of peace.

Once more, it seems shown, that as countries break away from former religious or governmental paternal forms, the first result in crime is an increase, but that liberalizing institutions and, above all, advance in education tend to the decrease at least of serious crimes.

For the sources of information used in this article, tho not for the tables as here published, we have largely used various editions of the Statesman's Year Book, except as stated.

REFERENCES: A. C. Hall, *Crime and Social Progress* (1902); Mayo Smith, *Statistics and Sociology* (1895); W. D. Morrison, *Crime and Its Causes* (1891); *Statesman's Year Book*. Statistics for each country: R. P. Falkner, article *Forum*, July, 1900; S. S. McClure, article *McClure's*, Dec., 1904; Eugene Smith, *National Prison Association Proceedings* (1904).

CRIMINAL ANTHROPOLOGY: This can hardly be considered a science, but it is a term which represents systematic efforts made in recent years to apply physiological, and to some extent psychological tests to the study of the criminal. Lombroso has worked with great industry in the field, but his conclusions are not generally accepted. Mr. W. D. Morrison in his "Crime and its Causes," chapter vii., has brought out the variety of opinions represented by criminal anthropologists.

CRIMINOLOGY treats of the nature, causes, and prevention of crime and the treatment of the criminal. The word is often used synonymously

with PENOLOGY, under which head it is treated in this volume.

CRISES (COMMERCIAL AND MONETARY): A time of general difficulty and pressure in commercial and monetary circles, if acute, is called a *crisis*; if prolonged it is usually called a *period of depression*. A crisis, too, must not be confused with a panic. A panic starts with a group of speculators, perhaps occasioned by some disastrous event or report of a disastrous effect. The market is upset. Weaker firms fail; yet there is no general crisis and the market soon recovers. A crisis lasts longer and is general, tho it is often connected with panics. Crises, whatever be their cause, usually follow a certain course, which it is asserted by some writers, Jevons prominently among them, follows a certain cycle.

In 1634 there was a crisis over speculation in tulips which became a furor in Holland, and lasted four years before it burst. But the first crisis of the modern type occurred in 1720 over the speculative plans of John Law in forming his Mississippi Company. His company possessed in 1719 over twenty-one ships and nearly \$1,000,000. Shares went up to many times their value.

Speculation developed like a fever in France and England. About the same time, too, the South Sea Bubble was developed in England. In 1763 and 1799 there were crises in Hamburg. In England there were crises in 1783, 1793, 1795-97, in connection with the American and French wars. In 1815 there was a severe crisis at the close of the Napoleonic wars. After the peace England undertook to flood Europe with manufactures, but there was OVERPRODUCTION and a crisis. In 1825 there was another crisis, which affected America also. In 1837 there was a most severe crisis in the United States, renewed in 1839, when 959 banks stopped payment. There were 33,000 failures with an aggregate loss of \$440,000,000. The crisis of 1847 affected England more, being occasioned by the failure of the potato crop of 1846. The crisis of 1857 began in America, but affected England and all Europe more severely.

The crisis of 1866 was mainly in England, once more causing a suspension of the Bank Act, and was marked by the memorable "Black Friday" and of the failure of the almost historic house of Overend, Gurney & Co. The 23d of September, 1869, saw a "Black Friday" in New York, but it was mainly local and connected with gold speculation.

During the first three quarters of 1873 the general prosperity of the U. S. seemed undiminished; but on Sept. 18, 1873, the most extraordinary panic began which this country has ever witnessed, and reached its height about the middle of October. It prostrated thousands of commercial houses, cut off the wages of hundreds of thousands of workmen, and overthrew the Stock Exchange. It swept down the entire banking system of the country. Even savings-banks closed their doors. It broke off the negotiation of American securities in Europe, and prostrated business in every way. The causes were involved.

The closing of the War of the Rebellion had seen the commencement of great industrial activity in the U. S. From 1869-73 enormous amounts of money were invested in commercial enterprises. The cost of the railroad construction

Crisis
of 1873

of those five years is estimated at \$1,700,000,000, while municipalities and private corporations borrowed money for vast undertakings. The land grant policy and cheap transportation developed a new West. In Europe the opening of the Suez Canal stimulated commerce. Interest was based on the high prices of war time. There was increased need of currency. Instead of this the policy of resumption and contraction (see CONTRACTION AND EXPANSION OF CURRENCY) limited the amount of currency below the demand. On Sept. 18th, the great house of Jay Cooke & Co. of New York failed, dragging other houses with it. Concerted action was taken, and the immediate crisis was stayed; but in industrial lines 1874 was worse than 1873, and there was depression till 1877. The great railroad strikes of that year made matters worse. In 1878 there was improvement, and this continued till 1883. In 1884 another crisis occurred, tho of less serious character, and depression prevailed through the strikes and industrial troubles which continued till 1886. Confidence was then in a degree restored, with some depression in 1888, till the crisis of 1890. That year prominent English houses which had invested in Argentine Republican and African securities were disturbed, and finally on Dec. 15th even the great house of Baring Brothers suspended. In France the great coffee syndicate failed. But the Bank of England stood firm, and a syndicate of strong houses liquidated the debt of Baring Brothers. It affected the U. S. almost as much, tho not so much in the form of a crisis as of adding to depression, continuing without much improvement to the great crisis of 1893.

