

L 1.1: 1923

923

JAN 11 1924

ELEVENTH ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE SAN DIEGO PUBLIC LIBRARY
BUSINESS DEPARTMENT

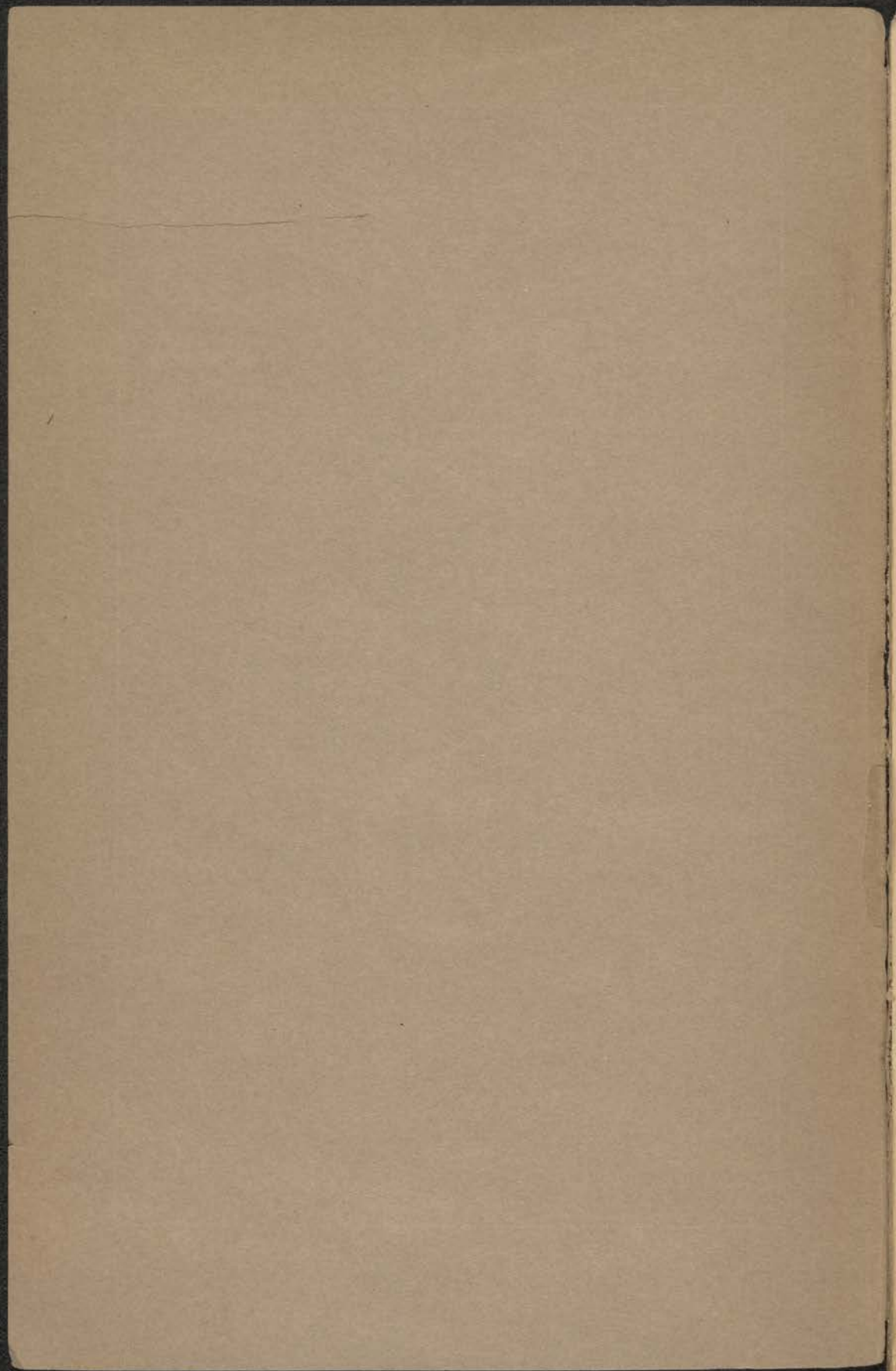
SECRETARY OF LABOR

FOR THE FISCAL YEAR
ENDED JUNE 30

1923



WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1923



JAN 11 1924

ELEVENTH ANNUAL REPORT
OF THE
SECRETARY OF LABOR

FOR THE FISCAL YEAR
ENDED JUNE 30

1923



WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1923

3 1336 05750 2560

SEVENTEENTH ANNUAL REPORT
OF THE
SECRETARY OF LABOR

FOR THE FISCAL YEAR
ENDING JUNE 30

1923



GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
WASHINGTON, D. C.

CONTENTS.

PART I.

	Page.
Office of the Secretary.....	1
Department quarters.....	2
Assistant secretaries.....	3
Solicitor.....	4
Chief clerk.....	4
Appointment clerk.....	4
Disbursing clerk.....	7
Publications and supplies.....	12
Department library.....	15
Conciliation service.....	17
The jurisdictional dispute.....	20
United States Employment Service.....	34
United States Housing Corporation.....	39
Immigration.....	44
Reorganization of districts.....	44
Deportation.....	44
Board of review.....	45
The per centum act of 1921.....	45
Oriental immigration.....	49
Contract labor.....	50
Deserting alien seamen.....	50
Smuggling and surreptitious entry.....	51
Deportation of aliens.....	53
Net revenue.....	53
Century of immigration.....	54
Bureau of Labor Statistics.....	54
Historical.....	54
The Monthly Labor Review.....	54
Other publications.....	55
Reports transmitted but not published.....	57
Statistics on volume of employment.....	58
Extension of cost-of-living surveys.....	59
Accident-prevention survey, accident statistics, and safety code work.....	59
Labor conditions in insular possessions.....	62
Efficiency and productivity of labor.....	62
Labor laws and decisions.....	63
Children's Bureau.....	63
Maternity and infancy.....	63
Constitutionality of the maternity and infancy act.....	65
Child hygiene.....	66
Street trades.....	67
Employment of children in stores, mills, and factories in Georgia.....	68
Rural child labor.....	68
Minimum wage for minors.....	68
Other child-labor studies.....	69
Juvenile-court standards.....	69
Studies of child dependency.....	69
Child welfare in Porto Rico.....	71
Recreation.....	72
Child-welfare legislation in 1923.....	72
Child-welfare commissions.....	72
Committee on traffic in women and children.....	72
Publications.....	73

	Page.
Bureau of Naturalization.....	74
Reorganization.....	74
Citizenship training.....	75
Volume of the work.....	77
Separate status of women.....	77
Women's Bureau.....	78
Industrial conference.....	78
Investigations.....	79
Special studies.....	80
Research and educational work.....	84
Moving pictures.....	85
The radio.....	85
Publications.....	86
The coming year.....	86

PART II.

Conclusions and recommendations.....	89
Introductory.....	89
America and the alien.....	92
A century of immigration.....	93
An alien code.....	104
The quota law.....	104
Specific amendments.....	105
Naturalization.....	108
Nonnaturalizable aliens.....	113
Summary.....	114
Railway Labor Board.....	115
“To improve their working conditions”.....	115
Seasonable employment.....	116
Vocational Board.....	117
Women and children.....	117
Child labor.....	117
Maternity and infancy act.....	121
Procedure of Federal courts in children's cases.....	121
Women in industry.....	121
Appendixes:	
Appendix I. A century of immigration—Statistics and charts.....	126
Appendix II. Letter to the President on the immigration problem.....	141
Appendix III. Act creating the Department of Labor.....	147

ELEVENTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF LABOR.

DEPARTMENT OF LABOR,
OFFICE OF THE SECRETARY,
Washington, D. C., October 1, 1923.

To the Congress of the United States:

Section 9 of the act of Congress approved March 4, 1913, entitled "An act to create a Department of Labor," provides—

That the Secretary of Labor shall annually, at the close of each fiscal year, make a report in writing to Congress, giving an account of all moneys received and disbursed by him and his department and describing the work done by the department. He shall also, from time to time, make such special investigations and reports as he may be required to do by the President, or by Congress, or which he himself may deem necessary.

In accordance with the foregoing provision of law, I have the honor to submit a report of the business of the Department of Labor for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1923, and with it certain reports of investigations and conclusions, together with certain recommendations which to me seem proper and important.

Respectfully submitted.

JAMES J. DAVIS,
Secretary of Labor.

SEVENTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF LABOR

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

OFFICE OF THE SECRETARY

WASHINGTON, D. C., OCTOBER 1, 1907

I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of the 27th inst. in relation to the report of the Secretary of Labor for the year 1906.

The report of the Secretary of Labor for the year 1906 is a comprehensive statement of the condition of the laboring population of the United States. It contains a detailed account of the various industries and occupations, and of the conditions of the laboring population in each of them. It also contains a statement of the various laws and regulations which have been enacted for the benefit of the laboring population, and of the progress which has been made in the enforcement of these laws and regulations.

In accordance with the provisions of the act of March 3, 1890, which authorized the Secretary of Labor to prepare and publish an annual report of the condition of the laboring population of the United States, I have the honor to submit to you this report for the year 1906.

Very respectfully,
J. P. Davis

Secretary of Labor

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, WASHINGTON, D. C.

ELEVENTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF LABOR.

PART I.

The Department of Labor consists of the Office of the Secretary, with its nine subdivisions, and the Bureau of Immigration, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Children's Bureau, Bureau of Naturalization, and Women's Bureau.

The fundamental act creating the Department of Labor primarily requires this department "to foster, promote, and develop the welfare of the wage earners of the United States, to improve their working conditions, and to advance their opportunities for profitable employment." By this same act the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the Bureau of Immigration, the Children's Bureau, the Bureau of Naturalization, the Division of Conciliation, and later the United States Employment Service, the Women's Bureau, and the Bureau of Industrial Housing and Transportation (U. S. Housing Corporation) were placed under the jurisdiction of this department. Therefore, either accidentally or by design, the Department of Labor has control of matters involving solely and exclusively personal or human rights, affecting the welfare and happiness of men, women, and children everywhere. Its responsibilities are measured by its opportunities for good or evil, and the Secretary and the Assistant Secretaries, who act for and in his behalf, are called upon to decide personally and promptly great and momentous questions without the power to delegate the authority. The time of the Second Assistant Secretary is devoted almost exclusively to immigration matters, while the Secretary and First Assistant are employed in the solution of problems equally as perplexing and equally as important arising in connection with the other activities of the department.

OFFICE OF THE SECRETARY.

The Office of the Secretary includes the Secretary of Labor, the Assistant Secretary, the Second Assistant Secretary, the solicitor, the chief clerk, the disbursing clerk, the appointment clerk, the Division of Publications and Supplies, the department library, the

Division of Conciliation, the United States Employment Service, and the Bureau of Industrial Housing and Transportation (United States Housing Corporation).

While the department library, the Division of Conciliation, the United States Employment Service, and the Bureau of Industrial Housing are officially divisions in the Office of the Secretary, each of these rises to the importance of a bureau in the magnitude of its operations and the importance of the service therein performed. The department library is perhaps the most important and extensive collection of literature dealing with industrial relations in the world. The Division of Conciliation performs a service second to none in the Government in its far-reaching effects on industrial relations and industrial peace. From every standpoint it has assumed the dignity of a bureau. The United States Employment Service is more extensive in its operations and in personnel than some bureaus, and also is entitled to the standing of a bureau. The Bureau of Industrial Housing is presumed to be a dying branch, and it is my hope that it may be finally wound up at an early day. However, the magnitude of property values handled by it and the necessity for operating certain enterprises does not promise early termination. The work of the Secretary and of his responsible assistants is greatly added to by the fact that these vast and important activities are merely divisions in the Office of the Secretary instead of bureaus in the department.

Department quarters.

The department building is a modern nine-story and basement, fireproof building containing 84,981 square feet of floor space which, after deducting hallways, toilets, etc., leaves 72,424 feet available for use. Of this 8,430 square feet is used for the maintenance of the building and storage, leaving 63,994 feet of available office space. By rearrangement of the offices in the building it was possible during the past year to transfer from Tempo Building No. 4 a part of the United States Employment Service. The department building now houses the Office of the Secretary, the Bureau of Immigration, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Bureau of Naturalization, and the major portion of the United States Employment Service.

This move enabled the department to return to the Public Buildings Commission 1,825 square feet of floor space in Tempo Building No. 4, and also permitted the much-needed expansion of the Children's Bureau and the Women's Bureau. The Children's Bureau now occupies 17,180 square feet; the Women's Bureau 5,960 square feet; and the Employment Service 2,310 square feet in that building.

The Bureau of Industrial Housing and Transportation occupies 5,935 square feet of space in the Maltby Building, 200 New Jersey Avenue.

The lease on the department building at 1712-1722 G Street NW., renewed July 1, 1922, for a period of five years, will expire on June 30, 1927. It is necessary that some arrangements be made before the expiration of this lease for housing the department. In order to do this adequately in one building, approximately 120,000 square feet of office space would be required. If a building is to be constructed for the department, as provided on page 342 of the report of the Public Buildings Commission of December 18, 1917, on the Government-owned site bounded by Fourteenth and Fifteenth and C and D Streets NW., it would be necessary to have immediate legislation. The project of the Public Buildings Commission, as set forth in that report, was to erect a building comprising 85,525 square feet, this building to be capable of extension so as to supply net floor space of 155,650 feet. The report contemplated the housing of the Bureau of Efficiency and the United States Employees' Compensation Commission in that building. Since the Department of Labor requires approximately 120,000 square feet it would seem that a building containing a total floor space of 155,650 feet would not be too large to allow for normal expansion for four years. It is possible that some other small activity of the Government could be temporarily housed therein. If it is proposed to house the department in one of the Government-owned buildings it is necessary that preparation be made in time.

A garage, built in the department building, houses the various motor vehicles of the department. Should another building be secured, arrangements must necessarily be made for the housing of this equipment and provision be made to pay rental and maintenance therefor.

I can not, of course, state whether the present owners of the department building will renew the lease, or, if renewed, on what terms.

By the act approved February 13, 1923, the care and maintenance of the department building was transferred to the superintendent of the State, War, and Navy Department Buildings, effective July 1, 1923. Accordingly, instructions have been issued throughout the department that every effort be made by officials to cooperate with the superintendent for the successful and economical operation of the building.

ASSISTANT SECRETARIES.

The Assistant Secretary and the Second Assistant Secretary perform the duties assigned them by statute and such other duties as may be delegated to them by the Secretary.

SOLICITOR.

While the solicitor is an officer of the Department of Justice, he has his office with the Department of Labor and his work is devoted entirely to matters of law arising in this department. Details of the work performed by the office of the solicitor for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1923, are as follows:

Legal opinions rendered, formal.....	102
Contracts and leases examined, approved, or disapproved.....	191
Contracts, leases, forms of bonds, etc., drafted, redrafted, or modified....	7
Bonds on contracts examined, approved, or disapproved.....	20
Bonds, alien immigrants, examined, approved, or disapproved.....	5,403
Bonds, official, examined, approved, or disapproved.....	5
Acts drafted and redrafted.....	11
Miscellaneous matters embracing everything submitted for advice or suggestion of the solicitor, or for the formulation of departmental action, not included in the foregoing.....	455
Total.....	6,194

CHIEF CLERK.

Under the direction of the Secretary, the chief clerk has direct charge of the various divisions of the Office of the Secretary, and performs such duties as are usually performed by similar officers in all of the executive departments.

Appointment clerk.

Officials and employees.—There was an increase of 299 employees in the department at the close of June 30, 1923, as compared with the number employed on the same date of the previous year. The Immigration Bureau and Service had 184 additions, Children's Bureau 71 (of which number 46 are temporary), Bureau of Labor Statistics 25, and the Bureau of Naturalization 9, while there was a reduction of 38 in the Office of the Secretary. The reduction in the Office of the Secretary was made under the act of Congress of February 13, 1923, which transferred all maintenance of building employees to the Office of the Superintendent of the State, War, and Navy Buildings. The table below shows 381 statutory positions for the present fiscal year while for the previous year there were 428 positions authorized by statute. There are 10 vacant statutory positions in the Children's Bureau. There are at present 436 persons holding appointments in the department at the nominal compensation of \$1 per annum. Of this number there are 32 in the Division of Conciliation, 5 in the Bureau of Labor Statistics, 57 in the Children's Bureau, 27 in the Immigration Service, and 315 in the Employment Service. Those in the Employment Service are mainly State, county, and municipal officers working in cooperation with the service.

Total number of officials and employees in the Department of Labor July 1, 1923.

Bureau or office.	Statutory.	Non-statutory.	In District of Columbia.	Outside District of Columbia.	Total July 1, 1923.	Total July 1, 1922.	Increase (+) or decrease (-).
Office of the Secretary.....	81		81		81	119	-1 38
Commissioners of conciliation.....		74	7	2 67	74	54	+20
Bureau of Labor Statistics.....	112	34	131	3 15	146	121	+25
Children's Bureau.....	65	176	154	4 87	241	170	+71
Immigration.....	53	1,794	60	1,787	1,847	1,663	+184
Naturalization.....	70	218	98	190	288	279	+9
United States Employment Service.....		510	35	475	510	494	+16
Woman's Bureau.....		47	47		47	35	+12
Total.....	381	2,853	613	2,621	3,234	2,935	+299
Housing Corporation.....		481	470	11	481	587	-106

¹ Decrease due to act of Feb. 13, 1923.

² Of this number 32 are employed at the nominal sum of \$1 per annum.

³ Of this number 5 are employed at the nominal sum of \$1 per annum.

⁴ Of this number 57 are employed at the nominal sum of \$1 per annum.

⁵ Of this number 27 are employed at the nominal sum of \$1 per annum, 15 of these being under sec. 24, immigration act.

⁶ Of this number 315 are employed at the nominal sum of \$1 per annum.

Changes in personnel.—The following table indicates the changes in personnel throughout the executive offices and bureaus of the department during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1923:

Appointments, separations, and miscellaneous changes in personnel during fiscal year 1923.

Bureau or office.	Appointments.					Separations.					Miscellaneous changes.
	Permanent.			Temporary.	Total.	From permanent.			Temporary.	Total.	
	Competitive.	Excepted.	Unclassified.			Competitive.	Excepted.	Unclassified.			
Office of the Secretary.....	12	1		1	14	21		1	1	23	43
Commissioners of conciliation.....		36			36		21			21	24
Labor Statistics.....	18	6		20	44	26			9	35	70
Children's Bureau.....	30	43		120	193	20	12		60	92	118
Immigration.....	234	67	4	118	423	216	28		91	335	717
Naturalization.....	47	1		28	76	39	1		13	53	234
United States Employment Service.....	2	271		64	337	9	170		3	182	243
Women's Bureau.....	19	1		20	40	8	2		5	15	22
Total.....	362	426	4	371	1,163	339	234	1	182	756	1,471

There was a total of 1,163 appointments, 756 separations, and 1,471 miscellaneous changes of personnel during the year. There were 371 appointments to and 182 separations from temporary positions, 362 appointments to and 339 separations from competitive positions, 426 appointments to and 234 separations from excepted positions, and 4 appointments to and 1 separation from unclassified positions.

Transfers.—There was only a slight change in the personnel caused by transfers to and from the department, a total of 36 coming in

from the various departments and 8 being transferred out. However, this does not show the number of employees who were appointed under the civil-service rules being nominally reinstated in other departments for the purpose of immediate transfer to this department.

The following table shows the number of transfers to and from the department during the year:

Transfers to and from the department during the fiscal year 1923.

Bureau or office.	From—										To—			
	Department of Commerce.	Navy Department.	War Department.	Department of Justice.	Panama Canal Commission.	Treasury Department.	Department of State.	Agriculture Department.	Veterans' Bureau.	Government Printing Office.	Total.	Treasury Department.	Panama Canal Commission.	Veterans' Bureau.
Office of Secretary	1	1				3				1	5			1
Bureau of Labor Statistics			4			1			2		7	1		1
Children's Bureau		1	4					1	1		7			
Immigration		1	3	1		3	2	1	1		12	4	1	6
Naturalization			1			2				1	4			
United States Employment Service					1						1			
Women's Bureau														
Total.....	1	3	12	1	1	8	2	2	4	2	36	5	1	8

Comparative statement.—The following table shows the number of persons employed in the Department of Labor at the close of June 30, 1923, and the number on the rolls on July 1, 1923. These changes come about mainly by change in appropriations. The statement shows an increase of 33 employees between the close of June 30, the end of the fiscal year, and July 1. It will be observed that there is a decrease of 8 employees in the District of Columbia, but an increase of 41 in the field service.

Comparative statement of the number of employees of the Department of Labor, June 30, 1923, and July 1, 1923.

	June 30, 1923.			July 1, 1923.		
	In District of Columbia.	Field.	Total.	In District of Columbia.	Field.	Total.
Office of the Secretary	121		121	81		81
Conciliation	7	74	81	7	67	74
Bureau of Labor Statistics	122	6	128	131	15	146
Children's Bureau	164	102	266	187	99	286
Bureau of Immigration	60	1,757	1,817	60	1,787	1,847
Bureau of Naturalization	98	189	287	98	190	288
United States Employment Service	35	464	499	35	475	510
Women's Bureau	47		47	47		47
Total	654	2,592	3,246	646	2,633	3,279

Retirements.—The retirement law, act of May 22, 1920, which became effective on August 1, 1920, has been working very satisfactorily in this department, through a complete understanding with the retirement division of the Pension Bureau. Certain methods of keeping records have been adopted which it is hoped will in later years be of invaluable worth to those handling the work. Since the retirement act became effective there have been 52 employees retired on annuities, and in the same period 37 extensions based on value of the services of the individuals so retained. There have been 536 applications for refund of the deductions approved and paid. The following table gives figures by years:

Retirements, extensions, and refunds for the period August 1, 1920, to June 30, 1923.

	1921	1922	1923	Total.
Employees retired.....	25	13	14	52
Extensions.....	20	5	12	37
Applications for refund.....	163	195	178	536
Total.....	208	213	204	625

Disbursing clerk.

Functions.—The disbursing clerk prepares requisitions for public funds from appropriations for the department. He also pays its obligations and does the general accounting of the department. Naturalization fees and moneys received by the Secretary of Labor from aliens in lieu of bond are accounted for by him. His report for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1923, is appended.

Appropriations.—For the fiscal year ended June 30, 1923, the appropriations by Congress to the department and its services were as follows:

Salaries, Office of the Secretary of Labor.....	\$140,380.00
Salaries and expenses, commissioners of conciliation.....	175,000.00
Contingent expenses, Department of Labor.....	50,000.00
Increase of compensation, Department of Labor.....	566,832.00
Rent, Department of Labor.....	24,000.00
Printing and binding, Department of Labor.....	200,000.00
Salaries, Bureau of Labor Statistics.....	172,960.00
Miscellaneous expenses, Bureau of Labor Statistics.....	69,000.00
Library, Bureau of Labor Statistics.....	300.00
Salaries, Bureau of Immigration.....	74,200.00
Expenses of regulating immigration.....	3,300,000.00
Refund to Swedish-American Line at New York, N. Y.....	30.00
Immigration station, Ellis Island, N. Y:	
For vacuum heating system, Island No. 3.....	15,000.00
Renewal of plumbing system, Island No. 3.....	23,000.00
Remodeling and renovating buildings and plant.....	100,000.00

Salaries, Bureau of Naturalization.....	\$97,010.00
Miscellaneous expenses, Bureau of Naturalization.....	600,000.00
Salaries, Children's Bureau.....	106,040.00
General expenses, Children's Bureau.....	85,000.00
Investigation of child welfare, Children's Bureau.....	120,000.00
Promotion of the welfare and hygiene of maternity and infancy (includes \$62,500 for administrative expenses welfare and hygiene of maternity and infancy).....	1,240,000.00
Salaries and expenses, Women's Bureau.....	100,000.00
Employment Service, Department of Labor.....	225,000.00
Total.....	7,483,752.00

Under the provisions of the act approved May 22, 1920 (41 Stat. L. 614) the following amounts were deducted from the appropriations for the Department of Labor and placed to the credit of the civil-service retirement and disability fund in the Treasury Department:

Salaries, Office of the Secretary.....	\$2,894.25
Salaries and expenses, commissioners of conciliation.....	263.75
Salaries, Bureau of Labor Statistics.....	4,166.00
Miscellaneous expenses, Bureau of Labor Statistics.....	500.00
Salaries, Bureau of Immigration.....	1,730.00
Expenses of regulating immigration.....	57,884.00
Salaries, Bureau of Naturalization.....	2,425.25
Miscellaneous expenses, Bureau of Naturalization.....	9,960.00
Salaries, Children's Bureau.....	2,418.50
Investigation of child welfare, Children's Bureau.....	1,998.00
Promotion of welfare and hygiene of maternity and infancy.....	318.71
United States Employment Service.....	730.00
Salaries and expenses, Women's Bureau.....	1,592.50
Total deductions.....	86,880.96

Expenditures.—The expenditures, arranged according to items of appropriation, were as follows:

Office of the Secretary:

Salaries, Office of the Secretary, 1922.....	\$5,700.46
Salaries, Office of the Secretary, 1923.....	135,169.67
Contingent expenses, Department of Labor, 1921.....	65.08
Contingent expenses, Department of Labor, 1922.....	13,490.41
Contingent expenses, Department of Labor, 1923.....	37,516.26
Salaries and expenses, commissioners of conciliation, 1921.....	18.41
Salaries and expenses, commissioners of conciliation, 1922.....	9,964.48
Salaries and expenses, commissioners of conciliation, 1923.....	147,382.52
Increase of compensation, Department of Labor, 1922.....	20,902.76
Increase of compensation, Department of Labor, 1923.....	510,696.55
Rent, Department of Labor, 1922.....	2,000.00
Rent, Department of Labor, 1923.....	22,000.00
Printing and binding, Department of Labor, 1923.....	148,604.83
Total.....	1,053,511.43

Office of the Secretary—Continued.

Less credit by recoveries as follows—

Salaries, office of the Secretary, 1921.....	\$56. 87
Salaries and expenses, commissioners of concilia- tion, 1921.....	53. 97
Increase of compensation, Department of Labor, 1921.....	66. 67
Total credits.....	\$177. 51
Net total.....	1, 053, 333. 92

Bureau of Labor Statistics:

Salaries, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1922.....	6, 876. 44
Salaries, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1923.....	157, 859. 37
Miscellaneous expenses, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1921.....	1. 54
Miscellaneous expenses, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1922.....	9, 847. 22
Miscellaneous expenses, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1923.....	58, 340. 25
Library, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1922.....	. 33
Library, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1923.....	287. 95
	233, 213. 10
Less credit by recoveries to miscellaneous expenses, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1921.....	9. 40
Net total.....	233, 203. 70

Bureau of Immigration:

Salaries, Bureau of Immigration, 1922.....	2, 908. 64
Salaries, Bureau of Immigration, 1923.....	68, 298. 89
Expenses of regulating immigration, 1921.....	15, 819. 66
Expenses of regulating immigration, 1922.....	220, 239. 04
Expenses of regulating immigration, 1923.....	3, 090, 214. 15
Enforcement of laws against alien anarchists, 1921.....	16. 49
Expenses of deporting aliens, 1921.....	26. 50
Immigration stations—	
Ellis Island, New York.....	71, 125. 92
Ellis Island, New York, 1923.....	55, 093. 04
	3, 523, 742. 33
Less credit by recoveries to—	
Enforcement of laws against alien anarchists, 1921.....	\$54. 09
Expenses of deporting aliens, 1921.....	83. 77
Total credits.....	137. 86
Net total.....	3, 523, 604. 47

Children's Bureau:

Salaries, Children's Bureau, 1922.....	4, 096. 66
Salaries, Children's Bureau, 1923.....	91, 526. 12
General expenses, Children's Bureau, 1921.....	1. 32
General expenses, Children's Bureau, 1922.....	9, 583. 77
General expenses, Children's Bureau, 1923.....	51, 201. 74

Children's Bureau—Continued.

Investigation of child welfare, 1921	\$0. 49
Investigation of child welfare, 1922	4, 953. 88
Investigation of child welfare, 1923	103, 594. 32
Promotion of the welfare and hygiene of maternity and infancy, 1922	313. 19
Promotion of the welfare and hygiene of maternity and infancy, 1923	3, 432. 89
Administrative expenses, welfare and hygiene of maternity and infancy	19, 827. 53
	288, 531. 91

Less credit by recoveries to—

Salaries, Children's Bureau, 1921	\$0. 35
General expenses, Children's Bureau, 1921	4. 35

Total credits

4. 70

Net total

288, 527. 21

Bureau of Naturalization:

Salaries, Bureau of Naturalization, 1922	3, 819. 16
Salaries, Bureau of Naturalization, 1923	86, 902. 73
Miscellaneous expenses, Bureau of Naturalization, 1921	4. 76
Miscellaneous expenses, Bureau of Naturalization, 1922	39, 780. 32
Miscellaneous expenses, Bureau of Naturalization, 1923	526, 775. 13
	657, 282. 10

Less credit by recoveries to miscellaneous expenses, Bureau of Naturalization, 1921

102. 66

Net total

657, 179. 44

Women's Bureau:

Salaries and expenses, Women's Bureau, 1922	5, 606. 85
Salaries and expenses, Women's Bureau, 1923	90, 018. 47
	95, 625. 32

Less credit by recoveries to Women in Industry, 1921

3. 19

Net total

95, 622. 13

United States Employment Service:

United States Employment Service, Department of Labor, 1921	183. 73
United States Employment Service, Department of Labor, 1922	14, 009. 86
United States Employment Service, Department of Labor, 1923	200, 945. 67
	215, 139. 26

Grand total

6, 066, 610. 13

In addition to disbursements by the disbursing clerk, the following expenditures on behalf of the department were specifically made:

By special disbursing agents for—

Immigration Service (estimated).....	\$43,341.30
Children's Bureau.....	432.95
Claims settled by the General Accounting Office of the Comptroller General.....	877,834.21
Total.....	921,608.46

Miscellaneous receipts.—The following receipts from miscellaneous sources have been recorded during the year:

Bureau of Immigration:

Head tax.....	\$4,071,734.60
Fines.....	196,879.77
Forfeiture of bonds.....	161,200.00
Rentals and sale of exclusive privileges.....	4,208.03
Telephone service.....	850.82
Sale of Government property.....	1,244.20
Miscellaneous collections.....	4,206.28
Total.....	4,440,323.70

Bureau of Naturalization:

Naturalization fees.....	651,128.45
Nunc pro tunc examination head tax.....	34,070.08

Miscellaneous:

Proceeds of sales of Government property, etc.....	505.21
Total receipts.....	5,126,027.44

Unexpended balances.—In accordance with the act of Congress of June 20, 1874 (18 Stat. L. 110, 111), the following unexpended balances of appropriations and repayments thereto were covered into the surplus fund of the Treasury Department March 29, 1923:

Salaries, Office of the Secretary of Labor, 1921.....	\$567.24
Contingent expenses, Department of Labor, 1921.....	2,810.56
Salaries and expenses, commissioners of conciliation, 1921.....	915.19
United States Employment Service, Department of Labor, 1921.....	31.65
Women in Industry, Department of Labor, 1921.....	556.83
Expenses of regulating immigration, 1921.....	4,028.44
Salaries, Bureau of Immigration, 1921.....	1,674.02
Enforcement of laws against alien anarchists, 1921.....	6,387.20
Expenses of deporting aliens, 1921.....	42.60
Salaries, Bureau of Naturalization, 1921.....	273.51
Miscellaneous expenses, Bureau of Naturalization, 1921.....	878.18
Salaries, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1921.....	4,809.34
Miscellaneous expenses, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1921.....	503.81
Library, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1921.....	.50
Salaries, Children's Bureau, 1921.....	2,507.65
General expenses, Children's Bureau, 1921.....	1,299.19
Investigation of child welfare, Children's Bureau, 1921.....	1,391.36
Increase of compensation, Department of Labor, 1921.....	116.51
Total.....	28,793.78

Publications and supplies.

Printing and binding.—In the act making appropriations for the Departments of Commerce and of Labor for 1923 there was appropriated for the Department of Labor for printing and binding the sum of \$200,000. This amount was apportioned by the Secretary as follows:

Office of the Secretary.....	\$12,000
Bureau of Labor Statistics.....	90,000
Bureau of Immigration.....	5,000
Immigration Service.....	19,000
Children's Bureau.....	37,500
Bureau of Naturalization.....	2,500
Naturalization Service and examiners.....	25,000
Women's Bureau.....	9,000
Total.....	200,000

After the apportionment to bureaus had been made it was found that the cost of binding manifests at immigration stations, always heretofore paid from the appropriation for "Expenses of regulating immigration" was chargeable properly to "Printing and binding." This depleted the printing fund something over \$6,000.

There were outstanding from 1922, and sent to the Government Printing Office during the fiscal year 1923, requisitions covering \$200,796.55. Up to July 1, bills were submitted by the Public Printer for \$156,270.68, leaving an estimated balance of \$44,525.87 to be paid out of the appropriation for the fiscal year 1923. It is believed the variation between the appropriations and the estimates will be equalized as the work nears completion; if it shall appear that a deficit might be caused by reason of inaccurate estimates, it will be rectified by accepting smaller editions on some of the requisitions.

It is shown by comparison of the bills rendered by the Public Printer with the estimates that the bills usually are considerably in excess, due in a considerable measure to charges for "author's corrections." Every effort is being made to reduce this latter source of expenditure.

One hundred and ninety-four books or pamphlets were printed during the year, aggregating 16,503 pages. Of these publications 1,067,561 copies were issued.

Printed stationery.—During the fiscal year 1923, 470 requisitions for printed stationery were filled. Of this number 230 were for offices and bureaus within the department and 240 for services outside the District of Columbia.

Envelopes.—During the year 267 orders were placed with the envelope companies, calling for 4,260,440 envelopes, at a cost of

\$7,620.51, as compared with 171 orders in 1922, calling for 2,829,450 envelopes, costing \$6,220.53. The increase in the number of envelopes ordered during the year was due principally to the fact that the surplus stock of envelopes left by the war-time services of the department had been exhausted and new stock had to be bought. This condition will be even more pronounced next year.

Supplies.—A contingent fund of \$50,000 appropriated for the use of the department was allotted to the bureaus, offices, and services as follows:

Office of the Secretary.....	\$32,175
Bureau of Labor Statistics.....	4,225
Bureau of Immigration.....	2,500
Children's Bureau.....	4,350
Women's Bureau.....	2,500
Bureau of Naturalization.....	4,250

To this there was added from the appropriation "Expenses of regulating immigration, 1923," the sum of \$13,500 for the use of the immigration field service.

On June 30, an apparent balance of \$2,532.90 remained in the contingent fund and of \$2,361.34 in the fund for the Immigration Service. These balances may be altered slightly by reason of the impossibility of estimating exactly the cost of certain services for which bills have not been received. There are ample funds remaining to the credit of the department to meet all outstanding liabilities.

The value of supplies on hand on July 1, 1922, was \$16,219.12; an inventory as of July 1, 1923, shows a valuation of \$18,918.37. This valuation is based on replacement cost, which is considerably above 1922 prices. This small stock permits the department promptly to fill requisitions of the various bureaus and services for standard articles without delay caused by waiting for the supplies to be purchased and delivered.

There were received from the various bureaus, offices, and services during the year 1,906 requisitions, as compared with 1,599 requisitions during 1922. On these requisitions there were written 2,329 orders, as against 2,164 in the year previous.

The cost of upkeep of cars has been materially less during the year 1923 than in any previous year, due in great part to the fact that the passenger-carrying vehicle is comparatively new, and it is not anticipated that any considerably increased expense in this particular will be experienced during the fiscal year 1924.

Periodicals.—The Monthly Labor Review continues as reported last year, while the title of the Industrial Employment Survey Bulletin has been changed to the Industrial Employment Information Bulletin. The statistical portion of this publication has been discontinued, that feature now being handled by the Bureau of

Labor Statistics in the Monthly Labor Review. The Bureau of Labor Statistics, besides its retail prices and cost of living statement, now issues monthly a small statistical statement of wholesale prices of commodities, summarized quarterly in the Review. There is also issued monthly a report of activities of State and municipal employment agencies.

Editorial work.—Editorial and proof reading, expressed in figures, was as follows: Folios of copy (not including reprints) forwarded to the Government Printing Office, 20,783. Galley proofs received, 4,055. Page proofs received, 12,009. Proofs of forms received, 278.

Books and blanks.—A tabulated statement of books and blanks handled during the year, and of mail, freight, and express receipts and shipments follows:

NUMBER OF REQUISITIONS FILLED.

Inside service.....	704
Naturalization Service, clerks.....	4,673
Naturalization Service, examiners.....	147
General (Immigration, Employment, and Customs).....	1,101
Total.....	6,625

SHIPMENTS MADE.

	Number.	Weight.
Boxes, freight.....	1	385
Packages, registered mail.....	3,915	30,328
Packages, regular mail.....	28,063	265,676
Immigration laws, etc.....	5,358	2,533
Bags, regular mail.....	1,481	118,480
Letters, invoices, etc.....	518,352	26,235
Total.....	557,170	443,637
Other divisions:		
Boxes, freight and express.....	125	5,088
Packages, regular mail.....	6,403	18,719
Letters.....	1,306,818	65,340
Total.....	1,313,346	89,147
Supplies:		
Freight and express.....	6,866	272,335
Mail.....	437	2,274
Total.....	7,303	274,609
Total shipments.....	1,877,819	807,393

Packages received:		Number	Weight.
Blanks	-----	21, 117	274, 705
Supplies	-----	5, 727	421, 411
Total	-----	26, 844	696, 116
Total parcels handled	-----	1, 904, 663	1, 503, 509
Certificates of naturalization:			
171 books of 10	-----		1, 710
166 books of 25	-----		4, 150
1, 251 books of 50	-----		62, 550
935 books of 50 (special)	-----		46, 750
2, 523 Total	-----		115, 160

BOOKS AND BLANKS SENT.

Books, general	-----	8, 885
Books, naturalization	-----	2, 523
Total	-----	11, 408
Blanks	-----	8, 608, 100

WORK PERFORMED IN DUPLICATING SECTION.

Franks handled	-----	117, 064
Publications issued on franks	-----	1, 926, 731
Publications issued on mailing lists	-----	347, 262
Mimeograph requisitions handled	-----	1, 735
Mimeograph copies made	-----	3, 034, 199
Mimeographed copies folded	-----	765, 541
Envelopes, letters, and cards addressed	-----	491, 793
Envelopes sealed	-----	771, 723
Photostat copies made	-----	1, 246

Department library.

The record of the work of the library for the year shows progress in four directions—valuable additions to the collection, added facilities for its use, wider service to the bureaus of the department, and larger use of the library's resources by outside organizations.

During the year 6,189 books and pamphlets were catalogued and added to the collection. In addition, much material of ephemeral character but of real value temporarily was made available for quick use by subject in the vertical files. About 50,000 cards were added to the card index. One thousand four hundred and fifty-two volumes were sent to the bindery.

The collection of State codes and session laws in the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the department library were combined into one collection and catalogued. This made possible the discarding of old and superseded volumes and the filling in of gaps in the collection. With the volumes of the Federal statutes and the general laws of Canada, Great Britain, and France, the special compila-

tions of labor laws, and the current translations published by the International Labor Office, the library now has a compact and up-to-date collection of American and foreign labor legislation.

Special efforts were made during the year to complete the files of publications of American trade-unions and many important additions were made to this part of the collection. Particular attention was paid also to securing as promptly as possible all new publications in relation to the coal industry, particularly those relating to the living and working conditions of miners. This part of the collection is extremely valuable, and many of the publications gathered over a period of years could not now be replaced. During the past months it has been used extensively by the research staff of the coal commission.

Some progress has been made also in reestablishing cooperative exchange relations with organizations in the labor and social welfare field abroad, which had been interrupted by the war, and with the many new organizations that have come into being since, particularly in the new political divisions of Europe. This work involves, however, besides the correspondence, a good deal of preliminary research, for which the necessary assistance has not been available.

The Department of Labor library has for some time been preparing "copy" for the catalogue cards printed by the Library of Congress for all of the publications of the department. These entries go out on the Library of Congress proof sheets to the principal libraries of the country and to a number of the largest libraries abroad, and serve to make better known the valuable publications issued by the different bureaus. The library regularly furnishes "copy" also for catalogue cards for its important new accessions and, in addition, during the last year has prepared analytical cards for the various studies and reports of the International Labor Office.

The number of periodicals and new books circulated in the bureaus has greatly increased during the year. The library endeavors to keep informed of new investigations in progress or projected in order that material bearing on these may be obtained as promptly as possible and placed at the disposal of the different investigators. Important periodical articles bearing on the problems studied are also called to their attention. The circulation of material in the bureaus whose work is closely related is greatly complicated by the fact that two of the research bureaus of the department are located in another building some blocks away. Better methods for meeting the needs of these two bureaus are being sought.

The library is being called upon constantly for definite and highly specialized information. To furnish this promptly more elaborate subject catalogues are needed than for a general collection.

More detailed subject indexing is now being done than in previous years, but the cataloguing assistance available is still inadequate to handle the current work. There remains untouched arrears of cataloguing amounting to over 8,000 books and pamphlets. The catalogue is the key to the resources of the library, and it is a serious loss to the research work of all the bureaus that the cataloguing is not being brought up to date.

The number of persons using the library from outside the department has greatly increased during the year. In its library the department has a collection of source material covering the whole field of social welfare unequalled in the United States. While this collection exists primarily to meet the basic need of its own research work, it is the policy of the department, in line with the purpose for which the department was created, to make the collection as widely available as possible. It is used extensively by other Government departments, by research bureaus, and by individual investigators, is consulted as freely by employers' organizations as by labor.

The inquiries coming to me for reply through the library are many and varied. They range from the names and addresses of officials and organizations or the publisher of a particular book to questions involving considerable research, such as information regarding State-operated coal mines, foreign laws relating to the work of women underground, use of cost of living figures in wage determination, registration of dock laborers in foreign countries, wages in the celluloid industry in Japan, and similar questions.

The pressure of the work prevented the completion of two extensive bibliographies begun during the year. These cover the living and working conditions of coal miners in the United States and employee representation in industry. A bibliography on "Profit-sharing and labor copartnership" was contributed to the April number of the Monthly Labor Review and the list on the Kansas Court of Industrial Relations was brought up to date and published as an appendix to Bulletin No. 322 of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

CONCILIATION SERVICE.

Actuated solely by a desire to be helpful to "man and manager" in industry, the conciliation service of the Government becomes year by year a more important factor in the maintenance of industrial peace.

The commissioners in the conciliation service are experienced men and women who willingly and energetically endeavor by advice and suggestion to avert breaks between employer and employee and to harmonize and adjust strikes and threatened strikes and lockouts through joint negotiations between the parties at interest.

The problem of industrial relationship is as old as industry. It is true that it varies somewhat with changing industrial methods

and conditions, but fundamentally the issues confronting the contending interests in an industrial conflict in this age present many of the elementary economic problems that brought about a suspension of work in mine, mill, and factory during the preceding century. In some countries industrial conflicts have eventually led to the battlefield and in several instances precipitated revolutions. In these enlightened days, however, a better and finer spirit of cooperation and an appreciation and understanding of the rights of employer and employed enables the manager and worker to act with each other fairly to solve their problems in a calm and peaceful manner.

This procedure, when followed, brings as its reward happy and efficient workers and steadier and better production. If a trade dispute develops to the point where work is suspended for a time through a strike by workers or a lockout or a suspension of operations on the part of the management conciliation paves the way for closer active cooperation. The same procedure—common counsel to find common ground—eliminates divided responsibility and brings instead that joint relationship which year by year is being more generally accepted by the interests concerned. To prevent strikes and lockouts if possible, or to speedily bring these regrettable industrial conflicts to a close, is the task imposed upon the Secretary of Labor and his representatives—the commissioners of conciliation—by the Congress of the United States.

It is a comparatively new function of government, and year by year an increasingly important and satisfying activity. The Department of Labor has no panacea for the industrial ills that from time to time confront our business life. We know that just so long as men are actuated by the wholesome desire for gain, man and manager will be faced by differences of opinion which oftentimes result in stoppage of work. It is the department's policy to approach these situations in a practical and common-sense way, without prejudice and with open mind.

In our national industrial life there is such a diversification of occupations that a suspension of operations in most industries presents first of all a problem for those directly affected, and, secondly, for the public living in the immediate section affected by the strike or lockout. However, when our transportation systems, our mining or other industries closely associated with the production of the necessities of life cease to fulfill their mission and obligation to the public because of a general suspension due to any cause, all of our people are affected. Happily these situations are not common to American industry.

Trade disputes are not of recent origin. The peoples of all lands have witnessed these trade conflicts as far back as history records.

Workers in what was actual slavery in the brick plants in the time of the Pharaoh who ruled Egypt late in the fourteenth century B. C., on account of an edict from the ruler that the workers henceforth should supply their own straw and stubble to be used in making the bricks, became incensed and threatened an uprising. The situation was further aggravated by bad food supplied to them by the taskmasters under the king. When the unrest became most serious, Moses and his brother, Aaron, left at once to wait on the ruler. Moses mildly complained to Pharaoh, who refused to consider any of the grievances, saying, "Wherefore do ye lead the people from their work? Get you unto your burdens." And Pharaoh commanded the same day the taskmasters of the people, saying, "Ye shall no more give the people straw to make bricks. Let them go and gather straw for themselves." And the workers had to ransack the country for straw and stubble, which was very scarce. When no concessions could be secured they quit work in a vast mass, to the number of more than half a million (in all 603,555 were employed). Moses finally led them to a land of freedom, pursued by the Egyptian soldiers. The story of the exodus is well known to all readers of Scripture.

