

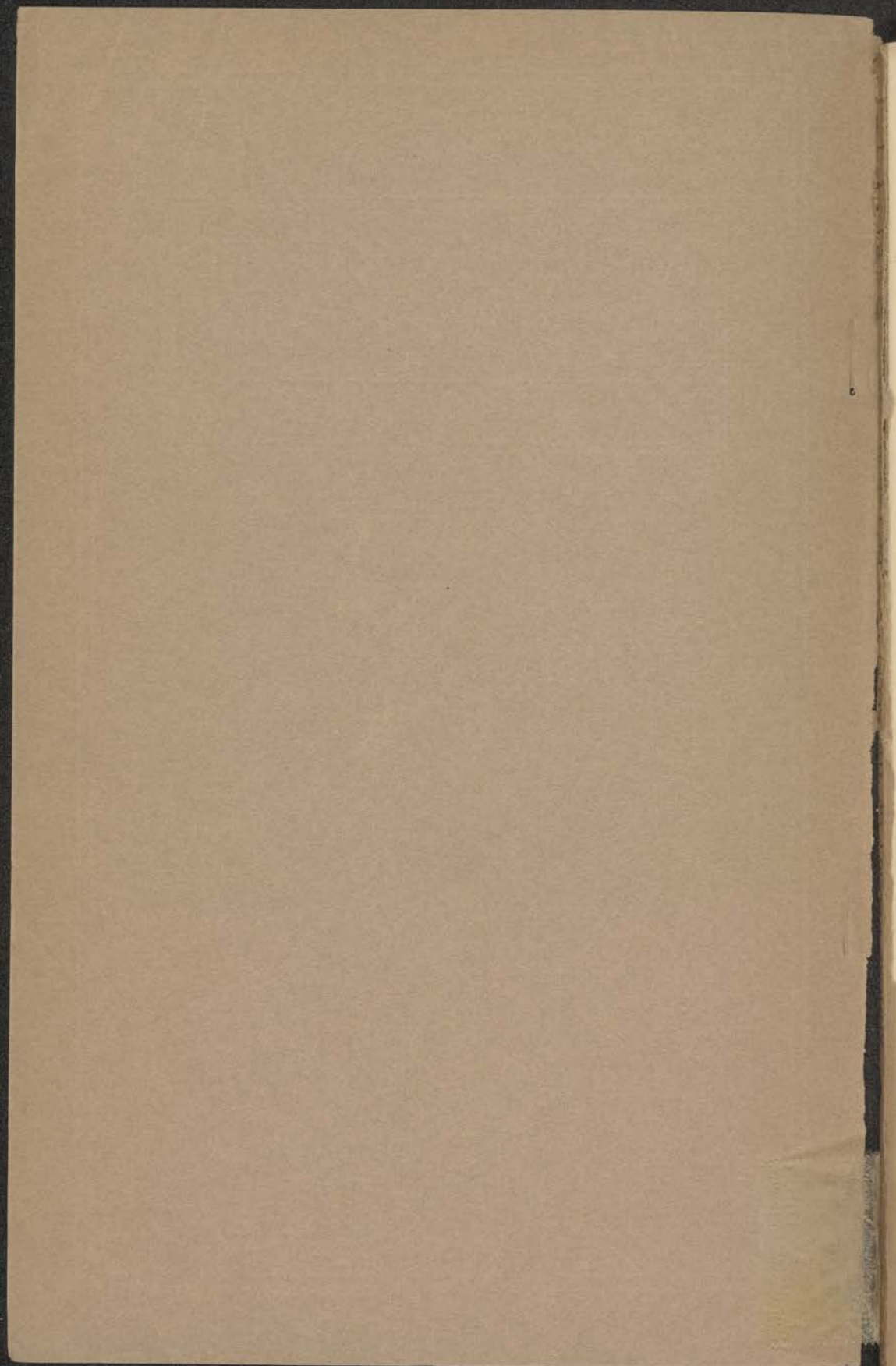
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ANNUAL REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF LABOR

FOR FISCAL YEAR ENDED JUNE 30, 1928



SIXTEENTH ANNUAL REPORT
OF THE
SECRETARY OF LABOR

FOR THE FISCAL YEAR
ENDED JUNE 30

1928



UNITED STATES
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
WASHINGTON
1928

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SIXTEENTH ANNUAL REPORT
DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
SECRETARY OF LABOR

OFFICIALS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, 1928

HON. JAMES J. DAVIS, Secretary of Labor.
HON. ROBE CARL WHITE, Assistant Secretary of Labor.
HON. W. W. HUSBAND, Second Assistant Secretary of Labor.
ARTHUR E. COOK, Assistant to the Secretary.
W. N. SMELSER, Assistant to the Secretary.
THEODORE G. RISLEY, Solicitor for the Department.
HUGH L. KERWIN, Director of Conciliation.
FRANCIS I. JONES, Director General of Employment.
LEWIS E. REED, Director, Industrial Housing and Transportation.
SAMUEL J. GOMPERS, Chief Clerk and Superintendent.
ETHELBERT STEWART, Commissioner of Labor Statistics.
HARRY E. HULL, Commissioner General of Immigration.
RAYMOND F. CRIST, Commissioner of Naturalization.
GRACE ABBOTT, Chief, Children's Bureau.
MARY ANDERSON, Director, Women's Bureau.

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SIXTEENTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF LABOR

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

DEPARTMENT OF LABOR,
OFFICE OF THE SECRETARY,
Washington, November 1, 1928.

To the Congress of the United States:

In accordance with section 9 of the act of Congress approved March 4, 1913, I have the honor to submit a report of the business of the Department of Labor for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1928, and with it reports of investigations and conclusions.

I also submit for your consideration certain recommendations which to me seem important and necessary.

Respectfully submitted.

JAMES J. DAVIS,
Secretary of Labor.

SIXTEENTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF LABOR

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Respectfully submitted,

James J. Davis,
Secretary of Labor.

SIXTEENTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF LABOR

PART I

ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS OF THE DEPARTMENT

The Department of Labor is divided into administrative units consisting of the Office of the Secretary, the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the Bureau of Immigration, the Children's Bureau, the Bureau of Naturalization, and the Women's Bureau.

The Office of the Secretary is not only the administrative division of the department but includes also the services directly under the supervision of the Secretary of Labor known as the Conciliation Service, the United States Employment Service, and the Bureau of Industrial Housing and Transportation. The administrative subdivisions of the Office of the Secretary include the Assistant Secretary, the Second Assistant Secretary, Assistants to the Secretary, the solicitor, the chief clerk, the disbursing clerk, the appointment clerk, the Division of Publications and Supplies, and the departmental library.

ASSISTANT SECRETARIES

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

SOLICITOR

The solicitor for the Department of Labor is an officer of the Department of Justice, and the members of his staff are also employees of that department; but the work of his office is devoted entirely to matters of law arising in the Department of Labor. Therefore, the work performed by his office should be included in this report. The details of that work for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1928, are as follows:

Legal opinions rendered, formal and informal (memorandum)----- 262

A great many oral opinions, of which no record is kept, were also rendered during the year.

Contracts and leases examined, approved, or disapproved.....	289
Contracts, leases, forms of bonds, etc., drafted, redrafted, or modified....	1
Bonds on contracts examined, approved, or disapproved.....	16
Bonds, alien immigrant, examined, approved, or disapproved.....	3,937
Bills drafted and redrafted.....	12
Power-of-attorney cards, authorizing agents to execute official and contract bonds for surety companies, examined.....	3,838
Miscellaneous matters embracing everything submitted for advice or suggestion of the solicitor, or for the formulation of departmental action, not included in the foregoing.....	983
Total.....	9,338

The above list covers office work only. In addition, the solicitor and his staff have appeared a considerable number of times in court in cases in which the department had an interest. The solicitor took part in the Florida courts in the trial of the border patrol case of Brownlee and others on a charge of murder, and members of the solicitor's office have appeared in the United States district courts in this city, in Detroit, and in Buffalo, in defense of departmental orders in immigration cases.

CHIEF CLERK

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

Department quarters.

Since the last annual report the department has been constantly faced with the necessity for providing additional space for the Bureau of Immigration, the Bureau of Naturalization, and the department library; and the increasing activities of the Bureau of Labor Statistics also presents the problem of additional space for that bureau. The efficient limit in utilizing available space allotted has been reached. The files of the Bureau of Immigration have been built up to such a height as to be nearing the danger point; but as these are live files and must be kept in close proximity to the bureau, it is impossible to move them from the building, even though there were space available elsewhere. The necessity for the erection of the new Department of Labor building can not be overemphasized, as this condition can not be remedied otherwise. Request has been made upon the Public Buildings Commission for additional space for storing some of the files which are not so active, but the department is informed that the commission has no more space available for this purpose. The curtailment of efficiency caused by having branches of the department separated from headquarters needs no comment.

The gross amount of floor space occupied by the department has not changed during the past year, although its activities have increased. Situated in the department building, located at 1712 G Street NW., are the administrative offices of the department, the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the Bureau of Immigration, and the Bureau of Naturalization. This building contains 87,292 square feet of floor space with a net available office space of 63,994 square feet. The other activities of the department are located as follows: The Children's Bureau occupies 18,646 square feet, the Women's Bureau 7,790 square feet, and a part of the United States Employment Service (as storage and file space) 1,470 square feet in Tempo Building No. 4, a total of 27,906 square feet. The United States Employment Service occupies 2,235 square feet and the Bureau of Immigration (for file space) 1,125 square feet in Tempo Building No. 1, a total of 3,360 square feet. The Division of Publications and Supplies occupies 1,402 square feet in the Ordnance Annex Building directly back of the department headquarters, and the Naturalization Service occupies 864 square feet in the Walker Building, 462 Louisiana Avenue. The Bureau of Industrial Housing and Transportation occupies 4,634 square feet of space in the Maltby Building, 200 New Jersey Avenue NW. The total floor space occupied by the department in all its activities in Washington is approximately 132,000 square feet gross, and this is not sufficient for its needs.

Personnel.

Officials and employees.—There was an increase of 173 employees in the department on June 30, 1928, as compared with the number of employees in 1927. This increase was mainly in the Immigration Service, occasioned by the enlargement of the patrol force of that service, 157 being added. There were small increases as follows: In the Naturalization Service, 16; Children's Bureau, 14; Labor Statistics, 9; and Women's Bureau, 3. The United States Employment Service shows a decrease of 21 and the Conciliation Service a reduction of 5.

Of the total number of employees in the department (4,167), 644 are employed in the District of Columbia and 3,523 in the field services. There are 213 employees (not included in the above figures) in the United States Housing Corporation, 71 less than the number on the rolls on June 30, 1927.

The total of 4,167 includes 427 who are employed at the nominal compensation of \$1 per annum. Of this number, 239 are in the United States Employment Service, 98 in the Children's Bureau, 55 in the Immigration Service, 28 in the Division of Conciliation, and 7 in the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Number of officials and employees of the Department of Labor, July 1, 1928, as compared with July 1, 1927

Bureau or office	July 1, 1928			July 1, 1927	Increases (+) or decreases (-)
	In District of Columbia	Outside District of Columbia	Total		
Office of the Secretary.....	93		93	93	
Conciliation Service.....	4	164	68	173	-5
Bureau of Labor Statistics.....	125	17	132	123	+9
Children's Bureau.....	129	110	239	225	+14
Immigration.....	154	2,722	2,876	2,719	+157
Naturalization.....	83	280	363	347	+16
United States Employment Service.....	13	340	353	374	-21
Women's Bureau.....	43		43	40	+3
Total.....	644	3,523	4,167	3,994	+173
United States Housing Corporation.....	202	11	213	284	-71

¹ Includes 28 at \$1 per annum.

² Includes 31 at \$1 per annum.

³ All \$1 per annum.

⁴ Includes 6 at \$1 per annum.

⁵ Includes 98 at \$1 per annum.

⁶ Includes 66 at \$1 per annum.

⁷ Includes 55 at \$1 per annum.

⁸ Includes 53 at \$1 per annum.

⁹ Includes 239 at \$1 per annum.

¹⁰ Includes 250 at \$1 per annum.

Transfers.—There were 23 persons transferred from other departments to the Department of Labor and 42 from this department to other departments. The table below does not show, however, the number of employees appointed under the civil-service rules who were nominally reinstated in the Department of Labor for the purpose of immediate transfer.

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

Transfers from and to the Department of Labor during the fiscal year 1928

Bureau or office.	From—													To—	
	Veterans' Bureau.	Treasury Department.	General Accounting Office.	Department of Agriculture.	Department of State.	Post Office Department.	Department of Justice.	Civil Service Commission.	Navy Department.	Interstate Commerce Commission.	War Department.	Public Buildings and Public Parks.	Department of Commerce.	Total.	Total.
Office of the Secretary.....							1		1				2		
Bureau of Labor Statistics.....	1	1										1	3		3
Children's Bureau.....			1										1		
Immigration.....	1	3	1			1	1		1		2		12	1	27
Naturalization.....				1	1				1				2		4
Women's Bureau.....												2			1
Total.....	2	4	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	3	1	23	3	42

There were 84 reinstatements in the department during the year.

The table showing a comparative statement as to number of employees in the department at the end of the fiscal year and at the beginning of the year 1929 has been omitted from this report since the number in each bureau or service is identical on both dates.

Retirement.—The following table shows the number of employees retired and those beyond the age of retirement who have been continued in the service under the provisions of the civil service retirement act; also the amount of deductions refunded to employees leaving the service each year since 1921.

There were 15 employees retired during the fiscal year and only 12 given extensions. There were 268 applications for refund of deductions, the total amount of refunds being \$35,552.52. The total number of applications for refund for the period 1921 to 1928 was 2,178, to whom the sum of \$162,822.54 was refunded.

Retirements, extensions, and refunds under the retirement act of May 22, 1920, for the period August 1, 1920, to June 30, 1928

Action	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925
Employees retired.....	26	13	17	12	13
Extensions.....	20	5	12	10	10
Applications for refund.....	168	219	241	235	341
Total.....	214	237	270	257	364
Amounts refunded.....	\$2,021.35	\$8,464.43	\$13,308.46	\$16,579.69	\$21,663.33

Action	1926	1927	1928	Total
Employees retired.....	11	26	15	133
Extensions.....	10	12	12	91
Applications for refund.....	318	388	268	2,178
Total.....	339	426	295	2,402
Amounts refunded.....	\$26,109.34	\$39,033.42	\$35,552.52	\$162,822.54

Disbursing office.

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 bonds are accounted for by him. Under the operation of the immigration permit fee system during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1928, approximately 137,893 remittances, aggregating \$413,679.03, were received, as against 121,167 remittances, aggregating \$363,501.12, handled during the preceding fiscal year.

Appropriations.—For the fiscal year ended June 30, 1928, the appropriations by Congress to the department and its services were as follows:

Salaries, Office of the Secretary.....	\$186,000.00
Salaries and expenses, commissioners of conciliation.....	210,000.00
Contingent expenses.....	57,200.00
Rent.....	68,000.00
Printing and binding.....	205,000.00
Salaries, Bureau of Labor Statistics.....	220,000.00
Miscellaneous expenses, Bureau of Labor Statistics.....	80,000.00
Salaries, Bureau of Immigration.....	91,840.00
Expenses of regulating immigration.....	¹ 6,571,500.00
Immigration stations.....	50,000.00
Salaries, Bureau of Naturalization.....	98,000.00
Miscellaneous expenses, Bureau of Naturalization.....	656,000.00
Salaries, Children's Bureau.....	105,000.00
Investigation of child welfare, Children's Bureau.....	135,000.00
General expenses, Children's Bureau.....	60,000.00
Promotion of welfare and hygiene of maternity and infancy.....	1,040,622.00
Administrative expenses, welfare and hygiene of maternity and infancy.....	50,354.00
Salaries and expenses, Women's Bureau.....	100,000.00
Employment Service.....	200,000.00
Claims for damages, act December 28, 1922.....	35.97
International exposition at Seville, Spain.....	5,000.00
	10,189,551.97

Under the provisions of the act approved May 22, 1920 (41 Stat. L. 614), the following amounts were paid 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.....	\$5,110.55
Salaries and expenses, commissioners of conciliation.....	611.66
Salaries, Bureau of Labor Statistics.....	7,644.61
Miscellaneous expenses, Bureau of Labor Statistics.....	510.96
Salaries, Bureau of Immigration.....	2,932.19
Expenses of regulating immigration.....	165,408.79
Salaries, Bureau of Naturalization.....	3,128.17
Miscellaneous expenses, Bureau of Naturalization.....	19,214.36
Salaries, Children's Bureau.....	3,383.42
General expenses, Children's Bureau.....	197.75
Investigation of child welfare, Children's Bureau.....	3,773.28
Administrative expenses, welfare and hygiene of maternity and infancy.....	1,080.39
United States Employment Service.....	211.64
Salaries and expenses, Women's Bureau.....	2,595.10
	215,802.87

Expenditures.—The expenditures (which do not include pending obligations), arranged according to items of appropriation, were as follows:

¹\$13,500 deducted and transferred to contingent expenses.