The crisis of 1893 was in many ways different from all other crises. It was only very slightly due to overspeculation, almost purely to monetary conditions, yet it affected not only financial circles, but industry all over the U. S. In Congress there was discussion over the repeal of the silver-purchasing act of 1890. (See CURRENCY.) On June 26th it was announced that India had stopped the free coinage of silver. This at once sent the price of silver bullion down to the lowest point ever recorded, and all stocks went down. The mines of Colorado and other silver states were at once stopt, and their workmen left unemployed. There was a panic. Western and Southern banks began to fail. Hoarding set in, even in the East. Currency became scarce. Many manufactories shut down. Wealthy men with unquestioned credit could not get checks cashed. All the banking centers except Chicago began to have recourse to clearing-house certificates. There was a money dearth. The president called an extra session of Congress which opened Aug. 7th. There was a heated struggle over the money question, and not until October 30th was a bill, introduced by Senator Voorhees, repealing the silver-purchase law, but declaring for the parity of gold and silver, passed by the Senate, accepted by the House, and signed by the president.

Meanwhile the crisis was already checked. Foreign investors began sending in money, taking advantage of the low price of stocks. Only one private banking firm in New York City had failed, and only one national bank. Of the 301 bank suspensions from May 1st to July 22d, 93 per cent were in the South and West. Yet the business failures from April 1st to October 1st were 8,105 against 4,171 for those months in 1892, with lia-

bilities of \$284,663,624 against \$41,110,322 for 1892. Thus the number of failures had doubled, and the liabilities had increased nearly sevenfold. Three great railway systems were sent into the hands of receivers: the Northern Pacific, the Union Pacific, and the Erie. Since 1893, while there have been money stringencies, and while the elections of 1896 and 1900 caused some depression of business, there has been no real panic, tho there was a severe depression of stocks in 1907, when some trust companies and banks temporarily closed.

REFERENCES: *Financial Crises and Periods of Industrial and Commercial Depression*, by J. E. Burton, 1902; *History of Modern Banks of Issue, with an Account of the Economic Crises of the Present Century*, 1907; *Articles in the Political Science Quarterly*, March, 1901, and September, 1903.

CRITTENTON, CHARLES NELSON: Founder of the Florence Crittenton Mission; born in Adams, Jefferson County, N. Y., Feb. 20, 1833. Beginning in the drug business he became head of the Charles N. Crittenton Company. But after the death of a daughter, Florence, he felt that God was calling him to a work in behalf of homeless, friendless, and unfortunate girls. From that time he has devoted his time and energy to establishing homes and schools where homeless, friendless, or unfortunate girls can be cared for.

In 1895 a corporation, known as the National Florence Crittenton Mission, was chartered to take charge of the work.

At the present time there are sixty-eight of these homes and schools in the U. S. and five in foreign lands.

The Charles N. Crittenton Company was one of the original profit-sharing companies in the U. S.

Mr. Crittenton is a pronounced prohibitionist and at one time was a candidate for the mayoralty of New York on the Prohibition ticket. Address: 213 Third Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

CROOKS, WILLIAM: One of England's leading trade-unionists, and member of Parliament; born in Poplar, 1852. Part of his early life was spent in the workhouse. Apprenticed to a cooper, he early found difficulty in securing work because of his trade-union principles. In 1882 he was elected trustee of the parish and library commissioner for Poplar; 1892, elected to the London County Council; chairman of the Poplar Board of Guardians since 1877. He has also been mayor of his borough. In 1903 he was elected to Parliament from Woolwich, his election bringing consternation to Conservatives and Liberals. In 1906 he was reelected, under the auspices of the Labor Representation Committee, by 9,026 votes against Adams, Conservative, 6,914 votes. Address: 81 Gough Street, Poplar, London E.

CROSBY, ERNEST HOWARD: American author and lecturer; born in New York City, 1856; was graduated from New York University, 1876, and from Columbia Law School, 1878; practised law in New York till 1889. He was a member of the New York Legislature in 1887 and in 1889, being in charge of high-license legislation, and chairman of the committee on cities. In 1889, being nominated by President Harrison, he was appointed judge of the mixt tribunal of Alex-

andria, Egypt, by the Khedive. He resigned this position in 1894, and returned to America. Mr. Crosby was long president of the New York Social Reform Club, of the People's Club, of the Civic Council, N. Y., of the Anti-Imperialist League, and of the New York Vegetarian Society. He was an ardent admirer and student of Tolstoi, a believer in the system of single taxation, an advocate of peace, and an opponent of all kinds of monopoly. He has written: "Plain Talk in Psalm and Parable"; "Captain Jinks, Hero"; "Broadcast"; "Tolstoi and His Message"; "Tolstoi as a Schoolmaster"; "Garrison, the Non-Resistant," etc. Mr. Crosby died in 1907.