A strike of bakers occurred in Egypt over a thousand years before the Christian era; and so on down through the ages we find conflicts between employer and employee. With the changes in industry bringing ultimately into existence the factory system, strikes and suspensions were of frequent occurrence in all parts of the world.

In this country there is a sure but slow reduction in the number of contests reaching the stage of a strike or lockout; notwithstanding the great coal and railway shopcraft strikes of 1922, the American people have made gratifying progress toward peace in industry. I do not expect to see the day when absolute industrial peace will reign, but I do hope to see the day when the American business genius and the enlightened American working man will negotiate agreements around the peace table before and not after a break develops. This action will minimize the number of trade disputes and the efforts of the service then will be better utilized in assisting by advice and suggestion based on a familiarity with negotiations and all phases of the particular industry affected, thus helping both sides in reaching a satisfactory adjustment.

During the year the conciliation service used its good offices in 534 trade disputes, strikes, threatened strikes, and lockouts. These cases involved directly 294,320 and indirectly 101,358 workers.

In 428 of these situations the department secured amicable settlements. In 19 cases the commissioners assisted State officials, city officials, and local committees. There remained 60 pending on June 30, and in 27 cases no settlements could be secured.

This is a particularly pleasing record, because of the impetus in the building trades and kindred industries during the past year or year and a half. During the war and immediately thereafter a slackening up in the building program caused builders to put forth a tremendous effort in recent months to catch up. This strenuous program naturally strained the relationship at times very near to the breaking point. Good counsel, however, prevailed and at the close of our fiscal year matters of general industrial relationship demonstrate what can be accomplished by joint effort when all concerned move in the right direction along conciliatory lines.

As the matter of coal occupies an important place in our industrial life, particularly in view of the suspension of work on the part of 600,000 miners last year, the Department of Labor has given considerable thought to all phases of the subject. No one will deny that strikes are regrettable and that they bring in their wake sufferings and hardships aside from the monetary losses to both worker and manager that can never be regained; but there are other phases than the strike problem that require our best thought and most serious consideration.

For 20 years, 1900-1919, according to Geological Survey reports gathered from coal operators, strikes in coal mines resulted in the loss of 124,747,199 man days. But in the same time in the same mines there were lost 1,053,576,000 man days through no market, transportation, disability, or breakdowns at the mines. In other words, 10.5 per cent of the total loss in the coal mining operation in 20 years was due to strikes, while 89.5 per cent loss during the same time was due to other causes than strikes and lockouts. While this ratio of loss would not apply to all other lines of industry, it does apply to a lesser extent in a great many other lines of industrial endeavor.

The jurisdictional dispute.

The serious effect of the jurisdictional dispute upon both workers and employers—particularly in the building trades—calls for remedial regulation by voluntary agreement on the part of the crafts affected.

The interests of the public generally are closely interwoven with those of mechanics and builders involved in these disputes. It has frequently happened that because of disputes between contending crafts important undertakings, including hospitals, schools, and other public structures have been held up, entailing heavy and unnecessary expenses upon the taxpayer.

It would appear therefore that the skilled American craftsmen should without delay formulate some plan that will for all time eliminate these bitterly contested and profitless controversies. If

this be not feasible, it is believed that a more general reference of these jurisdictional problems to the Jurisdictional Board of Award created in 1918-19 would result in the avoidance of many of the interruptions in the building industry.

The department will gladly lend all possible aid to any and all interests concerned, with the hope that joint effort shall effectively prevent these disputes which have done so much injury to building-trades craftsmen, the contractor and the public.

Limitation of space prevents even a brief descriptive account of all of the trade disputes of the year just closed. It is, however, possible to report in detail upon some of the cases presented for conciliation. The following are submitted as typical examples of the work. Some of these are not cases involving the greatest number of workers affected, but are cases that show the diversity in occupations involved, issues in dispute, and plans of settlement secured by and with the aid of commissioners of conciliation of the Department of Labor.

The great coal strike.—Commissioner Hywel Davies, of California, and W. H. Rodgers, of Iowa, devoted several months to the special study of the coal problem, both antecedent to and during the great coal strike of 1922 in the anthracite and bituminous mines of the country. The director of conciliation, Mr. H. L. Kerwin, jointly with the above-named commissioners, aided by six field commissioners, served as mining advisers to the Secretary of Labor, so that the Secretary could be kept thoroughly posted on every phase of this great controversy that disturbed the industrial and economic welfare of the country from April to September, 1922. The department's close touch with the entire situation materially helped in the final settlement. As the strike overlapped into the fiscal year 1923, but was settled before the annual report for the year 1922 was submitted to the President and Congress, it was deemed advisable to include in the 1922 report (which see) the complete story of the strike, thus dispensing with the necessity of repetition in this annual report, even though the strike was not settled until August, 1922, in the bituminous, and September, 1922, in the anthracite fields.

Stonecutters, New York City.—The agreement between the Journeymen Stonecutters' Association of New York City and the Greater New York Cut-Stone Contractors' Association contained an article to the effect that if a general wage advance were made covering the building-trade crafts, it should apply also to the stonecutters. Some of the crafts had received advances, amounting in some cases to \$2 per day, but the increase had not become general and varied in the amounts granted. This condition created dissatisfaction among the stonecutters and culminated in a demand for a wage increase of \$2 per day. Commissioners Thomas J. Williams, E. H. Dunnigan, and R. A. Brown were assigned to the case by the department.

On April 18 the men struck to enforce their demands. Some 2,600 men answered the strike call. The building program of Greater New York was threatened with serious interruption. A radical difference of opinion existed between the contending parties as to whether or not the existing agreement had been broken. As both sides appeared adamant in support of their views on the subject, the commissioners deemed it best to ignore this phase of the situation and endeavor to find some common ground upon which both sides might meet and

open negotiations. The commissioners attended meetings first with one side and then the other, and then arranged a joint conference to work out a formula, if possible, to overcome the deadlock. The point was reached where the contractors declined to consider the matter further until the men returned to work. The men countered with the proposition that they would return to work and confer after their wages were advanced. It was admitted by representatives of the employers that some men much less skilled than the stonecutters were receiving higher wages, and this fact doubtless had considerable weight in persuading them to grant an advance. Specific reference was made to derrick men, who were receiving \$1 per day in excess of the amount received by the stonecutters. This was a strong factor in bringing about an adjustment. On May 7 a second joint conference was arranged. A proposition to increase wages \$1 a day in lieu of the previous demand of \$2 was accepted by the strikers' representatives. The compromise was the suggestion of the commissioners. On May 8 the men returned to work, after 21 days of idleness.

New England granite industry.—On April 1, 1922, the granite producing companies in the New England States put into effect a general wage reduction of 20 per cent and certain changes in working conditions. This action was followed by a strike which was quite general throughout the industry. Many of the firms had had contractual relations with their employees for a number of years. Upon the inauguration of the strike, however, the manufacturers' association declared for the open shop. The good offices of the Department of Labor was not requested until the month of August, when Commissioner R. A. Brown was delegated to look into the matter with a view to bringing the contending parties together. It developed that there were four parties concerned in the strike, namely, the Quarry Owners' Association who produced the rough stock, the Quarry Manufacturers' Association who own and operate the cutting plants, the Quarry Workers' Union, and the Granite Cutters' Association. The officers of the two unions expressed a willingness to negotiate for a settlement, but the producers' associations at first declined the commissioner's proffer of his good offices. It soon became manifest that individual settlements would have to be made, as many of the manufacturing companies were anxious to resume operations and were not in accord with their organization in its stand for the open shop. A growing scarcity of both the rough and finished granite was a factor tending toward a settlement. The efforts of the board of control of the manufacturers' association to prevent their locals from dealing with their workers' representatives ended in failure and a number of companies resumed contractual relations and restored the old rates of pay. This proved to be the beginning of the end of the strike. Individual settlements continued to be made until practically the entire industry had resumed operations under the old conditions. This called for a minimum wage of \$1 per hour and a 44-hour week for the granite cutters. The quarry workers in most cases accepted a reduction of 10 cents per hour, establishing the rate at 62 cents, with an 8-hour day. Upwards of 3,500 men were directly affected by the strike.

Shoe strike, Cincinnati, Ohio.—This strike of seven months' duration, stubbornly contested on both sides, ended in a compromise. After months of contention which resulted in very heavy monetary loss to both sides and untold hardships to many of the workers involved, and after the futility of continuing the struggle had been made manifest to both sides, a spirit of compromise finally prevailed and an agreement was brought about. Probably the same result could have been reached during the first week of the strike if the contending parties had shown any disposition to give and take.

The original proposition of the manufacturers was for a 25 per cent reduction of wages. This the workers promptly rejected and threatened to strike. The

manufacturers met again and the proposed wage cut was fixed at 10 per cent. The question of accepting or rejecting the reduction left to a referendum vote of the workers and the decision to strike was carried by a small majority.

Commissioners W. C. Liller and Oscar F. Nelson were designated as the Department of Labor's representatives in an effort to bring the parties together.

The manufacturers contended that they had lost money the previous year and that they could not compete with manufacturers in other cities because of labor costs. This assertion was flatly contradicted by the workers' representatives who pointed to the fact that seven companies in Cincinnati were continuing the old scale. They also maintained that the peak war-time wages never had obtained in the Cincinnati shoe shops.)

Many conferences were held at various times without result and it was only after seven months of industrial warfare that a compromise proposition based on a 5 per cent wage reduction was accepted by a big majority of the strikers.

Embroidery workers, New York City.—Commissioner Charles Bendheim was assigned by the department to take up a strike situation involving 2,000 embroidery workers employed in 125 shops in New York City.

A group of these manufacturers were associated together under the name of the Bonnaz and Hand Embroiderers' Protective Association. This organization had previously been in contractual relations with the union, but when the commissioner intervened in the situation all negotiations between the parties had been broken off and the prospects for a long and disastrous struggle was imminent.

It was through the instrumentality of the commissioner that the president of the manufacturers' association and several of its committee members met in conference at a luncheon with the general manager of the joint board of the union and several other union officials and renewed efforts to bring to a satisfactory conclusion a situation that was daily developing into a more tense and determined struggle.

The chief contention conserved unionization of general workers, such as finishers, buckram, scrapers, and basters, which class of help, under previous agreements, the employer employed in the busy seasons without regard to union affiliation.

After several conferences extending over a period of two weeks a final agreement was reached, the terms and conditions of which were embodied in a contract under date of August 31, 1922, 16 days subsequent to the beginning of the strike. This settlement put back to work 2,000 workers in the shops of the association members and other plants.

Building trades, Indianapolis, Ind.—Commissioner Harry B. Dynes was instrumental in averting a general strike in the building trades of Indianapolis, Ind., in the spring of 1923. On April 1, the following crafts struck for higher wages: Plasterers, hoisting engineers, iron workers, lathers, and electricians. These craftsmen numbered about 800. As the strikes were rather interlocking it was apparent that if the crafts on strike did not settle by the time the buildings were ready for these crafts still on the job, the latter would be forced into idleness. The situation was difficult owing to the fact that each case had to be handled as a separate entity, as endeavors to adjust one situation had no effect on the other crafts on strike. There was danger also of other issues being injected unless the contending parties could reach a settlement.

On April 12 the hoisting engineers and structural iron workers settled with their employers, the former on a basis of from \$1.15 to \$1.25 per hour depending upon the class of engine, and the latter receiving an increase to \$1.17½ to May 1 and \$1.25 thereafter. On May 1 the lathers returned to work, getting an increase from \$7.20 to \$8 per day. On the same day the electricians settled, re-

ceiving an increase from \$1 to \$1.10 per hour until September 1, 1923, and \$1.12½ thereafter. On May 4 the plasterers returned to work, receiving an advance from \$9 to \$10.50 per day until September 1, and \$11 per day thereafter. These adjustments averted a general strike and gave a promise of peaceful conditions for the rest of the fiscal year.

House wreckers, New York City.—The 2,000 members of House Wreckers' Union, Local No. 95, located in New York City and vicinity, made demands upon the Demolition Contractors' Protective Association and independent firms for a wage increase of 25 cents per hour. An agreement under which the contracting parties had been working expired on March 31, 1923. In addition to the wage increase, the union also asked that the men be retained on a job until the end of the week in lieu of the prevailing practice of sometimes discharging men at the end of a day's work, and also requested that the foreman on every job be a union man in good standing. Commissioner E. H. Dunnigan was the department's representative on the case.

The contending parties were unyielding in their views and a deadlock ensued. It was argued by the contractors that the wrecking of buildings required no skill and that this class of men were already paid from 10 to 25 cents per hour more than the construction laborers. Conferences were held and the demands discussed. The contractors finally agreed to an increase of 5 cents per hour for bar men and helpers. This was flatly rejected by the union. A joint conference of the interested parties was then arranged, but this also adjourned without a settlement being reached. The question of arbitrating the differences was suggested and rejected. On April 4, having been unable to reach an agreement, the men went out on strike. Conferences were again resumed and at a stormy meeting of the contractors it was voted to grant an increase of 10 cents per hour. The new offer was then presented at a largely attended union meeting and was rejected. As the new offer seemed a very fair one the commissioner appeared before a union meeting and pleaded for its acceptance. Finally on April 11 the men voted to accept the offer and to waive their other demands. The strike was declared off and work resumed on April 12.

Lockout of workers on children's knee pants and jackets.—Manufacturers of knee pants and jackets in Greater New York City have the work done by contractors. These contractors operate shops away from the premises of the manufacturers, employing and having supervision of all workers. They locked out the workers, claiming that they could not operate profitably unless the workers either accepted a wage reduction or the manufacturers agreed to pay an increased price for the work.

There were 10,000 workers idle when the department detailed Commissioners Bendheim and Weinstock to take up the situation with a view to its adjustment. The commissioners commenced their work on January 4, 1923, when they ascertained that all negotiations between the contractors and the union had terminated and no attempt was made by any of the interested parties to hold conferences with the manufacturers.

The contractors contended unless union workers would accept a decrease in wages, it would result in a general strike against the manufacturers for the purpose of compelling them to grant an increased price for the work. The union insisted before it would take any action in the matter that the contractors must reopen their shops and reinstate the workers.

The commissioners held several conferences with the Knee Pants Contractors' Association, Children's Clothing Contractors' Association, individual contractors, and individual employers and representatives of the union. The contractors agreed to resume operations, which they did on January 10, 1923, with the

understanding that immediately thereafter committees representing the union and contractors would be appointed to take up for adjustment with individual and small groups of manufacturers the question of a readjustment of prices for work that would justify a higher level of pay.

Teamsters, Cleveland, Ohio.—Cessation of building operations in Cleveland, Ohio, was threatened in May, 1923, when the building teamsters went on strike. About 600 men struck, involving indirectly upward of 2,500. Unless satisfactorily adjusted teamsters local unions Nos. 407 and 436 threatened to go out in support of local No. 444 who were on strike, and such action would have soon caused all building operations to automatically cease. The strikers were demanding an increase in wages, a reduction in hours, and recognition of their union. The Department of Labor assigned Commissioner A. L. Faulkner to assist in reaching a settlement.

Conferences were arranged and the matters in dispute carefully considered. An amicable adjustment was reached on the ninth day of the strike. An increase of 5 cents per hour was granted to all employees, and the same was made retroactive to May 1. The insurance feature of the agreement was restored. All strikers were restored to their old positions without discrimination. Recognition of the union was waived.

Texas & Pacific Railway shopmen.—To the splendid spirit of cooperation and helpfulness manifested by Judge Rufus E. Foster, of the United States District Court of New Orleans, and by Hon. J. L. Lancaster, receiver for the road, appointed by Judge Foster, may be attributed the settlement of the shopmen's strike on this railroad. An effort to adjust the shopmen's difficulties on the various lines traversing the State of Texas had been made by Gov. Patrick Neff and his associates, including State Labor Commissioner Joseph S. Myers. An invitation extended by the governor to the eight executives of the roads crossing the State to attend a joint conference in the governor's office to discuss ways and means of terminating the strike, had been declined by the executives. At the instance of the governor, therefore, State Labor Commissioner Myers requested the Department of Labor to use its good offices and endeavor to bring the strikes to an end. It was pointed out that while nearly all of the strikers were employed elsewhere at wages as good or better than they had been receiving from the railroads, they were nevertheless in many instances separated from their families or compelled to leave their homes, in many cases only partially paid for, and settle in other communities, and if a settlement of the strikes could be brought about it would be an act tending toward stability generally and a happy event to many families seriously affected. The department assigned Commissioner Charles T. Connell, of Los Angeles, Calif., to conduct negotiations.

Sensing that efforts along the lines taken by the State officials would result in failure, the commissioner determined that his efforts would be made with the individual roads concerned. The Texas & Pacific road was in the hands of receivers appointed by Judge Foster and it was determined to center efforts on this company. Commissioner Connell proceeded to New Orleans and laid the matter before the judge for counsel and advice. He found the latter highly sympathetic relative to the welfare of the former employees. The outstanding contention against which the strikers demurred was that they must join the so-called company union before they would be reemployed. The judge passed upon this question and decided that such membership was not a requisite to reemployment. This was a decided concession to the men and brought about a much better feeling. The method to be employed in the reemployment of former employees was referred by the judge to the receivers and the operating

officials of the company. The following was submitted by the company as a basis of settlement upon which the former employees could return to work:

1. No discrimination whatever against the old men. On the contrary former employees to receive preference whenever vacancies occurred.
2. No new men to be discharged for the purpose of replacing them with former employees.
3. No requirement that applicants must join the existing employees' organization. Any man employed by the receivers is at liberty to join the new organization or retain his membership in any other organization that he may be a member of, and all employees are to be treated exactly alike.

While the above terms were not altogether satisfactory to all of the strikers, they were eventually accepted and the strike declared off. This has enabled many of the old men to return to their own communities and homes, and has assured the Texas & Pacific of a full force of contented and efficient shopmen in contrast to the bitterness still existing among the forces of some of the other railroads in that vicinity. The department is appreciative of the faithful cooperation of State Labor Commissioner Joseph S. Myers in this case.

Potters' strike.—A strike of about 7,000 operative potters in 61 plants in the United States occurred on October 1, 1922. On account of the magnitude of the strike and the fact that it embraced sections of 12 different States, extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific coasts, the department assigned four commissioners of conciliation at different points, namely, W. C. Liller, W. H. Rodgers, L. R. Thomas, and A. L. Faulkner.

For a period of upward of 28 years, the most friendly relations had existed between the United States Potters' Association, representing the employers, and the National Brotherhood of Operative Potters, representing the workers. Each year representatives of both sides met in conference and reached amicable agreements as to wage rates and working conditions. This year, however, they were unable to agree upon a wage rate. A reduction of 10 per cent had been agreed upon at the previous year's meeting, and this had been followed by an additional cut of 7 per cent the following November. The union demanded the restoration of the 7 per cent reduction, and this stand was indorsed by a referendum vote of the membership. Conferences were held at East Liverpool, Ohio, Trenton, N. J., and other points. The manufacturers were adamant in the position they had assumed, declaring that conditions in the industry prohibited any wage advance and they had decided to close down their plants. Negotiations were rendered difficult owing to the fact that the officers of the union did not have authority to settle the strike, but must first be armed with this authority by a referendum vote of the membership. The strike continued until the first week in December, when the workers voted to return to work at the same wages prevailing when operations were suspended, with the understanding that the representatives of the United States Potters' Association and the National Brotherhood of Operative Potters would meet at Atlantic City on December 18 to negotiate a new agreement and wage scale. At this meeting a new agreement was signed and a wage increase of 4½ per cent granted.

Seamen on the Great Lakes.—The sailors, firemen, cooks, and coal passers employed on the ships controlled by the Lake Carriers' Association, by referendum vote, decided to strike during the month of August, 1922, because the association had failed to accede to their request for an increase in wages and the abolishment of the so-called "discharge book" issued under the welfare plan of the association, and the demand of the sailors and cooks for

the eight-hour day, or three-watch plan. Commissioners Oscar F. Nelson and Benjamin M. Marshman were assigned to the case by the department.

On August 3 the commissioners attended a meeting of the executive committee of the unions at Detroit, Mich. The executive committee granted the commissioners a hearing and after their appeal that no action be taken until the Department of Labor had had an opportunity to conciliate the situation, they voted to defer action until such an effort had been made. Representatives of the union then proceeded to Washington, D. C., for a meeting with Secretary Davis and Director of Conciliation Kerwin. Negotiations were entered into by the department with the Lake Carriers' Association, with the result that an increase of \$15 per month to all classes of help was granted, effective September 1. This action averted a strike on the Great Lakes at that time.

In September the sailors' union took a vote on the question of whether they should strike on October 1 unless the eight-hour day, or three-watch system, was instituted. The vote was for a strike. The department's commissioners conferred with officials of the union and with the president of the Lake Carriers' Association and with a number of ship owners in Detroit and Buffalo. Each side was firm in its position and on October 1 the strike went into effect. Only a portion of the sailors responded to the strike order. However, some delay occurred in transportation. On October 16, at the solicitation of the commissioners, a meeting of the executive committee of the union convened. After consideration of the situation the committee issued instructions to discontinue the strike and authorized the men to return to work on November 1.

Children's dresses, house dresses, bath robes, and kimonos, New York City and contiguous territory.—A strike in these industries occurred on the 2d day of February, 1923, which involved approximately 10,000 workers and quite a large number of manufacturers and contractors.

A large number of the workers were members of locals Nos. 10, 41, and 50 of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union and the strike was precipitated by the union to establish work standards, after having first invited the employers to meet with its settlement committee and arrange peaceable settlements.

Commissioners Charles Bendheim and Anna Weinstock were assigned to the case. They conferred at various times with representatives of the union and manufacturers and contractors and it was at their solicitation that Mr. Samuel Borads and Mr. S. L. Hoffman, president and secretary respectively of the House Dress and Bath Robe Manufacturers' Association met in joint conference at the Hotel Pennsylvania, New York City, with official representatives of the union.

These conferences were continued from time to time and finally resulted in an agreement covering all questions at issue. Employers agreed to the demand of the workers to unionize all shops within the jurisdiction of the association, a general weekly wage increase of \$2, with the establishment of a minimum wage scale, and the enforcement of recognized sanitary conditions.

This settlement, together with 90 individual settlements effected after the commissioners entered the situation, disposed of practically the entire controversy.

Bakers, Washington, D. C.—For the third consecutive year the master and journeymen bakers of Washington, D. C., entered into a controversy at the expiration of their agreement. For the first time, however, a strike of a few days' duration actually occurred. About 600 bakers were affected, indirectly involving about 1,200 workers. The demands of the workers included a request for a substantial increase in wages, a revision of the hours, which would

increase the period of time during which the night rate was paid, and certain restrictions as to the employment of automatic machines. Commissioner J. B. Colpoys represented the Department of Labor.

Commissioner Colpoys was confronted with a situation wherein the journeymen bakers refused to make concessions upon which a basis of settlement could be negotiated. He found it necessary to lay the matter before the international officers of the bakers' union at Chicago, Ill. The international office wired the local bakers' union to modify their demands and enter into immediate negotiations with their employers.

Joint conferences were held, but the difficulties seemed insurmountable. So threatening had become the aspect of the case and so little hope had the master bakers of arriving at a settlement that a large number of men had actually been brought into the city to take the places of the strikers, and provisions had been made for their subsistence. When matters had so shaped themselves that a fight to a finish seemed inevitable, Commissioner Colpoys finally persuaded the contending parties to make a final effort for a settlement in joint conference at the Department of Labor at which Assistant Secretary Henning and Director of Conciliation Kerwin participated.

This meeting resulted in an amicable basis of adjustment being reached. A general increase of about 10 cents per hour was allowed and the other demands were waived and a few days later all were back at work.

Shirt-waist and dress makers, Philadelphia, Pa.—Approximately 4,000 shirt-waist and dress makers in Philadelphia, Pa., went out on strike in February, 1923, in support of their demands for a wage increase of 15 per cent and improved shop conditions. Previous to the strike conferences had been held in the mayor's office and elsewhere and many propositions, including an offer to arbitrate the difficulties, had been submitted by the workers, through Commissioner John A. Moffitt, and rejected. The strike involved 172 employers, of whom 60 were members of the manufacturers' association, and 112 were outside that organization. Differences of opinion between the organization members and the independent employers as to terms of settlement became apparent. An agreement was reached which terminated the strike so far as the independent manufacturers were concerned. The terms of the agreement provided for a wage increase and improved working conditions. The members of the manufacturers' association continued to run their plants on the open-shop basis. It was generally conceded, however, that in order to retain their employees they would be compelled to meet the conditions granted by the independents.

Woven-label manufacturers, New York City and vicinity.—Commissioner Robert M. McWade attended a conference in New York City between representatives of the woven-label manufacturers and their employees in which the question of the wage rate for the ensuing year was taken up and decided upon. The employees demanded the return to the old scale which had obtained prior to April 5, when wages had been reduced from 10 to 13 per cent. The negotiations were conducted in a friendly spirit and ended in the old scale being restored. Among the firms affected by the agreement were the Artistic Weaving Co., Pompton Lakes, N. Y., the United States Woven Label Co., Brooklyn, N. Y., and the E. H. Kluge Weaving Co., West New York, N. J.

Building trades laborers, Buffalo, N. Y.—A strike of 4,000 building trades laborers occurred at Buffalo, N. Y., in May, 1923. Commissioner Thomas Finn was assigned to adjust the matter if possible. These workers struck for 75 cents per hour, an increase of about 10 cents, and for recognition of their union, and a signed agreement. It developed that if the strike continued at length, 10,000 building trades workmen might become involved. This threatening aspect

of the case induced the department to assign two additional conciliators, Messrs. L. R. Thomas and Fred Keightly, who cooperated with Commissioner Finn and a member of the New York State Board of Mediation. The strikers took the position that there should be no settlements with individual contractors and that at least 60 per cent be returned to work before any employer would be furnished with men. The officials of the Building Trades Council gave every assistance in endeavoring to effect an adjustment, although the laborers on strike were not affiliated with that organization. The strike of laborers had not received the sanction of the officers of the international union, and consequently was not indorsed by the Building Trades Council. The strikers were advised by the council that they would have to sign up with any individual contractors who might be willing to sign or they would lose the support of that organization. The larger contractors were opposed to recognition of the laborers' organization. The strike was in effect, with gradually diminishing effectiveness, for about five weeks, and was then declared off. None of the demands were granted.

Fancy leather-goods workers, New York City.—Employees of Jeffs & Co., Inc., New York City, struck to enforce union recognition, wages, and working conditions. Commissioner Charles Bendheim, who happened to be in the city in connection with other conciliation work, proffered his good offices to the contending parties, which they accepted. He experienced some difficulty in arranging a conference between representatives of the respective parties owing to the management being averse to negotiating with union officials. But finally all objections were overcome and a preliminary conference arranged.

The antagonistic feeling which was manifested at the inception of this conference gradually gave way to a more conciliatory spirit as it progressed, and at its conclusion a better understanding was reached.

However, it required several subsequent conferences before the commissioner succeeded in getting the parties in entire accord. While at the outset this situation seemed likely to develop into a prolonged struggle, it lasted only a few days and culminated in an agreement which provided for the following conditions:

1. Employment of union workers only.
2. Work week of 44 hours, which by mutual consent could be made the basis of a five-day work week.
3. Overtime pay at the rate of time and a half, with the limitation that no more than two hours of overtime be done on any one day.
4. Workers classified as first-class to receive minimum wage of \$38 a week, and those in the second class a minimum wage of \$34.

Anthracite strikes.—A number of strikes of considerable magnitude but of short duration have occurred in the anthracite region during the past year. These strikes, occurring at a time when the country was short of anthracite, due to the prolonged strike of 1922, have in the aggregate caused a loss in production of thousands of tons. Commissioner Thomas Davis was assigned to the anthracite region during the past year for the purpose of assisting in the settlement of such strikes and shortening their duration. The following cases are cited as examples of the many difficulties taken up:

Pennsylvania Coal Co., Pittston Pa., and vicinity: Nearly 10,000 men were ordered to strike in this instance in support of a few miners who struck at the Butler Colliery on account of a minor grievance. After one day's idleness the miners were induced to return to work.

Philadelphia & Reading Co.: A four days' strike, affecting 700 miners, occurred in the mines of this company due to a change from nationality locals to colliery locals. The matter was settled by a referendum vote of the miners agreeing upon the colliery locals.

West End Coal Co., Mocanaqua, Pa.: This controversy affected 900 miners who threatened to strike, citing a number of minor grievances. The matter was referred to the Anthracite Conciliation Board for disposition.

Plasterers, St. Louis, Mo.—The union plasterers in St. Louis, Mo., struck in June, 1923, in support of their demands for a wage increase from \$12 to \$14 per day. Competition among the contracting plasterers had induced some of them to pay from \$1 to \$2 above the prevailing rate. This action caused unrest and dissatisfaction in the ranks of those not getting the advance and culminated in a strike on June 11. An adjustment was brought about on June 28 when the boss plasterers agreed to pay \$14 temporarily, but refusing to acknowledge it as the scale. Commissioner F. A. Canfield assisted in the adjustment.

California oil fields.—Commissioner Hywel Davies, as referee on interpretations of the joint wage and labor agreements for two of the largest oil companies on the Pacific coast, reports harmony and cooperation in this industry without the loss of a shift during the fiscal year. There was some slight disturbance in some of the California tank farms early in the summer on account of some I. W. W. agitation, but neither of the companies working under the above joint agreement was affected. These desired results were contributed to very materially by the cooperation of Commissioners Chas. T. Connell, of Los Angeles, and E. P. Marsh, of Portland, Oreg., through their active contact with all labor disturbances on the Pacific coast. Their activities often stopped the contagion of unrest and prevented the fruition of many slated strikes by demonstrating that the department's sincerity and ability to get prompt hearings and consideration from the employers soon removed the cause of unrest.

The copper industry.—As further proof of the preventive value of the closer association between the Division of Conciliation and the basic industries of the country, it is only necessary to call attention to another year of industrial peace in the copper industry of the West, where recognized workmen's shop committees are functioning successfully. These shop committees were inaugurated through the activities of the Department of Labor six years ago, and continued contact of representatives of the Division of Conciliation has materially contributed to continued peace in an industry that suffered seriously from strikes and I. W. W. disturbances before the present working relations were established.

Clothing workers, Toledo, Ohio.—A reported threatening situation in the clothing industry of Toledo, Ohio, induced the department to assign Commissioners William Robinett and H. D. Friel to look into the matter. It developed that a campaign to organize the workers in the industry had caused considerable newspaper publicity with reports of an impending strike. Investigation showed that these reports were exaggerated and the alleged discrimination against union workers was not found. The visit of the commissioners to the city allayed suspicion and brought about a better feeling.

Hosiery mills, Adamstown, Pa.—A strike affecting four hosiery mills at Adamstown, Pa., took place on January 3, 1923. Commissioner W. C. Liller took up the matter and brought about a prompt adjustment. The operatives struck for a wage increase from 13 to 15 cents per dozen pairs of hose. A compromise was agreed upon which brought the rate to 14½ cents per pair. The strike lasted but two days.

Ladies' Hat-frame Makers, New York City.—A strike affecting upward of 1,500 workers in this industry occurred in New York in July, 1922. About 80 firms are engaged in this industry in the greater city and union conditions largely prevail. There being no association of the manufacturers it became necessary to make separate agreements. The demands were for a 44-hour

week and a minimum wage. In the final adjustment 71 firms signed the agreement with the union. Six firms, while agreeing to the rates and conditions prescribed by the union, declined to sign. The agreement runs for a period of one year with an assurance of peace for that time. Commissioner John B. Colpoys assisted in the negotiations.

Finery Hosiery Mills, Clifton, N. J.—A threatened strike of the full-fashioned knitters and other employees of the Finery Hosiery Mills, Clifton, N. J., was averted through the good offices of Commissioner Robert M. McWade. A controversy had arisen over the wage rate, the full-fashioned knitters demanding a substantial increase. Conferences held in Philadelphia and in Clifton resulted in an amicable adjustment being reached. The knitters were given an increase to \$1.43 per dozen, and other employees a proportionate advance. This action set the pace for other full-fashioned hosiery plants in that section and eliminated the possibility of trouble in the industry generally.

Street-car employees, Erie, Pa.—The department, through Commissioner Thomas M. Finn, was instrumental in averting a strike of the street-car employees at Erie, Pa. The company in this case was willing to arbitrate the question of an increase in the wage rate. The employees were very much opposed to this form of settlement. Commissioner Finn conferred with the representatives of the men and urged its acceptance. The employees had made a demand for an increase averaging 30 per cent. A compromise was finally agreed upon which granted an increase of 5 cents per hour, and the questions pertaining to working conditions went to arbitration.

Bakers, Portland, Oreg.—The bakers' union of Portland, Oreg., alleged a violation of their agreement with the Master Bakers which had been negotiated the year previous by a representative of the Department of Labor. The specific complaint was that representatives of the union were denied access to the plants in pursuance of their union duties. The matter was amicably adjusted through an arrangement which provided that the union representatives would be permitted to visit the plants, provided such action did not hamper the employees in their work. Commissioner E. P. Marsh, who had negotiated the previous agreement, brought about the settlement.

Coal miners, Bicknell, Ind.—A strike of the 750 coal miners employed at the Bicknell mine No. 1 of the American Coal Mining Co. occurred on March 6. These miners went out in protest against the use of "permissible" powder in place of the black powder usually used. The company desired the change as a matter of safety, as an explosion had recently occurred in the mine in which two men were killed. The miners contended that the new powder was inferior and cut down their output. Commissioner Edward Stewart was able to arrange an amicable settlement, the miners agreeing to use permissible powder with the understanding that if one brand did not blast the coal satisfactorily different brands would be tried out until a satisfactory one was secured. This mine is one of the largest in the United States, having a daily production of about 6,000 tons.

Sewer construction laborers, Baltimore, Md.—A strike of some 300 sewer construction laborers, timbermen, and pipelayers occurred in Baltimore on April 2 to enforce a demand for a wage increase, an eight-hour day, and a signed agreement. Commissioner Homer J. Brown was assigned by the department.

The mayor of Baltimore welcomed the representative of the department and cordially assisted him in his efforts to adjust the matter. A settlement was soon effected and an agreement signed for a period of one year. Its terms provided for an increase for laborers from 37½ and 40 cents per hour to 50 cents and an advance to timbermen and pipelayers to 60 cents per hour. An eight-hour day was also provided for. The men returned to work on April 9.

The cloak and suit manufacturers of Philadelphia, Pa., were confronted with a strike of about 3,000 operatives on February 1. Three units composed the manufacturers, to wit, the manufacturers, the jobbers, and the subcontractors. The two former groups were not involved in the strike. The strikers alleged that the subcontractors had broken their agreement by attempting to reintroduce the "sweat-shop system" whereby work was sent to the private houses of the workers and done at a cost less than their agreement with the union called for. Commissioner John A. Moffitt, who was detailed on the case by the department, arranged a joint conference. An agreement was reached on February 8 which contained the following provisions:

1. That each of the subcontractors deposit \$200 with the jobbers' association for their faithful carrying out of their agreement with the union.
2. That a standing committee of three be appointed, one representing the manufacturers, one representing the operatives, and the third to be a neutral party.
3. That all future grievances would be taken up by this committee and the damages assessed, if any, would be taken out of the total sum deposited and paid over to the union; and that there be no strikes or lockouts pending a decision of all grievances by said committee.

Building trades laborers, Charleston, W. Va.—The building trades laborers of Charleston went out on strike on May 1, demanding a wage increase from 75 to 90 cents per hour. The strike was unauthorized and did not receive the support of the Building Trades Council, as that body had agreed not to make a demand for a wage increase during the year. Commissioner Samuel B. Montgomery used his good offices to bring about an adjustment. Efforts to have the matter go to arbitration were blocked by the contractors. The commissioner was then authorized to settle the dispute on the best terms possible. At this time it seemed doubtful that all the strikers could secure their places back. The strike was declared off, however, and assurances were given the commissioner by the contractors that the men would all be taken care of. There was no change made in the wage rate.

Lorraine Mills, Westerly, R. I.—Commissioner Robert M. McWade was successful in adjusting a strike affecting more than 600 operatives of this company who had been on strike for a period of about six weeks. At the beginning of the strike the company promised to adjust all grievances if the strikers would first return to work. The operatives declined this proposition. When Commissioner McWade arrived he found conditions about the same as at the beginning of the strike. Upon taking the matter up with the management he was promised that if the operatives would return to work there would be no discrimination against the strikers or union members and that all real grievances would be redressed. The strike was declared off on this basis.

American Locomotive Co., Dunkirk, N. Y.—After a month of idleness the strike of molders at the plant of the American Locomotive Co., Dunkirk, N. Y., was adjusted. Commissioner Hugh D. Friel assisted in the settlement. The adjustment was made upon the basis of a proposition submitted by the employer, which after some changes had been made in conference, was recommended by the commissioner. A wage increase of 6½ cents per hour was granted.

Steam dredge employees, San Francisco and vicinity.—On June 4, 1923, the department received a telegram from Mr. E. F. Kraut, secretary of the dredgemen's union of San Francisco, Calif., advising of a controversy affecting the members of his organization and requesting the good offices of the department in an effort to adjust the difficulties. Commissioner E. P. Marsh, of Portland,

Oreg., was assigned to the case and subsequently was assisted by Commissioner C. T. Connell, of Los Angeles. This case involved a wage dispute between the dredgemen's union of San Francisco and operators of dredges in San Francisco and surrounding territory, including Sacramento and Stockton. The union had had a signed contract with the operators from 1918 until June 1, 1922. On the latter date the operators declined to renew a written agreement, but orally agreed to continue wages and working conditions unchanged until June 1, 1923. They also agreed to hire their help at the union headquarters. In 1921 a wage reduction ranging from \$10 to \$15 per month had been accepted by the union. On April 26 it served notice of a demand for the restoration of the old scale; also that time and one-half for overtime should be increased to double time. These demands the employers refused to concede. A request for a joint conference to consider the differences was ignored, some employers stating that they would enter a conference if one were called, but refusing to take any initiative in getting the employers together. At this juncture the department's representatives appeared on the scene. Separate conferences were held with representatives of both sides. The employers at first demurred on going into a joint conference, but finally agreed to meet the union representatives under the department's auspices, in an informal conference, with the understanding that they would not be asked to make a written agreement. The conference lasted all day and was harmonious and pleasant. The employers finally agreed to increase wages \$5 and \$10 per month, depending upon the class of work, and to make all increases effective June 1, 1923, and to continue for one year. It was agreed that existing working conditions should continue. The commissioners then addressed a letter to the union urging it to accept the offer made to its representatives. The union accepted the offer by formal vote at San Francisco, Stockton, and Sacramento, and expressed its appreciation of the department's good offices.

Summary of workmen affected by months.

Month.	Workmen affected.		Month.	Workmen affected.	
	Directly.	Indirectly.		Directly.	Indirectly.
July.....	11,468	2,264	February.....	46,593	6,911
August.....	37,150	7,155	March.....	17,688	8,681
September.....	2,510	830	April.....	35,462	14,407
October.....	17,618	11,702	May.....	38,441	30,386
November.....	5,715	2,993	June.....	142,781	14,781
December.....	13,437	3,312	Total.....	294,320	101,358
January.....	25,457	7,936			

¹ Potters directly affected, 1,954; indirectly affected, 611.

Mar. 4, 1913, to June 30, 1923.											
Number and disposition of cases.	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922	1923	
Number.....	33	42	227	378	1,217	1,780	802	457	370	534	
Adjusted.....	28	26	178	248	865	1,223	576	338	266	1,428	
Unable to adjust.....	5	10	22	47	71	111	96	48	41	27	
Pending.....		5	21	42	7	13	9	24	31	60	
Unclassified.....		1	6	41	66	214	101	47	32	19	

¹ California oil cases (adjusted), 26; pottery cases in United States (adjusted), 26; cases pending at beginning of fiscal year 1923 (now adjusted), 87; total adjustments during fiscal year, 515.

RECAPITULATION.

Month.	Number of cases.	Month.	Number of cases.
1922.		1923—Continued.	
July.....	26	March.....	44
August.....	13	April.....	63
September.....	17	May.....	66
October.....	23	June.....	64
November.....	11	Total.....	482
December.....	40	California oil cases.....	1 26
1923.		Pottery cases in the United States.....	1 26
January.....	60	Total.....	534
February.....	55		

¹ California oil cases (adjusted), 26; pottery cases in United States (adjusted), 26; cases pending at beginning of fiscal year 1923 (now adjusted), 87; total adjustments during fiscal year, 515.

Cases reported from each State for each month.

State.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	Total.
Arizona.....						10	4				2	9	26
California.....	1					10	4				2	9	26
Connecticut.....								1		3	1	2	7
Delaware.....					1				1				2
District of Columbia.....				1						3	3		7
Florida.....									1			1	2
Illinois.....	2	2	4	2	1	2	1	4		3	3	2	26
Indiana.....				1	1	2		4	1	1	3	9	22
Iowa.....									1	2	1	3	7
Kentucky.....									1				1
Maine.....						2	1						3
Maryland.....	1		2				2	1		3	2	1	12
Massachusetts.....						2	1	4	10	5	10	3	35
Michigan.....			1								1	1	3
Missouri.....	1		1	1			1				1	2	7
Nebraska.....										1			1
New Hampshire.....							14			3		1	18
New Jersey.....	2	5	1	1			5	2	3	2	3	7	31
New York.....	10	3	3	5	4	6	18	18	11	6	15	8	107
Ohio.....	1	1		2	1	3	1	4	4	4	3	3	27
Oklahoma.....												1	1
Oregon.....		1						1			1		3
Pennsylvania.....	7	2	2	8	3	5	9	16	8	15	14	8	97
Rhode Island.....							2		2		1	2	7
Texas.....									1				1
Vermont.....			1			6	1		1	3			12
Virginia.....				2									2
Washington.....	1									1			2
West Virginia.....			1			2				6	2	1	12
Wisconsin.....										1			1
Total.....	26	13	17	23	11	40	60	55	44	63	66	64	482
California oil cases.....													26
Pottery cases in United States.....													26
Total.....													534

UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE.

During the fiscal year under review the department has been confronted by a problem greatly different from that heretofore obtaining. While no great wave of employment existed, yet a steady demand for service continued, a demand more insistent than during the stress of the unemployment crisis. The other side of the employment question—the demand side—was making itself felt. With the expansion of business, employers besieged the Employment Service

offices to secure the help necessary to man their industries. The bidding for labor has become sharper and the Employment Service has been pushed to find "men for jobs" instead of "jobs for men." Thus, experience has proved that the public employment service in times of prosperity as well as during a depression is a necessary and essential function of government for the general welfare of all the people.

The United States Employment Service is cooperating with 40 States and the District of Columbia. Practically one-third of the entire appropriation is expended to maintain the Federal Government's share of this cooperative service. The aim of the service is to bring every State into cooperation with the Federal Government and this will be accomplished when all the State legislatures see fit to appropriate money to bear their share of the expense of a public employment service. The cooperative system enables labor to be cleared from one place to another between the States. Requests for employment which come to the administrative office from all parts of the country are referred for placement to the Federal director in the State from which the request comes or to the Federal director in the State where the applicant desires to locate.

During the unemployment crisis temporary employment offices cooperating with the Federal Government to relieve the distressing situation were opened and maintained by many cities throughout the country. Practically all of these emergency offices are now closed. The record of the work accomplished by the cooperative service of the Federal Government and the several States and municipalities during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1923, is shown by the following figures:

Registrations	2, 887, 697
Help wanted	2, 864, 393
Referred	2, 516, 617
Placed	2, 156, 466

The figures for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1922, were as follows:

Registrations	2, 874, 785
Help wanted	1, 810, 490
Referred	1, 734, 493
Placed	1, 458, 746

Junior division.—The two obvious functions of the junior service in the field of junior guidance and placement are—

1. To collect and make available for general use reliable information on junior employment in its relation to public schools and the occupational world; and
2. To organize and conduct placement offices for the vocational guidance and placement of boys and girls between the legal working age and 21 years.

The junior division functions through cooperation with the public employment services of the several States, with local school systems, and with other agencies. It helps to establish and maintain a limited number of placement offices in sections where local educational and occupational conditions are especially favorable to the development of the work. These local offices serve (1) as junior employment bureaus in their respective cities and (2) as experimental stations where fundamental and specific junior placement problems can be worked out by a trained personnel, where information can be collected and made available to the whole country.

The junior division is at present assisting in the maintenance and operation of local placement offices in 17 selected cities in 13 States. One new office, at San Luis Obispo, Calif., has been established during the past year. It is expected that two new cooperative offices will be established in California and one in Massachusetts.

The work in the office for negroes at Atlanta, Ga., has been reorganized and cooperation has been established with the other agencies conducting social work for the colored people of Atlanta. The work in the office at Wilmington, Del., has extended so greatly as to necessitate a permanent central downtown office. There has been reasonable progress and expansion in all the other field offices.