Office of the Secretary:

Salaries, 1927	\$7,768.67
Salaries, 1928	177,422.21
Contingent expenses, 1926	8.55
Contingent expenses, 1927	8,509.23
Contingent expenses, 1928	56,379.64
Salaries and expenses, commissioners of conciliation, 1926	3.00
Salaries and expenses, commissioners of conciliation, 1927	13,669.26
Salaries and expenses, commissioners of conciliation, 1928	186,347.30
Rent, 1927	2,000.00
Rent, 1928	62,333.33
Printing and binding, 1927	82,865.69
Printing and binding, 1928	123,705.33
International exposition at Seville, Spain, 1928	1,470.00
Claims for damages, act Dec. 28, 1922	35.97
	<u>722,518.18</u>

Bureau of Labor Statistics:

Salaries, 1927	8,882.97
Salaries, 1928	203,024.40
Miscellaneous expenses, 1927	6,362.87
Miscellaneous expenses, 1928	69,894.41
	<u>288,164.65</u>

Bureau of Immigration:

Salaries, 1927	3,700.22
Salaries, 1928	84,396.18
Expenses of regulating immigration, 1926	6,237.31
Expenses of regulating immigration, 1927	299,055.22
Expenses of regulating immigration, 1928	5,840,165.26
Immigration stations, 1927	5,156.79
Immigration stations, 1928	23,772.97
	<u>6,262,483.95</u>

Bureau of Naturalization:

Salaries, 1927	3,970.72
Salaries, 1928	87,937.20
Miscellaneous expenses, 1926	3.96
Miscellaneous expenses, 1927	31,647.61
Miscellaneous expenses, 1928	588,087.78
	<u>711,647.27</u>

Children's Bureau:

Salaries, 1927	4,225.88
Salaries, 1928	95,806.99
General expenses, 1926	5.54
General expenses, 1927	4,901.11
General expenses, 1928	36,188.73
Investigation of child welfare, 1927	6,052.08
Investigation of child welfare, 1928	115,033.80
Administrative expenses, welfare and hygiene of maternity and infancy	55,125.03
	<u>317,339.16</u>

Women's Bureau:

Salaries and expenses, 1927	\$5,331.43
Salaries and expenses, 1928	90,998.43
	96,329.86

Employment Service:

Employment Service, 1926	2.50
Employment Service, 1927	12,033.01
Employment Service, 1928	182,170.76
	194,206.27

Grand total..... 8,592,689.34

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

By special disbursing agents for the Immigration Service (estimated)	\$146,375.74
Claims settled by the Office of the Comptroller General	64,097.27
	210,473.01

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

Bureau of Immigration.

Head tax	\$3,231,792.70
Fines	203,171.78
Collections for permits to reenter the United States	374,124.00
Forfeiture of bonds	148,323.90
Coin box collections	319.07
Sales of exclusive privileges	1,166.00
Sales of Government property	263.78
Miscellaneous collections	248.33
	3,959,409.56

Bureau of Naturalization.

Naturalization fees	960,563.46
---------------------	------------

Children's Bureau.

Interest on public deposits	2,063.07
Total receipts	4,922,036.09

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 June 30, 1928:

Contingent expenses, Department of Labor, 1926	\$454.24
Salaries and expenses, commissioners of conciliation, 1926	497.00
Employment Service, Department of Labor, 1926	13.00
Miscellaneous expenses, Bureau of Naturalization, 1926	987.79
General expenses, Children's Bureau, 1926	69.51
	2,021.54

PUBLICATIONS AND SUPPLIES

Printing and binding.—Apportionment of the department's appropriation of \$205,000 was as follows:

Office of the Secretary	\$8,500
Bureau of Labor Statistics	86,500
Bureau of Immigration	5,000
Immigration Service	21,500
Binding manifests	2,500
Children's Bureau	44,500
Bureau of Naturalization	2,000
Naturalization Service and examiners	11,000
Women's Bureau	12,000
Employment Service	9,500
Reserve	2,000
Total	205,000

Requisitions aggregating \$204,549.81, drawn against the printing appropriation for 1928, were sent to the Government Printing Office. On June 30, 1928, bills had been submitted for \$131,584.25, leaving an estimated cost for the completion of pending requisitions of \$72,965.56. Requisitions were also sent to the Government Printing Office for the United States Housing Corporation covering \$520.43.

During the year 1,404 requisitions were sent to the Government Printing Office, as compared with 1,438 in 1927, a decrease of 34.

Requisitions to the number of 467 were received for printed stationery during the year, of which 167 were for offices and bureaus within the department and 300 for services outside the District of Columbia.

Envelopes.—During the fiscal year 1928, 532 orders calling for 5,262,917 envelopes were placed with the contractors at a cost of \$8,237.12, as compared with 373 orders calling for 4,867,716 envelopes at a cost of \$8,055.94 in 1927.

Work performed by the employees of the editorial and proof-reading section consisted of 22,679 folios forwarded to the Government Printing Office; 2,317 galley proofs received, 2,234 returned; 8,380 page proofs received and 9,263 returned. Proofs of 102 forms were received and returned.

Books and blanks.—There were received from the field services and bureaus during the year 5,265 requisitions for books and blanks, of which 3,776 were from clerks of courts; 249 from naturalization examiners; and 959 from the Immigration Service, Employment Service, and the Customs Service. The bureaus in Washington submitted 272 requisitions.

The Customs Service was sent 197 blank books and 13,400 blank forms; Immigration Service, 10,008 books and 4,090,467 blank forms; other services, including clerks of courts, 6,230,290 blank forms.

Receipts and shipments.—Receipts consisted of 2,563 packages of supplies weighing 75,794 pounds and 20,817 packages of books and blanks weighing 187,578 pounds, an aggregate of 23,380 packages weighing 263,552 pounds.

Shipments of supplies by freight, express, and mail covered 3,696 parcels, weighing 343,668 pounds. Blank books and blanks weighing 210,688 pounds were shipped in 10,124 packages, while 40,825 letters, invoices, etc., weighed 2,042 pounds. Total shipments for the year aggregated 556,398 pounds.

Duplicating work.—In the duplicating section there were 1,459 mimeograph requisitions calling for 2,521 pages, on which there were used 2,428 stencils with an aggregate number of printed sheets of 1,906,190; 513,998 envelopes were addressed, 475,380 sheets were folded, and 665 photostat copies were made.

Distribution of publications.—On mail lists there were distributed 533,233 publications of the bureaus and offices; on franks 1,439,828, totaling 1,973,061. The total number of franks handled was 371,926.

Supplies.—During the fiscal year 1927 the stock on the shelves of the department carried for issue to bureaus, offices, and services on requisition had decreased from \$16,988.62 to \$14,569.34. It was possible in the fiscal year 1928 to recover this loss, there being on hand on June 30, 1928, \$17,255.08. The activities of the supply section is reported as 2,683 requisitions received, against 2,168 in 1927; 3,825 supply orders were written as against 2,806, an increase of 1,019 orders, or more than 33 per cent. The number of items covered by the above orders was 5,858 as against 4,075 in 1927. The total expenditure for these orders was \$135,013.33. The contingent fund of the department, increased by \$13,500 for the use of the immigration field service, amounted to \$57,200. Of this amount, \$55,383.32 was expended, leaving a balance on hand of \$1,816.68.

THE CONCILIATION SERVICE

HUGH L. KERWIN, *Director*

Representatives of the Conciliation Service of the Department of Labor are continually striving to establish the principle of harmony and cooperation in American industry. The Nation's social and industrial welfare depends in large measure on good will and amicable relations between the men and management engaged in the Nation's productive enterprises.

Experience in handling trade disputes demonstrates that there is no industrial controversy which can not be peacefully settled if the contending interests meet in conference and dispassionately consider the existing differences. It is unfortunate that the public has to witness a situation where a mine, mill, or factory is closed by

strike or lockout while operatives and management bitterly contest the issues or differences which in most instances could have been satisfactorily adjusted through negotiation and conciliation while business continued.

The chief aim of industry is production, with satisfactory earnings for both employers and workers. Employer and employee both are benefited by cooperative effort, and the public also has a real and permanent stake in the unbroken operation of its industry. Disturbed relations in any business enterprise thus affect adversely all elements of society.

While the Conciliation Service is grateful that it is being called upon more and more to adjust in ending misunderstandings and conflicts between workers and employers, it is even more vitally interested in the work of preventing strikes and lockouts. In other words, while curative measures are important, prevention is even more so. The policy of this Federal service is directed toward the maintenance of peace in industry through negotiation and joint conference.

The intention of Congress in creating the Department of Labor was clearly to the end that such a mediatory policy should be the basis of the conciliation work. The language of that part of the organic act pertaining to this service simply provides that "The Secretary of Labor is authorized to act as mediator, or to appoint commissioners of conciliation in industrial disputes whenever in his judgment the interests of industrial peace may require it to be done."

In carrying out the intention of Congress it has been the general policy to respond promptly to any calls for the good offices of the representatives of the Conciliation Service from either employers, employees, or from the public affected by any industrial dispute.

State and local agencies cooperate with department.

In the handling of trade disputes representatives of the service cooperate freely with State or local agencies or committees. In many cases Federal commissioners assigned to a trade dispute have found local committees or agencies using their good offices in an effort to terminate the controversy. In such instances the commissioners of conciliation have cooperated with the local agencies. No set method can be outlined to guide mediators in their work. They are constantly confronted with varying conditions and diverse views in practically every individual case. Each situation must be handled as a case peculiar to itself. It often happens that a conciliator must use different methods in handling trade disputes arising in the same industry and in the same locality in order to accomplish the desired result of bringing the disputants into conference and thereafter striving to bring about a meeting of minds that will result in a satisfactory agreement being reached.

Giving advice, suggesting methods, and volunteering ideas by conciliators also have proved to be of benefit in plants and factories, in addition to their actual duties of acting as industrial peacemakers. Such services have been helpfully rendered whenever request has been made by the parties whose interests were in conflict. In this way full benefits accruing to the relationship between men and managers in American industry have been brought forth from the American spirit of cooperation, understanding, and good will, all of which are the aim and purpose of the Conciliation Service of the Department of Labor.

During the fiscal year ended June 30, 1928, conciliators were assigned to 478 industrial disputes; of this number 307 were settled directly by the commissioners, 53 cases were pending at the end of the fiscal year, 57 cases were recorded as "unable to adjust" and 61 cases are carried as "unclassified." The latter designation implies that settlement was immediately effected by the parties directly interested; the commissioner arrived after agreement was reached; or the case referred for conciliation did not warrant services of representative. In some cases plants were permanently closed, or the workers had gone elsewhere, and so on. In addition to the cases arising during the time covered by this report, 13 cases coming over from previous years were also adjusted.

Cases reported from various States during the fiscal year 1928, by months

	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	Total
Arizona.....						1							1
California.....	2				1	2				3	1	2	11
Colorado.....				1	1					1			3
Connecticut.....	1		1		2		2				1		12
District of Columbia.....									1				1
Illinois.....	3	6	2		4	1	2	2	2	2			29
Indiana.....	1	2		4	6	3	4		1	2	5	3	31
Iowa.....		1		1	3			3	1	1	3	2	15
Kentucky.....	1	2									1		4
Maine.....										2		2	4
Maryland.....	1									1	4		6
Massachusetts.....	5	5	3	3	3	3	4	3	6	5	3	5	48
Michigan.....							1				1	1	3
Minnesota.....			2	4									6
Missouri.....					4		1	2		1	2		10
Montana.....									1				1
New Hampshire.....										4			4
New Jersey.....	6	3	1	5	1	1	2	2	4	6	4	1	36
New York.....	6	8	6	10	6	9	5	9	6	9	9	8	91
North Carolina.....		1							1				2
Ohio.....	2	2	4	1	2	1	3			3	6	2	26
Oregon.....	1	1			1			1	5				9
Pennsylvania.....	10	10	9	12	5	5	4	2	8	13	11	4	93
Rhode Island.....	1		1		2	1		1	1	2			9
Tennessee.....					2			5					7
Texas.....	1				1								2
Washington.....	1			1				2			1	2	7
West Virginia.....	1										1		2
Wisconsin.....								1		2			3
United States.....	43	41	29	42	44	27	28	33	37	57	54	43	478

Summary of workers affected, by months

Month	Workers affected		Month	Workers affected	
	Directly	Indirectly		Directly	Indirectly
1927			1928		
July.....	20,407	3,788	January.....	9,846	7,855
August.....	15,248	3,167	February.....	15,444	3,929
September.....	9,018	1,983	March.....	19,064	3,803
October.....	11,214	16,398	April.....	42,987	49,441
November.....	12,411	8,920	May.....	23,026	5,518
December.....	15,100	29,571	June.....	11,386	12,504
			Total.....	205,151	146,877

Summary of cases, 1914-1928

Cases	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928
Number.....	33	42	227	378	1,217	1,789	802	457	370	534	544	559	551	545	478
Adjusted.....	28	26	178	248	865	1,223	596	338	266	428	346	392	377	395	307
Unable to adjust.....	5	10	22	47	71	111	96	48	41	27	62	64	61	57	57
Pending.....		5	21	42	7	13	9	24	31	60	67	42	43	24	53
Unclassified.....		1	6	41	66	214	101	47	32	19	69	61	70	69	61

Cases pending at end of last fiscal year and now adjusted, 13.
Total number of adjustments, 320.

The following cases show some very interesting and typical situations and will present a general idea of the work of conciliation and mediation. These have been selected from the many industrial controversies on which the representatives of the Federal Conciliation Service were engaged during the fiscal year:

Carpenters, Scranton, Pa.—A strike of carpenters which directly affected many other crafts in the building trades occurred in April, 1928, in the city of Scranton, Pa. Commissioner Homer J. Brown was assigned to the case in cooperation with Mediator Louis G. Hines, of the Pennsylvania Department of Labor and Industry.

Contracts estimated to cost upward of \$3,000,000, involving the erection of a Masonic temple and a parochial school, were affected. The refusal of the contractor to sign a union agreement was the cause of the strike. He welcomed the entrance of the conciliators into the case, however, and expressed a willingness to cooperate in a settlement of the dispute. It developed that while the general contractor was unwilling to sign an agreement, nevertheless he was ready to employ all union mechanics at the prevailing union scale of wages, hours, and working conditions. In the circumstances it was suggested, in order to arrive at a settlement and to provide for harmony and cooperation between the building trades council and the employing firm, that letters from each of these parties be addressed to the representatives of both the Federal and State Labor Departments, which would serve in lieu of agreements, and in fact be fully and equally binding on both parties thereto.

This proposal was acceptable to the employer and to the various members of the building trades. The letters to the Federal and State Labor Departments were therefore drawn up, as a substitute for a written agreement, and were witnessed by representatives of the two governmental agencies and forwarded to Washington, D. C., and to Harrisburg, Pa., for record.

Hudson Coal Co., Larksville, Pa.—A strike of 3,000 anthracite miners employed by the Hudson Coal Co., at Larksville, near Plymouth, Pa., occurred on April 10, 1928. Commissioner Thomas Davis took up the case in an endeavor to bring about a settlement.

It developed that the strike was caused by an order of the company to rescind a regulation promulgated nine years previously which had added one hour per day to the working hours of certain brakemen and which had had the effect of equalizing the pay of these workers with others doing work of similar importance. The workers directly affected declared a strike, and 3,000 miners went out in sympathy. A meeting of the representatives of the miners affected had been called when Commissioner Davis arrived at the scene of the trouble, and he participated in the deliberations. The meeting was a protracted one, interspersed with bitter debates, the object sought being to call out on strike all miners employed by the Hudson Coal Co., numbering 22,000. The strike was spontaneous in character and had been called without authority from the district officers of the United Mine Workers organization.

The commissioner pointed out that if the miners would live up to the rules of the contract under which they operated they could doubtless have the disputed hour replaced or some other satisfactory arrangement made. A further meeting was arranged for 7.30 the same evening, the commissioner being invited to participate. At this meeting he was successful in getting the miners to call off the strike and return to work the next day. The importance of the settlement lay in the fact that a threatened strike of some additional 19,000 miners was averted. Five days after the miners returned to work, at a conference between the colliery committee and the management, the hour per day in question was restored to the men.