CRÜGER, HANS: Member of the Prussian House of Deputies; born 1859 in Königsberg; studied law and political sciences at Königsberg and Göttingen; Dr. J., 1883. He followed the law till 1887, when he became secretary of the General German Cooperative Society till 1896. His literary activity has been quite extensive. Besides annotating and digesting the laws of Germany, as to cooperative societies, he has edited the year books of the society, and written numerous pamphlets about cooperative savings-banks and related subjects. He is a collaborator of the *Handwörterbuch der Staatswissenschaften*. Address: Nussbaum Allee 17, Westend, Berlin.

CUBA, REPUBLIC OF: Till 1898 in the possession of Spain, the incessant guerrilla wars maintained in the mountainous portions of the island against the Spanish, the injustice and inefficiency in many ways of the Spanish Government, the cruelties practised by General Weyler, the blowing up of the United States warship the *Maine* in the harbor of Havana, whether by the Spaniards or not, all combined to make most people in the U. S. favor the armed freeing of Cuba, and war of the U. S. against Spain was declared April 22, 1898. After a brief but brilliant campaign Spain was compelled to yield and relinquished sovereignty over the island in the treaty of Paris, Dec. 10, 1898. For three years the U. S., through its War Department, controlled the island, doing much for education, justice, hygiene, and the establishment of republican institutions. On May 20, 1902, however, the U. S. turned the complete control of the island over to the Cuban Republic, General Palma having been elected president. After apparent success, however, dissensions arose in the island (1906). The government being unable to restore order, the U. S. Government was appealed to and 6,000 troops were sent and order restored. The U. S. Government has appointed Secretary Taft as provisional governor, but as soon as orderly government is established the U. S. Government will retire.

The area of the island is 43,000 sq. m., of which only 3 per cent till 1899 and now little more than 4 per cent is under cultivation; population, (1905), 1,786,207, of whom less than one third are mulattoes or negroes.

Capital, Havana, with a population of 275,000. Revenue, 1905, \$29,609,000; expenditures, \$18,997,000; exports, 1905, \$112,000,000; imports, \$103,000,000. In 1906 the debt was \$47,693,000.

The government of the republic is patterned

upon the American Constitution, with a president, Senate and House of Representatives. There are six provinces, each having four senators. The representatives are elected one for every 25,000 inhabitants. Every male Cuban who has reached the age of twenty-one has the right to vote, except he be a criminal or of unsound mind. A residence of five years is required before a foreigner may become a citizen. Education is free and compulsory. The schools are organized after the American system; there is a university at Havana, and 3,550 schools through the island, with an attendance of about 150,000. About two thirds of the population is illiterate, but the schools are rapidly improving this condition. The prevailing religion is of the Roman Catholic Church, the whole island being the diocese of an archbishop. The Protestant Churches, notably the Episcopal Church, have active missions.

Morals are somewhat loose, but this is partly due to defective laws. The proportion of those over fifteen legally married is in the U. S.: in Cuba 30, in Havana 25, among the colored in Cuba, 6. Over 8 per cent of the people are living together without legal marriage.

The island is noted for its sugar and tobacco. The most famous tobacco lands are found in the far west. The climate is mild, with northeast trade winds. There is considerable rain during the summer. The dreaded yellow fever was largely due to carelessness and unnecessary exposure. The whole country is like a park, with vegetation mainly tropical. It is believed that sugar was first planted in the year 1523. In 1905 the sugar exported was worth \$71,249,055 (to the U. S. \$64,366,169). Tobacco seems to have been grown first in the year 1580. Corn, rice, wheat, oats, barley, all thrive well. The banana, or plantain, grows in great quantities, and forms very largely the food of the poorer classes. Manufacturing consists mainly in the making of cigars and cigarettes. Such skilled labor as there is, is largely in the building trades. Nominal wages have fallen since the Spanish rule, owing to trade uncertainties. But prices have also fallen. Labor generally is rather in bad shape, whether in the agricultural or the industrial lines, many feeling that the result of the freeing of the slaves has been to retard development of the country. The freedmen are not industrious, either in Cuba or in any of the West Indian islands, and there have been many Chinamen brought in. Great numbers of these people are cooks and house-servants. Many Gallegos and people of the Canary Islands have also been brought there lately. The tobacco trade is generally in the hands of the white people.

A trade-union movement began in Cuba in 1878 and since its relations with the U. S. the American Federation of Labor has made efforts to organize the workers. But results are not large, tho in Havana and in a few other places the nominal membership of some unions is considerable. The building of the Cuban Central Railroad has developed some work at fair wages. There has been considerable immigration from Spain. Currency troubles have caused uncertainties and depreciation. The two economic needs of Cuba are by some said to be immigration and capital.

REFERENCES: *Labor Conditions in Cuba*; Bulletin of U. S. Department of Labor, July, 1902; Porter, *Industrial Cuba*, (1898); Halstead, *The Story of Cuba* (1898).