The weekly field reports are compiled and charted in the Washington office, which during the past year has issued periodic News Letters and Field Studies, carrying to the workers in the field information regarding placement work and definite instructions for the administration of placement offices. In cooperation with the Children's Bureau a survey has been made of vocational guidance and placement in the United States which is now nearing publication and which will meet a long expressed demand for general information regarding the present status of vocational guidance and placement.

The farm labor bureau.—"The farm labor bureau of the United States Employment Service handles laborers for the various lines of agricultural work only. This should be easy and simple—just men for the farm, that's all.

"However, when we consider that agriculture embraces one-third of the population of the country, reaches into every State of the Union, is capitalized at approximately one hundred billions of dollars, and is nearly as diversified as industry itself, demanding many and varied classes of laborers, we begin to realize that it may not be so easy and simple as at first it appears."

Thus has been outlined the problems and the work of the farm labor bureau, directed especially to the harvesting of the cotton and wheat crops. With the cooperative help of the labor departments of the several States, of county farm agents, chambers of commerce,

and kindred organizations, 113,282 harvest hands were recruited and distributed in the fiscal year 1923 to harvest the cotton, wheat, corn, potato, and sugar-beet crops. So successfully were these harvesters directed to the place of need that the farm labor bureau received favorable recognition and commendation of the press from Texas to the Canadian border.

The main office of the farm labor bureau is at 2014 Main Street, Kansas City, Mo., the headquarters of the field director, where a well-equipped personnel knows no set office hours in keeping tab on agricultural conditions, number of harvesters necessary in each section, the wages paid, the most direct routes, and the sources of labor supply. In order to assist in recruiting farm labor, posters are sent for display to each postmaster throughout the country, calling attention to the probable dates of harvest and giving the addresses of the farm labor bureau offices.

A permanent branch office is maintained at Sioux City, Iowa, and recruiting centers are opened in the larger cities of the Central West. In order to distribute men more readily, temporary offices are opened in the harvest areas and are moved northward as the harvest advances and men are released from the Southern to the Northern States.

The assistant manager of the West Texas Chamber of Commerce said: "The work performed by the temporary office of the farm labor bureau at Fort Worth saved the cotton growers of Texas \$1,000,000 last year." The work at this Texas office was done at an expense of less than \$1,500 and is sufficient proof of what proper organization and directing of men can accomplish. The close of this fiscal year sees a permanent branch office established at Fort Worth, a strategic point with reference to the cotton crop.

It is planned to establish additional permanent offices of the farm labor bureau in other strategic agricultural centers. It is obvious that the farm labor bureau should be extended and developed so as to render service in supplying labor not only to the growers of cotton and wheat but to all farmers of the Nation.

The service was extended during the past fiscal year to Colorado, Wyoming, and Montana at the request of the authorities of these States, as they were unable alone to meet their farmers' demands for help.

It is hoped to establish a branch of the farm labor bureau at Ellis Island in an effort to divert immigrants with farming experience to agricultural districts, thus furnishing a permanent source of farm help and lessening congestion in foreign quarters of cities. An office at this point would not give big results immediately, but development could make it produce effective service.

Industrial employment information section.—The industrial employment information section gathers current information regarding employment conditions, the distribution of labor, and the fluctuations of employment. Nine district directors, located at important centers throughout the United States, with the help of special agents in each district and the forces of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, collect and forward regularly to Washington this information, which is published monthly in the Industrial Employment Information Bulletin. The scope of the bulletin is broadening, as industrial comment is now collected from 416 cities as against 310 in June, 1922, and the policy is to increase the number of contacts.

The industrial comment is augmented by telegraphic reports from special agents in 65 of the largest industrial centers of the country. The editorial on the first page of the bulletin is based on these reports, which furnish pay-roll data from 1,428 firms, each employing 500 or more workers. The reports are grouped according to the following basic industries: Food and kindred products, textiles and their products, iron and steel and their finished products, lumber and its manufacture, leather and its finished products, paper and printing, liquors and beverages, chemicals and allied products, stone, clay, and glass products, metals and metal products other than iron and steel, tobacco manufactures, vehicles for land transportation, railroad repair shops, and miscellaneous industries. The same firms have furnished reports since January, 1921, and these reports of their pay-roll data eliminate the necessity of guesswork as to the state of employment in the 14 basic industries. The comparative value of these figures increases in proportion to the length of time during which they are collected.

Inability to extend this important work of collecting pay-roll data and information regarding employment and unemployment from all industries and from firms employing 100 men and upward is to be regretted. Such a report would give a representative picture of the condition of industry throughout the country instead of the trend in the industries given at present. However, requests for place on the mailing list and the interest manifested in the Industrial Employment Information Bulletin is conclusive proof that it meets a want which previously was unfilled. It informs the public employment offices throughout the country as to the location of the demands of industry as well as those places where no opportunities for labor exists, and thus expedites the clearance of labor between the States. It supplies information to the wage earner generally, to labor organizations, to the Federal Reserve Board and its several branches, to banking institutions, railroad companies, business men, and economists.

UNITED STATES HOUSING CORPORATION.

The revenues of the United States Housing Corporation for the fiscal year 1923, which have been or will be covered into the Federal Treasury as miscellaneous receipts, amounted to \$3,847,958.08. The sources from which these moneys were derived were as follows:

Disposal of properties.....	\$986,863.47
Operation of properties.....	87,781.70
Contract interest.....	837,411.93
Repayment of loans.....	1,613,214.65
Interest on loans.....	322,686.33
Total.....	3,847,958.08

The total expenses for the administration of this business amounted to \$125,534.15, or but 3.26 per cent. This, it will be observed, shows a saving of 1.35 per cent against administrative costs for the preceding year and constitutes a record which compares most favorably with the charges prevailing in private business for work of this character.

In addition to the aforementioned amounts the corporation also collected as receipts from the Government Hotels the sum of \$936,015.89. Deducting operating expenses of \$859,646.35 from this amount shows a net profit to the Government on this activity of \$76,369.54. Of course, this profit is arrived at only by omitting from consideration rent, interest on investment, and depreciation.

The receipts of the Norfolk County Ferries, another activity with the supervision of which the corporation is charged, were \$677,807.40. Operating expenses of the ferries were \$533,605.02, showing a net profit of \$144,202.88, the largest ever recorded in their history.

(This report is made at a date when it is manifestly impossible to give exact figures for the entire fiscal year 1923. Those set out above, however, represent actual receipts and expenditures for the first 11 months, and anticipated receipts and expenditures for the last month.)

As has been stated in previous reports, the various activities of the corporation fall under the following general classifications:

1. Rentals and sales of properties.
2. Collections from rentals and sales.
3. Liquidation of transportation and public utility loans.
4. Operation of the Norfolk County Ferries.
5. Operation of the Government Hotels.

Rentals and sales.—Sales of improved and unimproved property to the number of 142, and having an aggregate value of \$380,955.43, were made during the period July 1, 1922, to June 15, 1923. In the same period of time 329 assignments of sales contracts, which, so far as administration is concerned, require as much attention as original sales, were handled.

Foreclosures.—The bulk of the corporation's properties were sold to individual purchasers on the time-payment plan. It was almost an inevitable consequence of the cessation of war activities in certain of the communities where housing projects were constructed by the corporation that some of its purchasers would default on their mortgages. It is gratifying to know, however, that in comparison with the total number of purchasers, the number of cases in which it has been necessary to institute foreclosure proceedings has been exceedingly small. Throughout the fiscal year 1923 there were 116 instances of this character, with 41 pending at the end of the year. The cost of reacquiring title and possession in the 116 cases referred to was \$7,401.09, of which \$4,871.79 represented accrued taxes.

Conveyancing.—With the limited personnel at its command, it was manifestly impossible for the corporation to deliver deeds to all of the approximately 5,000 purchasers of its properties simultaneously. Its report for the fiscal year 1922 enumerated the various communities in which deeds were delivered and mortgages or deeds of trust and notes taken back during that period. In the fiscal year 1923, 928 additional transactions of this character were completed, covering properties located at Aberdeen, Md., Alliance, Ohio, Bath, Me., Cradock, Va., Erie, Pa., Lowell, Mass., and Watertown, N. Y. In passing, it is perhaps worthy of mention that the total cost of this work was but \$2,688.33. This amount covers all such charges as recording fees, stenographic services, and incidental expenses, and excepts only the salary of a corporation employee for the period of time in which he was engaged on this work. In other words, the average cost of conveyancing in each instance was but \$2.90.

Insurance.—Pursuing its established policy of requiring purchasers of its various properties to provide insurance for the corporation's benefit wherever any portion of the purchase price remains unpaid, the corporation had in its custody at the beginning of the fiscal year some 4,300 policies representing approximately \$20,245,000 of insurance. In the course of the year a number of these policies were surrendered to purchasers who took up their mortgages; so that by June 15, 1923, there were in force 4,000 policies covering properties of the corporation and amounting to \$20,000,000. During the year 2,308 renewal policies have been secured to cover expirations. The securing of these renewals entailed no little work on the part of the corporation. In many instances it was necessary to conduct extensive correspondence with purchasers who were reluctant to renew their insurance, or who, after the policies had been written, were delinquent in paying the premiums thereon. The competition which exists among the various agents or brokers at the different projects also occasioned prolific correspondence to eliminate duplications and

to meet the desires of the purchasers respecting the companies with which they wished to place their insurance.

As a result of the assignment of contracts, resales of properties for which deeds had been delivered, and other similar causes, about 1,000 assignments of insurance were authorized during the course of the year.

Losses by fire or lightning occurred to 12 houses owned by the corporation. All of these properties were covered by insurance and there was collected from this source \$18,144.

Liquidation of transportation and public-utility loans.—Reference has been made heretofore to amounts advanced by the corporation to various transportation and other public-utility companies for the purpose of enabling these concerns to provide additional service in connection with the emergencies of the war.

These contracts contemplated, as a general proposition, that an appraisal of the properties which were acquired with the advances made by the corporation, might be made one year after the declaration of peace as officially proclaimed by the President, and that the amounts fixed by such appraisal should be received by the corporation in settlement of these obligations.

In the course of the fiscal year 1923, interest to the amount of \$322,686.33 and principal payments aggregating \$1,613,214.65 were collected on account of these contracts. There was also received \$4,486.61 as part payment for certain utilities which the corporation sold to a municipality.

The Norfolk County Ferries.—Net profits of the Norfolk County Ferries for the year are expected to total more than \$144,000, surpassing the amount earned in 1922, and constituting by far the best record that has ever been made by this enterprise under either private or Government management.

I feel that the corporation may indulge a certain sense of pride in achieving this result. The difficulties in operating the average public utility are too well known to require restatement here. Almost complete reorganization was necessary to place this business on a profit-making basis. And it was necessary at the same time to accord equal consideration to the right of about 250,000 persons who are patrons of the ferries to the most efficient transportation service which could be rendered. That the corporation has been able to meet their requirements and at the same time attain the financial results indicated above is regarded as one of its most important achievements.

Government Hotels.—The popularity of the Government Hotels apparently continues undiminished. Two occurrences within the latter half of the fiscal year, however, left their impress upon the record for that period. The first of these was occasioned by the

early adjournment of Congress and the consequent departure from Washington of a considerable number of congressional employees who had resided at the hotels.

The second grew out of the action of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Co. in serving notice upon the corporation that it would expect either the payment of rent for the use of its property, upon which certain of the buildings that go to make up the Government Hotels are located, or their removal before April 1, 1923. It is but fair to the railroad company to state that by virtue of an agreement executed during the war it had consented to the use by the Government of this land during the period of hostilities and for 12 months thereafter, in consideration of the Government's paying merely the local taxes thereon. The demand for rent, therefore, followed the expiration of this agreement.

In the absence of specific legislative authority the corporation was unable to pledge itself to any rental payment. With the owner of the land insisting, on the one hand, upon such an agreement as a condition precedent to any further extension of the lease, and the evident desire of Congress that the hotels should continue in operation, confronting the corporation, on the other, it found itself in considerable of a quandary. The entire matter was accordingly submitted to the Public Buildings Committees of the House and Senate, and a joint resolution, which was intended to authorize the payment of rental to the railroad company was reported out. This resolution promptly passed the Senate, but failed of passage in the House in the closing hours of the Sixty-seventh Congress. Following the adjournment of Congress, protracted negotiations, which were participated in by the chairmen of the aforementioned congressional committees, representatives of the department, and the railroad company, elicited from the latter a proposal to extend the lease to the Government up to and including January 31, 1924, for the sum of approximately \$160,000. By the exercise of every means at their command, the representatives of the Government finally persuaded the officers of the railroad company to reduce this proposed rental to the rate of \$74,314.91 per annum, which from the period November 14, 1922 (the date of the expiration of the aforementioned agreement), to January 31, 1924, would amount to \$90,003.62.

Throughout these entire negotiations the department was of course handicapped by reason of its inability to extend any actual assurance that this money would be paid. In other words, the most that it could do was to agree to recommend to the next Congress that the requisite appropriation be made. Upon the strength of the assurance by the department that it would do this and the promise of the chairmen of the Senate and House Committees on Public

Buildings and Grounds that they also would urge upon Congress the passage of the appropriation, the railroad company agreed to defer until January 31, 1924, any action looking to the demolition of the hotel buildings.

At the time the resolution, which was intended to authorize the payment to the railroad company of a reasonable rental for the use of its land, was under consideration in the Senate, it was clearly indicated as the sense of that body that whatever rental was determined upon should be met through increased guest rates. In deference to this opinion, therefore, it was decided that, as a condition of the aforementioned agreement, a reserve fund as nearly equivalent as possible to the amount which Congress would be asked to provide for rent should be raised in this way. Accordingly, the monthly rates for accommodations in the hotels were increased \$4.50 per person as of March 16, 1923. Inasmuch, however, as the rental term dates back to November 14, 1922, and the increase in rates could not be put into effect until March 16 last, the indications are that there will be set up as a reserve the sum of approximately \$75,000 to meet the request appropriation of about \$90,000, which will be submitted in the corporation's estimates of appropriations for the fiscal year 1925, or for incorporation in the first deficiency bill, if it is determined that it should be embodied in that measure.

Operation and maintenance.—By the exercise of the most rigid economy, material reductions in operating and maintenance expenses of the hotels were effected in the course of the year. Among the changes that were inaugurated may be mentioned a self-service system for lunches, which made it possible to dispense with a considerable number of waitresses, and the extension of the opportunity to a number of the guests of the hotels to reside there upon the European plan, as distinguished from the American plan, which hitherto had been followed exclusively.

Expenditures for the year amounted to \$859,646.35, or \$21,641.36 less than those for the fiscal year 1922.

Laundry.—At the instance of the Committee on Appropriations of the House of Representatives and the Bureau of the Budget, an investigation was instituted for the purpose of determining the cost of laundry work which was being done by private contractors for the various branches of the Government in the District of Columbia, as compared with costs for similar work that was done in the laundry of the Government Hotels. It was ascertained that the prevailing charges of private contractors for laundering towels for the Government departments ranged from \$1 to \$2 per hundred, a very few paying less than \$1. It is estimated that the same work can be done by the Government Hotels for 57 cents per hundred. Allowing an

average saving of but 50 cents per hundred on towels, and computing the quantity which will be turned over to the hotels at 50,000 per week, or 2,600,000 per annum, it is estimated that a yearly saving of \$13,000 can be effected on this item alone; and it is anticipated that the inclusion of certain other articles will still further augment this saving.

IMMIGRATION.

Immediately upon assuming office I discovered a woeful lack of cooperation between the Bureau of Immigration in Washington and the field service. Districts were created along State lines, no attention having been given to topography or means of transportation. There was no direct contact between the bureau and field offices, and an amazing lack of uniformity in the enforcement of the law. Inefficiency, waste, and unreasonable delays marked the administration of the immigration laws and called for immediate and oft-times drastic remedy. The work of reorganization, unification, and simplification of administrative methods was placed under the immediate control and supervision of the Assistant Secretaries, with most gratifying results in increased efficiency, economy, and the elimination of unnecessary delays and useless expense.

Reorganization of districts.

District boundaries have been readjusted, thus bringing about a closer cooperation between the bureau and field service. A supervisory staff of immigration officers has been created, thus making it possible at all times for the department and bureau to keep in direct and intimate contact with the field service. A system of promulgating general instructions has been adopted, so now by the issuance of "general orders" applying to each district alike, uniformity in administration has been attained, not only in the forms and printed matter in use, but also in the law itself. Old rules and regulations adopted May 1, 1917, have been revised and added to so as to meet the requirements of the service, and these fixed rules may be supplemented by "general orders" when the occasion or experience demands.

Deportation.

The method of deportation under warrant proceedings has likewise been changed. In the past the bureau provided immigrant inspectors or others to accompany deportees to the respective points of embarkation. This practice entailed large travel and per diem expense and the service of many officers whose time could be more advantageously used in other work. Under the practice now obtaining deportation parties are conducted at stated intervals from coast to coast and from interior points to coast or borders, and

deportees along said line of travel or within the territory contiguous thereto are joined at the nearest railroad point. The railroad companies over whose lines these parties travel have made reduced rates and in addition furnish all guards at their own expense. Approximately 2,500 aliens under orders of deportation were conveyed to various ports of departure in these parties, with a saving to the Government of approximately \$20,000.

Board of Review.

"The Secretary's Board of Review," created and in operation since January 1, 1922, has proved a most valuable adjunct to the Secretary's office in the consideration of appeals and other matters demanding the Secretary's attention. Before this board the alien may appear through his counsel, relatives, or friends, and is assured of a hearing. Decisions in appeal cases, warrant cases, Chinese cases, and other matters are thus expedited, as the recommendations of the board are usually made and the Secretary for the most part is able to decide such cases on the day the record is presented.

During the past fiscal year 22,606 cases, either on original hearing or on rehearing, were submitted to the Board of Review for consideration and recommendation. These cases involved 48,385 aliens, and of this number 3,184 requested and were permitted to present oral arguments.

The per centum limit act of 1921.

The fiscal year ended June 30, 1923, was the second complete year during which the so-called quota limit act of May 19, 1921, was in operation, and because of various important developments believed to be wholly or in part attributable to that law the records of the Immigration Service during the 12 months under consideration are of unusual interest and significance.

In the first place, the number of immigrant aliens admitted reached a total of 522,919 during the year compared with 309,556 such admissions in the fiscal year 1922, an increase of 213,363. This gain was almost entirely due to increased immigration from British North America and Mexico, which countries are not within the scope of the quota limit law, and from the fact that natives of north and west European countries used 90 per cent of their allotted quotas in the year just ended, compared with only 46.4 per cent in the preceding fiscal year.

Another interesting development of the past year was the large numerical and proportional decrease among emigrant aliens leaving the country when compared with the record of former years. The total number of departures of this class in the year just ended was only 81,450, as against 198,712 in the fiscal year 1922, and an annual average of 288,578 in the five pre-war years 1910-1914. The record

of the year in this respect seems to indicate a most unusual degree of stability among our recent immigrants, due, no doubt, in large measure to the favorable employment conditions which prevailed in the United States practically throughout the past year.

The per centum limit law marked the beginning of actual restriction or limitation of immigration to the United States so far as European sources are concerned. The Chinese exclusion law has been in operation since 1882; the agreement with Japan under which laborers are not admitted from that country became effective in 1908; and the so-called Asiatic barred zone provision in the general immigration law of 1917 closed the doors against the lawful entry of the peoples of India and other countries of southern Asia, but the actual restriction of immigration from Europe, Africa, and Australasia was never before attempted.

It is, of course, true that we have had a general immigration law since 1882, but it is also true that the general law, although several times revised and strengthened, has been and still is based on the theory of selection rather than of restriction. The provision barring illiterate immigrants, which was added to the law in 1917, was clearly intended as a restrictive measure, but in its practical effect it was simply another addition to the thirty or more classes of alleged undesirables already excluded by statute, none of which could be relied upon actually to limit the volume of immigration.

Even a casual survey of congressional discussions for the past quarter of a century makes it obvious that Congress realized the constantly increasing influx of immigrants from the south and east of Europe and Asiatic Turkey, which in the 25 years following 1890 practically supplanted the old-time movement from the British Isles, Scandinavia, Germany, and other countries of northwest Europe. The widespread popularity of the literacy test was quite obviously based on the belief or hope that its application would tend to lessen the preponderance of the so-called new immigration, but it was enacted at a time when the movement from Europe was practically stopped by the war and its effectiveness as a corrective remedy was never fairly tested.

The Congress, however, seemingly recognized that even the comprehensive immigration law of 1917, including the literacy test, would afford only a frail barrier against the promised rush from the war-stricken countries of Europe, and at the special session called at the beginning of the present administration the quota law was quickly enacted, and, with President Harding's approval, became a law on May 19, 1921. This law expired by limitation June 30, 1922, but by the act of May 11, 1922, its life was extended to June 30, 1924, and some strengthening amendments were added.

The operation of the per centum limit law has necessitated the introduction of new, although limited, series of immigration statistics which, for the following reasons, are not comparable with existing statistics:

1. In the quota law figures, country of birth rules, whereas country of last permanent residence is regarded as country of origin in our ordinary immigration table.
2. Both immigrant and nonimmigrant aliens may appear in quota law statistics, or by reason of exemption already referred to, arriving aliens of both classes may not be counted against quotas at all, or in other cases after a quota is exhausted.

For example, during the fiscal year just ended 335,480 aliens were charged to the various quotas, while a total of 522,919 immigrant aliens were admitted during the same period, or an excess of 187,439. However, this difference is readily accounted for by the fact that during the fiscal year 193,960 immigrant aliens were admitted from British North America, Mexico, and the West Indies, and only a minor part of such immigration was subject to the provisions of the quota law.

With this explanation there is presented a table showing operations under the quota law during the past two fiscal years.

TABLE I.—Immigration quotas allotted to specified countries and regions of birth, and the number of aliens admitted and charged against such quota allotments, during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1922, and June 30, 1923.

Country or place of birth.	Year ended June 30, 1922.		Year ended June 30, 1923.		Per cent of quota admitted.	
	Quota.	Number admitted.	Quota.	Number admitted.	1922	1923
Albania.....	288	280	238	288	97	100
Armenia.....	1,589	1,574			99	
Armenia (Russian).....			230	230		100
Austria.....	7,451	4,797	7,451	7,358	64.4	98.8
Belgium.....	1,563	1,581	1,563	1,563	101.2	100
Bulgaria.....	302	301	302	295	99.6	97.7
Czechoslovakia.....	14,282	14,248	14,357	14,357	99.8	100
Danzig, Free City of.....	301	85	301	263	28.2	80.5
Denmark.....	5,694	3,284	5,619	5,226	57.6	93
Finland.....	3,921	3,038	3,921	3,921	77.5	100
Fiume, Free State of.....	71	18	71	67	25.3	94.4
France.....	5,729	4,343	5,729	5,034	75.9	87.9
Germany.....	68,059	19,053	67,607	49,258	28	73
Greece.....	3,294	3,447	3,294	3,294	104.7	100
Hungary.....	5,638	6,035	5,638	5,638	107.2	100
Iceland.....			75	59		78.6
Italy.....	42,057	42,149	42,057	42,057	100.2	100
Luxemburg.....	92	93	92	92	101.1	100
Netherlands.....	3,607	2,408	3,607	3,607	66.8	100
Norway.....	12,202	5,941	12,202	12,202	48.7	100
Poland (including eastern Galicia).....	25,827	26,129	31,146	29,730	101.1	95.5
Portugal (including Azores and Madeira Islands).....	2,520	2,486	2,465	2,465	98.6	100
Rumania.....	7,419	7,429	7,419	7,419	100.1	100
Russia (including Siberia).....	34,284	28,908	24,405	24,405	84.4	100
Esthonian region.....			1,348	241		17.9
Latvian region.....			1,540	1,513		98.3
Lithuanian and Memel regions.....			2,460	2,460		100
Spain.....	912	888		912		97.4
Sweden.....	20,042	8,766	20,042	19,867	43.8	99.1

TABLE I.—Immigration quotas allotted to specified countries and regions of birth, and the number of aliens admitted and charged, etc.—Continued.

Country or place of birth.	Year ended June 30, 1922.		Year ended June 30, 1923.		Per cent of quota admitted.	
	Quota.	Number admitted.	Quota.	Number admitted.	1922	1923
Switzerland.....	3,752	3,723	3,752	3,752	99.2	100
United Kingdom.....	77,342	42,670	77,342	77,342	55.2	100
Yugoslavia.....	6,426	6,444	6,426	6,426	103.5	100
Other Europe (including Andorra, Gibraltar, Liechtenstein, Malta, Memel, Monaco, and San Marino, and Iceland for 1922).....	86	144	86	86	167.4	100
Palestine.....	50	214	57	57	382.1	100
Syria.....	906	1,008	928	928	111.2	100
Turkey (European and Asiatic, including Smyrna region; and Turkish-Armenian region for 1923).....	656	1,096	2,388	2,388	166.9	100
Other Asia (including Cyprus, Hedjaz, Iraq (Mesopotamia), Persia, Rhodes, and any other Asiatic territory not included in the Barred Zone; persons born in Asiatic Russia are included in the Russia quota).....	81	528	81	81	651.9	100
Africa.....	122	193	122	122	179.8	100
Australia.....	279	279	279	279	100	100
New Zealand and Pacific Islands.....	80	88	80	80	110	100
Atlantic Islands (other than Azores, Canary Islands, Madeira, and islands adjacent to the American continents).....	65	83	121	118	127.7	97.5
Total.....	356,995	243,953	357,803	335,480	68.3	93.8

The real significance of the data shown in the foregoing compilation will be more readily comprehended by a study of the following table, in which are compared the quota allotments of and the number of aliens admitted from northern and western Europe; southern and eastern Europe, including Asiatic Turkey and other Asia, during the fiscal years 1922 and 1923:

TABLE II.—Immigration quotas allotted to specified areas and the number of aliens admitted and charged against such quota allotments, during the fiscal years ended June 30, 1922, and June 30, 1923.

Area.	Year ended June 30, 1922.		Year ended June 30, 1923.		Per cent quota admitted.	
	Quota.	Number admitted.	Quota.	Number admitted.	1922	1923
Northern and western Europe.....	198,082	91,862	197,555	177,943	46.4	90
Southern and eastern Europe, including Asiatic Turkey and other Asia.....	158,367	151,446	159,646	156,938	95.6	98.3
Africa, Australia, New Zealand and other Pacific islands, and Atlantic islands.....	546	645	602	599	118.1	99.5
Total.....	356,995	243,953	357,803	335,480	68.3	93.8

Table I shows that the quotas of the United Kingdom, Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Belgium, the Netherlands, and Switzerland were either completely or practically exhausted, the German quota being the only one of this group which reached the end of the fiscal year with any considerable balance.

On the other hand the quotas of the southern and eastern European and Near East group were substantially exhausted in both years, the small increase in 1922-23 being due to the fact that more favorable conditions surrounding the immigration of natives of Russia made possible the coming of increased numbers of that nationality.

It is of interest to note the effect of the operations under the quota law upon immigration from the various countries when comparison is made with the record of the year 1913-14, a fairly typical pre-war immigration year, and 1922-23. In the year 1913-14 there were admitted of the races from southern and eastern Europe and Turkey 921,160, as compared with 162,695 in the year 1922-23, a decrease of 758,465. This comparison not only shows a numerical decrease but further establishes that the proportion of these peoples in the total immigration fell from 75.6 per cent in 1913-14 to 31.1 per cent in 1922-23. On the other hand, while there were admitted from northern and western Europe 274,507 in 1922-23 as compared with 253,855 in 1913-14, such peoples or racial stocks formed 52.5 per cent of all our immigration in 1922-23 compared with only 20.8 per cent of the whole in 1913-14.

The total number of immigrant aliens of all nationalities admitted from Mexico and Canada during the fiscal year 1923 was 180,779, as compared with 66,361 during the preceding fiscal year. This increase has been due to the unprecedented demand for workers in the United States and, no doubt, would have been greater were it not for the fact that the amendment to the quota act requires that aliens other than natives of Canada and Mexico must have resided at least five years in one of those countries immediately preceding the time of their application for admission to the United States to render them exempt from the operation of the act mentioned.

Oriental immigration.

There was a slight decrease in the number of immigrant aliens of the Chinese race admitted during the year, the totals being 4,074 in 1922-23 and 4,465 in the fiscal year 1922. The number of Chinese emigrant aliens leaving the country, however, decreased from 6,146 in 1921-22 to 3,788 in the year just ended, so that the result is a small gain in oriental population.

The number of Japanese immigrant aliens admitted during the past year was 5,652 as compared with 6,361 in the previous fiscal year. In fact, the number of this race admitted in 1922-23 was the smallest since the fiscal year 1911. On the other hand, the number of Japanese emigrant aliens leaving the country decreased from 4,353 in the fiscal year 1922 to 2,844 in the year just ended.

Immigration from the so-called Asiatic barred zone which was created under the immigration act of 1917 is negligible, only 156 East Indians having been admitted during the past year. This

seems to indicate that a movement from India which at one time gave promise of becoming an important factor in our immigration has been stopped at its beginning.

Contract labor.

Contract-labor cases have commanded the attention of the Bureau of Immigration in an increasing proportion since last year. During the past fiscal year 1,409 contract laborers were debarred and 60 arrested and deported after having unlawfully entered the country, as compared with 809 debarred and 71 deported during the fiscal year 1922.

Because of the additional restrictions imposed by the quota law and the vigilance of our officers in the enforcement of the contract-labor provisions, applications to import skilled labor on the ground that labor of like kind unemployed can not be found in this country are now being presented with ever-increasing frequency. Such applications require careful and systematic investigation on the part of the officers specially designated therefor under section 24 of the act of February, 1917, but oftentimes our regular immigration officers are compelled to assist in the work. The investigation must not only determine the good faith of the request but the statement that labor of like kind unemployed is not to be had in this country must always be verified. The question whether the labor sought to be imported actually falls within the classification "skilled labor" presents difficulties not easily understood, and efficiency and ability of a high order are necessary to properly and fairly administer this feature of the immigration law. The applications for these skilled laborers are as varying as the industries asking the privilege to import. It is interesting to note that during the past fiscal year applications have been made to import "experts in the art of tying double-wing trout flies," "mushroom growers," "artificial-eye makers," "repairers of old violins," and so on through the whole gamut of the technical industries, with equally as large a list of the more generally known industries and including machinists, bricklayers, plasterers, cigar makers, etc. Each application is given the same painstaking examination, and final decision is never rendered until the department is in possession of all the facts and the recommendations of its field service.

Deserting alien seamen.

Reports received from the principal immigration officers in charge of seaports indicate that the desertions of alien seamen are occurring with increasing frequency, especially at the port of New York. In the fiscal year just ended such desertions reported reached a total of 23,194 at all ports and 14,734 at the port of New York alone. In the previous fiscal year only 5,879 desertions were reported for all

ports. It is not possible to learn how many of these seamen do reship foreign, this being the ostensible purpose for which they land. In normal years it is probable that a majority of them do reship sooner or later, but it is known that during the year just ended large numbers permanently deserted to take advantage of superior wage conditions in the United States. It is probably true also that a considerable number who thus deserted used this means of overcoming restrictions imposed by the immigration laws and particularly the quota limit act. The best available information indicates that there are now between 2,000 and 3,000 deserting Chinese seamen in the vicinity of the city of New York, all of whom have by this means entered and are now in the country unlawfully. Very recently 102 deserting Chinese seamen were apprehended under departmental warrants of arrest at various industrial plants located on Long Island and deported to China at no inconsiderable expense to the Government.

Since the regulation requiring seamen of the excluded class to furnish bond has been in force, the desertions of Chinese and barred-zone seamen have been reduced to a minimum, and it is unfortunate that some doubt has arisen as to the validity of this regulation and the authority of the Secretary to promulgate it. In the case of the United States ex rel. Young v. Stump, commissioner, the United States Circuit Court of Appeals for the Fourth Circuit held, Woods, circuit judge, dissenting, that a bona fide Chinese seaman, touching temporarily at an American port, is entitled to shore leave, and to land in pursuit of his calling, and that neither the treaty with China nor the Chinese exclusion act includes such seamen in their exclusive and restrictive provisions.

An earnest effort was made during the past year to have Congress enact legislation which would provide the department with ample authority and proper control over alien seamen, but no definite results were obtained. In view of the decision just cited and other considerations equally as important, it is hoped that the law will be so amended as to prevent the abuse of the shore-leave privilege by any alien seamen.

Smuggling and surreptitious entry.

Alien smuggling has been a most troublesome phase of the immigration problem ever since the enactment of the first Chinese exclusion law, and for a good many years such operations were largely confined to bringing aliens of that race into the country. With the development of the general immigration law toward greater restriction, however, the practice spread to other alien peoples of the diseased and otherwise inadmissible classes, and to-day the efforts of aliens to effect unlawful entry into the United States from Cuba, Canada, and Mexico continue unabated and have assumed such pro-

portions as to challenge the immediate attention of Congress. The smuggling of aliens into this country is perhaps nearly as prolific a source of revenue to those engaged in the traffic as is the bringing in of contraband liquor and narcotics, and with the great expanse of unprotected sea coast and land border and the lack of sufficient officers and facilities at the disposition of the bureau to cope with the situation the smugglers experience very little difficulty in plying their trade.

The long-established routes from southern Europe to Mexican ports and overland to the Texas border, formerly patronized almost exclusively by diseased and criminal aliens, are now resorted to by large numbers of Europeans who can not gain legal admission because of passport difficulties, illiteracy, or the quota law.

It is difficult, in fact impossible, to measure the illegal influx of Mexicans over the border, but everyone agrees that it is very large. Illiteracy is common among them and comparative poverty is widespread, and these barriers, together with the head-tax requirement of \$8, are incentives to illegal entry.

The illegal entry of aliens from Canada has also increased with the advent of more restrictive laws. This is true to some extent of the Canadians themselves, but it is especially true of Europeans, who in increasing numbers appear to be seeking entry into Canada with the real purpose of getting themselves into a more advantageous position for entry under the quota law, or of evading that and other laws altogether.

Reliable information has been received to the effect that there are now in existence numerous far-reaching organizations that take the alien from his home in Europe, secure a passport for him (a fraudulent one if necessary), purchase his steamship passage, place him on the ship, arrange for his entry into Cuba, Canada, or Mexico, and later conduct him by various underground routes into the United States—all for a fixed price.

It must not be understood that no effort is being made to put an end to this illegal practice. To the very limit of its ability, the Immigration Service has sought out and deported those unlawfully here, and prosecutions have been instituted, and in a great many cases convictions have been obtained against those responsible for and participating in the illegal entry.

The examination of aliens who apply for admission at the land-border ports has become the chief work of nearly all our officers on the northern boundary, and a large majority of those stationed on the Mexican border, and what was once a mobile border guard has become a force of examiners at fixed stations. This consideration points to the remedy for existing conditions. If we would successfully prevent wholesale smuggling and the unlawful entry of in-

admissible aliens, our wholly inadequate border guard or patrol must be increased.

Deportation of aliens.

The work of deporting aliens unlawfully in the country could be greatly extended if ample funds were available. Because of this lack of funds it has been impossible to make a systematic canvass of the various penal and other public institutions throughout the country with a view to the deportation of alien inmates who may be unlawfully in the country. The law provides, and even directs, that such an inquiry shall be made from time to time, but this has not been possible to any great extent for the reason stated.

A total of 3,661 aliens were deported under warrant proceedings during the present fiscal year as compared with 4,345 during the fiscal year 1922. Some of the principal causes of deportation, and the races or peoples involved, are set forth in the following tables:

TABLE III.—*Causes for deportation.*

Likely to become a public charge	1,188
Criminals	394
Mental diseases or defects	319
Prostitutes, procurers, and other immoral classes	299
Unable to read	262
Entered without inspection	229
Under per centum limit act	151
Under Chinese exclusion act	115
Other causes	704

TABLE IV.—*Aliens deported, after entering the United States, during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1923, by races or peoples.*

Race or people.	Number.	Race or people.	Number.
African (black)	70	Lithuanian	9
Armenian	9	Magyar	21
Bohemian and Moravian (Czech)	7	Mexican	1,012
Bulgarian, Serbian, and Montenegrin	47	Polish	63
Chinese	224	Portuguese	37
Croatian and Slovenian	16	Rumanian	21
Cuban	7	Russian	37
Dalmatian, Bosnian, and Herzegovinian	4	Ruthenian (Russniak)	27
Dutch and Flemish	24	Scandinavian (Norwegians, Danes, and Swedes)	78
East Indian	51	Scotch	149
English	401	Slovak	20
Finnish	17	Spanish	151
French	302	Spanish American	22
German	121	Syrian	20
Greek	83	Turkish	3
Hebrew	99	Welsh	2
Irish	137	West Indian (except Cuban)	3
Italian (north)	30	Other peoples	39
Italian (south)	188		
Japanese	109		
Korean	1	Total	3,661

Net revenue.

The total revenue derived from the enforcement of the immigration laws during the fiscal year and turned into the general fund

of the United States Treasury was \$4,651,180.83. Of this amount \$4,285,306.60 is represented by head-tax collections, and \$365,874.23 by fines, bond forfeitures, and miscellaneous collections. The net revenue accruing to the Government from the Immigration Service for the year was \$1,019,236.07.

Century of immigration.

Attention is invited to a compilation of statistics with charts telling the story of immigration since 1820 to the present day. These statistics and charts will be found at pages 126 to 139 of this volume. A discussion of this survey begins at page 93.

BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS.

Historical.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics is the oldest of the bureaus in the Department of Labor, having been organized January 1, 1885, under the name of the Bureau of Labor, as a bureau of the Department of the Interior. In 1888 it became the Department of Labor, with independent status but without executive representation. On the organization of the Department of Commerce and Labor in 1903, the bureau was incorporated therein, under its old name of Bureau of Labor. In 1913 it was transferred to the newly organized Department of Labor and given its present name.

The function of the bureau has continued unchanged from its organization, the act creating it providing that it "acquire and diffuse among the people of the United States useful information on subjects connected with labor, in the most general and comprehensive sense of that word and especially upon its relation to capital, to hours of labor, to earnings of laboring men and women, and the means of promoting their material, social, intellectual, and moral prosperity." The organic act of the Department of Labor provides that the bureau is to "collect, collate, and report at least once each year, or oftener if necessary, full and complete statistics of the conditions of labor, and the products and distribution of the products of the same."

The Monthly Labor Review.

Established in July, 1915, sixteen volumes of the Monthly Labor Review have now been issued, and its general worth as a means of disseminating current news of interest to labor and advance summaries of investigations by the Bureau of Labor Statistics has been proved. It has been on a subscription basis since July, 1920, to all but official labor bodies, State labor officials, public employment officers, and organizations exchanging publications with the bureau.

In every issue of the Monthly Labor Review there is printed one or more special articles on pertinent and timely subjects relating to

labor, while summaries of the results of original investigations by the bureau are given early publication therein. In addition there appear digests of current labor legislation and decisions of courts affecting labor; reports of State labor bureaus, workmen's compensation commissions, and factory and mine inspection offices, abstracts of pertinent data published in official reports of foreign nations; accounts of important current movements of interest to labor, of new and successful labor methods, and of public and private activities for the betterment of industrial conditions. Important trade agreements are digested or printed in full, and current statistics of the conciliation and immigration work of the department appear regularly.

During the past fiscal year there were printed summary reports of original investigations by the bureau of rates of wages and hours of labor in the following industries: Boot and shoe, cotton manufacturing, woolen and worsted manufacturing, hosiery and underwear, tin-plate mills, automobile, sheet mills, blast furnaces, and iron and steel; and changes in union wage scales were published promptly. Wholesale prices of commodities and retail prices of food and coal were printed monthly, and retail prices of gas and dry goods were published quarterly. Cost-of-living data were secured quarterly and given prompt publication. Statistics of strikes and lockouts appeared quarterly, and important labor legislation and court decisions, workmen's compensation, and minimum wage laws and orders have been summarized and reviewed. Statistics of the conciliation work of the department and of immigration and brief reports of the work of the State labor bureaus were given publication each month, together with current items of interest to labor and a bibliography of current labor publications. A selected bibliography of Federal, State, and municipal aid to housing, 1918 to 1922, and a list of recent references on profit sharing and labor copartnership were printed, and a directory of labor officials of the United States and Canada appeared in the July, 1922, issue.

Other publications.

At the end of the fiscal year there had been issued in completed form 32 bulletins, a subject index to the first 11 volumes of the Monthly Labor Review, and 12 issues of the Monthly Labor Review. The 45 publications issued contained 7,670 pages of printed matter, 351 charts, 48 illustrations, 32 line drawings, and 3 maps. Listed according to serial numbers, the bulletins issued during the fiscal year are as follows: No. 296, Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1920; No. 298, Causes and prevention of accidents in the iron and steel industry, 1910-1919; No. 300, Retail prices, 1913 to December, 1920; No. 302, Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 15, 1921; No. 304, Proceedings of the eighth annual meeting of the International Association of Industrial

Accident Boards and Commissions, held at Chicago, Ill., September 19-23, 1921; No. 305, Wages and hours of labor in the iron and steel industry, 1907 to 1920; No. 308, Labor legislation of 1921; No. 309, Decisions of courts and opinions affecting labor, 1921; No. 310, Industrial unemployment: A statistical study of its extent and causes; No. 311, Proceedings of the ninth annual meeting of the International Association of Public Employment Services; No. 312, National health insurance in Great Britain, 1911 to 1921; No. 313, Consumers' cooperative societies in the United States; No. 314, Cooperative credit societies (credit unions) in America and in foreign countries; No. 315, Retail prices, 1913 to December, 1921; No. 316, Hours and earnings in anthracite and bituminous coal mining: Anthracite, January, 1922; bituminous, winter of 1921-22; No. 317, Wages and hours of labor in lumber manufacturing, 1921; No. 318, Building permits in the principal cities of the United States in 1921; No. 319, The Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor: Its history, activities, and organization; No. 320, Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1921; No. 321, Labor laws that have been declared unconstitutional; No. 322, Kansas Court of Industrial Relations; No. 323, Proceedings of the ninth annual convention of the Association of Governmental Labor Officials of the United States and Canada; No. 324, Wages and hours of labor in the boot and shoe industry: 1907 to 1922; No. 325, Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 15, 1922; No. 326, Methods of procuring and computing statistical information of the Bureau of Labor Statistics; No. 327, Wages and hours of labor in woolen and worsted goods manufacturing, 1922; No. 329, Wages and hours of labor in the men's clothing industry, 1911 to 1922; No. 331, Code of lighting: Factories, mills, and other work places; No. 333, Proceedings of the ninth annual meeting of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions; No. 336, Safety code for the protection of industrial workers in foundries; No. 337, Proceedings of the tenth annual meeting of the International Association of Public Employment Services; No. 338, Safety code for the use, care, and protection of abrasive wheels.

The bureau has continued during the past year its cooperation with State labor bureaus, the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions, and the Association of Governmental Labor Officials, in an effort to advance the standardizing and harmonizing of State labor legislation and administration, and publication is given to current activities of State labor bureaus each month in the *Monthly Labor Review*, thus enabling each bureau to keep in touch with the work of the other bureaus.

At the request of the committee on statistics and compensation insurance cost of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions, work was undertaken by the bureau

having for its object the formulation of a "standard disability schedule" and a uniform system of forms and procedure. This work is practically completed and final report will be submitted to the convention of that association at St. Paul in September, 1923.

The bureau is now cooperating with the American Engineering Standards Committee in the development of industrial safety codes, the bureau undertaking to publish and distribute these codes with a view to securing their adoption by the various States. Through a representative the bureau is assisting in the formulation of the following safety codes: Electrical safety code, sanitation, machine tools, electrical power control, walk ways, and woodworking. This representative of the bureau is also on the safety code correlating committee. An index of the codes is being prepared by the bureau—a separate index for each code and also a cumulative index for all codes.

Extensive research work has been carried on by the bureau, not only for the selection and verification of material for the Monthly Labor Review, but in order to furnish information requested by Members of Congress, members of official bodies, economists, employers' associations, labor organizations, and others interested in labor matters.

A subject index of the first 11 volumes of the Monthly Labor Review was issued during the year, making readily available the extensive and valuable material contained therein.

Reports transmitted but not published.

Besides the 45 publications issued by the bureau (32 bulletins, 1 subject index, and 12 numbers of the Monthly Labor Review), 13 other bulletins were sent to the Government Printing Office, 7 of which were completed but not delivered, and 4 of which had part of the proof reading done.

The serial numbers and the subjects of these 13 bulletins are as follows: No. 328, Wages and hours of labor in hosiery and underwear industry, 1922; No. 330, Labor legislation of 1922; No. 332, Workmen's compensation legislation of the United States and Canada, 1920 to 1922; No. 334, Retail prices, 1913 to 1922; No. 335, Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1922; No. 339, Statistics of industrial accidents in the United States; No. 340, Chinese migrations with special reference to labor conditions; No. 341, Trade agreements in the silk-ribbon industry of New York City; No. 342, International Seamen's Union of America: A study of its history and problems; No. 343, Laws providing for bureaus of labor, etc.; No. 344, Decisions of courts and opinions of Attorney General, 1922; No. 345, Wages and hours of labor in cotton goods manufacturing, 1922; and No. 346, Humanity in government.