Carpenters, Bridgeport, Conn.—June 1, 1928, ushered in a strike of 900 carpenters at Bridgeport, Conn. Demands for a wage increase from \$10 to \$11 per day and a shortening of the work week from 5½ days to 5 days resulted in a strike, the demands having been rejected by the contractors. Commissioner R. A. Brown took up the case for the department.

The commissioner found, upon arrival, that no conferences between the contending parties had been held. He arranged a joint conference for June 9. After a long discussion the contractors proposed a plan of arbitration as the only solution. The carpenters' committee finally agreed to submit this proposition to their five local unions for a referendum vote. Later, however, the committee stipulated that they must first receive the \$1 per day increase and then to submit the question of the 5-day week to arbitration. The contractors declined to arbitrate on these terms. A proposition from the carpenters to return to work at a rate of \$10.50 per day and a 5½-day week until April 1, 1929, and then \$11 per day with a 5-day week was also rejected. Eventually a settlement was reached, effective July 5. The terms were as follows:

"From the present time to April 1, 1929, an increase of 50 cents a day, or \$10.50 for 5½ days a week. From April 1, 1929, until April 1, 1930, \$11 per day for 5½ days a week. The 5-day week to be held in abeyance until all trades receive same, which will be only by arbitration. An agreement for a two-year period with an arbitration clause to settle all differences in the future was signed."

May Hosiery Mills, Nashville, Tenn.—A strike of knitters employed by the May Hosiery Mills, Nashville, Tenn., occurred on February 1, 1928. It grew out of an attempt on the part of the management to impose on the workers the duty of inspecting their own work which previously had been done by an independent inspector. The workers contended that to require them to inspect their own work would very seriously interfere with their earning power,

owing to the period of time that it would consume. They were being paid on a piecework basis, and they maintained that the time consumed by inspection of work could be more profitably employed in the production of stockings. The situation was hopelessly deadlocked when Commissioners Charles Bendheim and Hugh D. Friel proffered their services to the contending parties and induced the management to meet in conference with a committee representing the workers. At this conference the matter of difference was thoroughly discussed, and the conclusion finally reached that the management would continue in effect the system of inspection which existed prior to the strike, in consideration of which the workers agreed to accept a reduction in wages of 1 cent per dozen. There were involved directly and indirectly 226 employees, and the settlement terminated a situation which would have caused considerable economic loss had it developed into a prolonged struggle.

Miami, Fla., courthouse.—During the summer of 1925, when the Florida building boom was at its height, a request was made to the department for the assignment of a commissioner on a threatened building-trade strike in one of the larger cities in that State. Conferences were arranged in that city between the officials of the contractors' association and the building trades council, and the threatened difficulty was averted and adjusted. Soon afterwards the recession of this boom took place and the relationship previously established between the two groups was such that with the use of the good offices of the department a satisfactory adjustment of wages and conditions due to the changed situation was speedily and satisfactorily brought about. This adjustment was made just prior to the October hurricane, and such a cordial relationship had been brought about that these workmen in this city rendered valuable services in the reconstruction of Miami's homes and public utilities, all of which was deeply appreciated by the officials and residents of the city. However, following the readjustment of the hurricane conditions, cessation of work came about on one of the large county projects, due to the use of non-union ironworkers. The good offices of the department were sought to effect adjustment, and Commissioner H. B. Dynes was assigned to the case. Visits were made to both groups in that city and to the offices of various contractors and labor officials in other cities of the country.

These visits, together with the quiet work of friends among the contractors and the craftsmen, resulted in a final adjustment of the matter in September, 1927, and in February, 1928, this magnificent towering structure was completed, a monument to the county and to the craftsmen and their friends. This case was an example of the quiet but effective cooperation of the department for the welfare of the craftsmen, contractors, and the community itself.

As was remarked by one of the officials of the contractors' association in a conversation: "Much has been accomplished by a few men of like minds, working among the friendly interests of both sides, using their good offices to bring about a settlement of a difficulty which has affected the welfare of a community and its interested citizenship."

Telephone operators, Staunton, Ill.—A threatened strike of telephone operators of Staunton, Ill., was averted through the good offices of Commissioner B. M. Marshman in November, 1927. This community lies in a region where coal mining is the leading industry and where the miners are solidly unionized. This fact would have had a direct bearing on a telephone strike had it materialized, as the issue involved was the discharge of two telephone operators, one of whom was president of the local union, for alleged union activities.

Upon his arrival at Staunton Commissioner Marshman met with the president of the Staunton central labor body, who called in the two discharged telephone employees and got their side of the dispute. He found that feeling was

running high and that call for a strike was becoming insistent. The union agreed, however, to withhold any precipitate action pending effort to reach a settlement. The manager welcomed the commissioner's entry into the case and intimated that he was anxious for an adjustment and would cooperate with him to that end. He agreed to meet the discharged employees, and a conference was arranged. At this meeting he agreed to reinstate the two operators, contingent upon the consummation of a working agreement between the union and the telephone company. The commissioner then suggested a conference to include all of the telephone operators, the president of the central labor body, and the telephone manager and his attorney, to be held that evening. This was agreed to and at this meeting the draft of an agreement was submitted. The sections of the agreement were taken up and discussed seriatim. The conference continued until 3 o'clock in the morning, when everything but the wage question had been settled. The company had agreed with the union on nearly all of the working conditions proposed, so the commissioner suggested to the telephone operators that in view of this they might waive their demands for an increase in wages. After a few moments of consideration the suggestion was accepted, thereby completing the agreement. General satisfaction was expressed by all over the outcome of the controversy.

Suitcase and bag makers, Philadelphia, Pa.—A strike of 900 suitcase and bag makers involving a number of manufacturers of Philadelphia occurred on September 8, 1927. In accordance with the usual custom when a strike occurs in Pennsylvania, the department assigned a commissioner, Mr. L. R. Thomas, to cooperate with a mediator from that State. Mr. James A. Steese was selected as the State's representative.

The conciliators conferred with all parties interested and received much assistance from Mr. Joseph Richie, representing the American Federation of Labor in Philadelphia, as well as from the management of the plants. The manufacturers were induced to withdraw a contemplated injunction suit and to make a proposition that the striking employees return to work at the rate of pay existing previous to the strike, then both sides to meet in conference and formulate a wage scale to become effective January 1, 1928.

The union voted to accept the proposal and the men employed in 16 shops returned to work on October 17. Seven shops not controlled by the union continued the strike for a while longer but eventually returned to work, thus clearing up the whole situation.

Allen-A Knitting Co., Kenosha, Wis.—One of the outstanding labor disputes of the year was the strike of hosiery workers of the Allen-A Knitting Co., of Kenosha, Wis. About February 15 the department received a request from the president of the Wisconsin Federation of Labor for its good offices in settling a strike at this plant. Commissioner F. A. Canfield was directed to take up the matter.

The Allen-A Co.'s employees number about 1,200 in their plant at Kenosha, where ladies' silk hosiery is produced. None of the departments in the plant were organized except the full-fashioned section, where about 300 knitters were employed, all of whom were members of the Full-Fashioned Knitters' Union, which is a branch of the United Textile Workers of America. On February 15 the company instituted the "two-machine system." The knitters refused to operate the two machines, whereupon the full-fashioned department was shut down and the operatives advised that they could return to work if they would sever their connection with the union. The knitters declined the invitation, and in a short time the company opened up with nonunion knitters, some being brought in from other States. Picketing was resorted to, and several near-riots occurred. An injunction was obtained by the company, and, following an

alleged violation of same, some 200 strikers were brought into court. A jury trial was demanded and granted to the prisoners, which resulted in an acquittal of all concerned. This court action had no effect on the strike and only added to the bitterness of feeling on both sides. The commissioner was courteously received by the manager of the plant, but he declined all his suggestions which might lead to a settlement and also refused to meet with a union committee or to recognize them in any way. Efforts of the city manager, chief of police, and others to effect a settlement were futile. By March 1 the issue had become so tightly drawn that Commissioner Canfield thought it advisable to abandon his efforts for the time being. Early in May he was recalled to the case by interested parties, who informed him that the company had changed from a "non-union" policy to an "open-shop" plan, where union and nonunion knitters might work together without discrimination. However, upon the commissioner's arrival on the case he found that the company's plan was to retain nearly all the workers who had been employed since the strike began and thus only a few members of the union could secure employment should they decide to go back under "open-shop" conditions. These conditions were not acceptable to the union, and the issues were found to be as tightly drawn as ever. On June 29 a committee of Chicago civic and trade organizations arranged a conference at which representatives of both sides were present. At this meeting a resolution was adopted requesting both sides to the controversy to appoint committees to enter into a joint conference to discuss the issues involved. The union representatives agreed to the appointment of such a committee and the company representatives agreed to give the request serious consideration. The case was in status quo at the end of the fiscal year.

Standard Oil Co., Whiting, Ind.—In a joint industrial-relations plan in effect at the Whiting, Ind., works of the Standard Oil Co. of Indiana, provision is made that when the machinery provided in the plan fails satisfactorily to adjust any question in controversy, it shall be appealed to the Secretary of Labor at Washington, D. C. The company and the employees' representatives shall then furnish the Secretary of Labor with every facility for the determination of the facts, and, if any employee is found to have been unfairly dealt with, the company shall make such reparation as the Secretary of Labor may deem just.

A question involving change in starting time in the railroad switching department was appealed to the Secretary of Labor by the employees' representative. Commissioner W. H. Rodgers was assigned to the case to make investigation and to render a decision in the matter. After making careful inquiry Commissioner Rodgers was able to bring about a satisfactory understanding between all parties interested in the case through mediation; hence the arbitration decision was not necessary.

Plumbers and steamfitters, Dayton, Ohio.—On May 1 the plumbers and steamfitters of Dayton, Ohio, went on strike for a wage of \$1.50 per hour, this being an increase of 12½ cents per hour over the rate in effect during the year previous. Upon being advised of the strike the department assigned Commissioner Hugh D. Friel to compose the difficulties, if possible. The commissioner held conferences with the officials of the plumbers and steamfitters' local union and with the labor committee of the master plumbers' association, and a joint meeting was arranged between the wage committees of the above organizations for May 8. This meeting was held in the rooms of the general contractors' association, and after an exhaustive discussion it became apparent that no settlement could be reached. The strikers were determined to gain some concessions while the employers seemed equally determined to grant nothing, in view of the fact that no other branch of the building trades had secured an

advance for the ensuing year. It became clear to the commissioner that the only hope of an adjustment lay in the strikers modifying their demands and he so advised them. As the local officers of the union showed no disposition to make concessions, the commissioner got in touch with the international officials of the union and induced them to send one of their representatives to Dayton to go into the matter. Upon the arrival of this official another joint conference was arranged and an agreement was reached that both sides should meet weekly to determine the feasibility of granting an increase in wages. Pending such determination the strikers returned to work.

Standard Plate Glass Co., Butler, Pa.—A strike of the 600 employees of the Standard Plate Glass Co., of Butler, Pa., occurred on November 15, 1927. When assigning conciliators to industrial disputes in the State of Pennsylvania a system of cooperation with the State bureau of industrial relations of the department of labor and industry has been worked out whereby joint assignments are made. Commissioner William Robinett was instructed to take up this case and Mediator Louis G. Hines was assigned by the State of Pennsylvania.

The mediators conferred with the officials of the company at Pittsburgh. The statement was made by the company officials that the window-glass industry was in the throes of industrial depression brought about by foreign competition and that if the company was to operate at all it must be at a reduced wage; hence it had made a reduction of 10 per cent to all receiving 40 cents per hour or less and a reduction of 15 per cent to all receiving over 40 cents per hour. The company also stated that it had filed complaint with the Tariff Commission at Washington, D. C., against the price established in this country by the importers of plate glass.

Later conferences were again held with the company officials at Pittsburgh and with the employees at Butler without result, the company maintaining that even at the reduced rate they might not be able to operate unless they received relief through an increase in the tariff on glass. It developed in conference with the strikers that they had already accepted two reductions of 10 per cent each and they protested bitterly against any further reductions.

The strike continued until February 17, at which time operations were resumed on a basis of a reduction of 5 per cent and $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent instead of 10 per cent and 15 per cent as first proposed.

Plumbers, Madison, Wis.—Members of the Plumbers' Local Union No. 167, Madison, Wis., declared a strike effective April 1, 1928, when their demand for a 40-hour week without a reduction in the weekly wage of \$57.20 was rejected by the Madison Master Plumbers' Association. Commissioner E. H. Dunnigan was assigned to the case on April 17. The plumbers based their demand on the theory that the 40-hour week would yield each journeyman plumber an additional 26 days' work in a year, thereby reducing materially the period of enforced idleness which they were forced to accept each year. The master plumbers opposed the demand upon the ground that the increased cost would have to be passed along to the public, which already was protesting against the high cost of plumbing work in Madison. Moreover, they maintained that several large construction jobs had been awarded since the first of the year to out of town nonunion contractors, who paid a rate less than that received by the union plumbers, and that this fact was driving the Madison plumbing industry into an open-shop status. They also indicated that unless the plumbers' union ceased its yearly demands for increased pay and shorter hours they would be forced to adopt the open-shop plan in order to do business in Madison.

On April 20 Commissioner Dunnigan succeeded in arranging a meeting of the contending parties. At this conference the association's committee submitted the following proposition:

"The members of the Madison Plumbers' Association agree to enter into a new contract for an indefinite period under the same provisions as embodied in the 1927 agreement; that commencing April 1, 1929, the pay shall be increased 5 cents per hour, and for each year thereafter an additional increase of 2 cents per hour will be granted: *Provided, however,* The contract may be canceled at any time after April 1, 1929, by either party thereto by giving the other party six months' notice in writing of intention to cancel."

After lengthy debate the association's proposition was rejected by the union's committee. The conference having failed to come to any agreement, adjourned.

On April 21 the commissioner again succeeded in arranging a conference. At this meeting a basis of settlement was agreed to on the following terms:

"A 2-year agreement to date from April 1, 1928, to April 1, 1930. That during the first year the work week shall be 44 hours, to be paid for at a wage rate of \$1.30 an hour (same hours and wages as paid under the 1927 agreement); that during the second year the work week shall be 40 hours on all new construction work; and on job work and overhauling the 44-hour week shall be recognized, wages on all classes of work to be paid for at a rate of \$1.37½ an hour."

United States Glove Co., Marion, Ind.—On January, 26, 1928, 200 employees of the United States Glove Co. at Marion, Ind., went on strike. The facts leading up to this action were substantially as follows:

Some time previously the glove company contracted with a Chicago agency to install an efficiency plan looking toward increased production at lower rates. After the plan had gone into effect it was found that the first five tables involving 60 workers had operated to reduce the pay of the operatives 22 per cent. It was proposed to make this up by what the workers termed "excessive and killing speed." After many meetings among the workers they decided to organize to resist the lowering of their wages. After organizing they applied for and obtained a charter from the Glove Workers of America. The operatives claimed, without contradiction by the management, that the latter had consented to the appointment of committees to meet with the management to talk over any inequalities which might arise. However, when this committee waited upon the company officials they were promptly discharged, the balance of the workers going out on strike in protest. The strikers were then advised that they would not be reemployed until or unless they dropped their membership in any affiliated labor organization.

Commissioner Robert M. Pilkington took up the case for the department in an effort to reach a settlement. After many conferences the management decided that they would not discriminate against union men and the strikers were invited to return to work at the same rates as obtained when they quit, with the privilege of retaining their union membership. They were also at liberty to appoint a committee of five or seven to confer with the management from time to time to correct any inequalities in rates, etc. Practically all the strikers returned to work under these terms, although the strike was not officially declared off. Commissioner Pilkington received the helpful cooperation of the State authorities in his efforts to reach an agreement.

Window-glass workers.—A strike of 1,500 members of three organizations of window-glass cutters and flatteners became effective October 1, 1927, owing to the failure to agree upon wage contracts for the ensuing year. All window-glass cutters and flatteners in the United States were involved.

Commissioner A. L. Faulkner was assigned to the case on October 4, 1927, and was successful in bringing about a satisfactory settlement between the Window Glass Cutters and Flatteners' Protective Association and the American Window Glass Co., at Pittsburgh, Pa., October 6, on the basis of the previous

year's wage rate, minor changes in the working rules, and a new clause in the contract which provided for an increase in the wage rate contingent upon any increase in the selling price of the product for the ensuing year, based upon the quotations made by the American Window Glass Co. This adjustment was interesting in its important bearing upon the pending wage adjustments of the two other organizations of cutters and flatteners, also on strike, and which subsequently adopted the wage rate thus renewed for the ensuing year.