Statistics on volume of employment.

This branch of the work has been expanded within the last year to cover 50 industries instead of 13 as originally carried. The number of establishments from which reports are received monthly has now reached 6,441 and the total number of employees reported by these establishments for June, 1923, was 2,251,565. The total pay roll reported for June was \$60,066,469. These establishments and this number of employees are distributed through the 50 industries.

In most cases we have unquestionably an adequate number of plants and an adequate number of employees fairly to represent the industry. However, some of the industries should be strengthened and unquestionably other and entirely new industries should be added. There is, however, a legitimate public demand for these statistics by localities as well as by industries, and this would require not only strengthening the basic material for certain parts of the country but also a certain amount of revision with the geographical idea in mind. It must be realized that the boot and shoe industry, for instance, might be strictly normal in its volume of employment in Chicago and St. Louis at a time when the industry was practically dead in Lynn, Haverhill, and Brockton, Mass. With 169 boot and shoe establishments reporting, and the industry being considered as a whole, the unemployment in the three Massachusetts towns mentioned would not be sufficient perceptibly to influence the aggregates which form the index for the industry as a whole. Under such conditions the truthfulness of our statements is questioned immediately by the representatives of the industry in the Massachusetts towns, and there is certainly an element of fairness in their contention that our industrial statistics should be so divided into geographical districts as to show local as well as general conditions. Admittedly this should not be carried too far, and a demand that we keep tab on purely local conditions would necessarily have to be denied. However, the general principle should be adopted and applied to all the industries in our employment statistics.

Again, in the selection of factories to be reported upon in any industry all types of establishments, large and small, must be taken into consideration. To say arbitrarily that we will accept reports only from concerns employing 500 persons or more, again throws the statistics into geographical ridges as it were. To illustrate: New York City employs a great many more workmen than does Detroit, Mich.; but in New York City the factories are small, very few employing 500 or more in one plant. On the other hand, in Detroit a very large proportion of establishments exceed this number of employees. Under the 500 rule, therefore, Detroit becomes a very much more important city than New York City, influencing the final statistical average three or four times as much as New York City,

though the latter employs several times as many workmen in the aggregate. All these statistical problems should be met, and this could be done by a careful combination of the two ideas without abandoning the basic idea of statistics of employment by industries rather than geographically.

The statistical facts now obtained are placed at the disposal of the United States Employment Service of the department, which service in turn cooperates similarly with the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Extension of cost-of-living surveys.

The cost-of-living surveys made by the department through the Bureau of Labor Statistics are to-day the basis of settlement of wage controversies in more than 50 per cent of the cases in which such controversies arise. The proposal last year to change the surveys from quarterly to semiannually was met with a protest by employers and wage earners.

It is very plain that the bureau must continue to make these surveys every three months no matter at what cost, and the only immediate problem is how to answer the demand for such surveys from smaller cities and from a wider geographical distribution of industrial centers. Instead of 32 industrial centers the number should be at least double that. The original survey of this character, made in 1919, covered 92 industrial centers. It is not, however, claimed that so large a number is at present necessary.

In connection with this the number of cities from which retail prices are secured monthly should be considerably increased. It does not follow that every city from which the local chamber of commerce sends a request that it be incorporated in our retail price list of cities should be added to the list, though in most cases there are very sound reasons submitted for the request; but it is true that the list of cities is too small and that the cities taken are too large. What I mean by this is that prices should be given from a few smaller places to answer the very persistent and admittedly reasonable question as to whether or not prices in the smaller cities are practically the same as those in the larger cities.

Accident-prevention survey, accident statistics, and safety-code work.

It is not greatly to the credit of our people that nobody knows with any substantial degree of accuracy how many industrial accidents occur annually in the United States. No one knows even the annual number of industrial fatalities. Estimates as to the probable annual number of industrial deaths range from 12,500 to 35,000. Based upon incomplete data, the Department of Labor estimates the total annual number of disabling work accidents under normal industrial conditions as approximately 2,453,400. Of these 21,230

result in death, 1,730 in permanent total disability, 105,620 in permanent partial disability such as the loss of an arm, foot, finger, etc., 1,351,470 in temporary disability under 2 weeks, 540,350 in temporary disability of from 2 to 4 weeks, and 433,000 in temporary disability over 4 weeks.

The total annual wage loss resulting from these industrial accidents amounts to at least one billion dollars. The injured workmen and their dependents are reimbursed in accident compensation approximately \$200,000,000 each year. Thus it will be seen that in spite of the compensation laws the workers must still bear four-fifths of the economic burden resulting from industrial injuries.

The difficulty in obtaining reliable data showing the number and severity of industrial accidents in the United States is due largely to the incomparability and incompleteness of the accident statistics published by the various States. In some States the scope of the compensation and accident reporting laws are limited to so-called hazardous employments, excluding mercantile establishments, professional employments, and clerical occupations. All the States except one exclude agriculture and domestic service. Six States and the District of Columbia have no workmen's compensation and accident reporting laws at all, and consequently no accident statistics are available. Even in those States which have compensation laws the methods of compiling accident statistics vary so much that in many cases the data published are not comparable and can not be combined with the statistics of other States. Some States use as a unit the number of accidents which *occurred* during the year, some use the number *reported* during the year, and others use the number of cases *closed* or *adjudicated* during the year; again some States present their data for the calendar year and others for the fiscal year. This lack of uniformity makes an accurate comparison of the data of one State with that of another utterly impossible. In only 20 States are accidents classified by industry; in only 18 States are they classified by cause; in only 12 by nature of injury, and in only about one-half by severity of injury. Only two States have compiled and published accident rates, without which it is impossible to know whether accidents are increasing or decreasing, or to check up the value of accident-prevention work.

In order that there may be made available accurate industrial accident statistics for the United States, the department is making a special study of the problem. It is enlisting the aid and cooperation of the various States in the work of standardizing their accident statistics. Uniform standard tables and classifications have been formulated, and already some 15 States are compiling their accident statistics in accordance with this standard. The several States have been requested to furnish their accident data to the Bureau of Labor

Statistics annually for compilation. The Federal bureau thus will become the distributing center for information with respect to industrial accidents in the United States.

In this connection it seems important to call your attention to the fact that the only industries which report with anything bordering on completeness are those industries where accident reports are made to the United States Government through some of its bureaus. The Bureau of Mines in the Department of the Interior has, after years of patient work, organized the machinery through which a practically complete system of accident reporting as to accidents occurring in mines has been established. The Bureau of Mines has a field work survey which has enabled it to make practical use of this information and greatly assist in rendering the mines safer.

The Interstate Commerce Commission gets practically complete reports on railroad accidents, and the commission has been very serviceable in the installation of safety devices which render railroad work less hazardous.

In 1910 the Bureau of Labor Statistics began the organization of the machinery by which accidents in the iron and steel industry would be reported to it, and it now receives practically complete reports.¹ The bureau has had one man on this work continuously, and the classification, tabulation, and presentation of this statistical material, periodically published, has resulted in practically all the large steel corporations and companies taking the matter up and introducing safety devices and methods which have resulted in a very startling decrease in the accident ratio in this industry. What the department proposes now is to apply the same methods to the whole industrial situation, organize the machinery for complete and thorough reporting of accidents, make such field survey, as will put the department in touch with the more hazardous industries and furnish the men who can establish the methods of prevention; in other words, do for the entire field what has been done for the iron and steel industry.

The department has allied itself with the American Engineering Standards Committee in the construction and publication of safety codes, and it is important that this phase of the work be more directly and immediately pushed. Three of these codes have already been published (see Bulletins Nos. 331, 336, and 338) and another is in press. It is the purpose to publish these factory safety codes as rapidly as they are agreed upon by the American Engineering Standards Committee. Personal contact with the enforcing officers of the various States is essential to the rapid adoption of these factory safety codes.

¹ See U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Bul. No. 234, "The Safety Movement in the Iron and Steel Industry, 1907 to 1917," and Bul. No. 298, "Causes and Prevention of Accidents in the Iron and Steel Industry, 1910 to 1919."

The State departments of labor frequently ask this department to send them men who are practical factory inspectors so that the inspection work in their State can be reviewed and, if necessary, revised. Such an instance happened very recently, when the State of Maryland asked this department to detail a man practically to install its factory inspection system. I feel that we should be in a position immediately to respond to such an invitation.

The first thing, however, is to make a survey and to get into actual touch with the real situation in the various States.

Labor conditions in insular possessions.

A broad, accurate, intensive, impartial, and authoritative survey should be made at once of the wages of labor and working conditions in Alaska, the Philippines, Hawaii, and the Virgin Islands. As matters stand to-day it is impossible to secure any information from any of these localities not colored by controversial struggle. Various interests make various statements, which are immediately contradicted by other interests. The organic law of Hawaii requires the Bureau of Labor Statistics to make a survey of working conditions in that island every five years. Such survey has not been made since 1916 because there were no funds available with which to make it.

In my judgment a thorough and impartial survey of labor conditions in the Philippines and in the Virgin Islands is more important at this time than a survey of Hawaii. A continuing appropriation—that is to say, one that would be available until spent—is necessary in order to acquaint the public with the essential facts as to the working conditions in these islands.

Efficiency and productivity of labor.

Closely correlated with wages, hours of labor, and opportunity to secure work is the question of efficiency of labor. The wages per hour indicate what a workman gets for his time but give little or no clew as to what he does for his wages.

From a social point of view both things are important, and a knowledge of each of these facts will go far toward settling industrial wage claims. In order to throw some light upon this problem the department has now in hand investigations into the productivity and efficiency of labor in a number of industries, namely, common-brick manufacture, boots and shoes, and building trades, and has already in its possession material covering lumber, bituminous and anthracite coal, and slaughtering and meat packing. To keep abreast of conditions in basic industries along these lines, such as iron and steel from the ore to the structural shapes, so that at any time changes in volume of production, changes or proposed changes in wages or in hours, can be fully measured as to their results is the new

field which I am very eager to see the department enter. We should be able to state with substantial accuracy the output per man per hour and the labor cost of production in all basic industries, as well as the accident conditions, and so forth, in such industries.

Labor laws and decisions.

For many years the department, through the Bureau of Labor Statistics, has carried forward the work of publishing the labor laws of the various States and the decisions of courts thereon affecting labor. The latest publication of this kind was Bulletin No. 148, published in 1914. Since that time the plan has been to publish annually a survey of State labor laws, coupling them up as well as possible through a cumulative subject index. This, however, has become very cumbersome, and therefore its purpose is largely defeated. The reduction of statutory positions in the Bureau of Labor Statistics resulting from the reduction of appropriations for the fiscal year 1921 has greatly hampered this work. The interests of labor require a new edition of the labor laws, and one should be published. The information is available but not the man power to do this work within a year.

CHILDREN'S BUREAU.

Maternity and infancy.

The last annual report described the initial steps taken by the States, the Federal Board of Maternity and Infancy, and the Children's Bureau, in the cooperative undertaking to reduce the mortality of mothers and babies made possible by the act of Congress of November 23, 1921. As very few of the State legislatures were in session in 1922, only 11 of the States were then operating under legislative acceptances of the act. During the last year this number has been increased to 40, all the States having accepted the act except Maine, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, Louisiana, Illinois, and Kansas. In Maine the legislature passed an acceptance act which was vetoed by the governor; in Louisiana and Illinois the act received a substantial majority in the senate but failed of passage in the house; in Kansas the act passed the senate unanimously but did not come to a vote in the house. In Connecticut a general act authorizing the acceptance by the State health department of any Federal funds for the promotion of public health was passed in 1919. The Connecticut Legislature in 1923 instructed the health department not to accept the funds available under the maternity and infancy act.

The money available under the 1923 appropriation act for maternity and infancy was \$1,240,000, the full amount authorized by the act. Of this amount, \$240,000 was an unmatched fund apportioned \$5,000 to each State upon approval of its plan of work by the Federal

Board of Maternity and Infancy; the additional \$1,000,000, minus \$50,000, which is allowed for the Federal expenses incident to the administration of the act, was apportioned to the States cooperating and matching with State funds as follows: \$5,000 to each State plus an additional amount determined on the basis of population. Fourteen of the States accepting the act were unable to match with any State funds the funds made available by the 1922 appropriation. Appropriation acts passed to date will enable the 40 States accepting to match in whole or in part the Federal funds.

The staff of the maternity and infancy division of the Children's Bureau, which has been immediately responsible for the Federal administration of the act, has consisted of: Two physicians, serving as director and associate director, a public-health nurse, an accountant, a secretary, and a stenographer.

During the year every State which is cooperating under the act has been visited by either Doctor Rude, the director, or Doctor Watters, the associate director, of the division, to discuss plans of work and activities.

At the request of the State health departments and divisions of child hygiene, nurses' institutes on maternal and infant care have been conducted in 17 States by Miss Phelan, the public-health nurse of the bureau staff. Three others were held during the summer months of 1923.

The financial accounting for Federal funds and State funds used in matching has involved much detail. The necessary forms and reports were worked out after consultation with the General Accounting Office, other departments and boards administering similar acts, and a special representative appointed by the State and provincial health officers. The bureau accountant has visited and checked the books in all but one of the 41 States in which Federal funds were expended during the last year.

It is impossible in a brief statement to discuss the work that has been done in the States, but it is a satisfaction to record that a very creditable beginning has been made during the year. A condensed summary of State activities includes the following items: (1) Increase in number of public-health nurses in either State or county positions, or both; (2) establishment of maternal and infant health centers; (3) stimulation of better birth registration; (4) improvement in milk supplies; (5) surveys of maternity homes and infant homes; (6) studies of the midwife problem and methods of its solution; (7) general educational activities through literature, exhibits, lectures, demonstrations, campaigns, mothers' classes, and correspondence courses.

The act makes it the duty of the Children's Bureau to undertake such studies and investigations as will promote its efficient adminis-

tration. During the last year, in addition to the regular staff of the maternity and infancy division, a physician and a social worker have been employed for a survey of maternity homes in Pennsylvania. The cooperation of local physicians has also been secured in a number of localities for statistical studies to determine the causes of stillbirths, neonatal mortality, and maternal mortality. These investigations are incomplete as yet and will be extended to other localities during the coming year.

At the request of the health officer of Alabama, a test of birth registration was made to assist the State in analyzing the problem of how birth registration may be brought up to the standard required for admission to the United States birth-registration area.

An analysis of infant mortality in the United States birth-registration area, prepared by the statistical division of the bureau, shows a decrease of 24 per cent for the six-year period from 1915 to 1921. (Final reports for 1922 are not yet available.) This encouraging decrease was due almost wholly to improvement in health conditions and was explained only in small part by expansion in the area.

In 1915, the infant mortality rate in the cities was one-fourth higher than that in rural districts; but with the progress of infant welfare work in the cities and the continued progress in the efficient regulation of the production and distribution of milk, the city rate in 1921 was brought for the first time below the rural rate in the original birth-registration area.

While the infant mortality rate of 76 in 1921 was the lowest ever recorded for the United States birth-registration area, the American rate is still higher than the rates for five foreign countries, as shown by the most recent available statistics for the nations of the world.

A revision of the Children's Bureau bulletin on maternal mortality in the United States and certain foreign countries is in progress. The United States death rate of mothers in childbirth shows a slight decrease in 1921 from the preceding year, but it is still higher than the rates in most foreign countries that have good statistics of births and deaths. In this connection it is interesting to note that only comparatively few States require the reporting of cases of puerperal septicæmia, the most fatal of the diseases connected with pregnancy and confinement; and in but one State did the number of cases of puerperal septicæmia reported exceed the number of deaths certified as due to this disease.

Constitutionality of the maternity and infancy act.

When a bill for the acceptance of the maternity and infancy act was before the State Legislature of Massachusetts in the spring of 1922, the question of Congress's power to enact legislation of this sort was raised. This question was referred to the attorney general

of the State and he rendered an opinion to the effect that the act was not within the constitutional powers of the Federal Government and that as a means of testing its constitutionality, suit could be brought by the State of Massachusetts against the Federal officials whose duty it is to administer the act. Although Massachusetts was at that time accepting Federal aid under 22 other acts of Congress, and this measure merely extended the well-established principle of Federal and State cooperation to the new field of protection of maternity and infancy, the legislature directed the attorney general to start suit.

Accordingly complaint was filed by the State of Massachusetts in the United States Supreme Court in October, 1922. Later a taxpayer's suit was started by Harriet A. Frothingham, a citizen of Massachusetts, in the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia. That court dismissed the plaintiff's bill of complaint and later the Court of Appeals of the District of Columbia affirmed its decree. An appeal was then taken to the United States Supreme Court and was argued, with the Massachusetts case, in April, 1923. In addition to the brief submitted by the Solicitor General in defense of the act, briefs were also filed on behalf of the States of Arkansas, Arizona, Colorado, Delaware, Indiana, Kentucky, Minnesota, Oregon, Pennsylvania, and Virginia, and the Association of Land Grant Colleges, as *amici curiæ*.

There was no dissent to the opinion rendered by the Supreme Court on June 4, 1923, that both these cases must be dismissed for want of jurisdiction. In affirming the dismissal of the Frothingham suit, the court pointed out that "It is of much significance that no precedent sustaining the right to maintain suits like this has been called to our attention, although since the formation of the Government, as an examination of the acts of Congress will disclose, a large number of statutes appropriating or involving the expenditure of moneys for non-Federal purposes have been enacted and carried into effect."

While the merits of the question of the constitutionality of the act were not discussed, the opinion indicated agreement with the Solicitor General that if the interpretation of the Constitution urged by the State of Massachusetts were followed, not only would other forms of Federal aid be unconstitutional, but Congress's right to create the Department of Agriculture and most of its bureaus, as well as the Department of Labor and several bureaus in the Department of the Interior, would be denied by the same logic.

Child hygiene.

In addition to the bureau's investigations of infant hygiene, special studies have been made of children of preschool age and in the whole field of child hygiene. The Child Welfare Special, the bureau's

motor truck which is equipped as a demonstration clinic for children of preschool age, was sent to Tennessee during the last fiscal year, at the request of the State board of health, and continued its work in that State until late in November of 1922. Nearly 2,400 physical examinations were made in Tennessee. In response to a request from the university extension division, the State board of health, and other organizations, the special was sent to Oklahoma in the spring of 1923 and is still holding conferences there. To date over 1,000 examinations have been made in Oklahoma.

A critical study is being made of the present status of the knowledge of children's physical fitness by surveying the work now being done in this country and assembling the literature on the subject. The following aspects of the study are being given special attention: Anthropometric studies, nutrition and metabolism, nutritional studies on animals which have a bearing on the subject, the relation of bodily mechanics to physical fitness in children, functional tests of physical vigor, physical tests in relation to mental factors, disease and defects in relation to physical fitness, and an annotated bibliography of all the available literature on the growth and development of children.

An intensive study has been made of the incidence of rickets among young children in the District of Columbia, in connection with which information has been obtained on the influence as causal factors of housing, sunlight, diet, and the care of children. The study includes an analysis of the diets of children in different age groups and of their mothers during pregnancy and lactation.

The bureau has made a survey of the extent and efficiency of the nutrition work for preschool children in nine eastern and mid-western cities and in three rural areas. Each of the 33 organizations visited was studied from two standpoints: The general policy and standards of the organization in regard to the care given to preschool children, and the character of the nutrition work undertaken and the methods of conducting it—in health centers, clinics, classes, and the homes of the children.

The child-hygiene division has analyzed the resources of child-placing agencies in selected cities and the methods used in protecting the health of the children under their care, cooperating in this study with the social-service division of the bureau, which has been making a study of the organization and general methods of these agencies.

Street trades.

Conditions surrounding children engaged in street trades, a relatively unregulated form of child labor, have been the subject of study during the last year. Information for over 4,000 children who

sold newspapers, did bootblacking, tended market stands, or peddled flowers, candy, gum, etc., was obtained in Wilkes-Barre, Pa., Columbus, Ohio, Atlanta, Ga., and Omaha, Nebr. In connection with this inquiry into the extent and conditions of street work, a study of the administration of State and local street-trading regulations has also been made.

Employment of children in stores, mills, and factories in Georgia.

At the request of the Georgia State Children's Code Commission, a survey of children employed outside of school hours (exclusive of those in street work) was made in Atlanta, and establishments employing children were inspected, primarily to ascertain the extent of the employment of children under 16 in industries not covered by the present State child labor law.

Thirty-nine textile mills in 17 cities or towns in Georgia were also visited by agents of the Children's Bureau in the autumn of 1922 for the purpose of comparing the standards of employment with those in effect under the Federal child labor tax law declared unconstitutional in 1921. This inquiry brought to light 560 violations of the standards of the Federal child labor laws which were held unconstitutional in 1918 and 1922 and 149 violations of the Georgia child labor law.

Rural child labor.

Continuing a series of studies of rural child labor begun in 1920, the industrial division during the last year has completed field work in connection with two such surveys and has begun a third. To date this series of studies has covered parts of 14 States and has included approximately 11,000 children under 16 years of age working in the cotton fields, on truck crops, in beet and tobacco fields, and on farms in the wheat and corn belts. During the last year, surveys were made in tobacco-growing sections of Kentucky, South Carolina, Virginia, Connecticut, and Massachusetts and in the Corn Belt in Illinois. A study in truck and fruit growing sections of the State of Washington is now in progress.

Minimum wage for minors.

Several months before the Supreme Court decision declaring unconstitutional the minimum wage law of the District of Columbia we began an investigation into the effects of the rates for minors and learners established by the minimum-wage boards in the District of Columbia, California, and Minnesota, where individual certificates were issued to all minors included in wage-board rulings. According to the records of the commissions, large numbers of children obtain certificates to work at learners' rates, remain only a short period on the job, and are then lost sight of by the commission. A schedule

study of the industrial history of a group of minors certificated in these two States and the District of Columbia is being supplemented by pay-roll records and other data from these States and from Wisconsin and Massachusetts. The investigation should indicate whether a comparatively high minimum rate tends to reduce the number of children employed; whether there is any tendency to discharge the children when they become legally entitled to increases; whether the minimum rate becomes the maximum; and whether the minors go into industries in which a legal minimum has not been established at wages lower than the legal minimum in other industries.

Other child-labor studies.

Studies have been made during the last year of industrial opportunities open to subnormal minors in Newark, N. J., and of industrial accidents to minors in Wisconsin, New Jersey, and Massachusetts. Census material and child-labor and compulsory school attendance legislation have been summarized and analyzed.

An increasing number of State and city agencies are furnishing annually to the Children's Bureau comparable statistics relating to the issuance of employment certificates, and hence to the number of children legally employed.

Juvenile-court standards.

During the year much interest has been expressed in the juvenile-court reports prepared in the social-service division of the bureau. The attention of judges and probation officers has been called to them by the National Probation Association, by the State board or commission, or by state-wide conferences called for discussion of court problems in Arkansas, Georgia, Indiana, Nebraska, New Jersey, North Carolina, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Texas.

The committee on juvenile-court standards appointed in 1921 made its final report at a joint conference held in Washington May 18, 1923, under the auspices of the Children's Bureau and the National Probation Association. The committee was at work for two years. It submitted a preliminary report at a joint meeting in Providence in June, 1922, and, after a two-day session in January of the present year, agreed upon a draft of standards, which was sent to more than 200 judges, probation officers, and others interested in juvenile courts, more than 50 of whom made specific suggestions.

Studies of child dependency.

Aid to children in their own homes.—The publications on so-called mothers' pensions, especially the proceedings of the conference held in June of 1922, have been used by and distributed to those actually engaged in this work by the State boards in Arizona, Delaware, Massachusetts, Minnesota, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, and Pennsylvania.

The publication of a legal chart showing the differences in the various State laws on this subject was of special interest in connection with bills pending in the various State legislatures in 1923.

At the annual meeting on June 21 of the committee on public aid to mothers for the care of children in their own homes (formerly the cooperating committee on mothers' pensions) we were requested to undertake during the coming year detailed studies of the standards that prevail in the work of agencies administering aid to dependent children, with special reference to health, housing, and education. Arrangements are being made for such a study, in which the committee will cooperate.

The collection of information as to the administration of mothers' pensions in the various States has continued, and a report on this subject will be published during the coming year.

Foster-home care.—During the last half of the year a field study was made of the organization and methods of work of child-caring agencies in 10 localities, two of them state-wide. The agencies were selected as presenting examples of some of the best work in child placing in different parts of the country. The object of the study is to obtain information in regard to constructive handling of the social and health problems of dependent children.

A publication is now ready for press entitled "Foster-Home Care for Dependent Children." This includes contributions by 11 of the leading authorities on child-caring work, each dealing with a different phase of the problem of care and protection of dependent children. This publication also includes a bibliography of United States and foreign material on the subject of foster-home care and a reprint of the conclusions of the "White House conference for dependent children" of 1909.

A study of dependent children in the District of Columbia is ready for the press. The study was undertaken at the request of the Board of Children's Guardians. A feature of the report is a statistical analysis of the data regarding children who were under care of the board during one year. At the request of the District Council of Central Agencies, some information was also secured from private institutions, making possible some comparisons of the work of the private institutions and that of the public agency.

The field work has been completed on a study of children indentured by the Wisconsin State Public School for Dependent Children, undertaken at the request of the Wisconsin authorities. Schedules for approximately 500 children who were made wards of the State a number of years ago have been secured giving information available in regard to the family situation at the time the children were removed from their homes and the history of the parents subsequent to the taking over of the children by the State.

Institutions.—Through the cooperation of the State schools and homes for dependent children in Colorado, Michigan, Minnesota, Rhode Island, and Wisconsin, the record material for all the children under the care of these agencies during the last year has been obtained. It is being analyzed with special reference to the parental status at the time the children were received as wards of the State, ages of the children when received, the present disposition, reasons for the release of those who ceased to be wards during the year, and the length of time the children have been under care.

At the suggestion of members of the staff of the Georgia Department of Public Welfare, we have undertaken to edit the manuscript of a "Handbook of Institutions for Dependent Children" that had been prepared by the staff of the Georgia department. An advisory committee, composed of representatives of State boards, of public and private institutions, and of other experts in this field, is revising the manuscript. It has also been submitted to a large number of people throughout the country whose advice and assistance would be of special value. Incorporating the suggestions received, supplementing the material on some points, and final editing remain to be done.

Child welfare in Porto Rico.

In the spring of 1923, a brief follow-up study was made of the Children's Year survey in Porto Rico. In spite of many and serious difficulties, the child-welfare activities initiated during the previous year have gone forward in a most encouraging manner. Play and athletics have been given greater importance throughout the school system, and the training of teachers in play has established those activities upon a firm foundation. The Red Cross and the insular department of health, working in cooperation, have increased the number of child-health centers, continued the program of baby weeks, and conducted an institute on those subjects and other aspects of public health.

The university summer courses in home hygiene have been continued, with special emphasis on infant and child care, and an experimental course in social service has been given. This has helped to call attention to the whole field of child welfare. Health teaching has been continued in the schools. Dental clinics have been extended by the cooperation of the Junior Red Cross and the municipalities. The school for blind children is now being built. We are assured that a bill providing for an industrial school for girls will pass the legislature. The business men's organizations have taken a definite interest in the homeless boys of San Juan and have raised funds for constructive work to assist these children.

The 1923 legislature has provided \$60,000 for the establishment of an insular puericultural and maternity institute for promoting the

hygiene of maternity and infancy. The institute is to have consultation centers for expectant mothers and for children, besides hospital facilities for women during confinement.

Recreation.

During the last year a specialist in recreation has been added to the bureau staff, and it is hoped that in the future this part of the bureau's work can be greatly extended. A Brief Manual of Games for Organized Play adapted from Standard Sources, prepared in connection with the Porto Rican survey, has been much in demand here.

Child-welfare legislation in 1923.

During 1923 the legislatures of 43 States have met in regular session, and bills relating to many aspects of child welfare have been considered. Some definite gains have been made, but many bills whose passage would have been in the interest of the children have failed of enactment. On the other hand, a few bills which would have meant retrogression instead of progress were considered and most of them, fortunately, were defeated.

We have been receiving from officials of the various States copies of bills relating to child welfare and information concerning the action taken upon these bills. In addition to the passage by 29 States of legislation providing for the acceptance of the Federal maternity and infancy act, bills relating to State and municipal health departments, public-health nurses, birth and death registration, physical education, and medical or dental examination of school children have been considered in many States and have become law in a number.

Child-welfare commissions.

The department has continued to cooperate with the child-welfare commissions by supplying information and copies of its bulletins. A revision of a bulletin entitled "State Commissions for the Study and Revision of Child Welfare Laws," first published in 1920, has been prepared and is now in press. It includes a history of the development of State commissions, a statement of the essential features in commission programs, summaries of organization and plans of work, and a list of reports and articles relating to the work of commissions.

Committee on traffic in women and children.

The Chief of the Children's Bureau was, on my recommendation, appointed by the Secretary of State, with the approval of the President, to serve in an unofficial and consultative capacity on an international advisory committee on traffic in women and children.

The traffic in women and children is one of the few fields in which there had been international agreement for legislation prior to the war. The first White Slave Conference was held in 1902, and the United States was a party to the international agreement of 1904 which grew out of that conference. A second conference was held in 1910, at which the United States was also represented.

In the summer of 1921 a conference on the traffic in women and children was called. At that meeting it was recommended that an advisory committee on traffic in women and children which would serve as a committee of experts to watch developments continually in this field and to consider ways in which the traffic may be prevented should be created. Such a committee was appointed, and includes representatives of the following Governments: British Empire, Denmark, France, Italy, Japan, Poland, Rumania, Spain, and Uruguay.

Publications.

During the fiscal year 1922-23 the bureau issued 34 new publications, charts, and leaflets, 12 of which were included in the Tenth Annual Report, leaving a total of 22 since that report went to press. Twenty-five others are now in press and 24 in preparation. Reprints of 33 of the bureau publications have been ordered and received, and three additional reprints are now in press.

Of the new publications, the following are among the most important, not already mentioned:

Child hygiene.—No. 110, The Nutrition and Care of Children in a Mountain County of Kentucky; No. 111, Physical Status of Preschool Children, Gary, Ind.; No. 112, Infant Mortality, Gary, Ind.

Child labor.—No. 89, The Working Children of Boston; No. 106, Child Labor and the Welfare of Children in an Anthracite Coal-Mining District; No. 114, Child Labor in the United States—Ten Questions Answered; No. 115, Child Labor and the Work of Mothers in the Beet Fields of Colorado and Michigan; No. 116, Standards and Problems Connected with the Issuance of Employment Certificates; and No. 117, The Welfare of Children in Bituminous Coal-Mining Communities in West Virginia.

Delinquency and dependency.—No. 104, The Chicago Juvenile Court; No. 107, County Organization for Child Care and Protection; No. 109, Proceedings of Conference on Mothers' Pensions; and No. 118, Standards of Public Aid to Children in Their Own Homes.

During the year 821,735 publications (other than dodgers) were distributed, an increase of 195,985 over the number distributed in 1921-22. The distribution of popular bulletins in the Care of Children series was as follows: Prenatal Care, 157,887; Infant Care, 334,654; Child Care, 129,161. This means an increase of 60,644 over

last year in the distribution of Prenatal Care, of 131,401 in Infant Care, and of 58,791 in Child Care. During the last six months of the year the monthly distribution averaged approximately 33,000 copies of Infant Care, 14,000 of Prenatal Care, and 12,000 of Child Care. Even with this increase, we have had to refuse thousands each month, and the sales at the Government Printing Office have greatly increased.

Each year the number of individuals who seek information as to some phase of child care increases. During the year just passed, the Children's Bureau received 98,553 letters, an increase of 13,059 over the preceding year.

In addition to the public and private child-welfare agencies of the country with which we maintain active cooperation, individual parents in increasing numbers are applying for information. In giving the information sought, we make these requests the opportunity for informing correspondents of helpful local agencies.

BUREAU OF NATURALIZATION.

Reorganization.

In the middle of the fiscal year just ended the complete reorganization of administrative procedure in naturalization matters was begun. This reorganization extends throughout the entire naturalization service and has for its purpose the accomplishment of a simplified and more rational administration of the uniform rule for the naturalization of aliens throughout the United States, prescribed by the Constitution. From 10,000 to 20,000 petitions for naturalization have been dismissed annually under the operation of the old administrative system of examining the aliens after they had become petitioners. Under the reorganization plan, all aliens are to be examined before they become petitioners. In approximately 100,000 of the 160,000 petitions filed, the applicant made two trips to the courthouse and one to the examiner. One of these trips has been eliminated wherever the new procedure has been established. The time of the two citizen witnesses and the alien applicant is reduced at the administrative examination about one-half under the new plan, and in the judicial examination in court amendments to petitions for naturalization, which in some courts have been large consumers of time, have been eliminated, thus making it possible for the judge to hear a larger number of petitions within the same length of time.

As a part of this reorganization of administrative procedure, a branch of the Bureau of Naturalization was established on Ellis Island to specialize in the work of furnishing certificates of arrival for naturalization purposes. At the time certificates of arrival were created to enable an alien arriving after June 29, 1906, to file a

petition for naturalization, the Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization existed. Upon the organization of the Department of Labor, the Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization was divided into two bureaus, the Bureau of Immigration and the Bureau of Naturalization. The naturalization work performed at Ellis Island by the immigration authorities was not detached from that bureau until the reorganization referred to was undertaken. With a personnel whose prime and sole duty is naturalization engaged upon the certificate of arrival work at Ellis Island, it will not be necessary to withdraw members from this organization to engage in immigration work when the landing of aliens at Ellis Island is in such large numbers as to make such action necessary as heretofore. The first duty of the naturalization bureau employees on Ellis Island was to clear off the congestion of applications, and at the close of the fiscal year all applications received prior to May 1 had been disposed of. The work promises to be current within three months from now.

Citizenship training.

Coincident with the reorganization referred to, there was a restoration of the citizenship-training activities to the coordinate relationship established by the naturalization law from the secondary relationship to which it had been relegated. The promotion of citizenship training by the public schools was extended and made effective at the most vital point of weakness—the promotion of the training of teachers for Americanization or citizenship training classes. The cooperation of the bureau in citizenship training work was accepted during the past year by the public schools of 2,461 communities throughout the United States (including rural places), which either ordered educational supplies or organized classes through the efforts of the field service. In addition, students from 355 outlying places attended classes in the near-by cities or towns conducting them. The practically unanimous participation in some form or other in citizenship training or Americanization by the public schools is established. Many influences have been at work to cause this. Partially due to the legislation providing for separate naturalization of married women, the work with foreign-born women has assumed greater proportions than ever before and home classes for women have become more numerous and popular. Public ceremonies attending the presentation of the department's certificate of graduation through the public schools have received added emphasis, due to the greater stress now placed upon preparation by both the native and foreign born for the duties and responsibilities of citizenship. Great national organizations, especially women's organizations, are very active in this field. The individual members of the American Bar

Association are actively advocating higher standards of admission to citizenship through a better appreciation of our institutions of government, and in this movement are being stimulated by the hearty support of the judges administering the naturalization law.

The Federal Citizenship Textbook, as issued, has been successfully used in large quantities. During the fiscal year the new part devoted to elementary and intermediate students received universal and hearty commendation. Much has been accomplished by the educational field representatives in arousing interest in communities as shown by the resulting citizenship-training classes, which are attended not only by the foreign born but American adults as well, who are attracted by the name "citizenship-training classes," whereas they were repelled by the title "classes for illiterates." The relations and cooperation with State superintendents of public instruction and State directors of Americanization have been even more cordial than heretofore. An equally important phase of citizenship-training activity is the participation by the bureau in the organization in Federal and State penal institutions throughout the country of classes for teaching English and the responsibilities and obligations of good citizenship to their inmates. Acting as a clearing house upon citizenship-training matters, an exchange of periodicals written and published by Americanization classes in the various States has been accomplished by the bureau. Supervisors and teachers find that the publication and exchange of these papers furnish valuable motivation, and the periodicals themselves show evidence of remarkable progress in English, great appreciation by the students of the public-school opportunities offered, and a desire to be worthy citizens. The Federal Council of Citizenship Training, created in January, 1923, by the President, on which the Commissioner of Naturalization is the representative of the Department of Labor, has already made substantial progress in furthering its objective of citizenship improvement. Candidates for citizenship living on farms and in isolated places not convenient to schools are taken care of through earnest and devoted volunteer teachers; their names being sent by the clerk of court to the county superintendent of schools, who appoints a teacher volunteering for the purpose. These classes now number 1,204, an increase of 385 over last year. The classes, naturally, are each composed of only a few scholars, with a probable average of two to each class.

A close touch has been kept with the industrial plants, where numerous citizenship-training classes are in operation, some of the classes being conducted wholly or partly during working hours; others after the closing hour.

During the year 738 communities have been supplied with the names of 264,199 candidates for citizenship and the names of 25,534

wives, making a total of 289,733 names sent to school officials, an increase of more than 30,000 over the preceding year. In addition, 61,106 cards of invitation have been sent out for Boy Scout delivery. Reports show that the activities of the Boy Scouts were largely instrumental in the formation of five citizenship classes in one city alone. These scouts have proved their worth time and time again by their courteous and tactful presentation of the invitations, by serving as ushers at Americanization meetings, school exercises, and other public ceremonies, and even by providing the music therefor.

Volume of the work.

There are millions of naturalization papers in the archives of the Bureau of Naturalization, representing thousands upon thousands of every European nationality. There is no knowledge of the relationship by nationalities or otherwise of these alien-born residents of America toward American citizenship. In the reorganization plans a statistical presentation of this tremendously valuable information has been undertaken.

The reorganization along these lines has become assured and the service rendered to the public and the benefits derived by the public more than doubled, as indicated, showing the necessity of the reorganization; and this becomes doubly significant when considered with the fact that no increase in the appropriation of the Bureau of Naturalization has been submitted to support this expansion and increased efficiency of service to the public. No reduction of the current appropriations for the bureau can be made without seriously impairing this reorganization work.

During the year 296,636 declarations of intention and 158,059 petitions for naturalization were filed, and 137,975 civilian certificates of naturalization, and 7,109 military, or a total of 145,084 certificates of naturalization were issued by clerks of courts. The courts denied 24,884 petitioners admission to citizenship, or 15 per cent of petitions heard. Continuances of petitions for ignorance of government, 11,005; for illiteracy, 1,270; nonappearance, 23,840; miscellaneous, 12,117; a total of 48,232. The bureau's incoming mail amounted to 517,779 pieces; outgoing, 886,405 pieces. The total receipts from naturalization fees for the fiscal year were \$636,132.90, or \$37,422.95 more than for the preceding year.

Separate status of women.

Of far-reaching importance was the enactment of the act of September 22, 1922, providing independent naturalization status for married women. Heretofore their citizenship depended on the allegiance owed by the husband. Under the provisions of this act the status of a woman is not affected by marriage unless the husband is an alien ineligible to citizenship; otherwise, if she is a

citizen of the United States, she remains a citizen; if she is an alien she must apply for naturalization even if she marries a citizen.

As the result of two decisions rendered by the United States Supreme Court during the past fiscal year, interpreting the words "white persons" as used in the naturalization laws, it has been authoritatively determined that members of the Japanese and Hindu races are not eligible for naturalization.

WOMEN'S BUREAU.

The Women's Bureau was created as a war service in 1918 and made a permanent bureau of the Department of Labor in 1920. The purposes of the bureau are "to formulate standards and policies which shall promote the welfare of wage-earning women, improve their working conditions, increase their efficiency, and advance their opportunities for profitable employment." In fulfilling these purposes the bureau necessarily engages in many different types of activity, and the close of the past year shows a most encouraging development of interest and support for the work which is being done.

Not only have the activities of the bureau increased in type and scope, but the cooperation and interest of the women of the country have developed to a marked degree, with the result that the standards and information constantly formulated and disseminated have been given to a broad field of interested organizations which are increasingly asking guidance in matters relating to the welfare of wage-earning women.

Industrial conference.

The outstanding activity during the past year was the Women's Industrial Conference which was called by the chief of the bureau at my request for a three-day session in Washington, January 11, 12, and 13. The object of this conference was to place before the women of the country an outline of the extensive and steadily increasing problems attending the employment of women in industry, and to indicate some of the methods and standards which are being adopted in order to meet these problems.

With that end in view, representatives were invited from all women's organizations, which are national in scope, and from all other national organizations interested in the subject of industry, which include women in their membership. The program of the conference was so planned that important topics of industry and its relation to women should first be presented by experts in each field and the subject then thrown open for discussion. The following topics and speakers comprised the program:

Welcome and introductory remarks, Hon. James J. Davis, Secretary of Labor.

What Women Workers Mean to Industry, Mr. Charles Cheney, of Cheney Bros., South Manchester, Conn., representing the National Association of Manufacturers, and Miss Mary Gilson, superintendent of employment and service department, the Joseph & Feiss Co., Cleveland.

What Industry Means to Women Workers, Miss Mary Van Kleeck, director, department of industrial studies, Russell Sage Foundation, and former director of the Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor, and Mrs. Raymond Robins, president of the International Federation of Working Women.

Health Standards for Women in Industry, Dr. R. A. Spaeth, associate professor, department of physiology, School of Hygiene and Public Health, Johns Hopkins University.

Home Work, Mrs. Florence Kelley, executive secretary National Consumers' League.

Women's Wages, Mrs. Maud Swartz, president, National Women's Trade Union League, and Miss Sophonisba P. Breckinridge, dean of women, University of Chicago.

Labor Legislation for Women, Miss Melinda Scott, United Textile Workers of America, and Miss Merica E. Hoagland, director mutual service division, Diamond Chain & Manufacturing Co., Indianapolis.

The Need for Women to Enforce Women's Labor Laws, Miss Tracy Copp, special agent, Federal Board for Vocational Education, Miss Agnes Nestor, vice president, National Glove Workers of America, Mrs. James J. Devitt, chairman of the department of social and industrial relations of the Iowa State Federation of Women's Clubs and member of the State Board of Education of Iowa, and Miss Mary McDowell, University Settlement, Chicago.

The conference was well attended, 326 women from 40 States being registered as delegates. In addition there was a large attendance from interested persons who were not delegates. One result of this conference has been that many groups of women who hitherto had not known of the large number of women in gainful occupations and who had not appreciated the importance or the large significance of the conditions under which women are employed in the industries of this country have received from their delegates to this conference a reliable and understanding outline of the subject. More important still—and perhaps the outstanding achievement of the conference—has been the understanding developed between different groups which formerly acknowledged no common interests; a cementing of the ties of interest and a common purpose between groups whose knowledge of each other and of each other's work had been only fragmentary and in many cases prejudiced.

Investigations.

In addition to its broader policy-forming and educational functions, an important part of the work of the Women's Bureau is the investigations carried on in order to accumulate data illustrating certain aspects and conditions surrounding the employment of women. During the entire period of its existence the bureau has

emphasized through its investigational work the collection of data showing general conditions under which women were employed in the various States. During the past year, however, because of the amount of general information secured and because of increases in the appropriation and staff of the bureau, it has been possible to develop the collection of information dealing with special problems in addition to the studies of general conditions.

The bureau has made two State investigations of general conditions, which are larger in scope than any before undertaken. These surveys covered wages and hours of women in industry. The outstanding facts secured from the preliminary tabulations of the statistics gathered were as follows: (1) The median earnings of the women for the week for which wage records were secured were approximately \$14.50. (2) The median earnings for the women who had worked practically full time (48 hours or more during the week investigated) were approximately \$15.25. (3) Scheduled hours of work in both States were considerably in advance of the standard set by law.

Special studies.

The special studies which the bureau has been able to inaugurate during the past year promise to make definite contributions to the solution of several problems which are engaging the attention of employers, industrial experts and other persons interested in the development of opportunity for wage-earning women.

OCCUPATIONAL PROGRESS.

As soon as the preliminary figures from the census of 1920, showing the occupational distribution of gainfully employed women, were available a study was made of these figures showing the principal trend of employment for women during the past decade and comparing the present lines of development with those of former decades. Certain of the changes, which were apparent after a careful study of the facts, indicated decided upheavals in the traditions of women's employment. There was a decrease of 13.6 per cent (344,297) among women engaged in domestic and personal service, an increase of 140.4 per cent (832,892) among women in clerical occupations, an increase of 38.5 per cent (282,607) among women in professional service, an increase of 99.8 per cent (106,429) among women engaged in transportation, and—contrary to general impression—an increase of only 6 per cent (109,771) among women in manufacturing and mechanical pursuits. On the whole, the great change seems to have been in a decrease among women working in or for the home and in personal-service occupations, and a corresponding increase in clerical and allied occupations, in teaching, and in nursing. In studying the

figures for manufacturing and mechanical industries it was apparent that women had not gone into absolutely new occupations to any great extent. They had, however, enlarged their field of work by entering in greater number occupations in which formerly they had but scant representation.

FAMILY STATUS OF BREADWINNING WOMEN.

In a previous annual report mention was made of a study which had been conducted with the cooperation of the Bureau of the Census to discover as far as possible from the census schedules for a selected locality the data which were available to show pertinent social facts regarding breadwinning women. This study has created much interest, not alone for the illustration it offers of the tremendous value of much of the information available in the census schedules and not made public because of limited funds but for the clear-cut picture of the problems of the working women in an industrial community resulting from the correlations made. Because of the significance of the picture thus made available and because of the general demand for information along the same lines for other typical communities, the Women's Bureau has extended this study to include similar facts for the breadwinning women of Wilkes-Barre, Pa., Butte, Mont., and Jacksonville, Fla. These cities were selected because they are located in different sections of the country, because their industrial activities are representative of certain typical situations, and because their size is not so small as to be unimportant nor so large as to make the handling of the census schedules prohibitive in cost.

DOMESTIC SERVICE.

Another study which has led into a new field where there is an undoubted need for research and the formulation of standards has been a study of domestic service, based on information secured from the records of the Domestic Efficiency Association of Baltimore. This association, formed for the purpose of putting domestic service on a better and more standardized basis, and trying to get at the causes of the high labor turnover among domestics, to improve the standards in the service, and to effect greater cooperation among employers, requested the Women's Bureau to examine and analyze its records. This was done, and although no definite or far-reaching recommendations can be made on the basis of so limited a study, it would seem from the facts disclosed that there is urgent need for a careful consideration of this problem by the employers of domestic workers, with a view to standardizing the requirements of the work so that an employee engaged for one position may be reasonably sure of what she is expected to do. The records also showed that

domestic work is to a large extent seasonal, which throws an added burden on the employee who is left to shift for herself when families leave town for the summer and houses are closed. The matter of references was found to be a serious handicap in the placement of applicants, for there seems to be no common ground or standard for the judgment of work or personality, and a worker well recommended by one employer may have an entirely contradictory reference from another.

A study has been made of the records of the United States Patent Office to show the extent of women's contributions in the field of invention. This study revealed a surprising variety and extent of inventions patented by women, and showed also that there is a steady increase in the number of patents taken out by women.

Of the studies which are at present under way in the bureau and which will not be completed for some months, one of the most important is an investigation to discover the extent and causes of absenteeism among women employed in textile mills. This investigation involves very great problems of technique and interpretation and must be carried on over a considerable period of time if careful and scientific findings are to be achieved. The bureau has received most cordial and helpful cooperation from manufacturers in all parts of the country, and the study has awakened considerable interest among employers and industrial experts. Textile mills have been visited, their records inspected, and their employees interviewed in Alabama, Louisiana, Georgia, South Carolina, Maryland, New Jersey, Connecticut, and Vermont. It is planned to visit other important textile centers within the next few months. From experimental compilations of the data already gathered it seems likely that the findings may comprise also a contribution to the subject of labor turnover.

INDUSTRIAL HAZARD.

The increase of 110,000 women in manufacturing and mechanical industries during the past decade and the developing there of new fields of employment for them has drawn considerable attention to the accident hazard for women employed in industrial establishments. Unfortunately there has been available only a very limited amount of information on this subject, as in the majority of cases accident statistics have not been compiled separately for the sexes, and even when compiled separately the figures for women have been of little value because of the absence of current figures showing the extent of women's employment in the various occupations from which dependable accident rates could be computed. The 1920 census has afforded this base of complete figures by occupation and

sex, and it seemed therefore that the time was opportune for a careful study of the accident records in certain States in order to see if there were any industries or occupations peculiarly hazardous to women. Such a study is now being made in cooperation with the department of labor of the State of New Jersey. This State has made available to the Women's Bureau records of all accident cases which come under the scope of the workmen's compensation law, and the bureau is securing not only the facts as to the number and kind of accidents but also correlations which show the earnings, hours, and living conditions of the women injured, the treatment given them, and their industrial history before and after injury. It is planned to extend this study to include several more States where accident records are complete and comparable. It is hoped that when the material is assembled it will provide a basis for the establishment of very definite standards of protection and care for women employed in hazardous occupations in the industries of the entire country.

CANNING AND PRESERVING INDUSTRY.

The other studies now in progress are of three distinct types, each representing a special phase of the investigational activities of the Women's Bureau. A field survey is being made in conjunction with the Children's Bureau of the department of the conditions under which women and children are employed in the canning and preserving industry in the State of Washington. This study involves an inspection of the living and working conditions of the women and children working in the fields and canneries—picking, packing, and preparing fruits and vegetables. Fish canneries also will be included. The problems of employment in the canning and preserving industry, which is necessarily seasonal, are very acute and difficult to solve, and are complicated by the fact that the labor supply is more or less migratory, and living conditions, with large numbers of employees to be housed by their employer on the ranch or farm, present unusual situations. It is expected that the field work on this survey will be completed by the fall, and it is hoped that before the next season opens a constructive standard may have been developed for the employment of women in these occupations.

MINIMUM WAGE LAWS.

A research study is being made of the history, operation, and administration of minimum wage laws. This study is being conducted in a few of the States where such laws are in operation and where the records make possible a careful analysis of methods and results. In view of the recent decision of the Supreme Court of the United States declaring unconstitutional the minimum wage law in

the District of Columbia, it was felt that the time was ripe for a careful study of those laws which are in operation, so that the experience of the various administrative bodies might be made available for those who are seeking to establish some method of enforcing wage standards for women.

HOURS OF WORK.

During the past five years investigations were made of conditions affecting more than 220,000 women in 21 States. But unfortunately it has not been possible to collect the information in the various States at the same time. Accordingly, the data on hours and earnings are spread over a period of four or five years, with the result that for only a few States is comparable material available. Realizing the value of having comparable material for as large a territory as possible, it is intended to bring up to the same date all the information gathered to show hours of work for women in the States where investigations have been conducted. To secure wage figures for one date from such a large field would not be possible, but the information on scheduled hours is more easily gathered and may be brought up to date with comparatively little difficulty. Accordingly a form letter was sent to each establishment included in any investigation made. This form letter asked for definite information as to the hours in force on September 15, 1922, and the number of women employed on that date, and also gave the hours and number of employees shown by the record at the time of the investigation. Very complete response was made to these letters and the information received is now being compiled and will be issued in bulletin form, showing not only hours prevailing for a large number of women in many sections of the country, but the changes which have occurred since the date of the original investigations.

Research and educational work.

As the department has become better known as a source of information regarding industrial problems and conditions, there has been a steadily developing demand on the work of the research service of this bureau. During the past year, in addition to the special study of minimum wage laws already outlined, the research service has kept in touch with current changes in legislation affecting wage-earning women; it has revised and brought up to date the bulletin issued in 1921 showing, through charts and maps, the State laws affecting working women; it has issued a monthly news-letter outlining national and international activities affecting working women; it has compiled a considerable amount of information secured from the census of manufacturers to show the development of the em-

ployment of women in certain industries and States; and it has maintained what has amounted practically to an information service for those persons and organizations which have come to the bureau with inquiries on many different subjects.

The educational work has also developed considerably during the past year and the information gathered has been more widely disseminated. Two new exhibits for general circulation have been prepared. One of these exhibits was planned as an appeal for general recognition of the importance of women in industry and the social significance of their hours of work and their earnings. This exhibit has been used successfully at several large conferences and exhibitions and was especially appreciated at the Women's Industrial Conference.

The other exhibit is a smaller one designed for use by groups who wish to have a popular presentation of the problems connected with the employment of women in industry. It is in the form of six miniature theaters with the backgrounds showing typical factory conditions and with several figures indicating the application of certain standards.

A third exhibit of a different type is now being prepared as the Department of Labor's contribution to a permanent health exhibit which is being installed in the Smithsonian Museum in Washington. This exhibit represents a model factory 8 feet long and 5 feet high, showing models of men and women at work and illustrating in great detail the equipment and standards necessary for insuring adequate health protection in industrial establishments.

Moving pictures.

The film "When Women Work" is still a popular form of exhibit and has been used considerably during the past winter, although after three years' circulation the demand for it is somewhat slackening. Charts and maps showing the occupational distribution of wage-earning women, their hours and earnings, and the various State laws regulating their employment have been prepared and circulated in considerable number.

The radio.

A new development of the educational work of the bureau has been the broadcasting of short talks by radio once a week from October until June. The talks prepared for this radio service have also been released to the newspapers and the returns have been very satisfactory.

News releases on the bulletins and special activities of the bureau have been issued, and preparatory to and during the Women's Industrial Conference an extensive information service was carried on.

Publications.

During the year the following bulletins have been published:

- No. 26. Women in Arkansas Industries.
- No. 27. The Occupational Progress of Women.
- No. 28. Women's Contributions in the Field of Invention.
- No. 29. Women in Kentucky Industries.
- No. 30. The Share of Wage-Earning Women in Family Support.
- No. 31. What Industry Means to Women Workers.

Bulletin No. 32, Women in South Carolina Industries, is in press, and the following bulletins will be ready to go to press within a few weeks:

- Women in Alabama Industries.
- Women in Missouri Industries.
- Domestic Service.
- Proceedings of the Women's Industrial Conference.
- Radio Talks on Women in Industry.

A preliminary report has been prepared and a final report is now being written on women in New Jersey industries. A preliminary report has been issued and the final tabulations are now being made for the investigation of women in Ohio industries. Tabulations are also under way for the study of women's hours in 11 States. Preliminary and experimental tabulations are being made of the extent and causes of absenteeism among women employed in textile mills.

The coming year.

The bureau's program for the coming year is a very full one. The slight increase in the appropriation, from \$100,000 for the fiscal year just ended to \$105,000 for the fiscal year beginning July 1, 1923, will not permit of a great enlargement of activities. Nevertheless it is hoped that to a large degree the bureau will be able to meet the requests that have been made for special information, while at the same time carrying on the work which has been started and developing certain new lines of research which seem to be urgently in need of attention.

The studies of absenteeism, accidents, and minimum wage laws will be continued. Requests have been made for studies of conditions affecting women in industry in Illinois, North Carolina, Oklahoma, and Indiana. While it does not seem likely that all of these requests can be met it will be practicable to select such of the States as seem to be most urgently in need of assistance and secure the necessary information.

It is hoped that further studies based on census records may be undertaken in the near future. A classification of the occupational data secured by the census for foreign-born women, to show the occupational opportunities for women of different nationalities in

the various sections of the United States, has been asked for by a group of persons interested in the establishment of a better understanding of American life and opportunity among the foreign-born population of the United States. It seems that information compiled with this end in view would be a definite contribution to the body of facts upon which can be based a satisfactory policy for the education and treatment of the foreign born. A careful examination and selection of census material as it applies to women in industry and the issuance of such material in popular form would also be of considerable value in outlining to the general public the scope and the details of the problem of the employment of women in industry.

The great interest which the past year has witnessed in the methods and results of legislation to regulate conditions for women points to the need for an authoritative study and discussion of these matters, and the growing desire for information pertaining to women in industry has emphasized the need for a critical bibliography on this subject. It is hoped that a study of legislation affecting women may be arranged for and that through a cooperative arrangement with the librarian of the department a bibliography may be compiled.

the various sections of the United States has been asked for by a group of persons interested in the establishment of a better understanding of American life and opportunity among the foreign-born population of the United States. It seems that information connected with this and its work would be a definite contribution to the body of facts upon which can be based a satisfactory policy for the education and advancement of the foreign-born. A careful examination and selection of certain material as it applies to women in industry and the inclusion of such material in popular form would also be of considerable value in continuing to the general public the scope and the details of the problem of the employment of women in industry.

The great interest which the past year has witnessed in the methods and results of legislation to regulate conditions for women points to the need for authoritative study and dissemination of these matters, and the growing demand for information pertaining to women in industry has emphasized the need for a careful selection of material on this subject. It is hoped that a study of legislation affecting women may be arranged for and that through a cooperative arrangement with the Division of the Department of Laborography may be completed, as far as possible, the work of the past year and the work of the future be carried on in a more systematic and efficient manner.

Very respectfully,

THE SECRETARY OF LABOR

WASHINGTON, D. C.

Very truly yours,

PART II.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

Introductory.

Civilization is more and more coming to recognize the importance of the man who works in the fabric of social, economic, and political organization. Down through the centuries since the days when all labor was slave labor mankind has struggled toward the principle that work is a God-given privilege, not a curse, and that the man who works is entitled to the respect and recognition of his fellows. The struggle has been a long one, but to-day it is clear to all humanity that the world depends for its progress, its prosperity, its civilization, its very existence upon the man who produces. Labor has come into its own.

America's 41,000,000 classified under the census as "gainfully employed" form the very basis of our national life. It is only through the maintenance of prosperity among the men and women who do the country's work that we can hope to keep the United States a prosperous, progressive Nation. It is the part of good statecraft and wisdom to endeavor to keep the man who works happy, contented, and adequately compensated for the labor he performs. Of the 41,000,000 gainfully employed, 25,000,000 are so-called wage earners. These, with their dependents, make up the majority of our population. When we see to it that this great group is adequately compensated for the work it performs and that the conditions under which it works are proper we have done much to insure a bigger, better America.

It was with this thought in mind that the Congress in its wisdom created the Department of Labor and provided in the law that the purpose of the department shall be "to foster, promote, and develop the welfare of the wage earners of the United States, to improve their working conditions, and to advance their opportunities for profitable employment." This thought has been the guiding spirit of the department throughout the period covered by this report, and its wisdom has been amply demonstrated by the increased prosperity not only of the man and woman who work but of our whole people. Each year we are coming to appreciate more and more the importance of the human factor in our general scheme of political and economic life. We are coming to realize that men, women, and children rather than great economic organizations or sounding political pre-

cepts are the important thing in all of our affairs. The Department of Labor through its various bureaus is essentially the human-service department of the Government. It is the Government's point of contact with the great bulk of the plain folks who are the real backbone of our national existence. It is in the maintenance of this point of contact and in the improvement of human relationships in America that the department accomplishes its greatest tasks.

This has been a great year for the American worker. We in America are inclined to be too self-satisfied, too indifferent to the perils we have avoided, too complacent over the successes we have gained. The United States to-day is one of the very few countries that have escaped the desolation and distress which accompany economic depression. During this year starving workers have thronged the streets of a great European capital crying "Bread! Bread!" The rifles of police have been called into noisy action as men and women clamored for food with which to feed their dying children. This is but a single incident. Europe to-day numbers its unemployed by the million. Upheaval is everywhere. Industries are in ruins. The United States to-day is enjoying economic peace unequalled in any nation of the world. Two short years ago, in the depression which followed the Great War, the United States faced economic and political conditions almost identical with those which Europe confronted. There were then between five and six millions of our workers without employment. Industries were closed or closing. Economic authorities predicted industrial panic. We were on the highway to the economic chaos which at present prevails in Europe. Europe continued along the road, but the United States turned the corner, and to-day we have come a long way from those days of economic terror. The American workman everywhere is steadily employed. He is earning wages as high as he was ever paid before. He is working under conditions vastly improved. During the last year we took one great step forward through the elimination of the 12-hour day and the seven-day week in our great basic industry, the steel industry. Much of the credit for this reform which has been sought for two decades by the workers of America must be given to the efforts of the late President, Warren G. Harding, who for more than a year had been pressing the management in the steel industry to put an end to a system of employment which was generally recognized as antiquated and as a hardship to the men who undertook it. It may now be said that we are within sight of the time when no workman in the United States will be forced to labor from sunrise to sunset and that we are within a few years of the day when we shall have realized the hope that each man shall have eight hours for work, eight hours for play, and eight hours for sleep. Truly, American labor has much to be thankful for.

But the future lies ever before us, and there is always much to be done. We must see to it that conditions in American industry continue to advance. We can not hope to establish the millenium by legislation or by administrative action, but we can strive with all our power to meet the constantly increasing problems of the man who works with a view to the future, in order that each day may find our people happier and more prosperous and our civilization further advanced. Each day's experience must be utilized in meeting problems of to-morrow, and each mistake must prove a stepping-stone toward an ultimate right solution. It is with this thought in mind that I am putting forward the recommendations embodied in this report. They are an effort to meet those problems affecting the man who works which lie immediately before us. They seek practical advances toward our ultimate purpose to foster, promote, and develop the welfare of the wage earners of the United States, and to improve their working conditions.

We must encourage that spirit of cooperation, that recognition of mutual interest, which is already making great progress among our employers and our workers. We are learning that cooperation in industry is the surest and most feasible road to industrial peace, without which we can have no real prosperity. To-day there are four parties involved in any industrial dispute—labor, ownership, management, and the public. All of these are mutually dependent, and the success of any given industry depends upon its operation along lines which will insure satisfactory returns to all of them. Enormous organizations have grown up in the conduct of modern business in America. The personal relationships between employer and worker which a generation ago insured the recognition of their mutual interests no longer exist. Our problem is either to restore it or to provide some adequate substitute for it. The employer to-day is no longer an individual, but a corporation, representing the property interests of hundreds and often of thousands of individuals. In its relations with its workers and the public which it serves it is represented by the new factor of management. The men who manage the affairs of our great, highly integrated industrial corporations often own but a small fraction of the business. Management is more and more coming to realize that to be successful it must not only seek the greatest possible profits for ownership but that it must also maintain fair and just relations with the men whose labor makes the industry possible and with the public upon whose patronage the industry depends, and upon whose organized program in the form of governmental policies and legislation all must rely for ultimate justice when the other three factors are unable to agree.

There is in every industry a more or less close community of interest between the employer and the worker. It is when this community of interest is clouded by passion in the heat of a dispute that we find employer and worker resorting to the use of force to settle their differences. That community of interest will operate to adjust any disputes between employer and employee if it can be kept before the representatives of both sides. It is upon this community of interest that we must depend to bring to an end the era of strife in industry and to establish the era of good will. Every industrial dispute is ultimately settled by negotiation. After both sides have suffered the losses inevitable in such a conflict, after the workers have been dragged through months of suffering, distress, and in some cases almost actual starvation, the issues are finally adjusted by representatives of both sides seated around the council table. We must by the constant emphasis of the community of interest between the parties and by appealing to the sense of fairness of each side find a way to settle these disputes on the basis of established facts and in the light of reason and justice before an appeal to force is made. It is upon this principle that the conciliation service of the department is successful in adjusting about 90 per cent of the disputes which come before it. This service has no arbitrary power under the law. It has no authority to lay down the basis of a settlement and force either or both sides to accept it. This service has done much to demonstrate the wisdom of conciliation and mediation in industrial disputes to both workers and employers in American industry during the 11 years of its existence, and it has been a large factor in the progress we are now making toward ultimate industrial peace.

Section 9 of the act creating the Department of Labor requires among other things that the Secretary of Labor shall make such special investigations and reports either as the President or the Congress may direct "or which he himself may deem necessary." In pursuance of that requirement I shall in the following pages discuss in some detail the facts and circumstances of certain observations and investigations which I have made and which I regard of serious import to the people of the United States at this time, and in that connection venture to make certain recommendations.

AMERICA AND THE ALIEN.

One of the prime factors in the molding of civilization since the days when the first prehistoric man preempted for his dwelling the cave of the bear that he had killed has been the migration of peoples. Throughout the ages, wherever a given race or people has set up a strong, prosperous, comfortable state of life there have flocked the throngs of less advanced races seeking the ease of the

better civilization. There is no instance in all history since the Goths, starving and in danger of extinction by their enemies, succeeded in begging their way into the Roman Empire which does not demonstrate that soon or late the immigrant people overthrows the older civilization. This has not been accomplished by force or by armed invasion. In almost every instance great civilizations have perished through peaceful penetration of aliens who were admitted to do the work of the community. In some cases they drifted in as free labor, many entered as slaves, or as soldiery in the employ of the higher civilization. In every case, however, these migrations have resulted in the overthrow of the higher civilization by the infiltrating aliens.

But few of these migrations of the past have been characterized by great movements of population in short periods of time. Only some 200,000 Goths were in the original group which the Emperor Valens accepted as residents of Italy. There has never been in the history of all mankind a movement of peoples of the magnitude of the tide of immigration which has come to the United States during the last century and a half.

The importance of the movement of aliens from all parts of the world to the United States has impressed itself more upon the American people in the last two years than at any previous period. This country is the most extensive immigrant-receiving country in the world. During some years we have received more aliens than have all other countries combined. There was no Federal legislation on the subject prior to 1820. Since that year, or in a little over a century, we have received approximately 35,000,000 immigrants, who have come from all parts of the globe. Nearly 10,000,000 of these arrived during the past 15 years.

There has been considerable ebb and flow in the tide of immigration in the century since we first began to count the numbers. During the first year following the enactment of the law of 1820, 8,385 arrived. Of these, 6,024 came from the United Kingdom, 968 from Germany, and 475 from other countries of northern and western Europe.

Recently I had prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of this department a number of tables and charts concisely and graphically portraying the story of immigration to the United States during the century just past. These tables and charts will be found at pages 126 to 139 of this report. They constitute an interesting study and are worthy of careful perusal.

A Century of Immigration.

It appears from these compilations that the number of immigrants did not reach 100,000 in any one year until 1842, when 104,565 were

received, of whom 99,666 were from northern and western Europe. This number included 73,347 from the United Kingdom, constituting 70.1 per cent of all immigration of that year. The next year (1843) the number dropped to 52,496, but it then increased year by year to 427,833, in 1854. This wave of immigration brought 272,740 from the United Kingdom in 1851 and 215,009 from Germany in 1854. In 1851, 368,565, or 97.2 per cent of all the 379,466 immigrants arriving, came from northern and western Europe, and of these 345,222 were from the United Kingdom and Germany. In 1854, out of the 427,833 immigrants 402,554, or 94.2 per cent, were from northern and western Europe.

Immigration for 1855 was less than half of that of 1854, being only 200,877. From 1855 to 1864 the amount of immigration was small, getting down to 91,918 in 1861, of which number 43,472, or 47.3 per cent, came from the United Kingdom and 31,661, or 34.4 per cent, came from Germany.

In 1865 another wave of immigration began to roll in which reached a crest of 459,803 in 1873, with 166,844, or 36.3 per cent, coming from the United Kingdom, 149,671, or 32.6 per cent, coming from Germany, and 374,898, or 81.6 per cent, coming from all of northern and western Europe as a whole. The recession of the wave went back to only 138,469 in 1878. This second wave brought in an element up to that time of no numerical importance—the immigration from southern and eastern Europe. Not until 1871 did all of the southern and eastern European countries together furnish as many as 10,000 immigrants in any one year. In 1874 this new class of immigrants numbered 24,584.

Another wave of immigration started in 1880 and reached a height of 788,992 in 1882, with 563,213 coming from northern and western Europe and 84,973 coming from southern and eastern Europe.

In 1886 immigration dropped to 334,203. In the next seven years, 1887 to 1893, it varied from a little above to a little below 500,000 each year, but changes were taking place in the class of immigrants coming. In 1888 out of 546,889 immigrants 397,123, or 72.6 per cent, were from northern and western Europe, and 141,281, or 25.8 per cent, from southern and eastern Europe. In 1892 out of 579,663 immigrants 300,792, or 51.9 per cent, were from northern and western Europe and 270,084, or 46.6 per cent, from southern and eastern Europe.

From 1894 to 1901 immigration was under 500,000 each year. The year 1896 is important, however, in the story of immigration, because in 1896 for the first time southern and eastern Europe furnished more immigrants than northern and western Europe, 195,684 coming in that year from southern and eastern Europe and only 137,522 from northern and western Europe.

In 1901 out of 487,918 immigrants the northern and western European immigration was down to 115,728, or 23.7 per cent of the total, while the southern and eastern European immigration numbered 359,291, or 73.6 per cent of the total. Each year from 1896 on southern and eastern Europe has produced more immigration than northern and western Europe, save 1919, when fewer than 25,000 immigrants came from all Europe, and 1923, when the per cent limit act was in effect.

In 1902 immigration went above the 500,000 mark and in 1907 it reached the highest point in any year, 1,285,349, of which number 979,661, or 76.2 per cent, were from southern and eastern Europe and 227,958, or only 17.7 per cent, from northern and western Europe. In each of the years 1905, 1906, 1907, 1910, 1913, and 1914 immigration was above 1,000,000 and did not drop below 750,000 in any intervening year. The year 1914 saw the second highest point in immigration, when the number coming was 1,218,480, of which 915,007, or 75.1 per cent, were from southern and eastern Europe and only 165,100, or 13.6 per cent, from northern and western Europe.

The World War reduced immigration from Europe to small numbers. The year 1917, however, brought in 105,399 immigrants from British North America and 42,380 from Mexico, Central and South America, and the West Indies.

The year 1920 started a new tide of immigration from Europe. The total immigration that year reached 430,001, with 162,595, or 37.7 per cent, from southern and eastern Europe and 88,773, or 20.7 per cent, from northern and western Europe, with the countries of North and South America furnishing nearly all of the remainder.

The next year, 1921, brought 805,228 immigrants, including 520,654, or 64.7 per cent, from southern and eastern Europe, and 143,445, or 17.8 per cent, from northern and western Europe. America, with her five millions of unemployed in 1921, could not stand this oncoming flood of immigrants, which could only swell the number of unemployed, and the 3 per cent limit act was passed, going into effect June 3, 1921. This law, still in effect, applies mainly to Europe but covers also Africa and northern Asia. The oriental countries—China, Japan, India, and others of southeastern Asia—remained as they were under previous laws and treaties, and no numerical limitation was placed on immigration from our sister countries in America.

The per cent limit act restricts the admission of aliens in any year to 3 per cent of the number of foreign-born persons of such nationality residing in the United States, as shown by the census of 1910.

In 1922 immigration numbered 309,556, with 138,541, or 44.8 per cent, from southern and eastern Europe and 79,842 from northern

and western Europe. The year recently closed, ending with June, 1923, brought 522,919 immigrants, with 156,879, or 30 per cent, from northern and western Europe and 153,224, or 29.3 per cent, from southern and eastern Europe, 117,011, or 22.4 per cent, from British America, and 82,961, or 15.9 per cent, from the southern American countries, Mexico, Central and South America, and the West Indies.

I will not attempt to discuss the economic forces at work in Europe and America which caused these waves of immigration during the century—wars, political changes, economic changes, good times, and hard times.

Attention is invited to the racial elements of immigration. The figures quoted apply to the countries from which immigrants came. Broadly speaking, the country of origin indicates the race and also the birth, but there are notable exceptions.

The Hebrews are a race without a country, and so for years were the Poles. The race element in immigration has been so important that statistics as to the race of the immigrant were gathered in 1899 and have since been continued.

In the 25 years, 1899 to 1923, 16,929,187 immigrants came into the United States, distributed by race groups as follows:

Races.	Number.	Per cent.
Northern and western European races, including Canadians	4,881,419	28.7
Eastern and southern European races, including Hebrews	11,081,057	65.5
Southern American races.....	500,413	2.9
Oriental races.....	323,592	1.9
Other peoples.....	162,705	1.0

The races numbering above 300,000 immigrants each in the 25-year period are:

Races.	Number.	Per cent.
English.....	973,720	5.8
French.....	366,612	2.2
German.....	1,220,987	7.2
Irish.....	765,398	4.5
Scandinavian.....	915,330	5.4
Scotch.....	379,845	2.2
Croatian and Slovenian.....	481,242	2.8
Greek.....	495,211	2.9
Hebrew.....	1,787,886	10.6
Italian.....	3,761,777	22.2
Magyar.....	484,585	2.9
Polish.....	1,464,003	8.6
Slovak.....	531,388	3.1
Mexican.....	359,417	2.1

The total in this 25-year period for the four oriental races—Chinese, East Indian, Japanese, and Korean—was 323,592, or 1.9 per cent of all immigration in the period.

Summarizing, there have been five fairly well defined waves of immigration. The first, mainly British but also largely German,

reached its height in 1851 to 1854. The second wave, with a broad and jagged crest, extended roughly between 1865 and 1875 and was composed mainly of British and German immigration with a little Scandinavian. The third wave, reaching its crest in 1882 but also high in 1888 and 1892, was composed mainly of British and German immigration, with quite a proportion of Scandinavian, and, for the first time of any importance, of people from Italy, Austria-Hungary, Russia, Poland, and other countries of south and east Europe. Russia and Poland include many immigrants of the Hebrew race. The fourth wave, also with a broad and ragged crest, extends roughly from 1903 to 1914, with a few immigrants from northern Europe entirely submerged in the total inflow from Italy, Austria-Hungary, and Russia. The fiscal year ended June 30, 1921, started a fifth wave of immigration that undoubtedly would have been a completely overwhelming flood but for the percentage limit act of 1921.

The classification of an alien as immigrant or emigrant depends on his declared intent when he enters or leaves the country. That immigrants do not always stay is shown by Table 4. From 1908 to 1923, 9,949,740 immigrant aliens came and 3,498,185 emigrant aliens left the United States, making 35 per cent as many leaving as came in the 16-year period. It should be observed that this period covers pre-war time, war time, and post-war time.

The Hebrews, above all other races, come to stay; only 5 per cent as many left as came. The Chinese occupy the other extreme; 10,914 more left than came.

The largest racial group in the table is that of the south Italians. In this group there were 60 per cent as many emigrants as immigrants in the period. The table shows that, as a whole, the northern and western European races come to stay to a far greater extent than do the southern and eastern European races.

The number of aliens deported and debarred from 1899 to 1922 is shown in Table 5.

The statistics are presented in five tables and five charts. (See Appendix I.)

Table 1 shows the immigration each year from 1820 to 1923 by country of origin.

Table 2 shows, by years, from 1820 to 1923, the total immigration, and group totals for northern and western Europe, for southern and eastern Europe, and for all other countries combined, together with the percentage of immigrants falling each year within each of these three groups.

Table 3 shows, by years, from 1899 to 1923, the immigrants of each race, together with race group totals, following closely the classification used in Table 2. In studying these tables it must be borne in

mind that the country of origin—that is, the country from which the immigrant comes—does not always indicate his race, nor does the race of the immigrant always indicate the country from which the immigrant comes. Figures are not available earlier than 1899.

Table 4 shows by race the immigration and emigration in the period 1908 to 1923, inclusive.

Table 5 gives by race, from 1899 to 1922, the alien immigrants admitted, and shows in comparison the aliens debarred and the aliens deported. The aliens debarred are divided into two groups—those debarred for physical, mental, or moral reasons, and those debarred for all other reasons.

Chart 1 is drawn from Table 2 and shows the change year by year from 1820 to 1923 in the total immigration, and the immigration from the two principal regions, northern and western Europe and southern and eastern Europe. In this chart the figures given in Table 2 have been adjusted to show equivalent figures for a full year more or less than a year's figures appeared in the table, and also adjusted to distribute the immigrants of unknown country of origin under the three known groups in proportion to the numbers reported for such groups.

Chart 2 is drawn from Table 1 and shows the immigration year by year from 1820 to 1923 coming from 10 of the principal countries. In this chart no adjustment has been undertaken to distribute the immigrants of unknown country of origin.

Chart 3 shows by years from 1899 to 1923 the extent of immigration of all races combined, and for two groups, the first constituting the people of northern and western European stock and the second the southern and eastern European region.

Chart 4 is similar in form to Chart 2. It shows the immigrants of the 10 principal races coming year by year from 1899 to 1923.

Chart 5 illustrates the nativity change in the population of New England during the past half century. The chart shows for Connecticut the growth of the population as a whole between 1870 and 1920, and the percentage of native and foreign born elements in each of the two years.

The magnitude of the problem of the alien in America, both as it affects America and as it affects the alien was clearly demonstrated by the reports of the last census. We have a total white population of 94,820,915, of which number 58,421,957 are of native-born parentage. Of the remainder 15,694,539 are of foreign-born parentage, that is, both parents were born abroad; 6,991,665 are of mixed parentage, that is, one parent was born abroad; and 13,712,754 are foreign born. This means that we have 36,398,958 who, in the present or past generation, are or have been linked with a foreign allegiance. The figures are even more striking when we consider our urban popu-

lation. There are 24,556,729 native-born whites of native parents in our cities. But there are 26,063,355 whites of foreign birth or foreign stock in these cities, and of these 10,356,983 are foreign born.

Of our nearly 14,000,000 foreign-born whites less than half are naturalized citizens. Our records indicate that the average alien is in this country 10 years before he assumes the duties and responsibilities of citizenship. The reasons and remedy for this will be taken up later in discussing the alien in America.

But fully as important as the quantity of the immigrant body coming to this country in its effect upon the life of America to-day and to-morrow is the quality of the individuals who go to make up this great group in our population. During the past 40 years our laws have made every effort to bar from this country those who would lower our mental, moral, or physical standard. For the past 20 years the law has denied admission to every diseased person, every imbecile, idiot, feeble-minded person, insane person, criminals, and all of those likely to become public charges. Despite every effort to enforce the law we find an extraordinary representation of these classes in our alien population. A recent survey made for the Committee on Immigration and Naturalization of the House of Representatives covered our jails, almshouses, insane asylums, and other public institutions. The scientist who made the survey investigated State institutions housing the feeble-minded, the insane, the criminal, the epileptic, the inebriate, the chronically diseased, the blind, the deaf, the deformed, the crippled, and the dependent. He found that while the foreign born make up 14.70 per cent of the Nation's population, they furnish 20.63 per cent of the population of these institutions housing our social inadequates. He calculated that 44.09 per cent of the inmates of these institutions were either foreign born or of foreign stock.

In this connection there are also available the intelligence tests applied to our soldiers during the World War which have been worked out to index the intelligence rating of our whole white population, including the foreign born, and of the white foreign born as a separate group. A table showing the result of these tests follows.

Estimate of comparative intelligence of the total white and foreign-born populations of the United States.

[Basis: Psychological examination of 94,004 white men selected at random, but pro rata by States, in the United States Army, of whom 12,407 were foreign born (Ch. 6, pp. 682-699, Psy. Ex. in U. S. Army, Mem. XV, Nat. Acad. Sci., 1921).]

Intelligence grade (standard psychological examinations in the United States Army).	Letter grade.	Sample actual psychological examination.		Estimated intelligence grade distribution of the whole white population (based upon the sample record in the preceding columns).				Intelligence frequency of foreign-born persons compared with total white population (total white, 100 per cent).	
		White draft, 94,004 men (per cent distribution). (1)	Foreign born, 12,407 men (per cent distribution). (2)	Whole white population, 1920.		Foreign-born white population, 1920.			
				Number.	Per cent. (4)	Number.	Per cent. (6)		
									(3)
1. Very superior.....	A	4.1	1.1	3,887,657	4.1	150,840	1.1	26.82	High type of leader "when backed by other necessary qualities" capable of high-class creative work. First-class executive work. The responsible worker. Good common worker. Ordinary worker under direction. Slow in adaptability; supervision needed. Much supervision needed. Border-line intelligence. Doubtful whether value of labor equals cost of supervision.
2. Superior.....	B	8.0	2.9	7,585,673	8.0	397,670	2.9	36.25	
3. High average.....	C+	15.1	7.3	14,317,958	15.1	1,001,031	7.3	48.34	
4. Average.....	C	23.7	28.6	22,472,557	23.7	3,647,593	28.6	112.23	
5. Low average.....	C-	25.0	16.5	23,705,229	25.0	2,262,604	16.5	66.00	
6. Inferior.....	D	17.0	30.8	16,119,556	17.0	4,223,528	30.8	181.17	
7. Very inferior.....	D-E	7.1	14.8	6,732,235	7.1	2,029,488	14.8	208.45	
Total.....				94,820,915		13,712,754			

NOTES.—The 12,407 foreign born of column 2 are included in the 94,004 white draft of column 1. Column 3, as an estimate only, distributes the 94,820,915 total white population (men, women, and children) of the United States (census 1920) according to the distribution of the sample of 94,004 tested white men recorded in column 1. Column 5, similarly, as an estimate of their intelligence, distributes the 13,712,754 foreign-born white population of the United States (census 1920) according to the distribution of the sample of 12,407 tested foreign-born men recorded in column 2. Column 7 shows the relative frequency of the total white and the foreign-born white drafts (column 2×100÷column 1) in each of the 7 intelligence grades. Columns 3, 5, and 7 are calculated estimates based upon the most accurate and extensive studies yet made in this particular field of the measurement of national intelligence.

The figures indicate that we have in America to-day 6,253,016 white aliens, or not much less than half of our foreign-born white population, who are classified as inferior or very inferior in intelligence.

Further light on this phase of the alien problem is furnished by the following letter, supplied to me by the Surgeon General of the United States Public Health Service, at my request:

TREASURY DEPARTMENT,
UNITED STATES PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE,
Boston, Mass., October 2, 1923.

THE SURGEON GENERAL UNITED STATES PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE,
Washington, D. C.

SIR: I have the honor to acknowledge receipt of bureau telegram of October 2, 1923, requesting data for use by the Secretary of Labor relative to mental disorders occurring among alien and foreign-born persons living in the United States.

The rate of mental diseases under care in public institutions has increased during the past 40 years from 81.6 per 100,000 to 220.1 per 100,000 in the general population. This enormous increase in the number of persons requiring care in public institutions has entailed a great outlay of public funds for buildings and equipment and an increased yearly expenditure for their care. The cost of caring for 250,000 insane persons each year is of sufficient magnitude to interest the general public, the taxpayer, the legislator, and the practical administrator who is concerned with an adequate solution of this problem. The enormous increase in the population emigrating from Europe, 40 per cent of which came during the past 20 years and 70 per cent during the past 40 years, has complicated the problem.

Statistical studies dealing with the admission of persons to public institutions for the care of mental patients show that a fair proportion of them are foreign born. The rate of mental diseases among foreign-born persons living in the United States and native born of foreign or mixed parentage is higher than the rate for such disorders among native born of native parentage. The corrected rate for the foreign born in 1920 was 74.8 per 100,000; for native of foreign or mixed parentage, 58.6 per 100,000; whereas the rate for native born of native parentage was 48.5 per 100,000.

Studies conducted by the service dealing with the admission over a period of 32 years of persons to public and private licensed institutions for the care of mental patients in the State of New York, show that for each 100 admissions during that period 44.8 were foreign born. The proportion of foreign born for any one year never fell below 25 per cent and was never more than 30 per cent. During recent years the proportion of mental disorders among northern and western Europeans has shown a gradual decline, but they have never been less than 25 per cent. Obviously, the proportion of foreign born from southern and eastern Europe has shown a gradual increase associated with an increase in the population from that source. It is quite significant that one-half of the admissions to State hospitals of New York are foreign-born persons, whereas only one-quarter of the general population are foreign born.

Comparing the proportion of foreign-born persons living in the general population and the proportion of foreign born in admission to public institutions, it is found that the greatest number of mental disorders occur in those persons who have lived in the United States 20 years or more. The second 5-year residence seems to be a more crucial period for the occurrence of mental diseases than the first 5-year residence.

From the standpoint of racial stocks living in America, some interesting observations have been made by the service on admissions to public institutions. Mental disorders incident to old age are more prone to develop in the Teutonic and Celtic stocks living in America. The mixed racial stocks in America also rank high in this respect. Mental diseases resulting from syphilis occur in high proportion among the Chinese, the Negro, the Lettic, Finnic, and Chaldaic stocks, the latter including the Jew. The same disorders occur in lower proportion among the so-called Anglo-American stock. The Malayic stock in America is more prone to develop mental disorders associated with Traumatism. The Celtic stock living in America is more prone to develop mental diseases associated with intoxications than any other racial groups. The Irish rank first in disorders due to alcohol, but the Slavonic stock is also high in this respect. The Hellenic and the Chaldaic, including the Jew, show the lowest ratio of intoxication disorders. Malignant mental diseases that are associated with faulty mental adjustment occur much more frequently among those people comprising the new immigration.

The analysis of factors productive of situations such as these is an exceedingly important activity leading to the conservation of mental health and the prevention of mental diseases. The situation is probably the result of two factors—the conditions under which the foreign stock are required to live in America and also the character of the individual immigrant who is allowed admission to this country. Under the immigration law individuals with frank mental disorders are excluded from landing. Of greater significance, however, is the inauguration of measures which will exclude those individuals whose doubtful mental equipment does not quite bring them into the class of those subject to deportation under existing law and yet allows them to become either a real or potential danger to the country. These would be excluded through modifications of the immigration laws imposing penalties sufficient to insure as unprofitable the transportation of mentally disordered persons and those doubtful cases who are of greater potential danger to our country's welfare.

Respectfully,

WALTER L. TREADWAY,

Surgeon, Medical Officer in Charge.

Of course, not all of this great group of alien social inadequates which finds its way to our jails and penitentiaries, our insane asylums, and our homes for the feeble-minded comes from legitimate immigration. Perhaps most of it comes through the underground network of devious paths by which aliens are smuggled into this country. We have found them coming by every means of transportation and in every guise. Our thousands of miles of land border and our vast expanse of coast line, with its myriad harbors, offer wealth of opportunity to the hardy outlaw who, tempted by the vast profit in the traffic, engages to pour the poison of illicit immigration into the life stream of American civilization.

The actual number of surreptitious entries is difficult to determine. It has, however, been conservatively estimated that 100 individuals a day come into the United States in violation of the law, and many well-informed people place the figure at three times that. We find them waiting by the thousand in Cuba for an opportunity to make a dash by motor boat for the coast of Florida. We find them sneak-

ing over unguarded points on the Mexican border by the hundred and losing themselves in the great Southwest. We find them coming by automobiles, by railroad, and by steamship, by motor boat, and by sailing vessel. We find them running side by side with the illicit traffic in rum and with the vile commerce in outlawed narcotic drugs. There is no means of entering the United States which is not utilized in this illegal traffic. Not long ago 15 young Chinese were found close to starvation and utterly bewildered aboard a sponge-fishing sloop off the port of New York. They had contracted with the captain and crew of the sponger to smuggle them into the United States. In a free-for-all fight with hatchets and revolvers the Chinese had killed off the crew, losing five of their own number in the bloody struggle. Then they calmly sat down to wait, unable to navigate the vessel. They were rescued by a pilot boat.

One means of smuggling immigrants is devised as an evasion of the law enacted to protect the rights of American seamen. Under this law a foreign sailor entering an American port and leaving his vessel may remain in the United States 60 days while he seeks a berth in an outbound ship. It is literally true that there are thousands of so-called foreign seamen in the United States to-day working at any trade but the sea. They simply leave their ships and are lost sight of. Hundreds of them were found not long ago at work in an eastern industrial plant. It is easy for any alien desiring to come to the United States to obtain a berth as a sailor—for a consideration—and to forget that he is a seaman when the vessel reaches this country.

The immigration authorities estimate that there are between 2,000 and 3,000 Chinese in the city of New York alone who are in this country illegally and who came as shore-leave seamen. At times the figure has been placed as high as 5,000. With the present immigration law and organization, it is almost impossible to round them up. Even could we get them together, it would cost approximately a million dollars to deport 5,000 people to China.

It is plain to me that it would take a border patrol equal to one man to every yard of our thousands of miles of land border and our seacoast to put an end to the smuggling of aliens. If we put all the Army and Navy and every State and municipal police force in the country at the task, I hardly believe we could stop the trade. The system will not work.

No one can contend that many desirable aliens come to America surreptitiously. We get few real, upstanding citizens out of the dregs of humanity that crowds itself into the holds of smugglers' ships—fit company for illicit rum and outlawed drugs. What kind of an American can be made out of the individual whose first experience of America comes through defiance of her laws and evasion

of her authority? He comes through crime and he brings crime with him. He is an outlaw from the day he lands. He has learned that law and order is to be flouted in the United States.

An alien code.

We are faced by the necessity of providing new legislation covering immigration. The present so-called quota law will expire by limitation at the end of the present fiscal year, and legislation must be provided to extend or replace it. The administration of our present immigration laws and the laws relating to the naturalization of aliens is complicated by the patchwork nature of past legislation. These laws have grown up piecemeal over a century of time and have been enacted under all sorts of varying conditions. The laborer of some races of people is wholly excluded and the representatives of these peoples of classes other than laborers are probably not intended to become permanent residents of the country. All people from certain sections of the Old World are excluded entirely because of geography. It is apparent that the time has come for the complete revision of these laws and for providing a systematic codification of all laws concerning the relations of the United States to the alien within our gates from the time he applies for admission to this country until he either becomes a naturalized citizen, departs the country, or is otherwise dealt with in a permanent way.

Our immigration laws, so far as they deal with the admissible races, should be based upon the principle of what is best for the United States, what is responsive to our own needs, and what will contribute most to our national destiny. They should be based upon the principle of selection as to these factors, together with provision for at least a preliminary inspection of the alien who expects to become a permanent resident of this Nation before he undertakes a 3,000-mile journey over land and sea which may ultimately result in his exclusion and all the hardships incident thereto.

I therefore strongly recommend to the Congress the early codification of all laws dealing with the alien and the revision of existing laws, with a view of eliminating conflict and inconsistencies and avoiding many of the perplexing and unexpected results which have come out of certain portions of existing law.

The quota law.

While the per centum limit law, or so-called quota law, has undoubtedly accomplished the general purpose for which it was enacted and has done so with a degree of success which few anticipated, it has nevertheless in its enforcement created many perplexing problems and has brought about conditions which have caused much suffering to innocent aliens in their efforts to enter this country. The unseemly monthly racing between steamships in the hope of

entering our ports a few moments after midnight at the beginning of a quota year or a quota month, the awful congestion at ports and immigrant stations, the long delays resultant therefrom in disposing of the cases of individual aliens, and the shipwreck of hopes and ambitions and life's accumulations when many are turned back solely because they are in excess of quota—all call for remedies.