On October 8 the Cutters and Flatteners' League of America reached a similar agreement with their employers, the Libby-Owens Sheet Glass Co., at Toledo, Ohio. On October 14 the Cutters and Flatteners' Association of America, assisted by Commissioner Faulkner, entered into a similar agreement with its employers, the Independent Cylinder Manufacturers, at St. Louis, Mo.

Thus, within a period of 10 days, peaceful relations were resumed between employers and employees in the window-glass industry embracing a territory extending from Pennsylvania to California and employing a total of 10,000 skilled workmen. The various plants involved resumed full operations on October 15, 1927.

Deep Vein Coal Co., Princeton, Ind.—Officials of the Deep Vein Coal Co., of Princeton, Ind., and officers of the United Mine Workers' Union jointly requested the good offices of Commissioner Edward Stewart to settle a dispute which had brought about a strike in the bituminous mines of that company. The trouble arose over the interpretation of the agreement, which provided that operators working a night shift for cutting coal with machine shall be paid 65 cents extra for each eight hours' work. The company maintained that the purpose of this section of the contract had been eliminated, due to improved machines which had been installed. The union denied this contention. It was decided to submit the case to arbitration, and both sides agreed upon Mr. John L. Lewis, president of the United Mine Workers, as arbitrator. Mr. Lewis took the case under consideration and rendered the following decision:

"The umpire finds that section 6 of article 7 of the agreement between the Indiana Bituminous Coal Operators' Association and the United Mine Workers of America, District No. 11, effective until April 1, 1928, reads as follows:

"Sec. 6. The operator shall have the privilege of working a night shift for cutting coal with machines. All men so employed shall be paid 65 cents extra for each eight hours work at night in addition to the scale per ton."

"In view of the precise provisions of the foregoing article of joint agreement, the umpire sustains the position of the mine workers and denies the claim of the company."

Carpenters, Lexington, Ky.—Carpenters at Lexington, Ky., to the number of about 300 laid down their tools on July 20, 1927, when their demand for a closed union shop was rejected by the employing contractors. On July 29 all other building craftsmen went out in sympathy. Commissioner George H. Van Fleet was assigned to the case by the department.

The tie-up in the building trades lasted about a week, when the men who had struck in sympathy decided to return to work. This action appeared to have a demoralizing effect upon the carpenters and a few of them returned to work. In view of the situation the commissioner suggested the advisability of calling the strike off while all the jobs were still available. This advice was accepted and at a meeting of the strikers it was unanimously voted to call off the strike and return to work at the old terms.

Tidewater Oil Co., Bayonne, N. J.—On Wednesday, May 17, 1928, 2,000 employees of the Tidewater Oil Co. at the Constable Hook plant of the company, Bayonne, N. J., went on strike, alleging the failure of the local manage-

ment to fully comply with the rules and regulations of the "works council." The council consisted of 12 officials of the company and 12 delegates from the employees of the different departments. The trouble arose over the discharge of a pump man and resulted in a walkout of the entire personnel of the plant. Commissioners William C. Liller and John A. Moffitt were assigned to the case and found the situation "deadlocked" and the plant shut down.

The strikers presented a series of grievances and demanded a settlement before they would return to work. The company insisted that the men return to work and then arbitrate the grievances through the works council. The strikers countered with the declaration that the general superintendent had created the conditions which brought about the strike and that conditions must be changed before they would return.

The commissioners conferred with the local officials on May 18 and 19 at Bayonne, and on Monday, May 21, called at the general offices of the company in New York and spent several hours in a discussion of the situation. At this conference several suggestions and recommendations were made by the commissioners. On the following day the president of the company proceeded to Bayonne and called a meeting of the workers. Several of the demands were granted, including the reinstatement of the discharged pump man, and with these concessions the strikers agreed to return to work, which they did on the morning of the 23d.

Plumbers, Pueblo, Colo.—Union plumbers of Pueblo, Colo., were locked out on March 18, 1928, when they declined to work on jobs where certain nonunion workmen were employed. The union maintained that their contract with the master plumbers was violated by the latter when union plumbers were ordered to work on building where nonunion carpenters, painters, and other building-trades men were at work. Every craft in the building trades council voted to support the journeymen plumbers and agreed not to work where nonunion workmen were employed. These conditions had obtained for upward of 30 days when the department took cognizance of the lockout and assigned Commissioner Thomas J. Williams to straighten out the situation if possible.

The commissioner found the building trades well organized in Pueblo, although a number of contractors did not employ union labor. This condition resulted in a number of sympathetic strikes, and the master plumbers claimed that they were losing much work and would have to go on an open-shop basis unless the situation could be remedied. The plumbers' lockout was found by Commissioner Williams to be but a phase of a general situation induced by the policy of the building trades council in demanding that all jobs be 100 per cent union or 100 per cent nonunion. He started in by endeavoring to bring about a change in method and system, viz, that by cooperation with the general contractors and subcontractors who were favorable to the employment of union men, all trades would agree to work on all jobs. This, as against the policy of taking union men off the job to be replaced with nonunion men.

In the commissioner's efforts to adjust the dispute along different lines than formerly pursued, it was necessary for him to attend meetings of all the local unions. While there was considerable opposition to the new plan at first, all of the unions except the carpenters finally agreed to the suggestions. A meeting was then arranged between a representative committee of the Allied Builders' Association and a committee of the building trades council, all sides being represented with the exception of the carpenters. The basis of a general understanding was reached which opened the way to a prompt settlement of the plumbers' lockout, and at a meeting between the master plumbers and union representatives the lockout situation was adjusted and the journeymen returned to work.

Shell Oil Co., California.—Commissioners Charles T. Connell and Ernest P. Marsh report continued peace between the Shell Oil Co. of California and its employees under the joint tripartite agreement known as the "Memorandum of Terms." This agreement enters upon its tenth year and in that period no dispute of major proportions has been experienced. The Memorandum of Terms is the detailed agreement covering wages and working conditions entered into by the employer and employee in conjunction with the Federal oil board. It recognizes a United States commissioner of conciliation as the interpreter of its terms when any misunderstanding develops. The negotiations for the renewal of the agreement for the ensuing year yielded momentous concessions to the employees. The 6-day work week was conceded with increased daily pay to offset the lessened number of hours worked. An additional week's vacation with pay was also granted. The agreement affects 5,500 men directly and an additional 3,000 indirectly.

Pure Oil Co., Newark, Ohio.—On August 10, 1927, a number of men employed in the well-drilling department of the Pure Oil Co., central Ohio field, were summarily discharged by their field superintendent for joining the oil-workers' union. The Department of Labor was requested to assist in preventing what might develop into an extensive strike of well drillers, tool dressers, and others employed in the field production part of this company's operations.

Commissioner Fred Keightly was assigned to the case, and, upon getting in touch with the field superintendent who had discharged the men, he was promptly and decisively informed that the men had been discharged for joining the union, that no one could work for that company and belong to a union, that conciliation was not needed, and that the entire matter was a closed incident. The individual contract between employer and employee, in which the employee agrees not to join any union, was also being used by this superintendent.

The commissioner, being of the opinion that the Pure Oil Co. did not indorse such an extreme labor policy as practiced by this man, and finding that active preparations were being made by other employees and their friends to combat the apparent autocratic attitude of the company, took the matter up to the central field management at Columbus, Ohio, and later to the president of the company at Chicago, Ill.

The head officials of the company took a much broader view of the situation than their subordinate, and after two conferences agreed to reinstate all the discharged men immediately and without prejudice, stating, however, that their action must not be construed as meaning that they recognized the oil-workers' union. This was explained to the men and understood, and thus, through the methods employed by the Conciliation Service of the Department of Labor, an amicable adjustment was reached.

The company and men alike were pleased with the outcome, the officials of the firm expressed appreciation of the fact that they had been saved the unpleasant effects of a great deal of undesirable publicity which undoubtedly would have resulted from the injection into their operations of a labor policy that they had no desire should be a part of their operating program, while the men were pleased to be restored to their jobs under the arrangement worked out.

Parker Mills, Warren, R. I.—In the early part of February, 1928, 500 textile workers, members of the United Textile Workers' Union, employed by the Parker Mills at Warren, R. I., walked out on strike when a notice was posted announcing an increase from 48 to 54 hours per week. A month later, while the strikers were still out, a general 10 per cent wage reduction took place in New Bedford and Fall River, and, since the Parker Mills operated three plants in Fall River, the cut was extended to the Parker Mills at Warren.

The strike had been in progress three months when Commissioner Anna Weinstock entered the situation. A conference was arranged by her, at which time the 48-hour week and recognition of the union were agreed on, but the deadlock on the 10 per cent wage reduction still remained.

The situation was made difficult by the fact that the owners had put the reduction into their Fall River mills, where it was accepted quietly by their employees. On the other hand, the Warren strikers belonged to the union, which was then waging a fight against the 10 per cent reduction in New Bedford, and 35,000 members of the organization there were on strike; therefore the Warren local felt it could not consistently accept the cut.

Another conference was arranged by the commissioner, at which she made the following suggestion, which was accepted by both the employer and the union: That the strikers return under the same conditions that existed prior to the strike, namely, the 48-hour week and the wage rate that existed before the reduction; that any readjustments necessary be made after the return of the strikers, with a committee of the workers and the management working jointly. The word "adjustments" was interpreted to mean that a 10 per cent reduction in labor cost would be effected either through the elimination of waste, speeding up of production, or the labor-extension system. If none of these changes in any given department were possible, then the workers in such a department would accept a cut in wages to make up the difference.

At the request of the management and workers it was agreed that the commissioner of conciliation meet with the overseers and the workers for the purpose of helping to work out these changes. After the strike ended and before the commissioner and other groups could begin to make necessary suggestions or changes, it was necessary that the small group of employees who had worked during the strike and the body of strikers operate on more friendly terms with one another. Great friction had existed after the return of the strikers.

The commissioner held meetings with each group separately and secured their promise of cooperation. The next day, when it was evident that these promises were being carried out by both parties, meetings of the department committees and their overseers were held for the purpose of making such recommendations as would effect the stipulated 10 per cent savings in labor costs.

At the end of two weeks it was found that changes in almost all departments outside of the weave shop could be recommended which would make it possible to save 10 per cent in costs to the owners of the mill without affecting the pay envelopes of the workers. In that department the type of machinery in use made it impossible to make any cost-saving changes.

Seattle building trades controversy.—Following the Seattle building trades strike of 1921, there were no written agreements between the builders and the Seattle Building Trades Council until the spring of 1927. On the first Monday in May, 1927, a blanket agreement covering all crafts affiliated with the building trades council was signed with the Seattle Construction Council for a period of one year. This agreement contained the usual provisions for adjustment of disputes during the life of the pact; that is, joint action by adjustment committees from both signatories with a further proviso that in the event the machinery of the industry failed to adjust disputes, the Conciliation Service of the Department of Labor should be given a chance to conciliate or mediate. Should such effort fail, a final arbitration board was to be chosen by the appointment of one member by each side, the third to be appointed by the Conciliation Service with the approval of both sides. This provision brought Commissioners E. P. Marsh and H. E. Gilham in close touch with the general situation constantly, although the relations between the parties at interest were so

friendly that the official services of the commissioners were not required throughout the year.

Early in 1928 the crafts began formulating their demands which they desired to be incorporated in a renewal of the agreement. Practically all of them asked for a dollar per day increase. The carpenters asked for a 5-day week while the building laborers—not formally recognized in the 1927 pact—asked formal recognition. It soon became apparent that the fight was going to turn around the two latter demands. All wage requests were formally withdrawn by the building trades council conference committee, leaving the 5-day week and union recognition for the laborers the remaining issues. Upon these issues both sides deadlocked for a period exceeding three months, the commissioners keeping in close contact with every development of the controversy.

A citizens' committee composed of representatives of the large financial and business interests, was again drawn into the negotiations, as it had been in 1927. This committee held many meetings with both sides. This committee proposed that a fact-finding committee be created to study competitive building conditions in other Pacific Coast cities and to recommend whether or not the 5-day week and recognition of the laborers should be granted. This compromise proposal was submitted to a referendum vote of the affiliated unions and substantially defeated. It appeared that a break was imminent, and the seriousness of the situation depressed the business interests of the city. Seattle, after a period of depression following the death of the big war-time industry—shipbuilding—had entered a period of growth, and 1928 was expected to reach the peak of the city's building construction.

At this juncture a final meeting of all parties was held and a further compromise proposed, namely, that the 5-day week for carpenters be granted immediately for the four summer months of June, July, August, and September, the fact-finding committee to determine whether further extension of the 5-day week was justified and whether the building laborers should be formally recognized. This proposal, also sent to referendum vote, was ratified by a heavier vote than the former proposal had been rejected.

Meanwhile the asbestos workers had become impatient and had gone out on a strike of their own, unauthorized by the building trades council. They were contending that they had not authorized the conference committee to withdraw their wage demands and had not been taken care of in previous years when other crafts were receiving wage increases. Their places were taken by non-union men. Immediately upon the ratification and signing of the new blanket agreement, Commissioners Marsh and Gilham went into conference with union officials and contractors for heat and insular work in an endeavor to clean up the asbestos workers' situation. This effort was successful, the union men returning to work to be followed by conferences to consider their particular conditions.

The new blanket agreement has been signed for a period of three years, or until the first Monday in May, 1931. All the old machinery of adjustment remains in force, including the services of the Conciliation Service of the Department of Labor written into the agreement. The fact-finding committee has been appointed by the citizens' adjustment committee and has begun its research work.

A feeling of profound satisfaction exists among all classes of Seattle's citizens over the fact that the city is assured of enduring peace in this great basic industry for a period of at least three years.

Carpenters, Buffalo, N. Y.—In May, 1928, carpenters in the city of Buffalo, N. Y., struck when their demands for an increase in wages of \$1 per day were

refused by the contractors affiliated with the Associated General Contractors of America.

For many months the building trades council of the city, which is composed of representatives of every craft engaged in the building trades, had been cooperating with the secretary of the Associated General Contractors of America, Mr. Richard O'Keefe, in an effort to perfect a policy under which no further strikes would occur in the building industry. It was sought to accomplish this without arbitration and solely by methods of mediation and conciliation. Each craft was asked to send delegates to meet with a committee of the general contractors' association each year, and this, it was thought, would save much time which heretofore had been consumed by negotiating with each craft separately. All crafts agreed to this proposal except the carpenters, who desired to effect their own settlement. When it was explained to the carpenters that it was the intention to have them negotiate their own contract, but to do so at the general meeting, they readily agreed to go along with the proposal.

The carpenters had gone along two years without a wage increase, their compensation being \$1.12½ per hour. Practically all the other crafts had received adjustments in their wages during this period, and the carpenters felt that to equalize the rates it would be just for them to receive \$1.25 per hour. The contractors agreed to give them one-half of the increase after six months and the balance at the end of a year. This method of granting the increase was not satisfactory, however, and a strike of 3,000 carpenters followed.

Commissioner Thomas M. Finn was assigned to the case and within 48 hours after his arrival had arranged a joint conference and brought about a settlement. The carpenters received their increase in two installments and signed a 2-year contract. In a letter to the department the commissioner was commended for his activities in the case.

Shoe workers, Haverhill, Mass.—In the "Slipper City" of Haverhill, Mass., the Manufacturers Association and District Council of the Shoe Workers' Protective Union are parties to a "peace pact" which was adopted in 1923 after dropping other forms of arbitration. An arbiter was selected and the expenses of his office were equally borne by the association and the union. The method appeared to give satisfaction until a general wage decision in December, 1926, aroused criticism in certain local unions. Strikes and lockouts were prohibited by the peace pact, but a group of workers found it convenient to take "time out." When these stoppages occurred the process of manufacture had to stop when it reached the operation performed by these groups.

Local unions affiliated with the district council held a referendum vote in an endeavor to recall the arbiter. The vote as recorded showed a majority of locals in favor of such a recall. The arbiter continued to hold his position, but he was naturally embarrassed by the opportunity afforded both parties to criticize his ruling and awards. On May 20, 1927, the arbiter announced that no hearings would be held until further notice. In a statement in support of his position he claimed that wages were too high and that the peace pact restricted the arbiter at almost every turn, and he criticized "dominating groups" in several unions. He urged that immediate negotiations be undertaken by the parties which would change or abrogate the peace pact.