Great problems are created along the two land boundaries as well as the seaboard contiguous thereto, due to the fact that aliens who are unable to procure visés of their passports because of the danger of exhaustion of quotas seek to gain entry by proceeding to foreign contiguous territory of the United States and islands adjacent thereto.

While I strongly advocate, and repeat, that Congress enact a complete code with reference to aliens, and while I hope this may be done, I desire, in the event that such a program can not be accomplished, to recommend the enactment of certain specific amendments to existing law as to some other phases dealing with immigration and naturalization.

Specific amendments.

The stemming of the tide of immigration under existing conditions when innumerable European aliens are seeking to emigrate to the United States might well be likened to an attempt to dam a rushing stream by placing a barrier across the main channel without strengthening its banks or providing a reservoir for the overflow. Officers in charge of districts contiguous to the two boundaries are constantly calling for an increase in their forces and have represented that important highways of travel in some instances are being left unguarded. With the appropriation available, we have been more or less powerless to meet the situation, but even with an increased force it is doubtful whether smuggling operations could be successfully combated, since the present immigration laws prescribe no penalty for their evasion aside from possible deportation in the event of apprehension. In actual practice it is, of course, impossible to apprehend any considerable number of aliens who have gained unlawful entry, nor has the appropriation available for the enforcement of the immigration laws permitted of doing little more than actually inspecting aliens applying for admission at the various sea and border ports.

It is a well-known fact that inducements are held out to European aliens, who have been unsuccessful in obtaining steamship passage to American seaports because of quota restrictions or otherwise, to embark for foreign contiguous territory and islands adjacent thereto upon representations made to them that these routes permit of easy entry to the United States, and unless some means is adopted to dis-

courage the practice it is probable that the numbers traveling by these routes will continue to increase.

It is academic that no prohibitive law can successfully be enforced without a deterrent penalty, and it is a demonstrated fact that possible deportation is not a sufficient deterrent to discourage those who seek to gain entry through other than regular channels. Aside from the sexually immoral and members of the anarchistic and similar classes, there is nothing in the immigration laws which penalizes aliens for reentering the United States unlawfully after they have been deported at considerable expense to the Government.

For many years it has been advocated that there be incorporated in the law a penalty for unlawful entry, but perhaps never before has there been greater need for a provision of this kind. I have to suggest, therefore, that the act of February 5, 1917, be amended or that any new legislation relating to immigration which may be passed by Congress contain the following provision or one drawn along similar lines:

That any alien who shall enter the United States without having been duly inspected and admitted by an immigration officer or on appeal to the Secretary of Labor, as herein provided for, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor and on conviction thereof shall be punished by imprisonment for a term of not less than sixty days nor more than one year, or by a fine of not more than \$500.

That any alien who shall, after he has been excluded, or arrested and deported, in pursuance of the provisions of this act, or of any law of the United States, thereafter enter the United States without having been duly admitted in the manner prescribed by this act, or of any other law of the United States, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof shall be punished by a fine of not exceeding \$1,000 or by imprisonment for a term not exceeding two years: *Provided*, That the provisions of this section shall not apply to seamen discharged in pursuit of their calling, but before any such seaman shall be permitted to take up his permanent residence in the United States, or engage in the coastwise trade, it shall be incumbent upon him to report to the nearest immigration office for legalization of his presence in the United States, failing which he shall be subject to the penalty first prescribed in this section. Jurisdiction for the trial and punishment of the misdemeanors herein set forth shall be in any district where an alien may be apprehended or in any district in which violations of the provisions of this section occur. The foregoing is in addition to, and not in substitution for, that portion of section 19 which provides for deportation within three years after the entry of any alien who shall have entered the United States by water at any time or place other than as designated by immigration officials, or by land at any place other than one designated as a port of entry for aliens by the Commissioner General of Immigration, or who enters without inspection.

It is somewhat singular that there is no provision in the immigration law for the deportation of an alien seaman who has abandoned his calling and taken up his residence in the United States after

having been admitted to reship foreign, section 34 merely providing—

That any alien seaman who shall land in a port of the United States contrary to the provisions of this act shall be deemed to be unlawfully in the United States, and shall, at any time within three years thereafter, upon the warrant of the Secretary of Labor, be taken into custody and brought before a board of special inquiry for examination as to his qualifications for admission to the United States, and if not admitted said alien seaman shall be deported at the expense of the appropriation for this act as provided in section twenty of this act.

There are many practical difficulties connected with the enforcement of the foregoing section inasmuch as it is necessary thereunder to hear all warrant cases in which seamen are involved before a board of special inquiry instead of by a single officer as is the practice where other aliens are concerned. This works greatly to the disadvantage of the service, particularly where alien seamen are arrested in a district where there is only one officer, to say nothing of the added expense of operation. It is, therefore, suggested that section 34 be amended to read as follows:

That any alien seaman who shall land in a port of the United States contrary to the provisions of this act or who shall, after he has been admitted for the purpose of reshipping foreign, abandon his calling as a seaman and take up his permanent residence in the United States, or engage in the coastwise trade, shall, at any time within three years thereafter, upon warrant of the Secretary of Labor, be taken into custody and deported at the expense of the appropriation for this act as provided in section twenty thereof.

Another practical difficulty in connection with the enforcement of the act of February 5, 1917, as it applies to the deportation of aliens, results from the fact that section 19 makes it incumbent upon the Government to show that an alien is deportable by reason of being comprehended within one of the classes whose deportation is provided for therein. It frequently happens that aliens, upon advice of attorneys and sometimes upon their own initiative, refuse to testify in warrant proceedings, thereby rendering it impossible to show that they have entered within the statutory period, and this is particularly true of aliens serving time in penal institutions.

To provide for contingencies of this nature it is recommended that the concluding proviso of section 19 be amended to read as follows:

That any person who shall be arrested under the provisions of this section, either under this act or on the ground that he has entered or been found in the United States in violation of any other law thereof, shall have the burden placed on him of proving his right to remain in the United States, and upon failure to establish the existence of such right, shall be deported to the place specified in this act or in such other law.

There are certain features connected with the naturalization laws so closely related to the enforcement of the immigration laws that it seems not amiss to invite attention to the fact that the naturalization laws permit of an alien declaring his intention to become a citizen immediately upon entry regardless of the manner in which such entry was obtained, although, of course, he must wait five years from the date of entry before obtaining his final naturalization certificate. Under the immigration laws, as previously set forth, deportation, where the only existing ground is unlawful entry, can not be accomplished after the alien has resided for three years or upward in the United States. The department therefore is compelled, more or less as a matter of expediency, to make provision for legalizing the presence in the United States of aliens of this class in order that naturalization may be conferred upon them. If it were provided by law that a declaration of intention certificate would not be issued until the applicant had been shown to be lawfully in the country it would be possible not only to apprehend many deportable aliens within the statutory period but it would, at the same time, enable this service to collect the head tax in cases where the presence of such aliens in the country is legalized, the solicitor of the department having ruled that head tax can not be collected after the alien has resided three years in the United States, even though unlawful entry was effected.

I repeat.

In my report rendered a year ago, I called attention in great detail to the necessity for providing proper equipment at the various immigration stations of the country, particularly Ellis Island, Boston, Seattle, and San Francisco. I specifically repeat the recommendations then made. I feel particularly that the Government should construct its own station at Seattle and that the San Francisco station should be moved from Angel Island to the City of San Francisco. In my report of last year, it is pointed out that the cost of overhead of operation alone would be sufficient to build a new and adequate station on the mainland and pay for same in about five years.

In my report of last year I also called attention to the need for more thorough medical inspection at the various ports. I can not refrain from repeating that recommendation with emphasis.

NATURALIZATION.

Another phase of this problem lies in the naturalization of the alien after he has been admitted to the United States. We owe a duty to the individual of foreign birth whom we accept as a permanent resident. We owe it to him and to ourselves to see to it that he has an opportunity promptly to qualify himself for citizenship in this country, to learn what America means and what American

institutions and principles are, and that the means of formally accepting citizenship after he has qualified are easily available. In this direction our present system can be vastly and fundamentally improved.

The naturalization act of June 29, 1906, with its various amendments, and other naturalization acts have been given a test of practically 17 years of administrative supervision by a governmental bureau directly created for that purpose. The present laws, according to experience, have been found to contain many excellent provisions suitable for the purpose of their enactment. There are, however, some provisions which experience has shown to be wholly unsuited to the conditions presented in the naturalization of the millions of foreign-born candidates for citizenship. Such provisions of the law as have been shown to be unnecessary to the maintenance of the sacredness of our citizenship standards, and do not contribute to the purity of our institutions, should be repealed. The provisions of law allowing exemptions to those who do not acquire a domicile ordinarily should be completely changed. This refers to alien sailors, seamen, marines, and soldiers. Among these are members of State militia or national guard, erroneously included by the law in the exempted classes. They manifestly have a domicile and no good reason exists for their inclusion within the shorter period allowed to those who do not ordinarily acquire a domicile. These provisions were enacted during the World War and to meet the conditions then existing. As these conditions no longer exist, the provisions giving exemptions should be drastically modified without delay. That fraudulent naturalization of aliens has occurred under the provision of law referred to, because of the informalities it permits, emphasizes the necessity for modification at the earliest possible date.

There seems to be no good purpose contained in the prohibition of the hearing of petitions for naturalization 30 days preceding election day. Harm is following upon the limitation upon the right of aliens to declare their intention 30 days preceding election days. Both of these limitations should be removed. No petition for naturalization can be heard until it has been filed and posted for over 90 days. Many State laws do not permit a person to vote who has not, as a citizen, resided for at least six months within the State and for at least 30 days within the voting precinct or ward. No alien can vote in some States until he has been naturalized three months or more. In order for an alien to become a voter at any election he must file his petition for naturalization three or four months prior to election day in order to comply with the 90-day posting requirement. Under the present law this petition must be filed four or five months before election day in order to have the hearing

occur at least 30 days prior to election day. The expense to the Government is increased by the interruption of naturalization during October, almost annually, without any material good resulting.

Legislative consideration should be given to the often-urged proposal that naturalization be brought entirely within the administrative branch of the Government and the judiciary relieved of the tedium of all naturalization. Much has been said of the lack of dignity, ceremony, and formality in the average naturalization proceeding as now conducted in courts throughout the United States. There can be no greater dignity or solemnity achieved in the proceedings in courts than is at present observed. The relationship of the administrative and judicial branches is not clearly comprehended by those who offer immediate criticism upon witnessing such procedure. Practically every court in the United States places complete confidence in the integrity of the naturalization service as a whole, and without exception the courts accept the report of the examiners who appear for the Government and present the results of the administrative examination into the antecedents of the applicants. In by far the largest number of courts the formal examination alone is made, which demonstrates the question of jurisdiction. The examination made by the representative of the Government is relied upon by the court, and the statement by the representative of the Government in naturalization causes that the Government is satisfied, is followed by the order of admission to citizenship by the judge. In brief, the administrative action is accepted as conclusive in from 95 to 98 per cent of the cases. Under the reorganized administrative procedure no objection is being made by the Government representatives in practically 99 per cent of the petitions heard. The 1 per cent of cases, or less, that will require a judicial interpretation of the law hardly seems to be sufficient to impose the remaining 99 per cent or more of naturalization hearings upon the courts now exercising naturalization jurisdiction. Practically 150,000 petitions are heard annually, and of these probably less than 1,000 will have a question of law to be determined by the courts, or an average of less than one petition in two years by the 2,200 State and Federal courts now exercising naturalization jurisdiction.

Legislation is recommended to accomplish the enlargement of the authority of the Commissioner of Naturalization, the increase of the province of the Bureau of Naturalization, and such other amendments to the naturalization law as will authorize the naturalization of aliens throughout the United States by commissioners of naturalization of the Naturalization Bureau with the present direction and control of the Secretary of Labor maintained. The right of appeal should be provided for the alien applicant to the Com-

missioner of Naturalization or a naturalization commission which should be created, with an appeal to the appellate court of the United States in whose jurisdiction the alien petitioner resides. This will perpetuate the judicial relationship in all cases where necessity exists for judicial determination of any disputed point of law. These commissioners of naturalization should be given the necessary adjudicating powers and constitute a naturalization court to accomplish the purposes of the naturalization law. The dignity which it is so important to surround the solemn act of divesting an old allegiance and assuming allegiance to the new Constitution and country can become a uniform reality only when Congress authorizes an entirely new procedure and one in conformity with the plan generally outlined herein.

The many thousands of aliens who come across the international boundaries of the United States illegally can not go unnoticed in their relation to American citizenship. Restrictions to their admission to citizenship should be enacted in no uncertain language by Congress. Such aliens in their first actions toward America commit unlawful acts to secure their unlawful entry into the United States. None of these should be allowed to become citizens of the United States until they have resided here five years after their presence has been disclosed to the naturalization authority. They should be made subject to deportation for the period of not less than five years after unlawful entry or discovery of such unlawful entry. A declaration of intention made by them during that period should be declared invalid. They are now making declarations of intention for a double purpose—not only to secure a foothold here but also to enable them to bring in others under the preference extended by the immigration laws to alien declarants. As the naturalization law is now construed by the majority of the courts, an alien who enters the country unlawfully may declare his intention in the same manner a lawful entrant does, and after the expiration of five years file his petition for naturalization and be admitted to citizenship. This places him upon the same footing as the alien who enters the United States lawfully, so far as the procurement of naturalization is concerned.

Some States and communities have for years been supporting classes solely for adult foreigners out of the proceeds of taxes paid by the citizen taxpayers. Plans by which funds for the public schools may be raised to carry on this most laudable work have been proposed whereby the foreign born will themselves support these classes in the public schools. From among the many plans that have been submitted to Congress it is recommended that a working plan be devised through which each alien eligible to citizenship may pay into the public-school treasury at the place of his residence a uni-

form amount, the proceeds of which shall be available for the employment of teachers to teach the foreigners English and citizenship duties and responsibilities; the expense of administering such a law should be included in such legislation. The uniform annual enrollment of all aliens, with a fee to be paid upon each enrollment, seems to be the best practical manner of promoting the welfare of all aliens throughout the United States.

We make careful and exacting provisions for the education of our own children and the children of alien parents by virtue of our compulsory education laws. The opportunities, however, offered the adult alien for education in the principles of American free government, American institutions, and American language are inadequate and desultory. The service for education of the alien in Americanism and in the American language should be encouraged by the Federal Government and should be so performed as to enable us to suppress the vicious teachings and propaganda of anarchy and lawlessness among our alien population. We should enact legislation that would enable us to deport the alien who enters in defiance of our laws through illicit and irregular channels or by fraud, deception and stealth, regardless of the number of years that have expired since his entry. Any limitation as to time within which he may be deported should begin with the time of the discovery of the facts of unlawful entry. Most of these unlawful entrants are physically, mentally, or morally subnormal, and many have criminal records. Many do not apply for naturalization because of the fear that it may lead to the discovery of their unlawful entry, their disqualification at entrance either lawful or unlawful, and their records of delinquency in the countries from which they came. Many are of nonnaturalizable races.

During the war certain legislation was enacted by the Congress for the purpose of facilitating the naturalization of those then in the military forces. This method of naturalization is unnecessarily simple for peace times. Remedial legislation should therefore be enacted, more appropriate to the normal times. This should include seamen in the American merchant marine as well as those in the military and naval forces. Particular attention should be given to those in the American merchant marine in order to eliminate a most chaotic condition existing in the method of issuing discharges to seamen and a form of discharge prescribed which will prevent the use of letterheads of steamship companies some of which at the date of presentation no longer exist, as now is the custom and practice, as shown by the papers presented to the naturalization examiners by those claiming exemptions extended to seamen from the general provisions of the law. Discharges, or papers purporting to be discharges, are signed now not only by the master or mate of the vessel but by others.

Alterations of discharges are of not uncommon occurrence, and when such papers are presented to the naturalization examiners the issuing officer almost invariably is at some distant port or upon a voyage and thereby action which would discontinue such practice is prevented.

Nonnaturalizable aliens.

Under existing law but two races of people can be naturalized, viz, the Caucasian, or white race, and the African Negro. Generally speaking, our laws not only deny the privilege of naturalization to all other races of men but also bar as immigrants the people from the lands populated by these other races. Our immigration statutes provide for a barred zone. People living within that zone—which covers, roughly, western and southern Asia, with certain described exceptions, and some of the Asiatic islands—may not enter the United States for the purpose of becoming permanent residents. We also bar from the privilege of becoming permanent residents or citizens the Chinese and Japanese. Outside of the excepted classes of these countries and races the natives thereof or the peoples of the races inhabiting them may not be admitted to the United States at all. Exceptions for all barred zones and barred races and countries are made in behalf of government officers, members of learned professions, merchants, travelers for curiosity or pleasure, and in some instances some additional specified classes.

Section 3 of the immigration law, describing and defining the barred zone, specifically provides that the exempts of that zone must, while in the United States, maintain their status, and that their wives and minor children must similarly maintain while in the United States a status placing them within the excepted classes, and that failure to maintain such a status shall subject them to deportation. In the case of the Chinese exclusion law and the Japanese gentlemen's agreement that requirement does not appear, although it would seem that the clear intent of Congress was that the exempts of these countries and races shall maintain their exempt status and be subject to deportation when that status is lost. By the decisions of courts, however, a different rule now obtains as to the Chinese and Japanese, and as a result great numbers are annually added from the representatives of these races who enter as exempts to the wage-earning population of the United States by virtue of those admitted as exempts becoming wage earners, and their wives and children similarly entering industry as wage earners.

Nothing can be more certain from all the legislation on the subject than that it was the intent of Congress and the policy of this Nation for years that only the Caucasian, or white race, and the African Negro coming from foreign lands shall become permanent residents

of the Nation and shall ultimately, if qualified, be made citizens, and that all other races shall be barred except the specifically named exempt classes, and that these shall not become permanent residents. It would be a strange doctrine and queer statesmanship that would provide for the presence in the digestive machinery of the body politic of a large lump of indigestible material. Another unexpected result is found in the fact that under the provision of the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States all people born within the country are citizens, regardless of the race of the parents. This whole subject constitutes a serious problem in our fundamental policy with reference to immigration and with reference to our national destiny as a people. Corrective legislation should be enacted, so far as that may be done under present constitutional provisions, and an amendment to the Constitution probably should be adopted conferring upon Congress the power to determine what is necessary to constitute one a citizen of the United States.

I refer to all this again by way of a résumé in order more fully to impress upon Congress the necessity for early comprehensible and systematic legislation on the whole subject of the relation of this Government to the alien within our gates and the precious boon of citizenship. Once more I say, let us enact a comprehensive alien code that will make for consistent, humane, and enforceable laws on this important subject.

Summary.

In brief, I recommend the enactment of an alien code, and suggest as the prime features of it the following:

Definite, clean-cut provisions as to citizenship, consistent with our laws on immigration and our national destiny.

The exclusion, as permanent residents or immigrants, of all non-naturalizable aliens of all races.

The requirement that aliens admitted as exempts under our immigration laws must maintain their exempt status while here, and must when that status is lost either qualify as immigrants under our immigration laws, if of the admissible races and classes, or depart.

Selection of immigrants of the admissible races and qualified classes on the basis of our needs as a Nation and economically.

Selection and inspection abroad sufficient to avoid the return to the land whence they came of large numbers of prospective immigrants after they arrive at our ports.

The annual enrollment of all aliens so long as they remain alien.

The deportation promptly of aliens found within the United States in violation of our laws regardless of the length of time they may have been within the United States.

The speedy and efficient Americanization of all naturalizable aliens within our gates and the elimination of those who can not be Americanized or naturalized for any reason.

I am convinced that an alien code based upon these broad principles and carefully framed would make for better aliens for America and a better America for both aliens and citizens.

RAILWAY LABOR BOARD.

When the railroads were returned to their owners following Government operation during the war, legislation was enacted hastily for the purpose of facilitating private operation. Title 3, section 300, of the so-called transportation act deals with the labor problem of the transportation lines. Apparently the differences between the management of the railroads and their employees have been increased and complicated rather than diminished by the operation of the machinery provided by section 300 of the law. The practical operation of that plan brings about unreasonable delays in the adjustment of minor disputes and accentuates to the dignity of a contest petty differences with reference to wages and conditions of labor. The machinery has proved unwieldy. It seems to me that some machinery less complicated and less cumbersome should be set up to provide for the equitable and expeditious settlement of these disputes through well-known and oft-used channels in order that our transportation system may function at its highest rate of efficiency in the interests of the country.

"TO IMPROVE THEIR WORKING CONDITIONS."

In one direction the activities of the Department of Labor should at once be enlarged and extended. This is toward the accomplishment of that provision of the act creating the department which charges it in its relations with the wage earners of the United States "to improve their working conditions." This provision, it seems to me, can only be construed to mean that it is the duty of the department to safeguard the industrial environment of the men, women, and children who labor. At present about all that can be done by the department is to investigate and report on conditions surrounding the worker in any given industry and to recommend the establishment of the proper machinery for alleviating unfavorable conditions. Even in this restricted activity the department is hampered by lack of specific authority and by meager appropriations.

In this connection there is at present one outstanding need. That is the need for protecting from industrial accidents the men, women, and children who work. Several years ago an officer of the National Safety Council placed the total number of industrial acci-

dents annually which caused at least one day's disability at 3,000,000, of which 23,000 were fatal and 115,000 caused complete or partial permanent disability. He estimated direct loss in the first instance of 50,000,000 days, with a secondary loss of potential earning power of 296,000,000 days. The money loss based on this potential earning power was estimated to be \$1,184,000,000.

One of the difficulties in dealing with this situation is the inadequacy of industrial accident statistics. Comparatively few States have accurate or complete systems of reporting industrial accidents. About half the States make no such reports. We could do no greater thing toward the improvement of the working conditions surrounding the American employee than to take steps which will end a situation which can cost 23,000 lives a year and which results in the maiming of 115,000 able-bodied workers, with a huge consequent economic loss to the whole country. As a preliminary step I would recommend that the department be authorized to organize a thorough and complete survey of industrial health and accident conditions in order that we might have the necessary facts upon which to base an intelligent, effective program of health conservation and accident prevention in industry.

About nine million women and children are toiling in America's mines, mills, fields, and factories. Toward them we owe a special duty in the improvement of their conditions. It is vital to the future of America that we see to it that they are protected in their occupations. We must not permit them to be overworked or to work for wages which force down their standard of living. But above all we must protect their moral life from the evil influences which everywhere menace the woman and child who have been forced by economic necessity out into the world away from the uplifting influence of home and family life. Upon them ultimately depends the perpetuity of our Nation. No nation which systematically exploits its childhood and womanhood in industry can expect to hold a permanent place in the world's civilization. It is doomed to destruction. We can not expect women and children ground down beneath the juggernaut of industrial exploitation by the power of greed to furnish strong, virile fathers and mothers for future American citizens. Therefore any steps taken toward the improvement of their working conditions should have especially in view the betterment of the surroundings of women and children in industry.

Seasonable employment.

In the improvement of working conditions generally there is one American worker who is sadly handicapped. He is the so-called migratory worker—the lumberman, the harvest hand, the cannery employee, the fruit picker. As a class these migratory workers are

generally of a high type of citizenship. The bulk of them, so far as can be ascertained, are native-born Americans. They perform a service vitally necessary to the country's prosperity and they work under the most adverse conditions. On an average their earnings are low. Their days of employment during the year are comparatively few. They must finance themselves through long periods of idleness. The men in the lumber industry and those who work in the harvest fields may be seen when their season of employment is over haunting the slums of our great cities, eking out a precarious existence, undernourished, and sleeping in the cheap lodging house. We might do well to attempt something for their relief. Their number is large, for it is estimated that in harvesting the grain crops alone 400,000 men moved through the wheat and corn belt of the Middle West last fall. It has been suggested that means might be found to insure the employment of these men in some other industry when their season of regular work has ended. At present we are without sufficient facts upon which to deal with this problem properly. Here, too, I would suggest a complete investigation.

Much has been done in placing the migratory worker in employment by the United States Employment Service, which has made a special effort to provide harvest hands for the handling of our great Middle West crop. Last year this service placed 140,000 workers on farms in the wheat and corn belt and aided materially in supplying labor for other crops. This service has proved a real success in bringing worker and employer together in almost all of our industries. It cooperates with the States in making employment service free to the worker and the employer, and it has done much to combat the evil of the mercenary private employment agency. Last year it placed 2,156,466 employees out of 2,887,697 applications. It is clear that the service should be encouraged.

VOCATIONAL BOARD.

By virtue of his office, the Secretary of Labor is also a member of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, and I have the honor to be its elected chairman. A great work has been accomplished by this board, and great opportunities lie before it in the rehabilitation not only of our war heroes but also in the rebuilding of men disabled in our industrial life. This work is worthy of the encouragement and support of Congress and the activities of the board should be broadened and extended as rapidly as possible.

WOMEN AND CHILDREN.

Child labor.

It is a humiliating fact and crying disgrace to our civilization that we have not so far succeeded in eradicating the employment of

children of tender years as wage earners. There is no possible defense for the breaking of our future citizens on the torture wheel of industry before they have had time to become physically, mentally, and morally fitted to enter the lists of the toilers. Apparently some States are very successfully handling this problem, while others fail utterly to give it any attention. Unless a plan can be devised for uniform legislation by the several States to suppress this evil, an amendment to the Constitution of the United States may be necessary in order to confer authority on Congress to enact legislation calculated to eliminate from our civilization this evil so fraught with danger to our future national life.

Federal legislation on this subject should, however, be carefully considered and painstakingly drawn, lest in freeing ourselves of one evil we unknowingly court another. No legislation should be adopted which will in any way interfere with the constantly growing tendency toward the training of our youth during their school years in the useful crafts and trades. We must preserve and extend all that we have of vocational education throughout the country. We are now making a real start in our effort to get away from a system of education which trains all of our youth for the so-called white-collar occupations—occupations which can only supply 10 per cent of each generation with jobs. We must continue to do all that we can to dignify the work of the craftsman and to eliminate the false notion that work with the hands is menial and degrading. This phase of our educational problem should not be lost sight of in considering Federal child-labor legislation.

The collapse of Federal legislation designed to meet this evil and the return of business prosperity seem to have accentuated the need for action. Available figures seem to indicate an increase in the employment of children. This is shown in a recent analysis of the number of children receiving work permits or employment certificates during the period 1920 to 1923 in some 30 cities prepared by the Children's Bureau of the department. These cities, because of their size, location, and diversified industries, may be considered fairly representative. It should be borne in mind that certificate figures do not show the number of children actually employed at any one time, but merely the number presumably intending to go to work. It should be noted, also, that these figures show only the numbers who are going to work legally, and give no indication of the numbers going to work in violation of the law. For this reason an increase in the number of certificates issued in any particular city may not indicate a corresponding increase, or, in fact, any increase, in the number of children going to work, but may mean, rather, that the certificate provisions of the State child labor law are being more strictly enforced or have been strengthened by new legislation.

In spite of their limitations, employment certificate figures do serve to indicate in a general way the trend in the numbers of children going to work during any specified period, and furnish practically the only source of current information on the extent of the gainful employment of children between 14 and 16 years of age.

The increase in child labor which occurred during the war years in practically every important industrial and commercial city in the United States and which reached its peak in 1918 began to decline in the late summer of 1920 at the beginning of the recent business and industrial depression. Of 28 cities furnishing statistics on the number of children taking out work permits in 1920 and 1921 only 3—Washington, New Bedford, and New York—reported an increase in 1921, and in New York alone was the increase more than negligible. The 37 per cent increase reported for New York may be accounted for, and was in fact so explained at the time, by the fact that during the "hard times" of 1921 children who were able to get messenger and errand jobs were sent to work when their parents could find no employment. The smallest decrease reported—in Passaic—amounted to 20 per cent, and very large decreases occurred in Connecticut and Massachusetts cities which had handled large war contracts and as a consequence had suffered the largest increases in child labor during the war. In Waterbury scarcely more than one-fifth as many children between 14 and 16 years of age received work permits in 1921 as had received them during the preceding year. In Bridgeport there was a decrease of 55 per cent, in Springfield a decrease of 69, and in Somerville of 72 per cent as compared with 1920. Jersey City and Wilmington, which, owing to shipbuilding, munitions, and steel and iron industries, had given work permits to greatly increased numbers of children, reported a decrease in 1921 of 62 and 65 per cent, respectively, as compared with the preceding 12 months. A reduction of approximately one-half or more in the numbers of permits issued was common, being reported for 13 of the 28 cities.

With better times in 1922 the number of children taking out their first work permits began to mount. Of 31 cities for which statistics were secured, 20 reported increases and only 11 decreases. In at least six cities—Boston, Bridgeport, Indianapolis, New York City, Somerville, and Yonkers—of the 11 reporting decreases, new child-labor legislation was probably responsible for fewer children going to work than in 1921. Five of the 20 cities showing an increase in the number of certificates issued reported increases of over 100 per cent. These cities—Waterbury, Wilmington, Lowell, Springfield, and Worcester—are all ones which had felt most keenly the industrial slump following the armistice, and had had the largest decline in the employment of children in 1921. New Jersey cities, which

likewise had suffered from the business depression beginning in the late summer of 1920, reported an increase in 1922 of approximately 50 per cent over 1921. The increases reported for 1922 were more marked in the latter half of the year. Thus, while the number of children receiving certificates during the first half of the year was larger than in the first half of 1921 in 14 of the 24 cities furnishing monthly statistics, the total increase for all the cities combined amounting to 11 per cent; in 20 of the 24 cities there was an increase during the second half of 1922 over the corresponding period in 1921, the total increase being 47 per cent. Even in New York City, which reported a decline of 53 per cent for the entire year 1922 as compared with 1921, the number of children receiving work permits in the last quarter of the year¹ was 50 per cent greater than in the last quarter of 1921. Especially large increases reported for the latter half of 1922 were in Waterbury (308 per cent), Worcester (221 per cent), Wilmington (181 per cent), Springfield (179 per cent), Louisville (140 per cent), Milwaukee (124 per cent), Fall River (121 per cent), New Haven (111 per cent), and Yonkers (110 per cent).

The latest figures indicate still further decreases, generally accounted for by the fact that factories and mills are busy and business is prospering. Of the 24 cities supplying data for the first half of 1923 and also for the corresponding period in 1922, all except Washington reported increases in the numbers of 14- and 15-year-old children taking out permits to go to work. The largest increase was in Waterbury, where almost eight times as many children received employment certificates during the first half of 1923 as during the first six months of 1922. Other Connecticut cities reported increases of from 98 to 178 per cent. In Manchester, Milwaukee, and Louisville from four to five times as many certificates were issued as during the first half of 1922. Other cities reporting strikingly large increases are Springfield (215 per cent), Pittsburgh (127 per cent), San Francisco (85 per cent), Indianapolis (75 per cent), Baltimore (56 per cent), and Philadelphia (51 per cent). For the 24 cities furnishing comparable data the total percentage of increase in the half year just completed over the corresponding six months in 1922 is 37 per cent.

These figures do not include special permits issued only for vacation employment. From cities where such special permits are required word comes that the number of school children taking a job for the summer months is much larger than usual. Thus, in Philadelphia it is asserted in regard to vacation permits that "the number of certificates this year is far greater than last"; in Paterson the chief attendance officer is reported as saying that "judging from

¹ Statistics for the second half of 1921 were not secured for New York.

present indications, this year's total will almost double that of last year"; and certificating officials in Brooklyn are said to have "estimated that more school children will be working this summer than at any time during the past 10 years."

Maternity and infancy act.

It has been suggested that the benefits of the maternity and infancy act be extended to the island possessions of the United States on the same terms which are now applied to the States. The last available reports show an infant mortality rate (death of infants under 1 year of age per 1,000 live births) of 153 in Porto Rico, of 120 in Hawaii, and while statistics for the Philippine Islands are incomplete they indicate an even higher rate than in either Porto Rico or Hawaii. The rate in the United States birth-registration area in 1922 was 76.

Both Porto Rico and Hawaii have officially indicated a desire to share in the benefits of the act. The Philippines have not officially indicated a desire to share in the benefits of the act, but if the act is extended to the other island possessions the Philippines should be included. This suggestion is worthy of serious consideration.

Procedure of Federal courts in children's cases.

I take this occasion to repeat the recommendation which I made in my last annual report, that steps be taken to make a clear distinction between delinquent children and adult offenders in the Federal courts. The principles governing juvenile courts have been accepted in almost all the States, but the Federal statutes make no distinction between juvenile and adult offenders. United States courts, except in the District of Columbia, are still proceeding against little children by the ordinary methods of arrest, detention in jail with adults, indictment by the grand jury, and subsequent discharge or conviction, followed by fine or imprisonment. Modern practice has demonstrated the evil of this system, so apt to turn a child into the paths of law-breaking and to wreck a whole life. Under our present Federal procedure the prosecution of a child of 8 or 10 years of age who mischievously and without real criminal intent violates a Federal statute follows the same lines as the prosecution of the inveterate offender who knowingly and willfully breaks the law. There is a real need for reform in this direction. The Federal Government is far behind the individual States in this matter.

Women in industry.

The importance of women in our industrial life is constantly increasing, as with it there increases the influence of the gainful employment of our mothers and prospective mothers on the whole social fabric of the Nation. The Women's Bureau of the department is charged with the duty of formulating policies and standards of employment for women. In order to formulate policies and stand-

ards which "shall promote the welfare of wage-earning women, improve their working conditions, increase their efficiency, and advance their opportunities for profitable employment," these standards and policies must be based on very comprehensive as well as current facts relating to women in industry. In addition it is not only necessary to study all phases of the conditions surrounding women in employment and the wages earned in such employment but it is highly desirable to extend the scope of such studies so as to include certain phases of the conditions surrounding them in their home life, for there is great need to establish definitely the fact that women are in industry not only to support themselves but to contribute to the support of others.

The 1920 census gives the number of women 10 years of age and over in gainful occupations as 8,549,511, or 21.1 per cent of the woman population of the country. This means that, roughly speaking, one in every five women is a wage earner.

We further find that there were in 1920, 41,614,248 persons in the United States gainfully employed, and that 20.5 per cent of these were women. However, it is not only their importance in numbers but the special problems of their employment, on one hand, and of their family life and the welfare of their children, on the other hand, which necessitates provision by the Federal Government of a clearing house of facts and policies relating to women's position in industry. The majority are potential mothers, but many are already both mothers and wage earners. Hence the fact that "America can only be as strong as her women" makes it of paramount importance that adequate provision be made for the scientific investigation of the conditions surrounding the employment of women in such vast numbers in certain industries and occupations.

It is urgently important that the basic and current facts as to women's earnings and their social and economic significance should be made available by an unbiased agency, so that general policies can be established.

In other fields questioning has arisen as to the whole theory of special legislation and protection for women. Women all over the country are asking these questions, and they are looking to this department for facts upon which they can depend. The Women's Industrial Conference held in January, 1923, was a tangible evidence of the general interest of women in industrial subjects. This interest has been developed greatly during the years since the war until it has become one of the leading questions before almost every organization of women in the country. If the Women's Bureau is to fulfill in even small measure the functions outlined in its creative act, it must be enabled to extend its work so that it can give the comprehensive and

diverse information which it was created as a Government bureau to collect.

The demands for special studies and for information on all phases of the work of the bureau have far exceeded the capacity of the organization. State departments of labor, associations of employers and workers, national, international, and State organizations of women, research bureaus, colleges and universities, and the public in general repeatedly turn to this department for information and data pertaining to the occupational progress of women wage earners and their economic and social status.

The department is constantly asked questions about women wage earners which by every right it should be able to answer but can not, as the information is not available. The following may be cited as examples:

How many married women in the United States work outside the home?

How many married women working outside the home have young children at home?

How many married women work outside the home to support sick husbands?

How many widows in industry have young children at home?

To what extent does employment of married women affect the wages of unmarried women?

What effect has legislation regulating hours of employment of women on their chances to advance to positions in management?

Have minimum wage laws affected the opportunities for employment of women?

In States having minimum wage legislation has the standard of wages been brought to the level of the minimum?

How many women in the United States work an 8-hour day schedule?

How many women work more than an 8-hour day schedule?

How many establishments operate on an 8-hour schedule?

How many women work at night?

Although studies of some of these questions would be too expensive to consider at this time, we should be in position to furnish much of this information.

APPENDIXES.

Attention is invited to three appendixes hereto, including the act creating the Department of Labor, copy of a letter I wrote to President Harding on the subject of immigration, and statistical data and charts telling the story of a century of immigration in the United States. I call particular attention to the two last mentioned as worthy of very thorough and careful consideration by Congress in connection with the legislative program dealing with practically all phases of the Department of Labor.

JAMES J. DAVIS,
Secretary of Labor.

WASHINGTON, D. C., *October 1, 1923.*

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX I.—A CENTURY OF IMMIGRATION—STATISTICS
AND CHARTS

APPENDIX II.—LETTER TO THE PRESIDENT OF THE IMMI-
GRATION PROBLEM

APPENDIX III.—ACT CREATING THE DEPARTMENT OF
LABOR

APPENDICES

- APPENDIX I.—A CENTURY OF IMMIGRATION—STATISTICS
AND CHARTS
- APPENDIX II.—LETTER TO THE PRESIDENT OF THE IMMIGRATION PROBLEM
- APPENDIX III.—ACT CREATING THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
-

APPENDIX I.

TABLE 1.—IMMIGRATION TO THE UNITED STATES, 1820 TO 1923, BY COUNTRIES OF ORIGIN.

[Figures for 1820 to 1910 are from Report of Immigration Commission, vol. 1, p. 66, and for 1911 to 1923 from reports of the Commissioner General of Immigration. For 1820 to 1867 the figures are for alien passengers arriving, for 1868 to 1903 for immigrants arriving, for 1904 to 1906 for aliens admitted, and for 1907 to 1923 for immigrant aliens admitted. In using these figures allowance should be made for "Countries not specified." From 1820 to 1868, the figures for Norway and Sweden are combined. From 1869 to 1891 the figures for British North America include only the Bermudas and British Honduras, no records for other British North American possessions being given. From 1899 to 1919, Poland is included under

Austria-Hungary, German Empire, and Russian Empire. In 1906 under "Countries not specified" the figures include 32,897 persons returning to their homes in the United States. This year was the first in which persons entering the United States were recorded by country of last permanent residence instead of country whence they came, and since this year persons reporting their residence as the United States have not been included in immigration statistics. Southern America includes Central America, Mexico, South America, and the West Indies. From 1820 to 1923 the number reported by the Bureau of Immigration for Czechoslovakia and 60 per cent of the number for Yugoslavia have been included

with Austria and Hungary. The remaining 40 per cent of Yugoslavia has been included with Bulgaria, Serbia, and Montenegro. The figures for 1920 to 1923 for Poland have been allowed to stand as reported by the Bureau of Immigration. Were the numbers for Poland distributed according to pre-war political lines, approximately 60 per cent would be included with Russia, 33 per cent with Austria-Hungary, and 7 per cent with Germany. Because of changes in boundary lines through the century as well as in the character of the original data, the figures of this table must be accepted as fairly indicative rather than as exactly accurate.]

Year ending—	Northern and western Europe.										Eastern and southern Europe.										British North American possessions.	South America.	China.	Japan.	India.	Other specified countries.	Countries not specified.	Grand total.		
	United Kingdom.	France.	Netherlands.	German Empire.	Denmark.	Norway.	Sweden.	Switzerland.	Belgium.	Other northern and western Europe.	Total.	Italy.	Spain.	Portugal.	Austria-Hungary.	Russian Empire and Finland.	Poland.	Bulgaria, Serbia, and Montenegro.	Greece.	Rumania.									Turkey in Europe.	Turkey in Asia.
Sept. 30, 1820.....	6,024	371	49	968	20	3		31	1		7,467	30	139	35		14	5				1	224	200	178		1	4	301	8,385	
Sept. 30, 1821.....	4,728	370	56	383	12	12		93	2		5,656	63	191	18		7	1					280	184	119			2	2,886	9,127	
Sept. 30, 1822.....	3,488	351	51	148	18	10		110	10		4,186	35	152	28		10	3				4	232	204	174		1		2,114	6,911	
Sept. 30, 1823.....	3,008	460	19	183	6	1		47	2		3,726	33	220	24		7	3					1,290	167	215				1,956	6,354	
Sept. 30, 1824.....	3,609	377	40	230	11	9		253	1		4,530	45	359	13		7	4				5	435	155	404		1		2,387	7,912	
Sept. 30, 1825.....	6,983	515	37	450	14	4		166	1		8,170	75	273	13		10	1					1,373	314	532	1		1	808	10,199	
Sept. 30, 1826.....	7,727	545	176	511	10	16		245	2		9,232	57	436	16		4						519	223	608		1		254	10,837	
Sept. 30, 1827.....	13,952	1,280	245	432	15	13		297	7		16,241	35	414	7		19	1					1,478	165	415		1	4	1,571	18,875	
Sept. 30, 1828.....	17,840	2,843	233	1,851	50	10		1,592	2		24,451	34	209	14		7	1					278	267	1,823		1	6	554	27,382	
Sept. 30, 1829.....	10,594	582	169	597	17	13		314			12,288	23	202	9		1	1					237	409	2,890		1	1	6,695	27,024	
Sept. 30, 1830.....	3,874	1,174	22	1,976	16	3		109			7,174	9	21	3		3	2					43	189	2,107			2	13,807	23,307	
Sept. 30, 1831.....	8,247	2,038	175	2,413	23	13		63	1		12,973	28	37			1						66	176	2,018		1	2	7,397	22,633	
Dec. 31, 1832.....	17,767	5,351	205	10,194	21	313		129			33,990	3	106			52	34					1,203	608	2,263			2	23,412	60,482	
Dec. 31, 1833.....	13,564	4,682	39	6,988	173	16		634			26,096	1,699	516	633		159	1					3,015	1,194	2,088		3	1	26,243	58,640	
Dec. 31, 1834.....	34,964	2,989	87	17,683	24	42		1,389	3		57,184	105	107	44		15	54					326	1,020	1,759			6	5,089	65,365	
Dec. 31, 1835.....	29,897	2,696	124	8,311	37	31		548	1		41,645	60	183	29		9	54					342	1,193	2,119			8	15	44	45,374
Dec. 31, 1836.....	43,684	4,443	301	20,707	415	57		445			70,053	115	180	29		2	53					412	2,814	2,122			4	6	831	76,242
Dec. 31, 1837.....	40,726	5,074	312	23,740	109	290		383			70,634	36	230	34		19	81					405	1,279	2,349			11	2	4,690	79,340
Dec. 31, 1838.....	18,035	3,675	27	11,683	52	60		123	14		33,699	86	202	24		13	41					1,371	1,476	1,514		1	10	1,843	38,914	
Dec. 31, 1839.....	34,234	7,198	85	21,028	66	324		607	1		63,533	84	428	19		7	46					1,615	1,926	1,691		1	1	10	294	68,069
Dec. 31, 1840.....	42,043	7,419	57	29,704	152	55		500	2		79,932	37	136	12		31	5					194	1,938	1,877		1	6	118	84,066	
Dec. 31, 1841.....	53,960	5,065	214	15,291	31	195		751	106		75,554	179	215	7		174	15					1,662	1,816	1,613	2		1	14	627	80,289
Dec. 31, 1842.....	73,347	4,504	330	20,370	35	553		483	44		99,666	100	122	15		28	10					1,279	2,078	1,916			4	4	616	104,565
Sept. 30, 1843.....	28,100	3,346	330	14,441	29	1,748		553	135		48,682	117	145	32		6	17					1,331	1,502	1,352	3		2	12	612	52,496
Sept. 30, 1844.....	47,843	3,155	184	20,731	25	1,311		839	165		74,233	141	270	16		13	36					1,492	2,711	1,029		1	16	110	110,615	
Sept. 30, 1845.....	64,031	7,663	791	34,355	54	928		471	541		108,834	137	304	14		1	6					1,467	3,195	1,840	6		4	25	114,371	
Sept. 30, 1846.....	73,932	10,583	979	57,591	114	1,916		698	43		145,826	151	73	2		248	4					1,489	3,855	1,670	7		4	1	2,504	154,416
Sept. 30, 1847.....	128,838	20,440	2,631	74,281	13	1,307		1,021	1,473		228,775	164	158	5		5	8					342	3,827	1,404	4			8	608	234,968
Sept. 30, 1848.....	148,093	7,743	918	58,465	210	903		319	897		217,548	241	164	67		246	9					477	6,473	1,516		6	12	495	226,527	
Sept. 30, 1849.....	214,530	5,841	1,190	60,235	8	3,473		13	590		285,880	209	323	26		44	4					621	6,890	2,014	3		3	1,005	297,024	
Dec. 31, 1850.....	215,089	9,381	684	78,896	20	1,569		325	1,080		307,044	431	429	366		31	5					1,279	9,376	6,392	3		4		45,882	399,980
Dec. 31, 1851.....	272,740	20,126	352	72,482	14	2,424		427			368,565	447	435	50		1	10					945	7,438	2,265		2	3	248	379,466	
Dec. 31, 1852.....	200,247	6,763	1,719	145,918	3	4,103		2,788	8		361,549	351	391	68		2	110					935	6,352	1,343			4		1,420	371,003
Dec. 31, 1853.....	200,225	10,770	600	141,946	32	3,364		2,748	87		359,772	555	1,091	95		3	33					1,804	5,424	606	42			5	984	398,645
Dec. 31, 1854.....	160,253	13,317	1,534	215,099	691	3,531		7,953	266		402,554	1,263	1,433	72		2	208					2,988	6,891	1,642	13,100				658	427,833
Dec. 31, 1855.....	97,199	6,044	2,588	71,018	528	821		4,433	1,506		185,037	1,052	951	205		13	462					2,992	7,761	1,499	3,526		6	22	334	

TABLE 2.—Immigration to the United States from northern and western Europe, southern and eastern Europe, and other countries, 1820 to 1923.