The recommendations were not accepted by the parties to the dispute. Commissioner Charles G. Wood earnestly endeavored to secure an adjustment of the disputed issues without destroying the existing peace pact. The arbiter was finally cited before the superior court on the ground that the terms of the pact had been violated and therefore he would not be qualified to act as an impartial arbiter. The court supported these contentions and the arbiter retired. Another

arbitrator was selected, the final choice being made by a citizens' committee to which the question was referred when the parties to the peace pact disagreed. The selection did not appear to harmonize the differences, and a general strike followed his decision on the general wage list.

At a subsequent conference in 1928 it was agreed that representatives of the manufacturers and of the district council, accompanied by Commissioner Wood of the department, should go to Washington and request the Secretary of Labor to authorize the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the department to make an examination of the manufacturing costs in the Haverhill shoe shops. The Secretary gave the matter immediate consideration and arrangements were speedily made to assist the parties to determine the questions at issue.

Bituminous coal situation.—At the close of the fiscal year ended June 30, 1927, the dispute over the wage scale in the bituminous coal fields was in effect, particularly in western Pennsylvania, northern West Virginia, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, and the southwest districts.

The suspension started some months previously, and grew out of a dispute regarding the Jacksonville wage agreement which had been effective from April 1, 1924, to March 31, 1927. The coal operators contended that they could not continue to pay the Jacksonville scale and compete in the markets. The union miners insisted that there could be no reduction in wages.

In the early part of October, 1927, a temporary agreement on the Jacksonville wage basis extending same to April 1, 1928, was reached in Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, and the southwest districts.

The strike in northern West Virginia, Ohio, western Pennsylvania, and central Pennsylvania grew to serious proportions, and, at the request of the miners' officials for a conference, the Secretary of Labor invited the coal operators and the miners' representatives to meet him in his office December 13, 1927. The invitation stated that the meeting would be for frank discussion of all problems and issues affecting the mining industry, with the object of bringing about, if possible, a satisfactory and peaceful situation in the coal fields affected by the suspension.

Many of the coal companies invited did not accept the invitation and were not represented in the conference. Several of the companies in declining the invitation to attend stated that they were operating on the Jacksonville wage scale and had no desire to enter into negotiations with the miners' representatives. However, the operators were represented from each of the fields when the conference convened in the office of the Secretary of Labor on December 13, 1927. The international and district officials of the miners all accepted the invitation to the conference. The lack of a larger and more representative attendance on the part of the operators prevented any constructive action looking to the development of any plan of settlement of the dispute, or the adoption of any proposal that might be used as a basis to begin joint negotiation to discuss and consider all the ills of the industry. The joint conference was adjourned on the afternoon of the first day's session, but a committee of operators and miners was requested to remain and with the Secretary endeavor to reach an understanding. In view of the comparatively small annual tonnage represented at these conferences, it was evident that no real progress could be made; and finally, after two days spent in frank discussion, the committee adjourned subject to call.

The temporary agreement in Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, and the southwestern districts expired on March 31, 1928. However, some individual agreements were entered into.

In July, 1928, International President John L. Lewis, of the United Mine Workers of America, called a meeting of the international policy committee to

convene at Indianapolis, Ind., on July 11. This meeting continued in session until July 18, during which time careful consideration was given to the situation existing in the bituminous coal fields. It was finally agreed that the respective district committees could work out their own agreements subject to ratification by the miners. Since that meeting some of the Ohio miners and operators, and a majority of the mines in the Southwest, the latter comprising Kansas, Oklahoma, Arkansas, and Missouri, have reached agreements on a new wage scale. Illinois signed an agreement with a \$6.10 a day wage scale and a 17 cents per ton mining reduction. Iowa agreed upon a rate of \$5.80 and a proportionate tonnage reduction. Wyoming settled upon a day-rate basis of \$6.72 and a pick-mining rate of 85 cents per ton. Negotiations in some of the remaining fields are being conducted.

On October 18, 1928, the Indiana operators and miners entered into a State-wide agreement on a reported scale of \$6.10 per day and 91 cents per ton mining rate.

Miners' officials report several additional agreements have been reached with individual companies in many districts throughout the country.

UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

FRANCIS I. JONES, *Director General*

During the fiscal year ended June 30, 1928, the United States Employment Service in cooperation with the several States placed in employment 1,412,645 men and women. The following table shows registrations, opportunities for employment, and placements made during the year:

	Registra- tions	Oppor- tunities	Placed
July (5 weeks).....	215,741	155,940	135,874
August (4 weeks).....	188,491	142,902	125,110
September (5 weeks).....	217,664	182,904	155,954
October (4 weeks).....	198,356	162,286	143,304
November (4 weeks).....	170,719	122,736	109,092
December (5 weeks).....	163,447	108,474	97,265
January (4 weeks).....	162,082	92,086	82,128
February (4 weeks).....	155,667	86,570	76,627
March (5 weeks).....	193,530	118,767	104,968
April (4 weeks).....	178,906	128,200	111,737
May (5 weeks).....	218,844	168,583	148,256
June (4 weeks).....	195,368	137,716	122,240
Total.....	2,259,095	1,607,344	1,412,645

The major portion of the expense of maintaining the public employment service is borne by the several States and municipalities. The Federal Government, however, makes a small financial contribution to assist the several States, as well as provides forms to conduct its work, and renders other valuable assistance. The United States Employment Service acts as a medium for the clearance of labor.

Junior division.

As no clearance of labor is involved in conducting junior placement offices, it is regarded as a local problem and responsibility.

However, it is a problem of sufficient importance to engage the consideration of the Federal and State Governments. The junior of to-day becomes the man of to-morrow. His future success may depend entirely upon intelligently directing him to the first job in which he engages. This phase of the work of the Employment Service should receive more earnest and thoughtful consideration, so that the future juniors may be better prepared to meet the exacting demands of the world of business and industry. Following is a summary of activities of the 29 junior cooperating offices during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1928:

Registrations-----	56, 116
Referrals-----	36, 741
Placements-----	26, 037
Jobs registered (calls for help)-----	29, 117
Office interviews-----	152, 875

Industrial employment information division.

This division is charged with the collection of information concerning the industrial employment situation existing throughout the country from month to month. To facilitate this the country is divided into nine districts with a director in each. Contacts have been established by these directors in the leading industrial centers of their districts. The information is supplied by industrial leaders, business men, labor union officials, chambers of commerce, and other reliable sources. Through these contacts the district directors are able to keep in constant touch with the industrial and employment trends in their respective districts. The information supplied is compared and checked by the district directors before submitting their reports to the administrative office, where they are carefully reedited and published in the Industrial Employment Information Bulletin. A special edition is prepared for the press, so that the information contained therein may be released to the public as early as possible. The information contained in this bulletin is developed from reports each month on conditions in approximately 590 centers.

A growing demand for this publication by the leading industrialists, railroads, banking institutions, libraries, economists, and business men emphasizes its importance and value to the industrial world. It is furnished monthly to all cooperating public employment offices to enable them intelligently to direct labor to places where there is an apparent shortage.

Farm labor division.

1927 calendar year.—The farm labor division undertakes to recruit systematically and to distribute labor to harvest the seasonal crops. This activity of the United States Employment Service extends to more than one-half of the area of the United States, being confined

largely to the territory west of the Mississippi River. As most of the labor to harvest the seasonal crops is recruited from outside territory, it is important that careful surveys be made to ascertain the labor requirements in each territory in order that a surplus of harvest laborers in any particular section be obviated, and at the same time that the demand for laborers be fully met. These surveys are published from time to time in bulletin form and sent to all recruiting points.

A daily reporting system has been established by which the central office or field headquarters obtains a record of the daily activities, together with reports of shortages, surpluses, labor needs, wages, and all facts necessary to the intelligent handling of men in the harvesting of the crops. If the available supply of labor is not adequate to meet approaching needs, this information is developed sufficiently in advance to enable the Employment Service to recruit such additional labor as may be required.

The activities of this division are distributed over three districts: The southern or cotton area, comprising Texas, Louisiana, Mississippi, parts of Oklahoma, New Mexico, and Arizona; the central district, embracing northern Oklahoma, Arkansas, Missouri, Kansas, Colorado, Nebraska, Iowa, South Dakota, Minnesota, North Dakota, and Montana; and the northwestern section, including Washington, Oregon, Idaho, and extending into California and Utah.

Each year has added to the growth and development of this phase of the Employment Service, and it is considered one of the essential undertakings of the Federal Government to aid and assist the farmers. Prior to the time the Federal Government undertook to supply harvest hands to the farmers, a chaotic condition prevailed, resulting in labor shortages and serious losses to agriculture. In 1921 there was one permanent office located at Kansas City. To-day there are 11 permanent offices established at strategic points, and in the year under consideration more than 100 temporary offices were maintained for a period ranging from a few days to several weeks' duration as the needs of the district required.

In the last few years revolutionary changes have taken place in the invention of labor-saving devices for the harvesting of seasonal crops, and in no branch of agriculture have the newer methods been more felt than in wheat harvesting, the new machine being able to harvest approximately 50 acres per day and reducing the number of men formerly required for wheat harvest. The wide introduction of this machine has at times complicated the placement work of the farm labor division. Seasonal conditions which occasionally arise render the use of this machine impracticable. At such times the division is pressed to the utmost to supply harvesters for the emergency.

Following is a summary of the number of seasonal farm laborers and general farm hands directed to employment by the farm labor division during the calendar year ended December 31, 1927:

Cotton picking.....	227,900
Cotton chopping.....	1,430
Land clearing (mesquite grubbing).....	9,650
Wheat and small grain harvesting.....	90,631
Berry picking.....	56,629
Fruit picking.....	12,734
Other seasonal labor.....	16,822
	415,796
General farm workers.....	18,058
Total.....	433,854

UNITED STATES HOUSING CORPORATION

LEWIS E. REED, *President*

During the fiscal year ended June 30, 1928, the Housing Corporation collected from its real estate holdings \$1,442,502.04, itemized as follows:

Disposal of properties.....	\$1,159,386.40
Operation of properties.....	7,556.33
Interest on loans.....	275,559.31
Total.....	1,442,502.04

Appropriation disbursements on account of these collections totaled the sum of \$71,671.23, representing 4.96 per cent of the amount collected. Attention is called to the fact that \$283,115.64, i. e., operation and interest, was received without impairment of assets and exceeds the expenditures by \$211,444.41.

Aside from and in addition to the above there was collected from the occupants of the Government Hotels at Washington, D. C., \$358,096.74 during the fiscal year under consideration. The total expenses for the same period aggregated \$335,617.81, an excess of receipts over disbursements of \$23,678.93; though this amount is not profit, as neither interest nor amortization has been calculated.

A complete survey of the organization of the corporation was made during the past year and as a result a number of positions were abolished and others consolidated. Several field offices were closed and others reduced in size and there were eliminated from the pay rolls salaries aggregating annually \$54,500. As the corporation's holdings become liquidated the field offices will, so far as practicable, be closed and the remaining duties transferred to the Washington office.

Sales and conveyancing.

Total contract sales for the past year approximated \$35,000, the bulk of which comprised vacant lots of comparatively low sales

prices. During the same period 305 deeds, 257 notes and mortgages, and 265 deeds of release have been prepared and transmitted to various projects for delivery.

A superficial consideration of the matter of the conveyancing might lead one to suspect that it largely is a matter of routine. But an intimate understanding of the nature of the actual work involved will convince that the fact is otherwise. Where numerous contracts of purchase have been in existence for a number of years, a great many changes must necessarily occur affecting the legal status of the parties, such as death, marriage, insanity, divorce, guardianship, administration, and the like. In fact, all problems applicable to the law and procedure of general conveyancing are presented. Obviously the corporation must require that such disabilities be remedied by appropriate action in each instance before it may accept purchase money notes and mortgages from parties thus incapacitated. The corporation has for several years been without legal representation in such matters at its various projects, and hence these questions and the procedure to be followed have devolved upon the Washington office. These obstacles will continue to be encountered.

Mention was made in last year's report of the difficulty which theretofore had been experienced with municipal authorities at Hammond and which, up to that time, had made impossible the closing of the contracts there by deed, note, and mortgage. That impediment since has been removed and the deeds, notes, and mortgages covering these properties have, with three or four exceptions, been transmitted for delivery and the number has been included in the present report. Comment also was made on the case of the purchase by a man and his wife of properties in the Pacific coast project of Vallejo to the effect that controversy had arisen as to whether the purchasers had made the contract with notice of certain easements which had been imposed for the general benefit of the project, and that it was to be feared that the disagreement finally would result in litigation. An amicable adjustment recently was accomplished by the acceptance by the purchasers of a supplemental agreement and by the placing of a deed, satisfactory to the corporation and to them, in escrow for delivery upon compliance being made with the terms of the new contract.

Requisitioned property.

A large proportion of the property of the corporation was acquired by requisition proceedings by virtue of the act of the Congress of May 16, 1918, and subsequent acts and parts of acts amendatory thereof. Owing to the exigencies of the war, the act was found necessary in order to insure the immediate taking of title and possession of properties by the Government where purchase by contract was impossible, or where negotiations were likely to be indefinitely pro-

longed on account of defects of title or inability of the parties to agree upon prices and terms of sale.

Title by requisition, therefore, was taken as against all owners and claimants under liens, whosoever they might be or wheresoever they might reside. Compensation based on appraisements thereafter was fixed by the Secretary of Labor and paid to claimants accordingly as their interests were proved and established. The procedure promulgated for this purpose necessarily was somewhat involved, not to say complicated.

The bulk of the great number of cases considered has long since been disposed of, but for years there have remained some which have seemed to be impossible of adjustment. The reasons for this condition have been varied and scarcely any two cases have been similar. Almost every legal impediment affecting the title and ownership of lands has been encountered. On account of the fact that the claimants, with a few exceptions, have been widely scattered, it has been impossible to negotiate with them except through the slower and more unsatisfactory medium of the mails.

During the past year, however, constant and energetic effort has resulted in the adjustment and closing of six or more of these cases, and very decided progress still is being made with respect to numerous others of this class. One claimant, especially, may be cited as a typical example: He is a sailor who touches port but rarely. The corporation attempted to purchase his property in one of the Pacific coast projects. He was not available to execute a deed, and there also were defects in his title. The property was requisitioned for immediate use and compensation thereafter was fixed by the Secretary of Labor in the amount of the sales price. After long delay he filed his claim for the full amount of the compensation, pending his efforts to clear the title. Later he decided to accept 75 per cent of the compensation and sue for a larger amount as permitted under the act. Meanwhile he had failed to have remedied the defects of titles. But although it is the individual duty of claimants to furnish clear title before receiving compensation as would be required where purchases were made under contracts, the corporation nevertheless undertook to aid him, and after considerable effort, requiring much time, succeeded in obtaining the execution of instruments which cured the objectionable features. The corporation still is confronted with the adjustment of some twenty-odd cases, of which the foregoing is most characteristic.

Litigation.

During the past year the Supreme Court of the United States rendered its decision in a case involving the question of the assessment of local taxes against properties of the corporation, which previously had resulted in serious complications at several of its projects.

The case involved the question as to whether properties sold by the corporation had become subject to State taxation prior to the vesting of title in the purchasers who had paid sufficient of the purchase money to entitle them to receive deeds subject to their executing mortgages for the balances of the various purchase prices.

The United States District Court for the District of New Jersey previously had held that such lands were taxable, and were subject to sale for the enforcement of the collection of delinquent taxes. Thus, under the said decision, if the purchasers failed to pay the taxes the corporation would be called upon to pay the same in order to preserve the liens of the Government for the unpaid purchase prices.

The Circuit Court of Appeals for the Third Circuit, to which the decision of the district court was appealed, reversed the lower court and held that such lands were not subject to taxation prior to the dates when the corporation parted with its title.

The question presented to the Supreme Court was rather perplexing, as the opinions of the courts below presented the two views quite clearly and forcibly. The act of Congress approved July 19, 1919 (41 U. S. Stat. 163), in authorizing the corporation to dispose of its holdings, provided that no sales on credit should be made without reserving first liens for the balances of the unpaid purchase moneys, and the Supreme Court in reaching its conclusion gave a practical construction to the provisions of the said act and held that the liens of the Government for the unpaid purchase moneys could neither be waived nor made subordinate to the tax liens of the State.

The right of the State to assess taxes to the purchasers was not directly passed upon by the court, but it was clearly decided that the interest of the corporation, retained and held as security for the payment of the unpaid purchase moneys, could not be subjected to sale for taxes.

Guided by this decision the corporation is in position to negotiate rather than litigate the tax controversies which hitherto have cast a cloud upon the titles and impeded the conveyancing in the several communities where the complications have existed.

Litigation in the Court of Claims involving the corporation has been limited to suits instituted by owners of lands which were taken under requisition proceedings during the late war. Former owners, who were dissatisfied with the amounts fixed as fair and reasonable compensation for the land so acquired by the Government, have seen fit to avail themselves of the provisions of the act of Congress approved May 16, 1918 (40 U. S. Stat. 550). This act permits them to institute suit against the United States for such amounts as, when added to the amount of compensation fixed by the Secretary of Labor, will constitute fair and reasonable compensation for the taking of the land involved.

With respect to such suits it may be stated that the judgments rendered by the court have been slightly in excess of the amounts fixed by the Secretary as compensation.

A situation which prevailed at the Quincy, Mass., project, growing out of the condemnation by the State of certain lands and the assessment of betterment taxes on remaining properties for the extension of an arterial highway through the project, not only aroused the protests of the corporation's purchasers, but also threatened to impair the mortgage security held by the Government for the payment of the balances of the purchase moneys. However, as a result of representations made by the corporation and after a hearing by the State department of public works, the corporation was successful to the extent of releasing its security only upon payment to it of the damages awarded by the State as compensation for losses sustained by the purchasers, as well as in securing abatement of the betterment assessments levied against the unsold properties of the corporation.

Following the policy established by the corporation from the inception of its sales program, foreclosure suits against delinquent purchasers have been instituted only as a last resort to protect the interest of the Government. In cases where the purchasers have evinced an intention of carrying out their purchase agreements in the face of temporary adversity, partial monthly payments have been accepted without prejudice to the rights of the Government; but in cases where purchasers have shown no inclination to carry out their obligations, foreclosure proceedings have been instituted and a representative of the corporation has attended the sales for the purpose of preventing the properties from being sacrificed to the prejudice of the interest of the Government.

In addition to the foregoing the corporation has participated in other litigation, such as the defending of suits relating to the collection of special assessments for municipal improvements, the defending of suits for damages for injuries alleged to have been sustained through its negligence at the various projects, appearing in partition suits concerning the real estate which it contracted to sell, as well as the answering of citations issued against it in probate and bankruptcy proceedings affecting properties in which it held a mortgagee's interest.

It may be stated that this branch of the work has been on par with that encountered by any other corporation that engages in interstate realty business on a large scale.

Insurance.

Since the inception of the corporation's sales program it has carried fire insurance for the joint protection of the Government and the purchaser, the premiums therefor being a part of the purchaser's obligation. A card system for each project covering expirations,

renewals, and changes in ownership is necessary for this feature. At the close of the fiscal year 1928 the corporation had in its possession 1,764 fire policies with an aggregate coverage of over seven and one-half million dollars.

Government hotels.

The uncertain tenure of the hotels has resulted in a gradual reduction in patronage of those Government employees who desire a home of a more permanent nature.

In order that expenditures be kept well within a constantly reduced income, notable economies were inaugurated during the past year. Over 60 positions were eliminated from the pay rolls, producing a saving in this item alone of over \$25,000. Outstanding contributions to this were the reorganization of the food service department with a reduction of over 50 per cent of its administrative and clerical force; and the mechanical department, where an amalgamation of heads and redistribution of work accounted for approximately 20 per cent of the saving mentioned above.

At the close of the year five dormitories, housing 619 guests, the mechanical plant, administration building, restaurant and kitchen, and infirmary comprise the hotels group. The remaining seven buildings are either occupied by, or ready for assignment to, other Government activities.

From its surplus plant and equipment the hotels have performed laundry service for practically the entire roster of Government departments and bureaus for several years past. During the fiscal year 1928 over 2,500,000 towels and some 60,000 miscellaneous articles were called for, laundered, and delivered, at an estimated saving of over 40 per cent from previous expenditures for these items.

DEPARTMENT LIBRARY

During the year 9,839 books and pamphlets were catalogued and added to the library collection, which now includes over 128,000 volumes besides much uncatalogued material for which no count has been made. About 24,000 index cards were filed in the main catalogue. Since the library is very strictly limited to the field of work of the department, the catalogue of approximately 325,000 cards is becoming a most valuable selected bibliography of the social and economic sciences.

Approximately 46,000 separate numbers of periodicals were received, recorded, and circulated to the bureaus. The list of periodicals currently received was carefully revised during the year, the entries reviewed, and full cross references prepared. The revised list now covers 1,843 journals in 28 languages. Of particular value among these are the official statistical, labor, and social-welfare journals received currently from 50 countries.

Efforts to complete the files of publications of American trade-unions in the library have been continued during the past year. In addition, correspondence has been carried on with a large number of the national trade-union organizations in other countries and the international federations of labor in the effort to bring the foreign trade-union collection up to date. Also, many new exchange relations have been established with child-welfare and economic research organizations in foreign countries.

The pressure of other work made it impossible to complete for publication as many bibliographies as in previous years. Lists of references on Absenteeism in Industry, Union Management Cooperation, and Recent References on Convict Labor were contributed to the July, October, and May issues of the *Monthly Labor Review*. With the growing emphasis upon cooperation instead of strife in industry, the bibliography on Union Management Cooperation proved to be particularly timely, requests for the list coming from as far away as South Africa. Considerable work was done during the year on two longer bibliographies on the important subjects of Unemployment, and Injunctions in Labor Disputes. These will probably be completed during the summer.¹

No statistics can be presented showing the steady day-by-day reference work of the library in aiding investigators within the department, readers from outside research bureaus, or individual students, or in answering inquiries by telephone or correspondence. The subjects cover a very wide range and often involve considerable research. During the past year the library has been made use of by a number of students of labor problems from foreign countries attracted to the library because of the unique character of the collection and the expert bibliographical assistance afforded them.

BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

ETHELBERT STEWART, *Commissioner*

The Bureau of Labor Statistics is the principal fact-finding agency of the Department of Labor. Its duty as set forth in the creative act is to "collect information upon the subject of labor * * * and the means of promoting the material, social, intellectual, and moral prosperity" of the wage earners of the country.

During the fiscal year under review the bureau continued, as in previous years, to gather and publish statistical data on such subjects as wages and hours of labor in various industries, union scales of wages and hours of labor, strikes and lockouts and collective agreements, employment in selected industries, wholesale prices, retail

¹ Bibliography on Injunctions in Labor Disputes, printed in *Monthly Labor Review* for September, 1928.

prices, cost of living, productivity of labor in various industries, industrial accidents, industrial safety codes, labor legislation in the various States and decisions of courts affecting labor, building operations in principal cities of the United States, cooperation (other than agricultural), industrial hygiene, and workman's compensation.

In addition to these more or less permanent lines of work, a large part of the bureau's resources was devoted to special investigations and studies dealing with subjects of outstanding current importance.

Of special interest, in this connection, is the effort of the bureau to expand the scope of its employment surveys. Continued expansion of this work has been made possible by an additional appropriation by Congress. This appropriation did not become available until July 1, 1928, but in anticipation thereof preliminary plans for the broad extension of the bureau's employment studies had been made. The plans call for a very considerable increase in the number of industries and the number of establishments engaged in manufacturing, and, in addition, for the inclusion of other large industries, notably wholesale and retail trade, building construction, public utilities, mining and agriculture. Supplementing these data on volume of employment an attempt will be made to ascertain the actual amount of unemployment by a field survey of typical communities, following the general method used in the unemployment survey by Baltimore City in February, 1928. A study will be made, also, of the methods used in European countries in compiling statistics on unemployment and of the character and completeness of such statistics.

In view of the great interest in the problem of unemployment, a very large part of the bureau's energy has been devoted to this subject. The other fields of activity of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, however, have not been diminished in any way, but, on the contrary, have tended to expand. Only the more important activities are covered in the following review of the year's work.

Employment in manufacturing industries.

During the year the monthly reports of the Bureau of Labor Statistics on employment in selected manufacturing industries have been continued and constantly enlarged until at present the number of establishments covered exceeds 11,000, in 54 leading manufacturing industries. These reports show the number of people employed and the total amount of their earnings in one week, and also changes in per capita earnings, changes in operating time, and the percentage of full-time and part-time operation for the plants as a whole.

About three-fourths of the establishments covered make reports directly to the bureau each month; the remaining establishments make reports to the department of labor of the State in which they are

located, these departments in turn furnishing the Bureau of Labor Statistics with a copy of the data, thereby saving a duplication of reports on the part of the establishments. At present this cooperative arrangement is in force with seven States—California, Illinois, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, and Wisconsin.

Index numbers, which show relatively the variations in number of persons employed and in pay-roll totals in each industry surveyed, as well as for all industries combined, are published by the bureau, together with charts which show the course of employment over a series of months. These graphic charts make easily possible a comparison of industrial activities in the current month with conditions in previous months, and especially with conditions in the same month of the preceding year, the last-named comparison being a most reliable measure of general industrial conditions.

In handling the monthly data on employment statistics every effort is made to secure prompt compilation and publication of the results. Under the system now employed a mimeographed summary statement of the data for each month is released on or about the 16th of the succeeding month and a printed pamphlet containing all details is issued about a week later.

Measures to combat unemployment in Europe.

Unemployment on a large scale is an old problem in many European countries. None of these countries has solved the problem, but many are trying vigorously to do so and with interesting results. For the information of Americans interested in this subject the bureau made a short study of the measures to combat unemployment in a few representative European countries—Great Britain, Germany, Hungary, and Estonia. This study, published in the *Monthly Labor Review* for April, 1928, was sufficiently comprehensive to offer interesting and valuable suggestions to American students of the problem.

WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR, BY INDUSTRIES

Wages and hours of labor are matters of such intense interest and importance to both employers and employees that the Bureau of Labor Statistics has always devoted much attention to these subjects. Wage studies indeed are continually in progress. In several of the large industries such studies are made biennially, the bureau's funds not permitting annual surveys. The smaller industries are covered less frequently, and many lesser ones can not be covered at all.

During the past fiscal year the bureau completed field surveys of wages and hours of labor in the following industries: Cotton gins, cotton compresses, cotton-oil mills, foundry and machine shops, and

slaughtering and meat packing. These studies were in addition to the regular annual survey of union wages.

Cotton gins, compresses, and oil mills.

In the fall of 1927 the bureau made a study of wages, hours, and employment conditions in these three closely correlated industries, comparatively little information having heretofore been published concerning them. These industries are located in the South in or near the cotton-growing district, and all three are highly seasonal, being active in the cotton picking and marketing months of the year.

Cotton gins.—Technically the cotton gin is the machine which separates the cotton fiber from the seed. In a broader sense a cotton gin is a plant wherein cotton as it comes from the field is cleaned, ginned, and baled.

The extreme limit of operation for a gin may be as much as five months, starting in the late summer, the dates varying from year to year according to the early or late maturity of the cotton plant. At the beginning of the season the gins operate part time, according to the supply of cotton received. As the supply increases the operating time lengthens until the gins operate at full capacity and for long hours. Gins operate on Sundays only during the busiest part of the season. If the cotton is received in great quantity, the gin may operate late into the night, or may operate a night shift. After the busy season operation gradually declines, with shorter hours and fewer days' work, until the season closes.

The study made by the bureau extended into 10 States, from North Carolina to Texas, data being obtained from 76 establishments. The average hours worked per week for all employees were found to be 64.5, and the average full-time earnings per week, \$19.40.

Cotton compresses.—To save space and thus obtain lower freight rates on cotton for export or for shipment from the gins to distant localities the bales of cotton made in cotton gins are reduced by pressure in cotton compresses to about one-half the original size. Generally compresses are operated in conjunction with cotton warehouses.

Cotton compressing in establishments independent of other work is largely seasonal, following closely the season of picking and ginning of cotton. In warehouses, however, the work is done only on orders for export or for shipment.

The warehouses are generally open the entire year, but the presses are operated only intermittently. They may run steadily all day or for only an hour or two, and the employees who run the press part of the day may work in the warehouse the remainder of the day. In many plants the compress is seldom in operation a full day at a time, the work generally being done in small lots. It is the practice

in most of the plants to keep a regular compress crew for use when needed. When not compressing cotton members of the crew work around the press and warehouses, carrying, straightening, and cutting bands, keeping the machinery in repair, and moving cotton from one place to another. Extra helpers are let go when the press is not in operation, but are usually ready to return when wanted.

It was found that the male employees worked an average of 49.6 hours per week and that their average full-time weekly earnings were \$17.76. Very few females were employed.

Cottonseed-oil mills.—Until a comparatively few years ago cottonseed was considered of little or no value and in many localities was thrown away. It was then learned that the cottonseed meal and hulls were valuable as stock feed and fertilizer, and that the oil in the seed could be used for various purposes, resulting in the development and rapid growth of the cottonseed-oil industry.

The industry, like cotton gins and cotton compresses, is seasonal, the mills operating full time or nearly so during the cotton picking and ginning season and closing down entirely part of each year. In 1927 the 67 mills covered in the study were in operation an average of 33 weeks, the operating time ranging from 20 to 52 weeks. While the mills are closed, employees, except a small number who are usually kept for repairs and cleaning, get work on farms or at odd jobs.

Average hours of labor of male employees per week were found to be 64.6 and average full-time weekly earnings were \$17.02. There were almost no females employed in this industry.

Foundries and machine shops.

The wage survey of foundries and machine shops covered nearly 39,000 wage earners in 417 representative foundries and nearly 87,000 wage earners in 526 representative machine shops. As similar studies were made by the bureau in 1923 and 1925, a comparison with earlier years is possible.

Between 1923 and 1927 average full-time hours for foundries decreased 2.5 per cent, average earnings per hour in all occupations combined increased 11.8 per cent, and average full-time earnings per week increased to 9.1 per cent. The increase in full-time earnings per week was less than that in average earnings per hour because of the decrease in average full-time hours per week.

Full-time hours per week were a little lower in machine shops than in foundries. Earnings per hour in machine shops were almost the same each year as in foundries; the closeness is striking. In machine shops full-time hours per week decreased 1.4 per cent between 1923 and 1927, earnings per hour increased 11.8 per cent, and full-time earnings per week increased 10.2 per cent.

The following table shows the data for the three years.

Average hours and earnings for all employees, 1923, 1925, and 1927

Year	Average full-time hours per week	Average earnings per hour	Average full-time earnings per week
Foundries:			
1923.....	52.4	\$0.558	\$29.24
1925.....	51.5	.610	31.42
1927.....	51.1	.624	31.89
Machine shops:			
1923.....	50.8	.559	28.40
1925.....	50.4	.602	30.34
1927.....	50.1	.625	31.31

Slaughtering and meat packing.

Data for the slaughtering and meat-packing industry were obtained from 86 of the largest plants of the United States and covered more than 57,000 wage earners.

The study covers every operation in each of 13 departments. It begins with the driving of live cattle, hogs, and sheep from the local stockyards, covers all operations and processes necessary to convert the animals into the various meat products and by-products, and ends with the loading of the finished products into delivery trucks and refrigerator cars for distribution. The departments included are: Cattle killing, hog killing, sheep and calf killing, offal, hide, casing, cutting and trimming of fresh beef, cutting and trimming of fresh pork, lard and oleo oil, sausage, cured meat, canning, and maintenance and repair.

The average hourly earnings for the industry as a whole were higher in 1927 (50.1 cents) than in any of the preceding years covered by the bureau's surveys. The hourly earnings of the male workers were higher in 1927 than in any other year, but those of the woman workers were slightly higher in 1921 than in 1927.

An approximate 8-hour day, or 48-hour week, was established in 1918. In July, 1922, many plants included in the 1921 study increased the hours to a 9-hour day, or 54-hour week, but since then a large number of them have returned to the 8-hour day and 48-hour week. The average full-time hours in the industry in 1927 were 49.3 per week, as compared with 50.1 in 1925.

Full-time weekly earnings in the industry in 1927 averaged \$24.70, which was higher than in previous years except 1923, when it was \$25.31.

Of the 86 plants covered in the 1927 study, the employees in all occupations in 45 plants and those in some of the occupations in 16 plants are guaranteed pay for a specified number of hours per day or week. To be entitled thereto the employee must report for duty

and work all the hours the plant or department operates on each day or in each week.

UNION SCALES OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR

For a number of years the bureau has made an annual survey of union scales of wages and hours of labor for trades paid on a time basis. Data for 66 representative cities are collected as of May 15 each year by personal visits of special agents of the bureau in the case of 50 cities and by cooperation of the State bureaus of Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and Ohio for the other 16 cities located within those States.

The report for 1927 covered bakers, building trades, chauffeurs and teamsters and drivers, granite and stone cutters, laundry workers, linemen, longshoremen, book and job and newspaper printing trades, street-railway motormen and conductors, bus drivers, and barbers. Trades in the above groups are shown separately for each of the 66 cities and include a total of 862,308 trade-union members for whom minimum wages and maximum hours under agreements are shown.