[Figures for 1820 to 1910 are from Report of Immigration Commission, vol. 1, p. 66, and for 1911 to 1923 from reports of Commissioner General of Immigration. For 1820 to 1867 the figures are for alien passengers arriving, for 1868 to 1903 for immigrants arriving, for 1904 to 1906 for aliens admitted, and for 1907 to 1923 for immigrant aliens admitted. In using these figures allowance should be made for "Countries not specified." A slight revision has been made in the immigration figures in regard to Malta. Following the commission classification "Other Europe" has been counted as "Other northern and western Europe."]

Year ending—	Total number of immigrants.	Number from—					Per cent ¹ from—				
		Europe.			Other specified countries.	Countries not specified.	Europe.			Other specified countries.	
		Northern and western. ²	Southern and eastern. ³	Total.			Northern and western. ²	Southern and eastern. ³	Total.		
Sept. 30, 1820..	8,385	7,467	224	7,691	393	301	92.4	2.8	95.1	4.9	
Sept. 30, 1821..	9,127	5,656	280	5,936	305	2,886	90.6	4.5	95.1	4.9	
Sept. 30, 1822..	6,911	4,186	232	4,418	379	2,114	87.3	4.8	92.1	7.9	
Sept. 30, 1823..	6,354	3,726	290	4,016	382	1,956	84.7	6.6	91.3	8.7	
Sept. 30, 1824..	7,912	4,530	435	4,965	560	2,387	82.0	7.9	89.9	10.1	
Sept. 30, 1825..	10,199	8,170	373	8,543	848	808	87.0	4.0	91.0	9.0	
Sept. 30, 1826..	10,837	9,232	519	9,751	832	254	87.2	4.9	92.1	7.9	
Sept. 30, 1827..	18,875	16,241	478	16,719	585	1,571	93.9	2.8	96.6	3.4	
Sept. 30, 1828..	27,382	24,451	278	24,729	2,099	554	91.1	1.0	92.1	7.8	
Sept. 30, 1829..	22,520	12,280	237	12,523	3,302	6,695	77.6	1.5	79.1	20.9	
Sept. 30, 1830..	23,322	7,174	43	7,217	2,298	13,807	75.4	.5	75.8	24.2	
Sept. 30, 1831..	22,633	12,973	66	13,039	2,197	7,397	85.1	.4	85.6	14.4	
Dec. 31, 1832 ⁴ ..	60,482	33,990	203	34,193	2,877	23,412	91.7	.5	92.2	7.8	
Dec. 31, 1833..	58,640	26,096	3,015	29,111	3,286	26,243	80.6	9.3	89.9	10.1	
Dec. 31, 1834..	65,365	57,184	326	57,510	2,786	5,069	94.8	.5	95.4	4.6	
Dec. 31, 1835..	45,374	41,645	342	41,987	3,343	44	91.9	.8	92.6	7.4	
Dec. 31, 1836..	76,242	70,053	412	70,465	4,946	831	92.9	.5	93.4	6.6	
Dec. 31, 1837..	79,340	70,634	405	71,039	3,641	4,660	94.6	.5	95.1	4.9	
Dec. 31, 1838..	38,914	33,099	371	34,070	3,001	1,843	90.9	1.0	91.9	8.1	
Dec. 31, 1839..	68,069	63,533	615	64,148	3,627	294	93.7	.9	94.6	5.4	
Dec. 31, 1840..	84,066	79,932	194	80,126	3,822	115	95.2	.2	95.4	4.6	
Dec. 31, 1841..	80,289	75,554	662	76,216	3,446	627	94.8	.8	95.7	4.3	
Dec. 31, 1842..	104,565	99,666	279	99,945	4,004	616	95.9	.2	96.1	3.9	
Sept. 30, 1843 ⁵ ..	52,496	48,682	331	49,013	2,871	612	93.8	.6	94.5	5.5	
Sept. 30, 1844..	78,615	74,253	492	74,745	3,760	110	94.6	.6	95.2	4.8	
Sept. 30, 1845..	114,371	108,834	467	109,301	5,045	25	95.2	.4	95.6	4.4	
Sept. 30, 1846..	154,416	145,826	489	146,315	5,537	2,564	96.0	.3	96.4	3.6	
Sept. 30, 1847..	234,968	228,775	342	229,117	5,243	608	97.6	.1	97.8	2.2	
Sept. 30, 1848..	226,527	217,548	477	218,025	8,007	495	96.2	.2	96.5	3.5	
Sept. 30, 1849..	297,024	285,880	621	286,501	8,918	1,605	96.8	.2	97.0	3.0	
Dec. 31, 1850 ⁴ ..	369,980	307,044	1,279	308,323	15,775	45,882	94.8	.4	95.1	4.9	
Dec. 31, 1851..	379,466	368,865	945	369,810	9,708	248	97.2	.2	97.4	2.6	
Dec. 31, 1852..	371,603	361,549	935	362,484	7,699	1,420	97.7	.3	97.9	2.1	
Dec. 31, 1853..	368,645	359,772	1,804	361,576	6,085	984	97.9	.5	98.3	1.7	
Dec. 31, 1854..	427,833	402,554	2,988	405,542	21,633	658	94.2	.7	94.9	5.1	
Dec. 31, 1855..	200,877	185,087	2,692	187,729	12,814	334	92.3	1.3	93.6	6.4	
Dec. 31, 1856..	200,436	183,768	2,315	186,083	13,811	542	91.9	1.2	93.1	6.9	
Dec. 31, 1857..	251,306	214,247	1,977	216,224	12,781	22,301	93.6	.9	94.4	5.6	
Dec. 31, 1858..	123,126	108,381	2,973	111,354	10,971	801	88.6	2.4	91.0	9.0	
Dec. 31, 1859..	121,282	108,480	2,469	110,949	8,938	1,395	90.5	2.1	92.5	7.5	
Dec. 31, 1860..	153,640	138,983	2,226	141,209	11,945	486	90.7	1.5	92.2	7.8	
Dec. 31, 1861..	91,918	79,752	1,448	81,200	10,338	380	87.1	1.6	88.7	11.3	
Dec. 31, 1862..	91,985	82,455	1,255	83,710	7,827	448	90.1	1.4	91.4	8.6	
Dec. 31, 1863..	176,282	162,324	1,409	163,733	11,306	1,183	92.7	.8	93.5	6.5	
Dec. 31, 1864..	193,418	182,809	2,424	185,233	7,626	559	94.8	1.3	96.0	4.0	
Dec. 31, 1865..	248,120	210,911	3,137	214,048	25,774	8,298	87.9	1.4	89.3	10.7	
Dec. 31, 1866..	318,568	275,649	3,267	278,916	36,026	3,626	87.5	1.0	88.6	11.4	
Dec. 31, 1867..	315,722	279,854	3,897	283,751	28,701	3,270	89.6	1.2	90.8	9.2	
June 30, 1868 ⁶ ..	138,840	128,304	1,786	130,090	8,589	161	92.5	1.3	93.8	6.2	
June 30, 1869..	352,768	310,792	5,173	315,965	36,786	17	88.1	1.5	89.6	10.4	
June 30, 1870..	387,203	318,792	9,434	328,226	58,550	27	82.3	2.5	84.9	15.1	

¹ Based on number reporting country of origin.

² Northern and western Europe comprises Belgium, Denmark, France (including Corsica), German Empire, Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom, and "other northern and western Europe."

³ Southern and eastern Europe comprises Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, Serbia, Montenegro, Greece, Italy (including Sicily and Sardinia), Poland, Portugal (including Cape Verde and Azores Islands), Rumania, Russian Empire (including Finland), Spain (including Canary and Balearic Islands), Turkey in Europe, and Turkey in Asia.

⁴ 15 months ending Dec. 31.

⁵ 9 months ending Sept. 30.

⁶ 6 months ending June 30.

TABLE 2.—Immigration to the United States from northern and western Europe, southern and eastern Europe, and other countries, 1820 to 1923—Continued.

Year ending—	Total number of immigrants.	Number from—					Per cent from—				
		Europe.			Other specified countries.	Countries not specified.	Europe.			Other specified countries.	
		North-ern and western.	South-ern and eastern.	Total.			North-ern and western.	South-ern and eastern.	Total.		
June 30, 1871..	321,350	254,755	10,394	265,149	56,116	85	79.3	3.2	82.5	17.5	
June 30, 1872..	404,806	338,957	13,198	352,155	52,487	164	83.8	3.3	87.0	13.0	
June 30, 1873..	459,803	374,898	22,646	397,544	62,099	160	81.6	4.9	86.5	13.5	
June 30, 1874..	313,339	238,205	24,584	262,789	50,422	128	76.0	7.8	83.9	16.1	
June 30, 1875..	227,498	160,099	22,863	182,962	44,460	76	70.4	10.0	80.4	19.6	
June 30, 1876..	169,986	104,077	16,851	120,928	49,022	36	61.2	9.9	71.2	28.8	
June 30, 1877..	141,857	87,388	18,810	106,198	35,632	27	61.6	13.3	74.9	25.1	
June 30, 1878..	138,469	86,689	14,930	101,619	36,835	15	62.6	10.8	73.4	26.6	
June 30, 1879..	177,826	115,682	18,608	134,290	43,500	36	65.1	10.5	75.5	24.5	
June 30, 1880..	457,257	310,624	38,071	348,695	108,499	63	67.9	8.3	76.3	23.7	
June 30, 1881..	669,431	472,734	55,816	528,550	140,778	103	70.6	8.3	79.0	21.0	
June 30, 1882..	788,992	563,213	84,973	648,186	140,707	99	71.4	10.8	82.2	17.8	
June 30, 1883..	603,322	449,179	73,408	522,587	80,656	79	74.5	12.2	86.6	13.4	
June 30, 1884..	518,592	380,728	72,958	453,686	64,808	98	73.4	14.1	87.5	12.5	
June 30, 1885..	395,346	288,402	64,681	353,083	42,192	71	73.0	16.4	89.3	10.7	
June 30, 1886..	334,203	255,483	74,061	329,544	4,586	73	76.5	22.1	98.6	1.3	
June 30, 1887..	490,109	353,688	129,349	483,037	6,999	73	72.1	26.4	98.6	1.4	
June 30, 1888..	546,889	397,123	141,281	538,404	8,424	61	72.6	25.8	98.4	1.5	
June 30, 1889..	444,427	332,618	102,765	435,383	8,974	70	74.9	23.1	98.0	2.0	
June 30, 1890..	455,302	286,147	160,659	446,806	8,434	62	62.8	35.3	98.1	1.8	
June 30, 1891..	560,319	317,834	230,739	548,573	11,676	70	56.7	41.2	97.9	2.1	
June 30, 1892..	579,663	300,792	270,084	570,876	267	8,520	51.9	46.6	98.5	1.5	
June 30, 1893..	439,730	234,556	194,968	429,324	5,233	5,173	53.9	44.9	98.8	1.2	
June 30, 1894..	285,631	148,714	128,338	277,052	8,509	70	52.1	44.9	97.0	3.0	
June 30, 1895..	258,536	141,499	111,610	253,109	5,427		54.7	43.2	97.9	2.1	
June 30, 1896..	343,267	137,522	195,684	333,206	10,061		40.0	57.0	97.1	2.9	
June 30, 1897..	230,832	90,118	131,011	221,129	9,703		39.0	56.8	95.8	4.2	
June 30, 1898..	229,299	79,113	142,948	222,061	7,238		34.5	62.4	96.8	3.2	
June 30, 1899..	311,715	89,947	211,838	301,785	9,713	217	28.9	68.0	96.9	3.1	
June 30, 1900..	448,572	103,719	324,943	428,662	19,897	13	23.1	72.4	95.6	4.4	
June 30, 1901..	487,918	115,728	350,291	475,019	12,898	1	23.7	73.6	97.4	2.6	
June 30, 1902..	648,743	138,737	486,554	625,291	23,349	103	21.4	75.0	96.4	3.6	
June 30, 1903..	857,046	203,694	617,931	821,625	35,396	25	23.8	72.1	95.9	4.1	
June 30, 1904..	812,870	217,530	555,638	773,168	39,612	90	26.8	68.4	95.2	4.9	
June 30, 1905..	1,026,499	263,039	717,391	980,430	45,908	161	25.6	69.9	95.5	4.5	
June 30, 1906..	1,100,735	215,863	808,856	1,024,719	43,004	33,012	20.2	75.7	95.9	4.0	
June 30, 1907..	1,285,349	227,958	979,661	1,207,619	77,708	22	17.7	76.2	94.0	6.0	
June 30, 1908..	752,870	178,138	523,516	701,654	81,199	17	22.8	66.9	89.5	10.4	
June 30, 1909..	751,786	147,664	514,717	662,381	89,356	49	19.6	68.5	88.1	11.9	
June 30, 1910..	1,041,570	202,349	739,154	941,503	100,024	43	19.4	70.9	90.4	9.6	
June 30, 1911..	878,587	202,768	572,218	774,986	103,562	39	23.1	65.1	88.2	11.8	
June 30, 1912..	838,172	161,533	570,130	731,663	106,494	15	19.3	68.0	87.3	12.7	
June 30, 1913..	1,197,892	183,257	896,583	1,079,810	118,059	23	15.3	74.8	90.1	9.9	
June 30, 1914..	1,218,480	165,100	915,007	1,080,107	138,237	136	13.6	75.1	88.7	11.3	
June 30, 1915..	326,700	80,380	121,082	201,462	125,207	31	24.6	37.1	61.7	38.3	
June 30, 1916..	298,826	52,772	94,597	147,369	151,426	31	17.7	31.7	49.3	50.7	
June 30, 1917..	295,403	39,963	93,513	133,476	161,850	77	13.5	31.7	45.2	54.8	
June 30, 1918..	110,618	12,988	18,118	31,106	79,465	47	11.7	16.4	28.1	71.9	
June 30, 1919..	141,132	18,055	6,591	24,646	116,440	46	12.8	4.7	17.5	82.5	
June 30, 1920..	430,001	88,733	162,595	251,328	177,971	702	20.7	37.9	58.5	41.5	
June 30, 1921..	805,228	143,445	520,654	664,099	140,999	130	17.8	64.7	82.5	17.5	
June 30, 1922..	309,556	79,842	138,541	218,383	91,148	25	25.8	44.8	70.6	29.4	
June 30, 1923..	522,919	156,879	153,224	310,103	212,801	15	30.0	29.3	59.3	40.7	
Total....	35,292,506	17,438,616	13,738,332	31,176,948	3,861,550	254,008	49.8	39.2	89.0	11.0	

TABLE 3.—Immigration to the United States: 1899 to 1923, by races.

GENERAL RACE CLASSES.

[For years earlier than 1899 figures are not available.]

Year.	Northern and western Europe.	Eastern and southern Europe (including Hebrew).	Southern American.	Oriental.	Other races.	All races.
1899.....	100,187	203,890	1,791	5,070	777	311,715
1900.....	116,454	314,071	3,114	13,958	975	448,572
1901.....	128,924	348,100	2,330	7,768	796	487,918
1902.....	162,840	464,795	3,771	16,198	1,139	648,743
1903.....	236,105	589,708	5,905	22,880	2,448	857,046
1904.....	247,066	532,969	8,866	20,874	3,095	812,870
1905.....	288,295	705,475	10,692	18,066	3,971	1,026,499
1906.....	269,936	801,054	8,793	16,126	4,826	1,100,735
1907.....	281,322	956,019	8,007	32,705	7,296	1,285,349
1908.....	233,235	512,882	11,178	19,417	6,158	782,870
1909.....	209,418	510,168	20,885	5,464	5,851	751,786
1910.....	276,272	727,431	23,141	6,369	8,357	1,041,570
1911.....	269,701	567,431	24,992	6,407	10,056	878,587
1912.....	232,404	559,738	27,630	7,978	10,422	838,172
1913.....	271,419	889,627	16,587	10,576	9,683	1,191,892
1914.....	253,855	921,160	19,568	11,619	12,278	1,218,480
1915.....	142,168	148,798	16,885	11,306	7,543	326,700
1916.....	127,990	128,214	23,469	11,184	7,969	298,826
1917.....	122,927	127,545	23,822	11,031	10,078	295,403
1918.....	42,892	27,991	21,744	11,954	6,037	110,618
1919.....	71,202	17,628	34,328	11,898	6,076	141,132
1920.....	165,871	184,903	58,032	11,659	9,536	430,001
1921.....	206,995	537,144	36,004	11,962	13,123	805,228
1922.....	129,434	141,621	21,366	11,137	5,998	309,556
1923.....	274,507	162,695	67,513	9,986	8,218	522,919
Total.....	4,863,419	11,081,057	500,413	323,592	162,706	16,929,107

NORTHERN AND WESTERN EUROPE.

Year.	Dutch and Flemish.	United Kingdom.					French.	German.	Scandinavian Norwegians, Danes, and Swedes.	Total.
		English.	Irish.	Scotch.	Welsh.	Total.				
1899.....	1,860	10,712	32,345	1,752	1,359	46,168	2,278	26,632	23,249	100,187
1900.....	2,702	10,897	35,607	1,757	762	49,023	2,095	29,682	32,952	116,454
1901.....	3,269	13,488	30,404	2,004	674	46,570	4,036	34,742	40,277	128,924
1902.....	4,117	14,942	29,001	2,432	760	47,135	4,122	51,686	55,780	162,840
1903.....	6,496	28,451	35,366	6,219	1,278	71,314	7,166	71,782	79,347	236,105
1904.....	7,832	41,479	37,076	11,483	1,820	91,858	11,557	74,790	61,029	247,066
1905.....	8,498	50,865	54,266	16,144	2,531	123,806	11,347	82,360	62,284	288,295
1906.....	9,735	45,079	40,959	16,463	2,367	104,868	10,379	86,813	58,141	269,936
1907.....	12,467	51,126	38,706	20,516	2,754	113,102	9,392	92,936	53,425	281,322
1908.....	9,526	49,056	36,427	17,014	2,504	105,001	12,881	73,038	32,789	233,235
1909.....	8,114	39,021	31,185	16,446	1,699	88,351	19,423	58,534	34,996	209,418
1910.....	13,012	53,498	38,382	24,612	2,244	118,736	21,107	71,380	52,037	276,272
1911.....	13,862	57,258	40,246	25,625	2,248	125,377	18,132	66,471	45,859	269,701
1912.....	10,935	49,689	33,922	20,293	2,239	106,143	18,382	65,243	31,601	232,404
1913.....	14,507	55,522	37,021	21,293	2,820	116,658	20,652	80,865	38,737	271,419
1914.....	12,568	51,746	33,898	18,997	2,558	107,199	18,166	79,871	36,053	253,855
1915.....	6,675	38,662	23,503	14,310	1,390	77,865	12,636	20,729	24,263	142,168
1916.....	6,443	36,168	20,636	13,515	983	71,302	19,518	11,555	19,172	127,990
1917.....	5,393	32,246	17,462	13,350	793	63,851	24,405	9,682	19,596	122,927
1918.....	2,200	12,980	4,657	5,204	278	23,119	6,840	1,992	8,741	42,892
1919.....	2,735	26,889	7,910	10,364	608	45,771	12,598	1,357	8,261	71,202
1920.....	12,730	58,366	20,784	21,180	1,462	101,792	27,390	7,338	16,621	165,871
1921.....	12,813	54,627	39,056	24,649	1,748	120,080	24,122	24,168	25,812	206,995
1922.....	3,749	30,429	17,191	15,596	956	64,172	13,617	31,218	16,678	129,434
1923.....	5,804	60,524	30,386	38,627	1,622	131,159	34,371	65,543	37,630	274,507
Total.....	198,070	973,720	766,398	379,845	40,457	2,160,420	366,612	1,220,987	915,330	4,861,419

TABLE 3.—Immigration to the United States: 1899 to 1923, by races—Continued.

EASTERN AND SOUTHERN EUROPE.

Year.	Armenian.	Bohemian and Moravian (Czech).	Bulgarian, Serbian and Monte- negrin.	Croatian and Slovenian.	Dalmatian, Bosnian, and Herzogo- vinian.	Finnish.	Greek.
1899.....	674	2,526	94	8,632	367	6,097	2,395
1900.....	982	3,060	204	17,184	675	12,612	3,773
1901.....	1,855	3,768	611	17,928	732	9,999	5,919
1902.....	1,151	5,590	1,291	30,233	1,004	13,868	8,115
1903.....	1,759	9,591	6,479	32,907	1,798	18,864	14,376
1904.....	1,745	11,911	4,577	21,242	2,036	10,157	12,625
1905.....	1,878	11,757	5,823	35,104	2,639	17,012	12,144
1906.....	1,895	12,958	11,548	44,272	4,568	14,136	23,127
1907.....	2,644	13,554	27,174	47,826	7,393	14,860	46,283
1908.....	3,299	10,164	18,246	20,472	3,747	6,746	28,808
1909.....	3,108	6,850	6,214	20,181	1,888	11,687	20,262
1910.....	5,508	8,462	15,130	39,562	4,911	15,736	39,135
1911.....	3,092	9,223	10,222	18,982	4,400	9,779	37,021
1912.....	5,222	8,439	10,657	24,366	3,672	6,641	31,566
1913.....	9,353	11,091	9,087	42,499	4,520	12,756	38,644
1914.....	7,785	9,928	15,084	37,284	5,149	12,805	45,881
1915.....	932	1,651	3,506	1,942	305	3,472	15,187
1916.....	994	642	3,146	791	114	5,649	26,792
1917.....	1,221	327	1,134	305	94	5,900	25,919
1918.....	221	74	150	33	15	1,867	2,602
1919.....	282	165	205	23	4	968	813
1920.....	2,762	415	1,064	493	63	1,510	13,998
1921.....	10,212	1,743	7,700	11,035	930	4,233	31,828
1922.....	2,249	3,086	1,370	3,783	307	2,506	3,821
1923.....	2,396	5,537	1,893	4,163	571	3,087	4,177
Total.....	73,189	152,450	162,609	481,242	51,840	222,947	495,211

Year.	Hebrew.	Italian (north and south).	Lithuanian.	Magyar.	Polish.	Rumanian.	Russian.
1899.....	37,415	78,730	6,858	5,700	28,456	96	1,774
1900.....	60,764	101,662	10,311	13,777	46,938	398	1,200
1901.....	58,098	137,807	8,815	13,311	43,617	761	672
1902.....	57,688	180,535	11,629	23,610	69,620	2,033	1,551
1903.....	76,203	233,546	14,432	27,124	82,343	4,740	2,608
1904.....	106,236	196,028	12,780	23,883	67,757	4,364	3,961
1905.....	129,910	226,320	18,604	46,030	102,437	7,818	3,746
1906.....	153,748	286,814	14,257	44,261	95,835	11,425	5,814
1907.....	149,182	294,061	25,884	60,071	138,033	19,200	16,807
1908.....	103,387	135,247	13,720	24,378	68,105	9,629	17,111
1909.....	57,551	190,398	15,254	28,704	77,565	8,041	10,038
1910.....	84,260	223,453	22,714	27,302	128,348	14,199	17,294
1911.....	91,223	189,950	17,027	19,996	71,446	5,311	18,721
1912.....	80,595	162,273	14,078	23,599	85,163	8,329	22,558
1913.....	101,330	274,147	24,647	30,610	174,365	13,451	51,472
1914.....	138,051	296,414	21,584	44,538	122,657	24,070	44,957
1915.....	26,497	57,217	2,638	3,604	9,065	1,200	4,459
1916.....	15,108	38,814	599	981	4,502	953	4,858
1917.....	17,342	38,950	479	434	3,109	522	3,711
1918.....	8,672	6,308	135	32	668	155	1,513
1919.....	3,055	3,373	160	52	732	89	1,532
1920.....	14,292	97,800	422	252	2,519	898	2,378
1921.....	119,036	222,496	829	9,377	21,146	5,925	2,887
1922.....	53,524	41,154	1,602	6,037	6,357	1,520	2,486
1923.....	49,719	48,280	1,828	6,922	13,210	1,397	4,346
Total.....	1,787,886	3,761,777	261,286	484,585	1,464,003	146,524	249,454

TABLE 3.—Immigration to the United States: 1899 to 1923, by races—Continued.

EASTERN AND SOUTHERN EUROPE—Continued.

Year.	Ruthenian (Russnak).	Slovak.	Syrian.	Turkish.	Portuguese.	Spanish.	Total.
1899.....	1,400	15,838	3,708	28	2,096	996	203,890
1900.....	2,832	29,243	2,920	184	4,241	1,111	314,071
1901.....	5,288	29,343	4,064	136	4,176	1,202	348,100
1902.....	7,533	36,934	4,982	165	5,309	1,954	464,795
1903.....	9,843	34,427	5,551	449	8,433	3,297	589,708
1904.....	9,592	27,940	3,653	1,482	6,338	4,662	532,969
1905.....	14,473	52,368	4,822	2,145	4,855	5,590	705,475
1906.....	16,257	38,221	5,824	2,033	8,729	5,332	801,054
1907.....	24,081	42,041	5,880	1,902	9,648	9,495	956,019
1908.....	12,861	16,170	5,520	2,327	6,809	6,636	512,882
1909.....	15,808	22,586	3,668	820	4,606	4,939	510,168
1910.....	27,907	32,416	6,317	1,283	7,657	5,837	727,431
1911.....	17,724	21,415	5,444	918	7,469	8,068	567,431
1912.....	21,965	25,281	5,525	1,336	9,403	9,070	559,738
1913.....	30,588	27,234	9,210	2,015	13,566	9,042	889,627
1914.....	36,727	25,819	9,023	2,693	9,647	11,064	921,180
1915.....	2,933	2,069	1,767	273	4,376	5,705	148,798
1916.....	1,365	577	676	216	12,208	9,259	128,214
1917.....	1,211	244	976	454	10,194	15,019	127,545
1918.....	49	35	210	24	2,319	7,909	27,991
1919.....	103	85	231	18	1,574	4,224	17,628
1920.....	258	3,824	3,047	140	15,174	23,594	184,903
1921.....	958	35,047	5,105	353	18,856	27,448	537,144
1922.....	698	6,001	1,334	40	1,867	1,879	141,621
1923.....	1,168	6,230	1,207	237	2,802	3,525	162,695
Total.....	263,122	531,388	100,664	21,671	182,352	186,857	11,081,037

SOUTHERN AMERICAN.

Year.	Cuban.	Mexican.	Spanish American.	West Indian (except Cuban).	Total.
1899.....	1,374	163	110	144	1,791
1900.....	2,678	261	97	78	3,114
1901.....	1,622	350	276	82	2,330
1902.....	2,423	715	496	137	3,771
1903.....	2,944	486	978	1,497	5,905
1904.....	4,811	447	1,666	1,942	8,866
1905.....	7,259	227	1,658	1,548	10,692
1906.....	5,591	141	1,585	1,476	8,793
1907.....	5,475	91	1,060	1,381	8,007
1908.....	3,323	5,682	1,093	1,110	11,178
1909.....	3,380	15,591	890	1,024	20,885
1910.....	3,331	17,760	900	1,150	23,141
1911.....	3,914	18,784	1,153	1,141	24,992
1912.....	3,155	22,001	1,342	1,132	27,630
1913.....	3,099	10,954	1,363	1,171	16,587
1914.....	3,539	13,089	1,544	1,396	19,568
1915.....	3,402	10,993	1,667	823	16,885
1916.....	3,442	17,198	1,881	948	23,469
1917.....	3,428	16,438	2,587	1,369	23,822
1918.....	1,179	17,602	2,231	732	21,744
1919.....	1,169	28,844	3,092	1,223	34,328
1920.....	1,510	51,042	3,934	1,546	58,032
1921.....	1,523	29,603	3,325	1,553	36,004
1922.....	698	18,246	1,446	976	21,366
1923.....	1,347	62,709	1,990	1,467	67,513
Total.....	75,616	359,417	38,334	27,046	500,413

TABLE 3.—Immigration to the United States: 1899 to 1923, by races—Continued.

ORIENTAL.

Year.	Chinese.	East Indian.	Japanese.	Korean.	Total.
1899.	1,638	15	3,395	22	5,070
1900.	1,250	9	12,628	71	13,958
1901.	2,452	20	5,249	47	7,768
1902.	1,631	84	14,455	28	16,198
1903.	2,192	83	20,041	564	22,880
1904.	4,327	258	14,382	1,907	20,874
1905.	1,971	145	11,021	4,929	18,066
1906.	1,485	271	14,243	127	16,126
1907.	770	1,072	30,824	39	32,705
1908.	1,263	1,710	16,418	26	19,517
1909.	1,841	337	3,275	11	5,464
1910.	1,770	1,782	2,798	19	6,369
1911.	1,307	517	4,575	8	6,407
1912.	1,608	165	6,172	33	7,978
1913.	2,022	188	8,302	64	10,576
1914.	2,354	172	8,941	162	11,619
1915.	2,469	82	8,609	146	11,306
1916.	2,239	80	8,711	154	11,184
1917.	1,843	69	8,925	194	11,031
1918.	1,576	61	10,168	149	11,954
1919.	1,697	68	10,056	77	11,898
1920.	2,148	160	9,279	72	11,659
1921.	4,017	353	7,531	61	11,962
1922.	4,465	223	6,361	88	11,137
1923.	4,074	156	5,652	104	9,986
Total.....	54,409	8,080	252,011	9,092	323,592

OTHER RACES.

Year.	African (Black).	Pacific Islander.	Other peoples.	Total.
1899.	412	172	193	777
1900.	714	188	73	975
1901.	594	167	35	796
1902.	832	160	147	1,139
1903.	2,174	185	89	2,448
1904.	2,386	41	668	3,095
1905.	3,598	22	351	3,971
1906.	3,786	13	1,027	4,826
1907.	5,235	3	2,058	7,296
1908.	4,626	2	1,530	6,158
1909.	4,307	7	1,537	5,851
1910.	4,966	61	3,330	8,357
1911.	6,721	12	3,323	10,056
1912.	6,759	3	3,660	10,422
1913.	6,634	11	3,038	9,683
1914.	8,447	1	3,830	12,278
1915.	5,660	6	1,877	7,543
1916.	4,576	5	3,388	7,969
1917.	7,971	10	2,097	10,078
1918.	5,706	17	314	6,037
1919.	5,823	6	247	6,076
1920.	8,174	17	1,345	9,536
1921.	9,873	13	3,237	13,123
1922.	5,248	7	743	5,998
1923.	7,554	14	650	8,218
Total.....	122,776	1,143	38,787	162,706

TABLE 4.—Immigration and emigration, and net gain or loss, 1908 to 1923, by race.

[Figures for emigration are not of record for earlier period.]

Race.	Immigration.	Emigration.	Net gain.	Per cent emigration is of immigration.
African.....	103,045	22,478	80,567	22
Armenian.....	58,606	8,955	49,651	15
Bohemian and Moravian (Czech).....	77,737	14,951	62,786	19
Bulgarian, Serbian and Montenegrin.....	104,808	92,886	11,922	89
Chinese.....	36,693	47,607	10,914	130
Croatian and Slovenian.....	225,914	114,766	111,148	51
Cuban.....	41,439	24,037	17,402	58
Dalmatian, Bosnian and Herzegovinian.....	30,690	8,904	21,786	29
Dutch and Flemish.....	141,064	24,903	116,161	18
East Indian.....	6,123	2,126	3,997	35
English.....	706,681	146,301	560,380	21
Finnish.....	105,342	30,890	74,452	29
French.....	304,240	62,538	241,702	21
German.....	669,564	119,554	550,010	18
Greek.....	360,454	168,847	191,607	46
Hebrew.....	958,642	52,034	906,608	5
Irish.....	432,668	46,211	386,457	11
Italian (north).....	401,021	147,334	254,587	37
Italian (south).....	1,624,353	969,754	654,599	60
Japanese.....	125,773	41,781	83,992	33
Korean.....	1,358	995	363	73
Lithuanian.....	137,716	34,605	103,111	25
Magyar.....	226,818	149,319	77,499	66
Mexican.....	356,536	68,713	287,823	19
Pacific Islander.....	192	58	134	30
Polish.....	788,957	318,210	470,747	40
Portuguese.....	128,527	39,527	89,000	31
Rumanian.....	95,689	63,126	32,563	66
Russian.....	210,321	110,282	100,039	52
Ruthenian (Rusniak).....	171,823	28,996	142,827	17
Scandinavian (Norwegians, Danes and Swedes).....	448,846	97,620	350,926	22
Scotch.....	301,075	38,600	262,475	13
Slovak.....	225,033	127,593	97,440	57
Spanish.....	153,218	61,086	92,132	40
Spanish American.....	30,408	11,488	18,920	38
Syrian.....	59,260	14,376	44,884	24
Turkish.....	13,147	11,330	1,817	86
Welsh.....	26,152	3,376	22,776	13
West Indian (except Cuban).....	18,761	8,475	10,286	45
Other peoples.....	34,146	15,608	18,538	46
Not specified.....		147,645	147,645	
Total.....	9,949,740	3,498,185	6,451,555	35

^a Loss.

TABLE 5.—Immigrant aliens admitted and aliens debarred and deported, 1899 to 1922, by races.

[Figures are not available for 1923, or years prior to 1899.]

Reasons for being debarred are as follows:

Physical, mental, and moral reasons.—Idiots; imbeciles; feeble minded; insane or have been insane; epileptics; constitutional psychopathic inferiority; surgeon's certificate of mental defect which may affect alien's ability to earn a living, other than idiots, imbeciles, feeble-minded, epileptics, insanity, or constitutional psychopathic inferiority; tuberculosis (noncontagious); tuberculosis (contagious); trachoma; favus; other loathsome or dangerous contagious diseases; surgeon's certificate of physical defect which may affect alien's ability to earn a living, other than loathsome or dangerous contagious diseases or noncontagious tuberculosis; chronic alcoholism; likely to become a public charge; paupers; professional beggars; vagrants; criminals; polygamists; anarchists or aliens, entertaining or affiliated with an organization advocating anarchistic beliefs; prostitutes and aliens coming for any immoral purpose; aliens who are supported by or receive proceeds of prostitution; aliens who procure or attempt to bring in prostitutes or females for any immoral purpose; had been deported within one year.

All other reasons.—Contract laborers; assisted aliens; coming in consequence of advertisements; stowaways; accompanying aliens (under section 18); under 16 years of age unaccompanied by parent; unable to read (over 16 years of age); geographically excluded classes (natives of that portion of Asia and islands adjacent thereto described in section 3); under passport provision section 3 under provisions of Chinese exclusion act; under last proviso section 23; without proper passport under State Department regulations; exceeded quota, act of May 19, 1921.]

Race.	Immigrant aliens admitted.	Aliens debarred for—		Aliens deported.	Total aliens debarred and deported.	Number per 100 immigrant aliens admitted of aliens—			
		Physical, mental, and moral reasons.	All other reasons.			Debarred for—		Deported.	Total debarred and deported.
						Physical, mental, and moral reasons.	All other reasons.		
African (black).....	115,222	3,552	2,157	760	6,469	3.08	1.87	0.66	5.61
Armenian.....	70,793	2,272	539	204	3,015	3.21	.76	.29	4.26
Bohemian and Moravian (Czech).....	146,913	858	117	360	1,335	.58	.08	.25	.91
Bulgarian, Serbian, and Montenegrin.....	860,716	5,735	3,351	632	9,718	.67	.39	.07	1.13
Chinese.....	50,335	2,151	5,793	3,337	11,281	4.27	11.51	6.63	22.41
Croatian and Slovenian.....	477,079	4,824	961	713	6,498	1.01	.20	.15	1.36
Cuban.....	74,260	429	136	87	651	.58	.18	.12	.88
Dalmatian, Bosnian, and Herzegovinian.....	51,269	619	315	102	1,036	1.21	.61	.20	2.02
Dutch and Flemish.....	192,266	1,652	725	519	2,896	.86	.38	.27	1.51
East Indian.....	7,924	3,262	246	348	3,856	41.17	3.10	4.39	48.66
English.....	913,196	18,006	5,024	5,007	28,037	1.97	.55	.55	3.07
Finnish.....	219,860	2,172	218	715	3,105	.99	.10	.33	1.41
French.....	332,241	11,509	5,065	2,385	19,049	3.49	1.52	.72	5.73
German.....	1,155,444	11,991	2,325	4,101	18,417	1.04	.20	.35	1.59
Greek.....	491,034	13,283	2,742	1,360	17,340	2.70	.56	.28	3.53
Hebrew.....	1,738,167	21,119	2,555	3,440	27,124	1.22	.15	.20	1.56
Irish.....	736,012	9,079	1,806	2,442	13,387	1.23	.25	.33	1.82
Italian (North).....	684,905	4,533	1,387	626	6,546	.66	.20	.09	.96
Italian (South).....	3,028,592	41,112	7,228	4,415	52,755	1.36	.24	.15	1.74
Japanese.....	246,359	5,505	2,205	2,117	9,827	2.23	.90	.86	3.99
Korean.....	8,988	123	47	27	197	1.37	.52	.30	2.19
Lithuanian.....	259,458	2,651	281	310	3,242	1.02	.11	.12	1.25
Magyar.....	477,663	3,682	430	867	4,979	.77	.09	.18	1.04
Mexican.....	296,708	24,985	7,068	7,968	40,021	8.42	2.38	2.69	13.49
Pacific Islander ¹	1,129	19	81	3	103	1.68	7.17	.27	9.12
Polish.....	1,450,793	13,702	2,109	2,408	18,219	.94	.15	.17	1.26
Portuguese.....	179,550	1,564	666	285	2,515	.87	.37	.16	1.40
Rumanian.....	145,127	3,157	760	303	4,220	2.18	.52	.21	2.91
Russian.....	245,108	5,736	1,584	1,428	8,748	2.34	.65	.58	3.57
Ruthenian (Russniak).....	261,954	4,778	860	558	6,196	1.82	.33	.21	2.37
Scandinavian.....	877,700	4,609	1,050	1,761	7,420	.53	.12	.20	.85
Scotch.....	341,218	6,864	1,756	1,104	9,724	2.01	.51	.32	2.85
Slovak.....	525,158	3,264	563	420	4,247	.62	.11	.08	.81
Spanish.....	183,332	2,981	2,497	708	6,186	1.63	1.36	.39	3.37
Spanish American.....	36,344	506	398	122	1,026	1.39	1.10	.34	2.83
Syrian.....	99,457	7,148	983	604	8,735	7.19	.99	.61	8.78
Turkish.....	21,434	1,055	333	124	1,512	4.02	1.55	.58	7.05
Welsh.....	38,835	533	179	79	791	1.37	.46	.20	2.04
West Indian (except Cuban).....	25,579	395	108	97	600	1.54	.42	.38	2.35
All other races.....	38,137	2,684	893	313	3,890	7.04	2.34	.82	10.20

¹ Including Hawaiian.

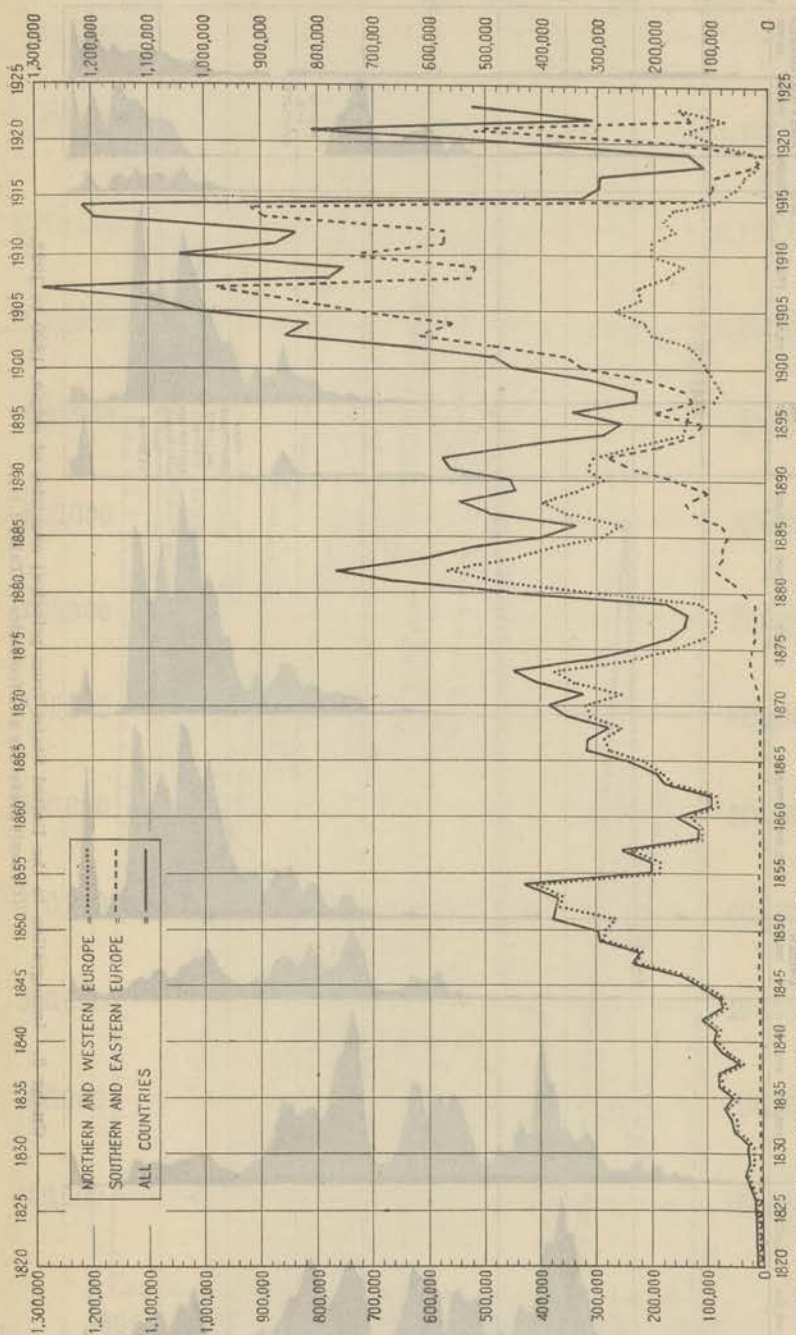


CHART 1.—Immigration to the United States from Northern and Western Europe and Southern and Eastern Europe, 1820 to 1923.
(Consult prefatory and footnotes of Table 2.)

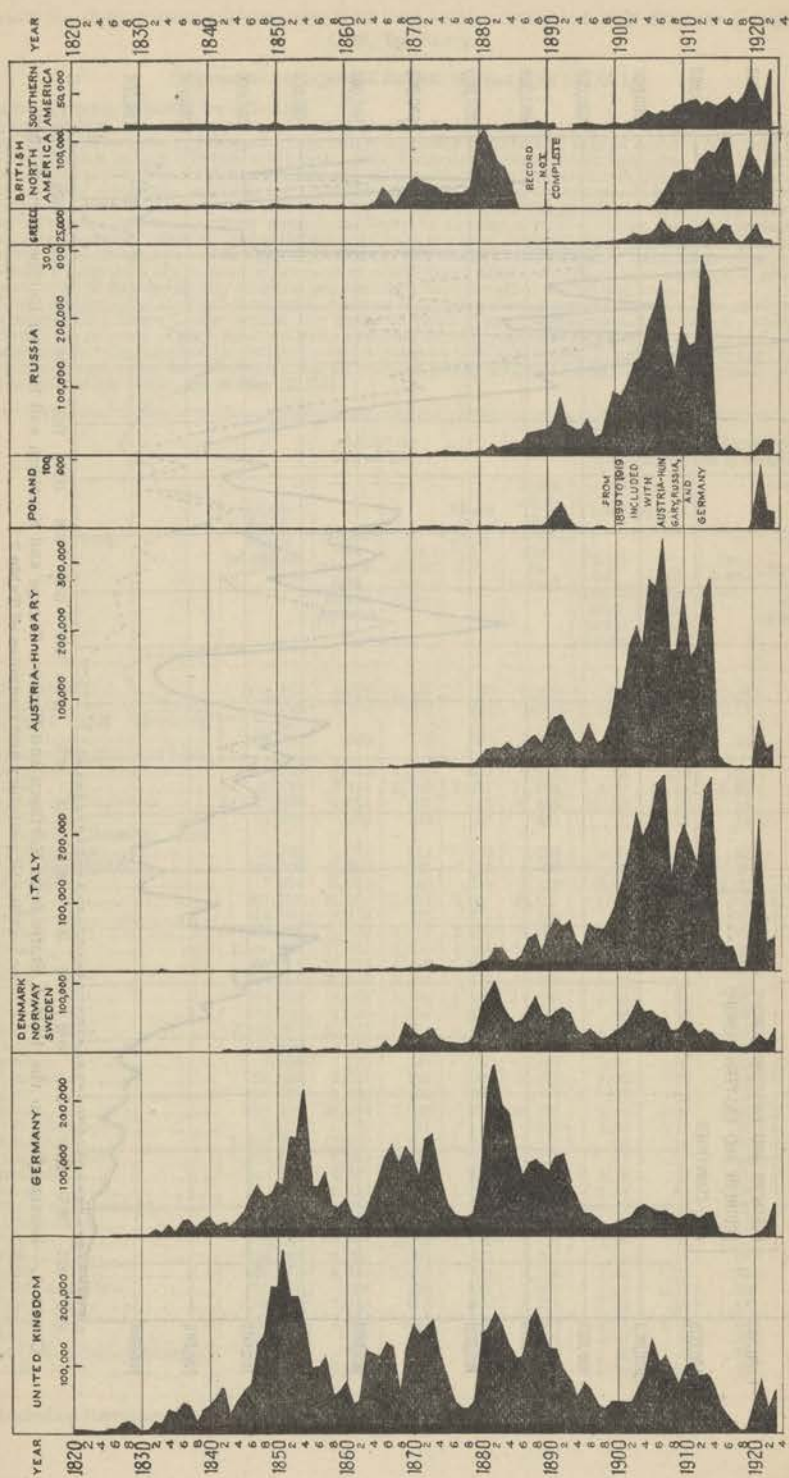


CHART 2.—Immigration to the United States from principal countries of origin, 1820 to 1923.
(Consult prefatory and footnotes of Table 1.)