The average hourly wage rate for 1927 of all time trades covered was \$1.19 as compared with \$1.15 in 1926, or an average increase of 4 cents per hour. This upward movement was very general among the various organizations, but the amount of increase was by no means uniform and some trades suffered slight losses. Thus, of the 74 time-work trades covered by the survey, 63 obtained increased wages in 1927 as compared with 1926, while the remaining 11 showed slightly lower average rates in 1927 than in 1926. The showing by principal trade groups is as follows:

Average hourly wage rates in specified trades in 1926 and 1927 and increase, 1927 over 1926

Trade groups	Average hourly wage rate		Increase 1927 over 1926
	1926	1927	
Bakers.....	\$0.925	\$0.957	\$0.032
Building-trade workers.....	1.278	1.323	.045
Chauffeurs, teamsters, and drivers.....	.663	.704	.041
Granite and stone cutters.....	1.330	1.321	1.009
Laundry workers.....	.441	.432	1.009
Linemen.....	.993	.991	1.002
Longshoremen.....	.835	.817	1.018
Printing and publishing:			
Book and job.....	.997	1.021	.024
Newspaper.....	1.155	1.190	.035
Motormen and conductors.....	.662	.682	.020
Average for all trades ²	1.148	1.190	.042

¹ Decrease.

² Not including pieceworkers or street-railway motormen and conductors.

Coincident with the rise in wage rates was a further reduction in hours of labor, the average in 1927 being 45.2 hours per week. Excluding street-railway employees, for whom hours of labor were not obtained, the chauffeurs, teamsters, and drivers had the longest regular working week—namely, 54.7 hours—while of the 73 time-work trades covered 58 averaged less than 45 hours per week. The plasterers, as a group, had the shortest regular full-time working period per week, 42.1 hours, many of their local unions being on a flat 5-day, 40-hour week.

Comparing conditions in 1927 with those in the pre-war year 1913, union wage rates per hour show an increase of 159.5 per cent and full-time hours a week a decrease of 7.6 per cent.

Entrance wage rates for common labor.

Beginning in January, 1926, the bureau has made periodical surveys of the entrance wage rate paid common labor in various industries employing a large amount of such labor. The survey for January, 1928, covered 13 industries with 120,840 common laborers on their pay rolls. The information is obtained by correspondence and largely from establishments which make monthly reports to the bureau on the subject of volume of employment.

The weighted average entrance rates per hour for all industries covered, including general contracting, have been as follows: July 1, 1926, 42.8 cents; October 1, 1926, 43.4 cents; January 1, 1927, 43.2 cents; July 1, 1927, 42.6 cents; **January 1, 1928, 43 cents.**

Omitting the data for general contracting, which was first included in these compilations on July 1, 1926, average entrance rates per hour for the periods studied were: January 1, 1926, 40.2 cents; April 1, 1926, 40.5 cents; July 1, 1926, 40.9 cents; October 1, 1926, 40.9 cents; January 1, 1927, 41 cents; July 1, 1927, 40.4 cents; January 1, 1928, 41.1 cents.

Index numbers of wages, 1840-1926.

During the year under review the Bureau of Labor Statistics brought up to the end of 1926 its series of index numbers of general wage rates (other than agricultural) beginning with the year 1840. The compilation is not, and can not be, all inclusive; but it is based on such a volume of data as to make it at least fairly indicative of the trend of wage rates.

The compilation referred to is reproduced below and serves a valuable purpose in giving a broad picture of wage movements during a period of almost 90 years.

Index numbers of wages per hour, 1840 to 1926 (exclusive of agricultural)

[Currency basis during Civil War period. 1913=100]

Year	Index	Year	Index	Year	Index	Year	Index
1840.....	33	1862.....	41	1884.....	64	1906.....	85
1841.....	34	1863.....	44	1885.....	64	1907.....	89
1842.....	33	1864.....	50	1886.....	64	1908.....	89
1843.....	33	1865.....	58	1887.....	67	1909.....	90
1844.....	32	1866.....	61	1888.....	67	1910.....	93
1845.....	33	1867.....	63	1889.....	68	1911.....	95
1846.....	34	1868.....	65	1890.....	69	1912.....	97
1847.....	34	1869.....	66	1891.....	69	1913.....	100
1848.....	35	1870.....	67	1892.....	69	1914.....	102
1849.....	36	1871.....	68	1893.....	69	1915.....	103
1850.....	35	1872.....	69	1894.....	67	1916.....	111
1851.....	34	1873.....	69	1895.....	68	1917.....	128
1852.....	35	1874.....	67	1896.....	69	1918.....	162
1853.....	35	1875.....	67	1897.....	69	1919.....	184
1854.....	37	1876.....	64	1898.....	69	1920.....	224
1855.....	38	1877.....	61	1899.....	70	1921.....	218
1856.....	39	1878.....	60	1900.....	73	1922.....	208
1857.....	40	1879.....	59	1901.....	74	1923.....	217
1858.....	39	1880.....	60	1902.....	77	1924.....	223
1859.....	39	1881.....	62	1903.....	80	1925.....	226
1860.....	39	1882.....	63	1904.....	80	1926.....	229
1861.....	40	1883.....	64	1905.....	82		

The early part of 1920 was a period of great industrial activity, and in this period employment and hourly earnings reached their highest point. A sharp downward trend of employment occurred in the latter part of the year. There was a great reduction in employment in the depressed year, 1921, accompanied, as might be expected, by a reduction in wage rates. The slump continued in 1922. As business conditions improved in 1923 there was a gain in wage rates, which has been augmented each succeeding year.

International comparison of real wages.

The very great interest in international comparisons of wages led the international labor office some years ago to present such a comparison, an important city in each of several countries being taken as representative. For the United States the city of Philadelphia is selected and the data used are derived from the wage and price studies of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics.

The figures presented by the international labor office are in the form of index numbers of real wages; i. e., actual wages adjusted to the relative purchasing power of wages in the various cities covered. The table given below presents the index numbers as compiled by the international labor office for January, 1928, and indicate the character and interest of the comparisons as made. It should be noted that the wage data relate only to a few classes of workers, namely, those in the building, metal, furniture, and printing and publishing trades, and that the price data are limited to certain articles of food and to rent. Thus, the index numbers can be taken only as a very rough indication of the relative levels of real wages of adult male workers in certain occupations and cities. In many

instances, however, the figures shown indicate such wide differences between cities that they may be accepted as reflecting real differences in the level of well-being of the workers in different countries.

It will be seen that Philadelphia had the highest real wage level of any of the 17 cities included, its index number being 192, or 92 per cent higher than that of London. Ottawa had the next highest figure, with Copenhagen, the highest of the European cities, coming next, while the wage level in Rome was less than one-fourth that of Philadelphia, and in Lisbon less than one-sixth. However, the international labor office points out that the low levels of Rome and Lisbon may be accounted for in part by the differences in the items of food consumption in the southern European countries from those ordinarily consumed in most of the other countries included in the table.

Index numbers of comparative real wages in various cities, January, 1928

[London, January, 1928=100]

City	General average index numbers		City	General average index numbers	
	Based on food only	With allowance for rent		Based on food only	With allowance for rent
Philadelphia.....	192	192	Madrid.....	55	-----
Ottawa.....	162	160	Vienna.....	47	53
Copenhagen.....	109	109	Lodz.....	47	48
Dublin.....	101	110	Brussels.....	46	49
London.....	100	100	Rome.....	45	47
Stockholm ¹	90	89	Warsaw ²	44	46
Amsterdam.....	82	82	Tallinn.....	40	-----
Berlin.....	66	61	Lisbon.....	30	-----
Paris.....	59	-----			

¹ The figures are based on wages in the building, furniture-making, and printing industries only. For other cities the metal industry is also included.

² Based on a weighted average wage. For other cities an unweighted average has been used.

Wage studies in progress.

At the close of the fiscal year the wage surveys were in progress for the following industries—the manufacture of electrical equipment and appliances in household and office use, cotton-goods manufacturing and woolen and worsted goods manufacturing. The survey of union wages for 1928 also was under way at this time.

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES

During the year the division of industrial disputes continued its efforts to improve its methods for securing prompt and accurate reports of strikes and lockouts. The statistics compiled by the bureau are now published monthly in the Labor Review. In addition a summary for each calendar year is also prepared and published. The summary for the year 1927 shows that the number of disputes during the past several years has been at a low level. Thus in 1927

the number of disputes in which the number of persons involved was reported was only 734, with 349,434 workers affected, or a smaller number than in any other year since the beginning of the bureau's reports in 1916.

As during the previous year, the outstanding dispute during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1928, was that of the bituminous-coal miners in the union coal fields. This dispute began April 1, 1927, and is still unsettled.

Since January, 1927, the completeness of the statistical reports on industrial disputes has been increased by the addition of the following items: Number of disputes in effect at end of month, number of workers affected by disputes in effect at end of month, and the number of work days lost during month, by reason of industrial disputes.

Collective agreements and arbitration awards.

The bureau seeks to follow, in the pages of the Labor Review, the principal developments in the field of trade agreements and industrial arbitrations. In addition it compiles and issues each year a bulletin giving the principal features of representative agreements signed during the year, with particular reference to any new developments in the field of trade-union policy or practices. The bulletin for 1927 is now in press.

The bureau continues to find difficulty in obtaining copies of agreements and arbitration awards. It has no special equipment for the purpose and must rely largely on the labor organizations and employers to furnish copies of these documents. In the future it is planned more closely to coordinate this work with that of obtaining data for the union wage scales bulletin, so that the agents of the bureau engaged on the latter work can be used to obtain copies of collective agreements in all the principal trades in the cities visited.

During the fiscal year under review there do not seem to have been any very novel developments in trade agreements. The trend toward shorter hours and higher wages continued, as shown in detail in the bureau's reports on union scales of wages. On the whole, however, it was a year in which old agreements were renewed with relatively few changes.

As during the previous year, arbitration awards under the railroad labor act have occupied a most important place. In practically all of these awards wage increases were granted.

RETAIL AND WHOLESALE PRICES

Retail prices.

Data relating to retail prices of food have been collected and published by the bureau for a number of years. Prices are now secured for 43 articles in 51 cities. The information is furnished by approxi-

mately 1,500 retail dealers, the number ranging from 10 to 15 in the smaller cities to as high as 30 in several of the larger cities. In addition, reports are being received from about 240 bakeries, 225 retail coal dealers, 80 gas companies, and 70 electric-light companies. Coal, gas, and electricity prices are now secured in each of the 51 cities for which food prices are collected.

Retail price data are published annually in a bulletin which also contains figures for each year back to 1890. In addition, comparative monthly and yearly prices are published in each issue of the Labor Review. The figures are published in the form both of averages and index numbers. The index numbers for all food articles combined are computed from weighted aggregates of actual money prices in order that each article may have an influence equal to its relative importance in consumption in the average family, the year 1913 being used as the price base or 100 per cent.

During the 12 months ended with June 30, 1928, retail prices of food have shown a downward trend, the index number for June being 152.6 compared with 158.5 for the corresponding month of 1927.

Wholesale prices.

Wholesale prices in representative markets of the country are now being collected each month by the bureau for more than 600 commodities. The information collected by the bureau is published annually in bulletin form, each bulletin containing monthly data for the last two years and yearly data back to 1913. Detailed information is also published monthly in pamphlet form and in the Labor Review. Press releases issued each month show the current trend of prices.

The bureau's results show that wholesale prices appreciably advanced in the fiscal year covered by this report, the revised weighted index number computed on prices in 1926 as the base rising from 93.8 in June, 1927, to 97.6 in June, 1928, an increase of 4 per cent. Farm products increased $10\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, foods $6\frac{1}{4}$ per cent, and textile products 2 per cent in the year. Hides and leather products show the largest increase of all, with a net rise of $15\frac{1}{4}$ per cent in 12 months. On the other hand, fuel and lighting materials and building materials decreased somewhat within the fiscal year, while pronounced decreases took place in prices of crude rubber and automobile tires in the group of miscellaneous commodities. Little change in the general price level is shown for the groups of metals and metal products, chemicals and drugs, and house-furnishing goods.

During the fiscal year the revision of the bureau's index numbers was completed back to 1913. This revision consisted of (1) a change in the price base from the pre-war year 1913 to the last completed year, 1926, and (2) the substitution of more recent data in place of the 1919 weighting data formerly used in the construction of the index numbers. In addition, a considerable number of articles of great

importance, such as automobiles and tires, agricultural implements, prepared fertilizers, by-product coke, rayon, and box board, were introduced into the index, while several articles no longer important, as clay worsted and middlesex suiting, Bessemer steel billets, and Bessemer rails, were dropped.

COST OF LIVING

Index numbers of changes in the cost of living in the United States are now compiled by the bureau every six months, as of June and December. The following table gives the full series of index numbers for cost of living as a whole and for the country as a whole from 1913 to June, 1928.

Index numbers showing changes in cost of living in the United States, 1913 to June, 1928

Date	Index Nos.	Date	Index Nos.	Date	Index Nos.
Average, 1913.....	100.0	September, 1921.....	177.3	June, 1924.....	169.1
December, 1914.....	103.0	December, 1921.....	174.3	September, 1924.....	170.6
December, 1915.....	105.1	March, 1922.....	166.9	December, 1924.....	172.5
December, 1916.....	118.3	June, 1922.....	166.4	June, 1925.....	173.5
December, 1917.....	142.4	September, 1922.....	166.3	December, 1925.....	177.9
December, 1918.....	174.4	December, 1922.....	169.5	June, 1926.....	174.8
June, 1919.....	177.3	March, 1923.....	168.8	December, 1926.....	175.6
December, 1919.....	199.3	June, 1923.....	169.7	June, 1927.....	173.4
June, 1920.....	216.5	September, 1923.....	172.1	December, 1927.....	172.0
December, 1920.....	200.4	December, 1923.....	173.2	June, 1928.....	170.0
May, 1921.....	180.4	March, 1924.....	170.4		

The figures in the above table are compiled from the 32 cities in which cost of living data are obtained.

In computing changes in the cost of living there are two essential steps. One is to find the differences at different times in the prices or cost of the various articles entering into the usual family expenditures; the other step is so to "weight" the prices of each article or group of articles that it will have its proper effect on the cost of living as a whole. For this latter purpose it is necessary to know the amounts spent by average families for the various items of food, clothing, rent, etc., and this information can be obtained only by a study of the budgets of a large number of families.

The need for a new budgetary survey has been frequently pointed out during the past few years. The value of the bureau's cost of living figures depends very largely upon the accuracy of the measurement of the standard of living as derived from the family budget survey. The survey now being used for weighting purposes was made in 1918-19, and although the 12,096 families scheduled were widely scattered, shipbuilding centers were given rather undue prominence, as the survey was made primarily for use in wage adjustments in

shipyards. Also, since the war there have undoubtedly been many changes in the consumption habits of the American people.

It can not be too strongly emphasized that cost of living index numbers are not merely of abstract or scientific interest. They have a very practical value. A study of the actual use of cost of living figures in wage adjustments was recently made by the bureau. This study showed that the bureau's periodical indexes were being used in wage adjustments by large numbers of private companies, by State and municipal agencies, by arbitration boards, and by organized labor.

INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENT STATISTICS

The work of this division during the past year has been chiefly devoted to the following tasks: (1) Continuation of its studies of accidents in the iron and steel industry; (2) continuation of its general surveys of accident statistics in various States; (3) a special study of accidents to window cleaners; (4) an investigation to ascertain how far the safety codes sponsored by various scientific organizations, as published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, are now being adopted by the various States.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics was led to undertake the study of industrial accidents by a resolution of the United States Senate in 1910. This resolution directed the bureau to conduct an investigation covering hours, wages, and working conditions in the iron and steel industry. When the special investigation came to an end it was determined to continue the study of the iron and steel industry. From that time to the present an annual review of the industry has been carried out.

Lack of resources has prevented the bureau undertaking similarly comprehensive accident studies for other industries. In a more general way, however, a periodic general survey of accidents in various industries has been undertaken. In 1925 information was secured for 1,272 concerns located in 11 States and employing the equivalent of 555,988 full-year workers. In 1926 the coverage was 2,212 concerns located in 25 States and employing the equivalent of 989,294 full-year workers. It is anticipated that the number of concerns may exceed 3,000 in 1927.

Safety codes.

The bureau is represented on a considerable number of the sectional committees which are engaged in the formulation of national safety codes under the procedure of the American Standards Association. The Department of Labor delegates to the bureau the responsibility of providing representatives of the workers on the committees

for the preparation of safety codes. The Commissioner of Labor Statistics is the authorized representative of the department on the standards council.