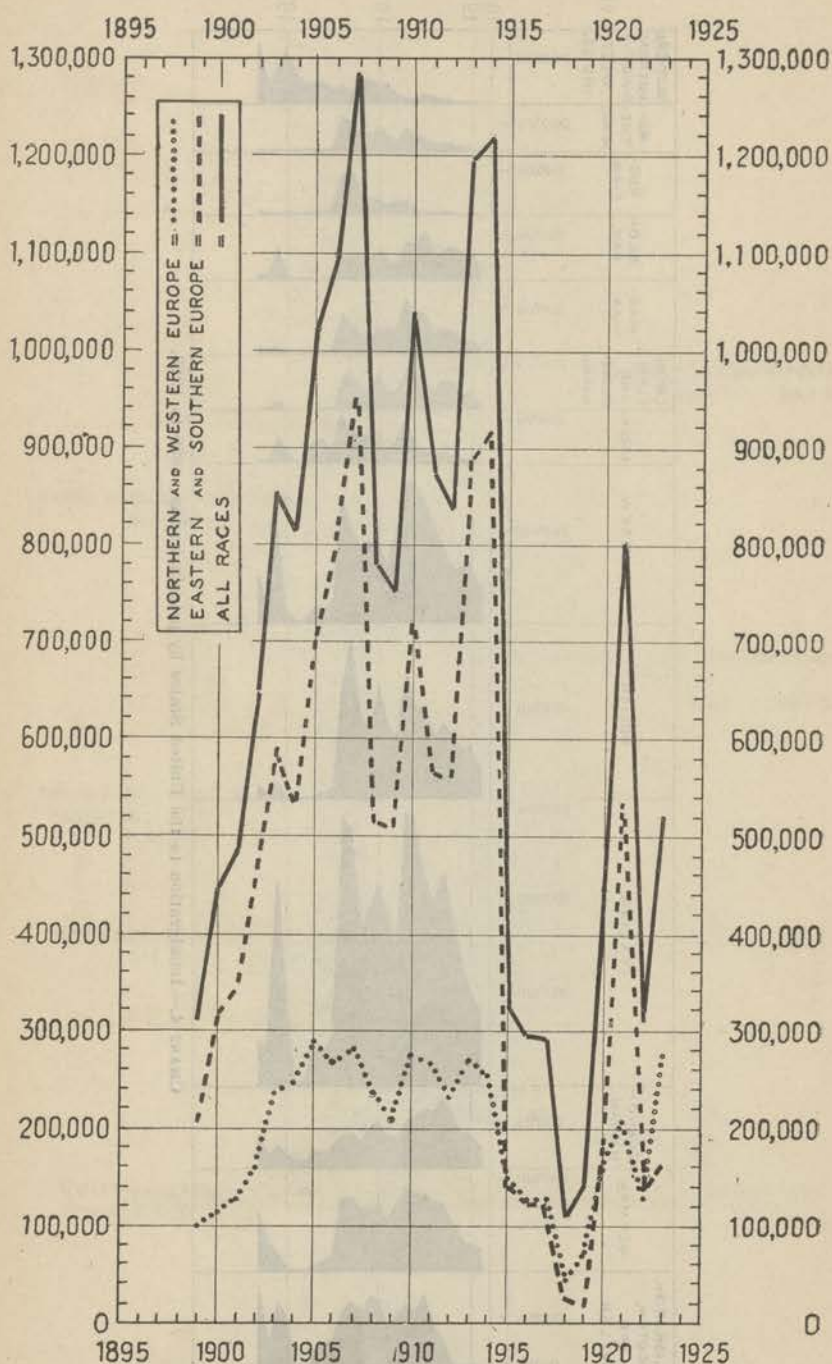


CHART 3.—Immigration to the United States of Northern and Western European races and Southern and Eastern European races, 1898 to 1923.

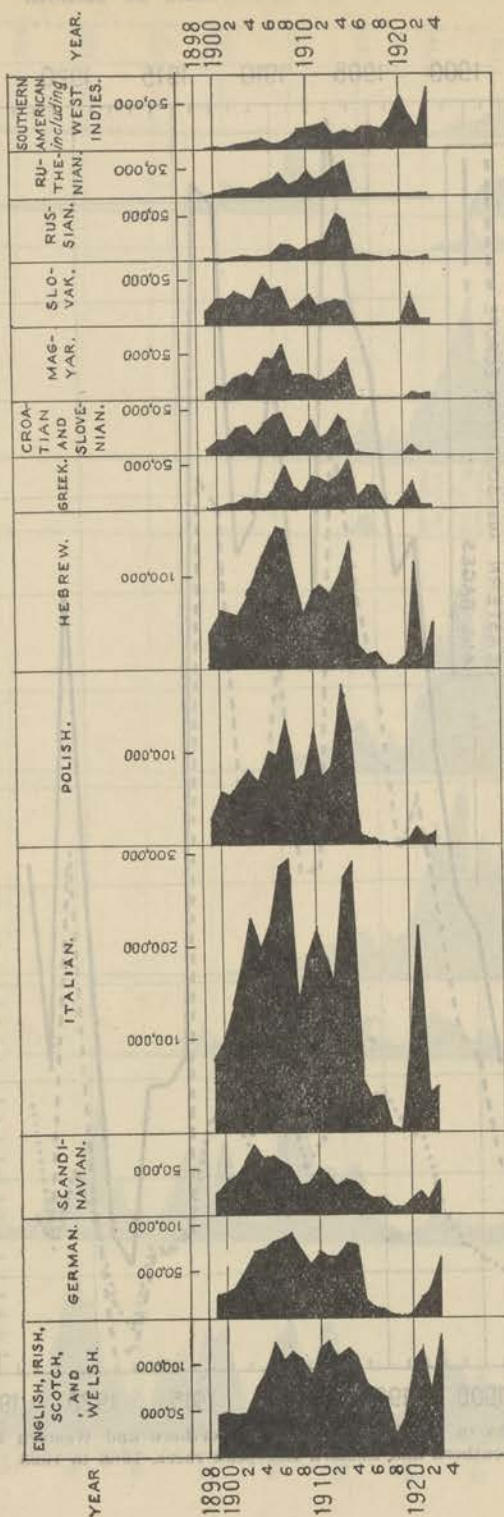


CHART 4.—Immigration to the United States by principal races, 1899 to 1923.

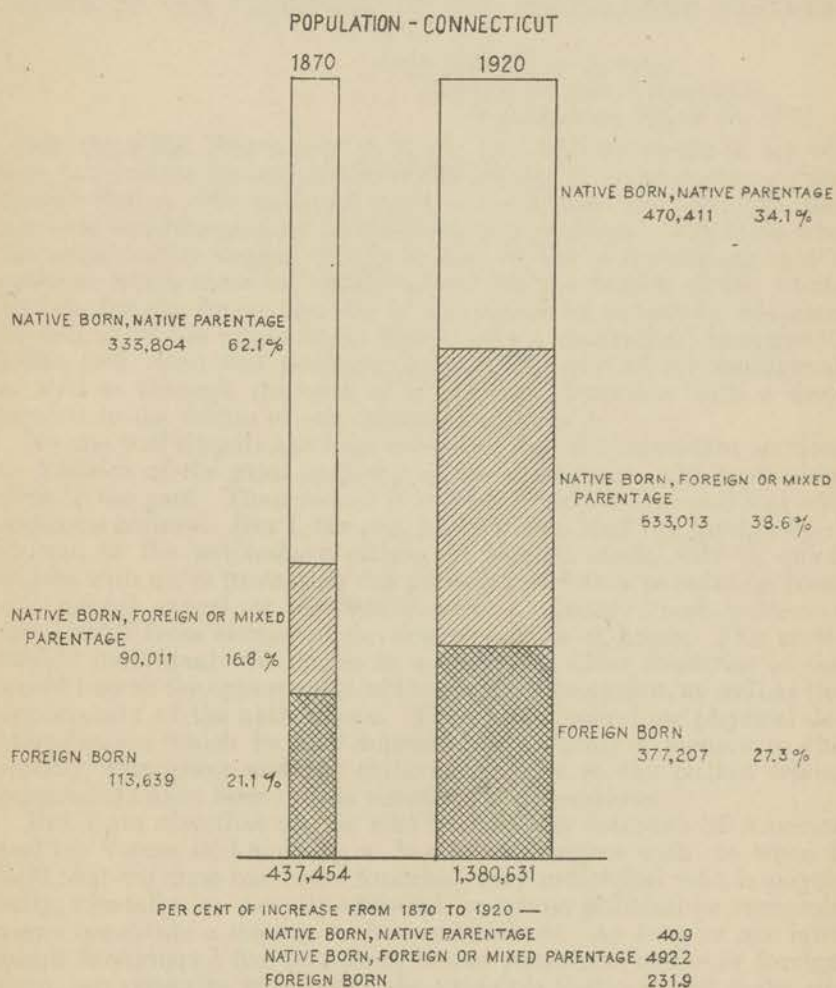


CHART 5.—Change in population elements in Connecticut between 1870 and 1920.

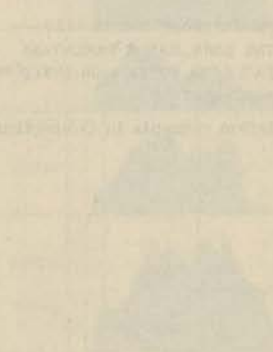
71372—23—10

FOREIGN COMMERCE

1870 1871



1872



1873

APPENDIX II.

LETTER TO THE PRESIDENT ON THE IMMIGRATION PROBLEM.

DEPARTMENT OF LABOR,
OFFICE OF THE SECRETARY,
Washington, April 12, 1923.

MY DEAR MR. PRESIDENT: It is my duty and my desire to lay before you certain developments in the matter of immigration to the United States. We are confronted with the need for thorough and patriotic consideration of the immigration problem. The alien who has come and is coming to the United States is developing into a problem which must be rightly solved for the benefit of the whole Nation, for the future security of the American citizen by adoption as well as of the native-born citizen. As a naturalized immigrant, I can look upon this problem through the eyes of the immigrant as well as through the eyes of a patriotic American with a deep interest in the future of our common country.

No one will dispute the high character and the important services to America of the great majority of the immigrants who have come to us in the past. Their record is written clearly in our political and economic history. But I, for one, am confident that the foreign-born citizen, or the native-born citizen of foreign stock, will be quick to join with me in protecting our present and future population from evil mental, moral, or physical influences, whether those influences come to us from abroad or develop among us at home. The undesirable individual who comes to us from the older countries of the world lessens the opportunity of the worthy immigrant, as well as the opportunity of the native born. The mental, moral, or physical demoralization which he may represent is as great a menace to the worthy immigrant and his children as it is to the citizen whose progenitors have been in this country for generations.

But I am sure that no one who has the best interests of America and the future of humanity at heart can disagree with me when I hold that we must bar from America every individual who is physically, mentally, or morally unsound, or whose political or economic views constitute a menace to free institutions. As long as our laws admit foreigners I feel that every honest American, native or foreign born, can subscribe with me to the principle that we must make admission to the United States easier and more gracious for the immigrant of good sound mind, good heart, and good morals, and utterly impossible for the individual who is tainted in body, mind, or morals.

It is unfortunate but inevitable that in these discussions we stress the evils which have come to us with immigration, while we disregard the good which we have won from it. Like every great human development, it is the evil which advertises itself. It is the rotten apple which shows first in the barrel, but we must not forget that, unless the rotten apple is removed, the whole barrel is in danger.

Part of our present immigration problem arises largely through the so-called "bootlegging" of aliens. I have before me estimates which place the number of aliens who enter the United States surreptitiously at 100 daily. Some estimates run as high as 1,000 a day. At this latter figure the aliens who enter the United States in violation of the law would exceed the number admitted legally under the quota law, which was 309,556 in the last fiscal year. In addition to the smuggled alien we have always the alien who, although inadmissible, comes to this country and seeks through the efforts of friends, relatives, and members of his own racial group to influence immigration officials to waive the restrictions and admit him. These cases are exceedingly difficult to handle. They appeal to every instinct of humanity in the Government officer who must pass upon them. Usually they involve the breaking up of families or the return of individuals, even children, to deplorable conditions abroad. We are now disposing of about 100 of these cases involving children certified as feeble-minded who were admitted under bond during the last days of the previous administration. I am sure you know something of the clamor by well-meaning individuals, organizations, and newspapers which these cases have aroused. But to my mind no public official can conscientiously stretch the law of the land to admit to the United States individuals who sooner or later will become public charges and whose admission will taint our whole level of mental and moral life. The results of such a policy are already upon us. A scientist who has made a thorough study of American mental standards testifying before the House of Representatives Committee on Immigration and Naturalization recently made some interesting statements. He estimated that if the mental tests applied to the American Army during the World War had been enforced against the foreign born now in the United States and all showing a mental level below a standard fixed between low averages and inferior intelligence had been excluded 45.6 per cent of the 13,920,692 foreign born now in the United States, or 6,347,835, would have been barred.

A study of the Army intelligence tests applied to foreign-born soldiers during the war would indicate that during the last generation, the last 33 years, America has accepted nearly 14,000,000 aliens of all types in order to acquire 7,572,857 who are of the type of low average intelligence or above. In other words, each year during that period we have received about 229,480 aliens of the higher grades of intelligence, or nearly as many as the number annually admitted under the 3 per cent quota law.

As a check against these figures of the 1920 census, the records of the Bureau of Immigration show that the number of immigrants admitted to the United States from 1890 to February 28, 1923, from countries other than China, Japan, India, and the Pacific islands amounted to 19,779,995. Of course, not all of these were white, but the number of persons of the colored races who came from the sources included would be too small to make any appreciable difference in the whole total.

Our records of outgoing aliens date only from 1908, but by taking the figures since 1908 and certain steamship passenger records on file for a time previous to that it is estimated that 30 went out for every 100 who came in during the years 1890 to February 28, 1923.

This puts the total number of emigrants at 6,450,656 and the number who remained in the United States at 13,329,339.

I propose that we establish strict but just tests of physical and mental health and that we make those tests under the numerical restriction now placed by law on immigration. I would have those tests made abroad in order that the applicant for admission may not have to spend the savings of a lifetime on a long sea voyage in order to find out whether he can enter the United States. The solicitor of the department is now inquiring into the possibility of moving our whole examining machinery to foreign countries under our present laws. I feel that nothing would strengthen our whole immigration policy so much as this move.

One great result of moving our inspection machinery abroad to make selections among the applicants for admission would be to end the heartrending scenes which every day confront our agents at Ellis Island and other ports of entry. Law enforcement is made particularly difficult when officials are faced with the suffering and sorrows of the unfortunates who have traveled thousands of miles, leaving behind all that life has meant to them up to that time, only to find that under the law they are barred from America, to them the promised land. Men bowed under years of oppression, women whose life has been a continued struggle for existence, children who have known little or nothing of the joys of childhood, stand with appealing hands begging for admittance. Rejection for many of them means utter poverty, a long return sea voyage, and despair. But the law is inexorable.

So long as under the law we admit foreigners to this country, we could end all of these horrors if we could make our selections on the other side and transform our immigrant stations at the ports into gateways of welcome, devoid of the harshness of official delays and pains, of sorrows, and disappointment. America would then be the ideal land of the immigrant, as he has always fancied it. All of the sorrow and despair at Ellis Island arise from the cases of those immigrants who come here despite the fact that the law prevents their admittance. If we halt these cases before they leave their native countries we will end the troubles at our ports of entry. The immigrant would be qualified to land in the United States immediately upon his arrival.

This I call selective immigration. So long as the United States is to admit foreigners I would have our system function to bring us the best that we can get from abroad and to make their way into America easy and comfortable.

Coupled with this I would provide for the enrollment of the alien after he is here. I would have him enrolled upon his admission, and over a period of years I would provide for a census of the alien population by the Naturalization Bureau. We register every American citizen to ascertain his right to exercise the suffrage and we provide for the compulsory education of our youth. Surely there can be no objection to the enrollment of the alien who comes to us to help him acquire the qualification to be an American. This would have nothing in it that would smack of espionage or coercion. It would provide simply for helping the aliens, seeing to it that they were acquainted with the opportunities of Americanism and the meaning of American institutions. If, after a period of years, the

record of the individual showed plainly that he was unfit for American citizenship, I would provide for his deportation.

I am not in favor of compelling any individual to become a citizen of the United States. Merely forcing an alien to go through the formal legal ceremony of naturalization will not make him an American. True citizenship must come from the mind and the heart. To really become an American a man must feel his Americanism and must honestly want to be a citizen. Compulsory citizenship is impossible.

I remember clearly the circumstances under which my family came to this country. I unhesitatingly say that my people would have welcomed the opportunity to be listed by the Government of the United States as prospective citizens. My father was, unfortunately, not an educated man, for he had begun to work for his living early in life. He became a patriotic American in spite of all the handicaps which he faced. I feel that the system I now propose would have given him and his a better chance to absorb the spirit of America. I have given deep consideration to this matter and I am strongly in favor of this policy of selective immigration and the enrollment of the alien. I hold that whoever comes from abroad to degrade the American level of intelligence, of physical or mental or moral life, degrades every honest naturalized citizen.

I have talked with the representatives of a large number of racial groups in this country, and it is surprising how few of them oppose it. It is supported by every patriotic organization, by many fraternal, social, and economic associations, by large groups of business men and workingmen. I feel certain that no racial group which is honestly American and which thoroughly understands these proposals will reject them. I am conferring now with the representatives of several groups and am hopeful of convincing them of the wisdom of the plan. Some seem to believe it is directed against certain races or religions. I have told them that I am not interested in a man's religion so long as he has one; that I am not interested in a man's love affairs, except to hope that he will secure a good wife and raise a good family; and that I am not interested in a man's race so long as he has a sincere desire to become a good American.

There will be opposition, of course. I have been told that it is politically inexpedient to put this policy forward at this time. My reply is simply that we must put the country before party or political success. The clearly undesirables in this country will certainly oppose this system. The anarchists and communists who are here to preach the downfall of American institutions, the destruction of all law, order, and property, will be loud in their complaints, as they always are. The influence of the foreign-born criminals and their adherents will be against it. There will be lined up in opposition all of those who fatten upon the ignorance of the alien and who seek to keep him ignorant that they may exploit him in one way or another.

One source of illegal entry into the United States, which is giving us serious trouble to-day, is the operation of the seamen's law, under which alien sailors may leave their vessels in American ports for the purpose of seeking employment in other vessels. We have

found hundreds of cases where individuals entering as sailors have deserted that calling immediately upon arrival, having shipped clearly for the purpose of gaining illegal admission to this country. A large number of these are Asiatics, absolutely barred by law. These cases are difficult, in some cases almost impossible to handle, with our present administrative machinery and with the funds provided for the execution of the law. I expect to take this matter up at more length with you later. I feel that our whole administrative machinery in connection with immigration must be materially strengthened if we are properly to enforce the law and to protect our people. As approximately 1,000,000 seamen enter or leave the ports of the United States during the year, they form a problem which in point of numbers involves more than the problem of the regular immigrants who, under the present 3 per cent law, numbered only about 309,556 in the last fiscal year.

Times have changed materially, Mr. President, since you entered the White House. At that time, when the 3 per cent restriction on immigration was decided upon, you will remember that we had more than 5,000,000 of our working people idle and that we faced what seemed almost certain industrial panic. Industries were closing because of lack of markets, wage scales were falling in many industries, industrial strife was spreading. Immigration restriction was one of the measures which helped to put an end to the industrial panic. We have come a long way through wise administrative and legislative measures since then. To-day unemployment has been reduced to a minimum, wages everywhere are rising. During the past year, even during the past few months, there have been wage increases in practically all of the 43 industries reporting to the Bureau of Labor Statistics. They have been very general in the basic industries, and have ranged from 2 to 20 per cent. Recently the larger steel plants announced general wage increases of 11 per cent, which will undoubtedly be applied throughout the industry. In the past year industrial pay rolls have increased approximately 25 per cent. Production in basic industries during January of this year reached a higher level than at any time in history, except in May, 1917. Expanding freight shipments likewise demonstrate the completeness of our industrial recovery. Under these conditions, with labor everywhere in demand, it is inevitable that there should be agitation among some for the lifting of immigration restrictions. It is unnecessary to point out the evil of throwing open the gates at a time of prosperity in order to flood the country with workers and nonworkers whose very presence would serve to bring prosperity to an end.

It is a shortsighted policy to seek cheap labor through immigration. To-day, because of the demand for workers, there is a perceptible movement of common labor of a low grade from a contiguous country. Large groups of this nationality are finding their way into our mills and factories. I have talked with employers who have taken on those men and in every case they admit that an up-standing American workman would do two and one-half times the work that is accomplished by the individual of this racial group. That being so, it is quite apparent that it is cheaper to pay an American worker twice the wages which the foreigners receive. It

has been my experience since the days when I worked in the mills that cheap labor is expensive labor, both for the industry which employs it and for the community which houses it.

Our immigration laws in the past have not adequately protected America. They are, however, soundly based on the principle that but two races, the Caucasian and the African Negro, are naturalizable in this country. My conclusions are, Mr. President, that our policy should be clearly defined, that it should be liberal as to the naturalizable races where the individuals applying for admittance are physically, mentally, morally, and spiritually normal and will constitute an aid to our civilization. On the other hand, I am clear that we should absolutely bar from our shores all races which are not naturalizable under the law of the land and all individuals of all races who are physically, mentally, morally, and spiritually undesirable, and who constitute a menace to our civilization.

It seems to me that the immigration laws of the future should be wholly American, drawn by Americans, enforced by Americans for the benefit of America to-day and in the future. This is due to the native-born citizen and to those immigrants who have, and who no doubt will continue to come, to contribute to this country's industry and commerce. I am firm in the conviction that we should welcome to our country only those who come here ready to make their homes among us, to cast their lot with us for better or for worse, to support American institutions, and, above all, to take their place in that family life which after all is the basis of all social order.

Faithfully yours,

JAMES J. DAVIS,
Secretary.

The PRESIDENT,
The White House.

APPENDIX III.

ACT CREATING THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That there is hereby created an executive department in the Government to be called the Department of Labor, with a Secretary of Labor, who shall be the head thereof, to be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate; and who shall receive a salary of twelve thousand dollars per annum, and whose tenure of office shall be like that of the heads of the other executive departments; and section one hundred and fifty-eight of the Revised Statutes is hereby amended to include such department, and the provisions of title four of the Revised Statutes, including all amendments thereto, are hereby made applicable to said department; and the Department of Commerce and Labor shall hereafter be called the Department of Commerce, and the Secretary thereof shall be called the Secretary of Commerce, and the act creating the said Department of Commerce and Labor is hereby amended accordingly. The purpose of the Department of Labor shall be to foster, promote, and develop the welfare of the wage earners of the United States, to improve their working conditions, and to advance their opportunities for profitable employment. The said Secretary shall cause a seal of office to be made for the said department of such device as the President shall approve and judicial notice shall be taken of the said seal.

SEC. 2. That there shall be in said department an Assistant Secretary of Labor, to be appointed by the President, who shall receive a salary of five thousand dollars a year. He shall perform such duties as shall be prescribed by the Secretary or required by law. There shall also be one chief clerk and a disbursing clerk, and such other clerical assistants, inspectors, and special agents as may from time to time be provided for by Congress. The Auditor for the State and Other Departments shall receive and examine all accounts of salaries and incidental expenses of the office of the Secretary of Labor and of all bureaus and offices under his direction, and all accounts relating to all other business within the jurisdiction of the Department of Labor, and certify the balances arising thereon to the division of bookkeeping and warrants and send forthwith a copy of each certificate to the Secretary of Labor.

SEC. 3. That the following-named offices, bureaus, divisions, and branches of the public service now and heretofore under the jurisdiction of the Department of Commerce and Labor, and all that pertains to the same, known as the Commissioner General of Immigration, the Commissioners of Immigration, the Bureau of Immigration and

Naturalization, the Division of Information, the Division of Naturalization, and the Immigration Service at Large, the Bureau of Labor, the Children's Bureau, and the Commissioner of Labor, be, and the same hereby are, transferred from the Department of Commerce and Labor to the Department of Labor, and the same shall hereafter remain under the jurisdiction and supervision of the last-named department. The Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization is hereby divided into two bureaus, to be known hereafter as the Bureau of Immigration and the Bureau of Naturalization, and the titles Chief Division of Naturalization and Assistant Chief shall be Commissioner of Naturalization and Deputy Commissioner of Naturalization. The Commissioner of Naturalization or, in his absence, the Deputy Commissioner of Naturalization shall be the administrative officer in charge of the Bureau of Naturalization and of the administration of the naturalization laws under the immediate direction of the Secretary of Labor, to whom he shall report directly upon all naturalization matters annually and as otherwise required, and the appointments of these two officers shall be made in the same manner as appointments to competitive classified civil-service positions. The Bureau of Labor shall hereafter be known as the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and the Commissioner of the Bureau of Labor shall hereafter be known as the Commissioner of Labor Statistics; and all the powers and duties heretofore possessed by the Commissioner of Labor shall be retained and exercised by the Commissioner of Labor Statistics; and the administration of the act of May thirtieth, nineteen hundred and eight, granting to certain employees of the United States the right to receive from it compensation for injuries sustained in the course of their employment.

SEC. 4. That the Bureau of Labor Statistics, under the direction of the Secretary of Labor, shall collect, collate, and report at least once each year, or oftener if necessary, full and complete statistics of the conditions of labor and the products and distribution of the products of the same, and to this end said Secretary shall have power to employ any or either of the bureaus provided for his department and to rearrange such statistical work and to distribute or consolidate the same as may be deemed desirable in the public interests; and said Secretary shall also have authority to call upon other departments of the Government for statistical data and results obtained by them; and said Secretary of Labor may collate, arrange, and publish such statistical information so obtained in such manner as to him may seem wise.

SEC. 5. That the official records and papers now on file in and pertaining exclusively to the business of any bureau, office, department, or branch of the public service in this act transferred to the Department of Labor, together with the furniture now in use in such bureau, office, department, or branch of the public service, shall be, and hereby are, transferred to the Department of Labor.

SEC. 6. That the Secretary of Labor shall have charge in the buildings or premises occupied by or appropriated to the Department of Labor of the library, furniture, fixtures, records, and other property pertaining to it or hereafter acquired for use in its business; he shall be allowed to expend for periodicals and the purposes of the library and for rental of appropriate quarters for the accommodation of the Department of Labor within the District of Colum-

bia, and for all other incidental expenses, such sums as Congress may provide from time to time: *Provided, however,* That where any office, bureau, or branch of the public service transferred to the Department of Labor by this act is occupying rented buildings or premises, it may still continue to do so until other suitable quarters are provided for its use: *And provided further,* That all officers, clerks, and employees now employed in any of the bureaus, offices, departments, or branches of the public service in this act transferred to the Department of Labor are each and all hereby transferred to said department at their present grades and salaries, except where otherwise provided in this act: *And provided further,* That all laws prescribing the work and defining the duties of the several bureaus, offices, departments, or branches of the public service by this act transferred to and made a part of the Department of Labor shall, so far as the same are not in conflict with the provisions of this act, remain in full force and effect, to be executed under the direction of the Secretary of Labor.

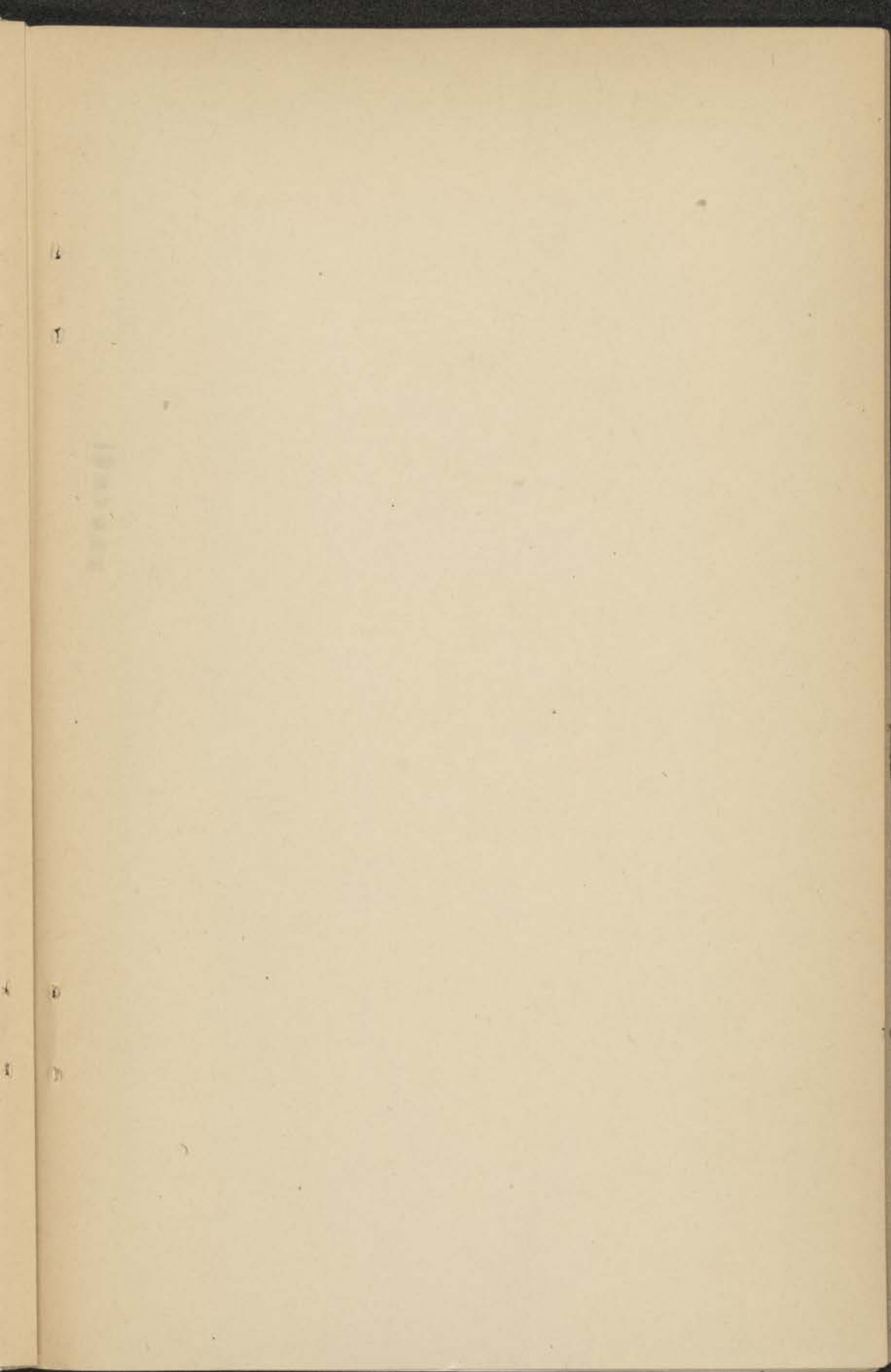
SEC. 7. That there shall be a solicitor of the Department of Justice for the Department of Labor, whose salary shall be five thousand dollars per annum.

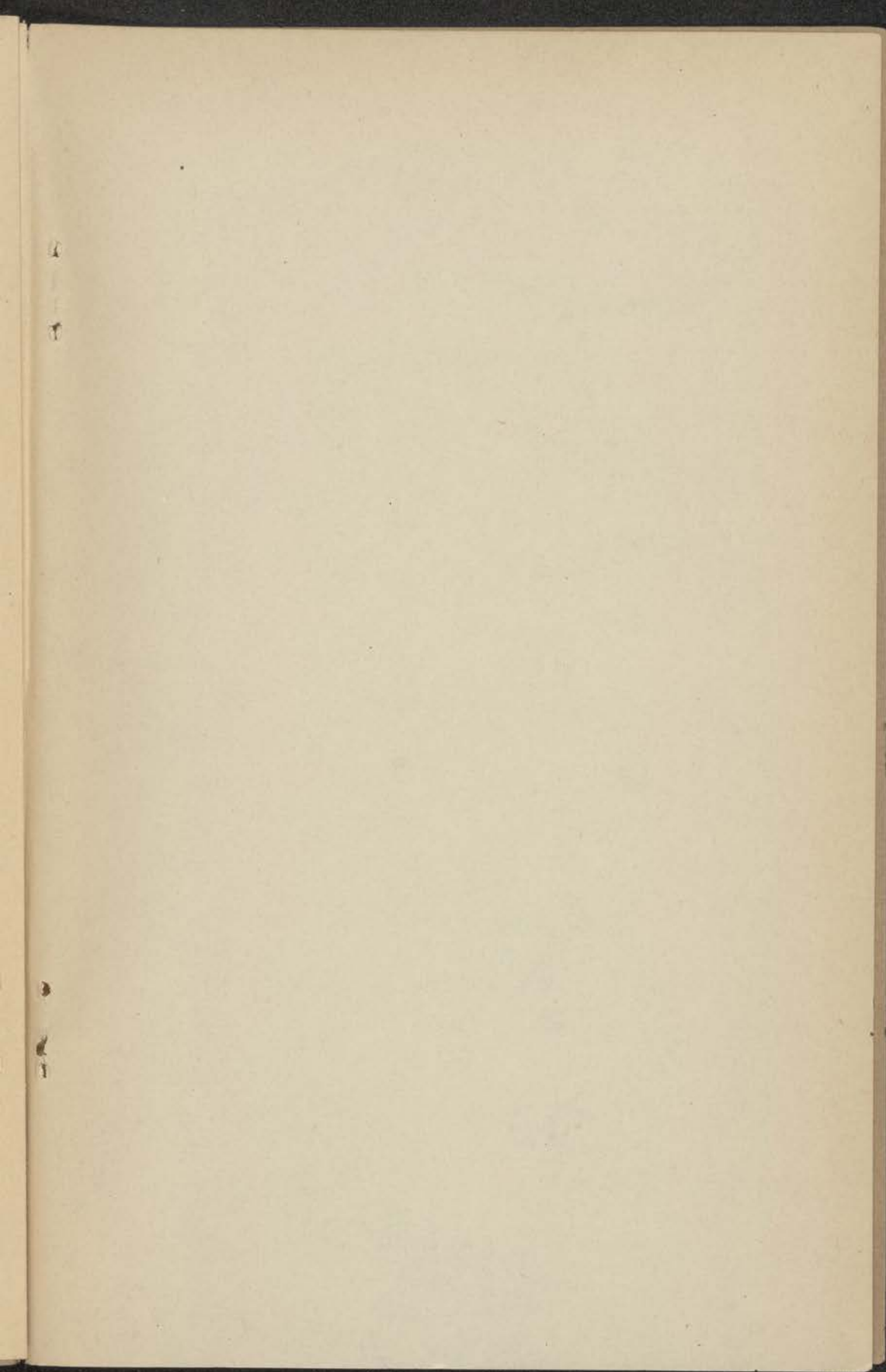
SEC. 8. That the Secretary of Labor shall have power to act as mediator and to appoint commissioners of conciliation in labor disputes whenever in his judgment the interests of industrial peace may require it to be done; and all duties performed and all power and authority now possessed or exercised by the head of any executive department in and over any bureau, office, officer, board, branch, or division of the public service by this act transferred to the Department of Labor, or any business arising therefrom or pertaining thereto, or in relation to the duties performed by and authority conferred by law upon such bureau, officer, office, board, branch, or division of the public service, whether of an appellate or revisory character or otherwise, shall hereafter be vested in and exercised by the head of the said Department of Labor.

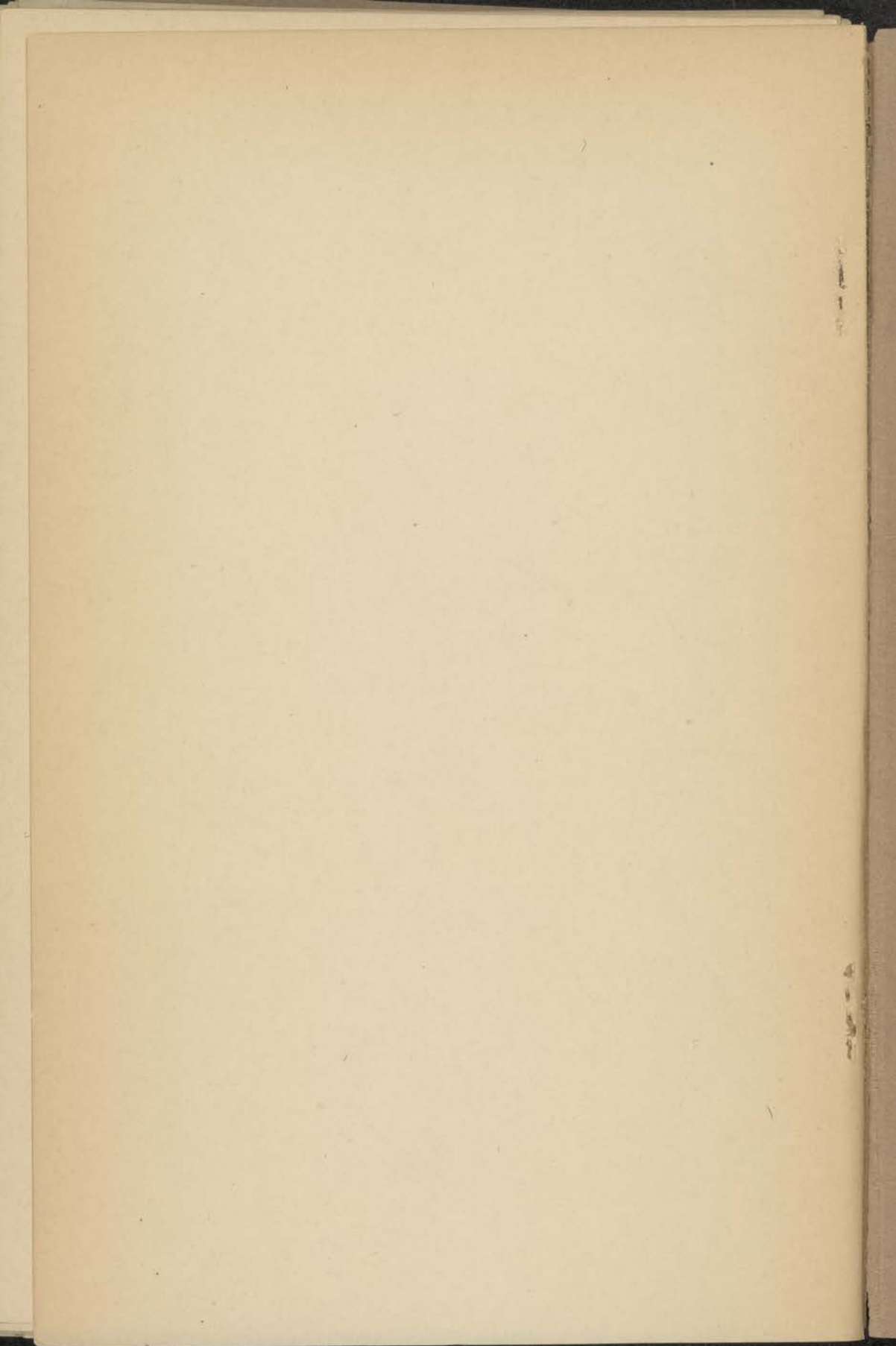
SEC. 9. That the Secretary of Labor shall annually, at the close of each fiscal year, make a report in writing to Congress, giving an account of all moneys received and disbursed by him and his department and describing the work done by the department. He shall also, from time to time, make such special investigations and reports as he may be required to do by the President, or by Congress, or which he himself may deem necessary.

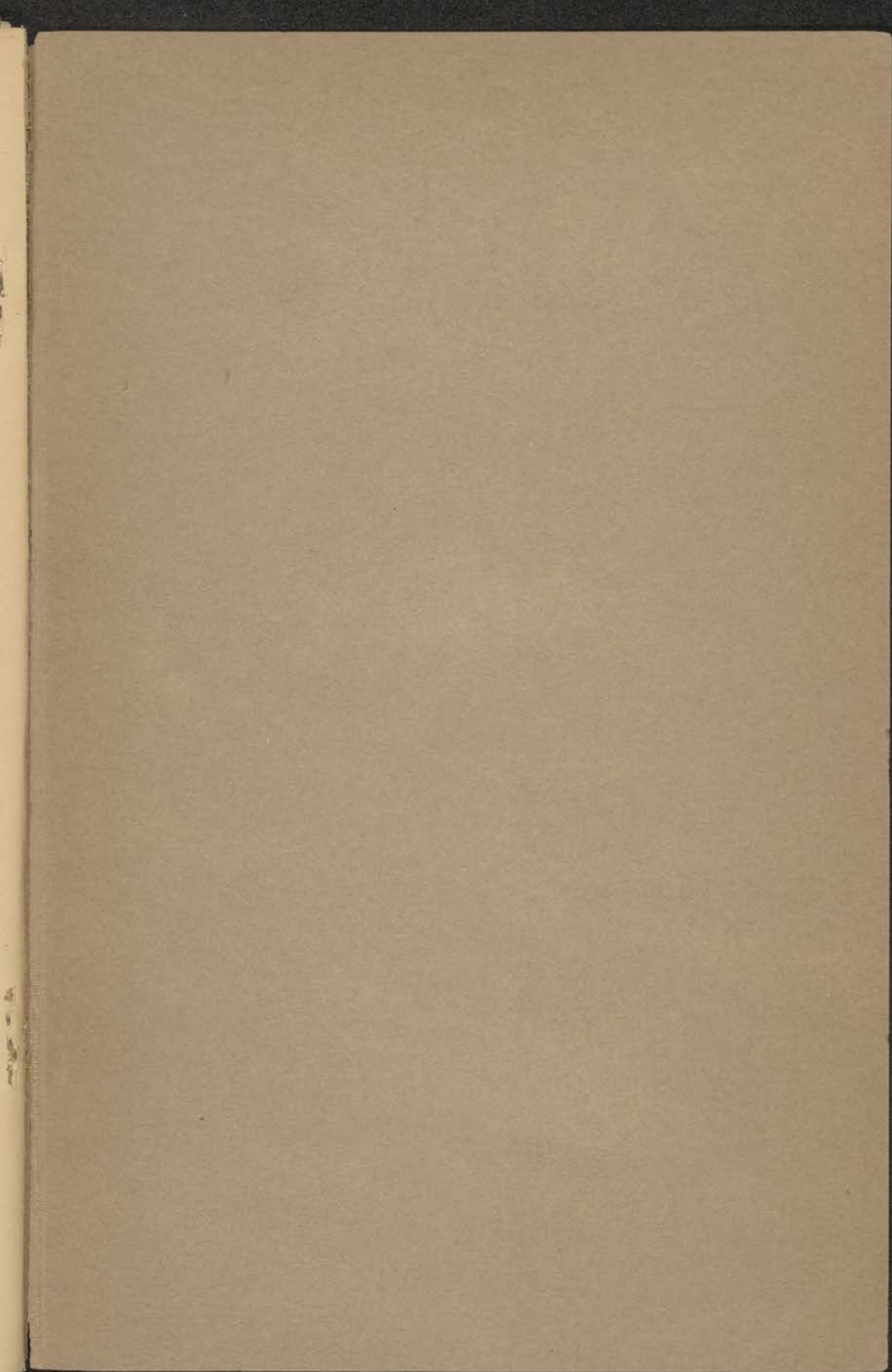
SEC. 10. That the Secretary of Labor shall investigate and report to Congress a plan of coordination of the activities, duties, and powers of the office of the Secretary of Labor with the activities, duties, and powers of the present bureaus, commissions, and departments, so far as they relate to labor and its conditions, in order to harmonize and unify such activities, duties, and powers, with a view to further legislation to further define the duties and powers of such Department of Labor.

SEC. 11. That this act shall take effect March fourth, nineteen hundred and thirteen, and all acts or parts of acts inconsistent with this act are hereby repealed.









SAN DIEGO PUBLIC LIBRARY



3 1336 05750 2560