The safety codes thus far projected are some 40 in number. Of these 30 have been completed and approved. The bureau has published 14 of these codes for extended distribution to State industrial boards and industrial concerns.

Standardization of accident statistics.

Some years ago at the instance of the bureau the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions organized a statistical committee. This committee gave prolonged attention to the problem of standardizing accident statistics. The result of this effort was finally embodied in Bulletin 276. Since its issue this bulletin has had a steadily increasing use until it may fairly be said to have become the standard.

Since very considerable changes have occurred since the preparation of Bulletin 276, it was agreed between the international association, the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and the accident prevention conference of July, 1926, to undertake a revision according to the procedure of the American Standards Association. A regular sectional committee has been organized and revision is now in progress.

INDUSTRIAL HEALTH

The Bureau of Labor Statistics was one of the pioneer organizations in this country in the study of occupational hazards and diseases, and through its work it has been an active force in the movement toward reducing the casualties among workmen resulting from the use of hazardous processes and substances. The present work of the bureau in the field of industrial hygiene consists of the publication of occasional bulletins dealing with industrial poisons or diseases; a review of articles on specific occupational hazards appearing in the current medical journals, which is published each month in the *Labor Review*; and replies to inquiries which come to the bureau from all parts of the country regarding the hazards from specific poisons used in industrial processes or from gases, dusts, and fumes.

The work of the bureau in this field—a work which it is particularly fitting should be done by this office—is hampered by lack of funds to maintain a properly trained and equipped personnel. Although some work is being done along this line in other departments of the Government it is to this department that both employers and workers look for information as to the hazard of the various poisonous substances used in industry and the processes in which such substances are employed.

Perhaps the most recent example of the need for extension of this service is found in the fatal cases of radium poisoning which have occurred among women employed in painting watch and clock dials with luminous paint. This type of poisoning furnishes one of the horrible examples of the dangers of industrial employment. The action of the radium, once it is taken into the system, strikes at the very center of the human body; that is, the organs in which the blood is formed. Unlike most poisons, practically none of the poison is eliminated from the system and the victim of such poisoning has before him the prospect of a lingering and extremely painful illness and death.

A special study made for the bureau during 1927 by Dr. Carey P. McCord deals with the effects of lead absorption and presents a new test by which the effects of exposure to lead may be detected before actual clinical lead poisoning takes place. The study was published during the year as Bulletin No. 460, *A New Test for Industrial Lead Poisoning*. The study involved the examination of more than a thousand persons, some of whom were exposed to lead while others were used as controls in checking the results of the examination. The diagnosis of lead absorption or poisoning as proposed in this bulletin depends upon the presence of immature red cells in the blood stream.

The bureau has now under way two very important studies in the field of industrial health, namely, the use of radium and radioactive substances in the manufacture of clock dials and other articles; and the use of the spray method in the painting of automobiles, furniture, and other objects.

LABOR LEGISLATION AND DECISIONS OF COURTS AFFECTING LABOR

The principal duty devolving upon this division is the preparation annually of two bulletins, one containing digests and reprints of acts passed by Congress and by the several State legislatures affecting labor, and the other containing a summary of important selected decisions of courts, both Federal and State, of interest to labor.

In addition the law division gives special attention to the subject of workmen's compensation laws. A separate series is published on this subject. The Canadian laws are considered with those of the American States. The latest volume (No. 423), *Workmen's Compensation Legislation of the United States and Canada*, contains a history, analysis, comparison, and reprint of this legislation up to the beginning of 1927. A supplementary volume containing new laws and amendments will be published when the material warrants it.

Besides these routine bulletins, special studies are made on subjects of current importance, such as minimum wage laws, labor laws declared unconstitutional, and wage payment laws.

A considerable amount of legal research is often necessary, particularly during the period Congress is in session. The opinion of the department is sought as to the constitutionality and effect of many of the bills affecting labor introduced in Congress.

The law division is interested in the movement to further the better administration of labor legislation. Laws of States which have attempted to solve a particular labor problem are made available to other States by the bureau. The experts of the division, through long and impartial study, are in a position to supply valuable information to those interested in drafting model or uniform legislation to meet a particular need.

Labor laws of Latin-American countries.

The bureau has been engaged for some time in the preparation of a complete compilation in English of the labor laws of all Latin-American countries. Through the cooperation of the Department of State, original copies of most of these laws have been secured, and the work of translating is now under way. It is planned to publish the Mexican laws first, and it is hoped that this can be done within a few months. Considerable delay, however, is inevitable owing to the difficulty of securing the original laws in some instances, as well as to the time required to make a careful translation of such a large volume of material.

Workmen's compensation.

In less than 20 years all the States except five have passed legislation extending the protection of workmen's compensation to workers within those States. Because of the rapidity of the acceptance of the theory of compensation it has been necessary to have some central, impartial organization to gather and publish the results of the experience of other States. Before workmen's compensation acts were passed and after passage but before they were amended to cover more workers or more injuries, to improve the administration of the acts, to secure the award or better the act generally as a result of their experience, investigations were necessary and the experience of other States sought. In seeking new methods for improving the administration of an act the officials charged with these duties sought the advice and experience of others who were doing similar work. The Bureau of Labor Statistics has, by general agreement, become the clearing house of information concerning compensation legislation, decisions of courts, and the activities of the various State boards and commissions administering the compensation laws of the various States and Territories.

BUILDING OPERATIONS

The Bureau of Labor Statistics collects, annually, data concerning building permits issued in cities of the United States having a population of 25,000 or over. Reports were received for 1927 from 302 cities. The total amount spent for building operations in these cities was \$3,593,839,405. Of this amount, \$1,961,899,529 was for new residential buildings, \$1,278,541,605 for new nonresidential buildings, and \$353,398,271 for repairs to old buildings.

These 302 cities had a population of 43,919,581 on July 1, 1927, according to an estimate of the Bureau of the Census. Accommodations were provided in new buildings in these cities for 418,878 families, or at the rate of 95.4 families to each 10,000 population. The per capita expenditure for all building operations was \$81.83.

Reports of building permits issued have been received from 257 identical cities for each year from 1921 to 1927, inclusive. In 1921 dwelling places were provided in new buildings for 224,545 families. Of this number 58.3 per cent were housed in one-family dwellings compared with 24.4 per cent in apartment houses. The remaining 17.3 per cent were housed in two-family dwellings. During 1927, however, 48.3 per cent of the families domiciled in new buildings were provided for in new apartment houses and only 38.3 per cent in single-family dwellings.

While the expenditure for new buildings of all kinds in these 257 cities was 17.6 per cent lower than the amount spent during 1925, the peak year of building construction, it was 99.5 per cent more than the 1921 expenditure. The expenditure for residential building in these cities was 103.3 per cent more than in 1921 and for nonresidential building was 93.7 per cent greater than 1921. The population of these 257 cities had increased 15 per cent during the same period according to estimates of the Bureau of the Census.

In 1921 the average cost of the one-family dwellings for which permits were issued in these 257 cities was \$3,972 while in 1927 it was \$4,830, an increase of 21.6 per cent. The average cost per family unit of apartment houses had risen in the same period from \$4,019 to \$4,170, an increase of only 3.8 per cent. These cost figures apply to the building only. The cost of the land is not included. They do not purport to show the cost of building a house each year on identical plans and specifications. The figures show only what was spent on the buildings for which permits were issued in these cities. The 1927 wholesale prices of building materials was 1.7 per cent less than the 1921 prices, while the union wage rates in the building trades was 28.5 per cent more than the 1921 wage rates.

CONSUMERS' COOPERATION

The Bureau of Labor Statistics has for nearly a decade been following the development of the consumers' cooperative movement not only in the United States but throughout the world. An attempt is made to sketch for the public all new developments by means of the Labor Review, in which a regular section on cooperation is carried month by month. The first comprehensive statistical study of the consumers' societies made in this country was that of the bureau in 1920. In 1927 a second and more extensive study was completed and published, which covered all phases of the movement except the cooperative marketing of agricultural products.

In the main, the cooperative-store movement appears to have prospered in moderate degree during the year under review.

More and more stress is being laid upon correct business practice and upon training courses for employees of the cooperative movement. Work along this line is being carried on by the national educational body, the Cooperative League, and the three district leagues. Training courses have been given for a number of years in the northern district, first by the wholesale and later by the league. In 1927 the Eastern States Cooperative League gave its first course of this kind.

LABOR TURNOVER

The cooperative arrangement with the Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., noted in last year's report, continues. The number of companies furnishing reports has now increased to more than 300. These companies furnish each month a statement of the number of employees taken on and the number leaving, the latter being divided into those leaving voluntarily, those laid off, and those who were discharged. From these a monthly rate is computed, the results being published quarterly in the Labor Review. It is planned eventually to work out a rate which will show, also, labor stability; that is, the proportion of the force which remained in the continuous employment of the company during the whole year.

Such figures as the above are valuable in locating danger spots in the plant, i. e., departments or occupations whose conditions require improvement as well as being of value as a measure of the success of any plans which may have been adopted to assist in stabilizing the force.

The table following shows the accession and quit rates, by months, from January, 1927, to May, 1928.

Average turnover rates during 1927 and 1928 in selected American factories¹

[Monthly rates are stated on an equivalent annual basis]

Month	Accession rate		Total separation rate ²		Voluntary quit rate		Lay-off rate		Discharge rate	
	1927	1928	1927	1928	1927	1928	1927	1928	1927	1928
January.....	36.3	33.4	40.8	27.8	23.1	15.9	12.3	8.3	5.4	3.6
February.....	41.7	32.0	36.9	28.2	21.8	14.7	9.6	7.9	5.5	4.7
March.....	43.2	36.5	42.5	31.8	29.8	19.5	6.4	8.1	6.3	4.2
April.....	47.5	41.3	48.3	37.9	32.4	25.4	9.7	7.5	6.2	5.0
May.....	48.0	43.8	44.7	38.4	31.9	25.6	7.6	7.9	5.2	4.9
June.....	45.0	-----	43.9	-----	29.1	-----	8.0	-----	6.8	-----
July.....	37.8	-----	35.7	-----	24.4	-----	6.0	-----	5.3	-----
August.....	39.6	-----	36.4	-----	23.0	-----	8.5	-----	4.9	-----
September.....	43.6	-----	46.2	-----	33.8	-----	6.4	-----	6.0	-----
October.....	40.8	-----	39.6	-----	25.3	-----	8.5	-----	5.8	-----
November.....	31.6	-----	31.5	-----	18.0	-----	9.3	-----	4.2	-----
December.....	23.7	-----	27.2	-----	14.8	-----	8.6	-----	3.8	-----

¹ The form of average used is the unweighted median of company rates, except for the total separation rate, which is the sum of the median rates for voluntary quits, lay-offs, and discharges.

² Arithmetic sum of voluntary quit, lay-off, and discharge rates.

PRODUCTIVITY OF LABOR

Productivity of labor in merchant blast furnaces.

The study of productivity of labor in merchant blast furnaces, now in press, measures the increase in productivity in recent years in terms of output per man-hour and analyzes the causes of increased production with special reference to technical improvements and to reductions in the number of men required in the labor crews. The principal conclusions of the study are as follows:

Productivity of labor in the merchant blast-furnace industry was more than doubled in the 16-year period from 1911 to 1927. For those plants covered by the bureau survey the average output of pig iron per man-hour of labor in 1911 was 0.14 gross ton, while for the year 1926 the output per man-hour was 0.296 gross ton, and for the first six months of 1927, 0.3 gross ton. Or, to state it another way, it required approximately 7 hours and 7 minutes of labor time to produce a gross ton of pig iron in 1911 as against 3 hours and 23 minutes in 1926 or 3 hours and 20 minutes in the first half of 1927.

Productivity of labor in newspaper printing.

Data for this study were obtained by a field survey direct from the pay rolls and production records of representative establishments for 1926, and, in certain cases, for 1916. As data of a similar character were available for the year 1896 from the earlier study of cost of production in various industries made by this bureau while operating as an independent establishment known as the United States Department of Labor, comparison of productivity and labor costs could be made for a 30-year period.

The analysis of the material obtained as above described shows that there has been a very considerable increase in the productivity of labor in newspaper printing during recent years, although the changes were by no means uniform for the several processes. Moreover, there has been constantly in operation a factor which tends to check the cheapening of time and labor costs, namely, the emphasis placed by modern newspapers upon rapidity of issuing the completed papers. Methods are utilized which mean the greatest possible saving in what is called "clock time" and these are not necessarily the most economical methods.

As an example of increased productivity in newspaper printing the experience of a representative paper, for which complete data were obtainable for 1916 and for 1926, may be cited. In making comparison between these two years, an arbitrary unit of measurement had to be used in order to allow for a change in the size of the page during the period covered. The unit adopted was an issue of 10,000 copies of a 4-page paper, each page containing the equivalent of 59,200 ems of 5½-point type. In 1916 the production of a unit as just described required 215 man-hours, while in 1926 only 158 man-hours were required. In 1916 the money cost per unit was \$135.77, while in 1926, owing to the increased output per man-hour the money cost had advanced to only \$200, or barely 47 per cent, in spite of the fact that average hourly wage rates had risen approximately 85 per cent.

Labor productivity studies in progress.

The study of labor productivity in the loading and unloading of vessels has not yet been completed. This study necessitated a visit by a bureau agent to the principal ports of the United States and the obtaining of the data desired directly from the local companies.

The study of labor productivity in certain branches of the iron and steel industry is nearing completion. The section on merchant-blast furnaces is in press and its principal findings are noted above. The remaining sections will deal with blast furnaces operated in connection with steel works and with open-hearth and Bessemer furnaces.

SETTLEMENTS FOR ACCIDENTS TO AMERICAN SEAMEN

During the past year the Bureau of Labor Statistics completed a study of settlements for accidents to American seamen. The study compares the actual settlements with the probable amount payable had each accident case studied been adjudicated under the provisions of the longshoremen and harbor workers' compensation act, the seamen at the same time retaining their right to wages to the end of the voyage and also to maintenance and cure. The study was of sufficient coverage to indicate whether the seamen would have benefited had

they been covered by the provisions of the longshoremen's act as contemplated in the original bill.

The study showed the following comparisons between the average amounts actually paid and the amounts which would be payable under the provisions of the longshoremen's act. In 899 cases not involving litigation the average actual settlement was \$262.47, as compared with an average estimated settlement of \$352.56 under the compensation act. In the 296 cases involving litigation the average "gross" settlement was \$1,317.03 and the estimated average "net" settlement \$790.22 as compared with an average estimated settlement of \$821.07 under the compensation act.

Cases which were litigated were usually taken by the seaman's attorney on a contingent basis. The fees paid by the seamen ranged from 25 to 60 per cent of the settlement in cases where such information was available, except in a very few cases handled by the legal staff of charitable organizations. The predominating charge was 50 per cent of the settlement or verdict.

BENEFICIAL ACTIVITIES OF TRADE-UNIONS

During the past year the Bureau of Labor Statistics has been gathering data relative to the various fields of activity of trade-unions, the results of which are incorporated in Bulletin No. 465, now in press.

The great majority of labor organizations make provision to assist their members in meeting the calamities of death, illness, or accident. This may be done through the medium of either insurance or what are generally known as trade-union benefits. The necessities arising from a strike and lockout are usually those for which provision is first made. After that the union may furnish relief in case of death of the member or his wife, or in case he becomes incapacitated for work because of injury or sickness. Of these, death is the emergency most often provided for, though sickness and disability also frequently receive assistance. A few unions have even assumed the responsibility of making some provision for the surviving family after a member's death. Some unions pay cash benefits to members found to be suffering from tuberculosis or pay for their treatment in a sanatorium. Others which do not pay benefits for this disease make regular or occasional contributions to private sanatoriums with the understanding that their members shall be entitled to treatment if needed. Others pay for certain disablements peculiar or common to the trade. Even those labor organizations which have no regular benefits often have a benevolent or relief fund from which, in special cases, deserving members may receive assistance in times of financial stress. These benefits paid by the international organization are in a great many cases supplemented by similar benefits paid by the local.

The amounts paid in 1927 in benefits and insurance by 73 international organizations alone totaled nearly \$25,000,000. If to this be added the more than \$3,000,000 paid in old-age pensions, some half million dollars¹ for maintenance of union homes for the aged, the amounts (not known) paid in unemployment benefits, and the sums paid in benefits by local unions, it is seen that labor organizations are providing a tremendous amount of assistance to their less fortunate members.

Not only have labor organizations done their best to improve the economic condition of their members; they have also been active in trying to improve the physical welfare of trade-unionists, either through the raising of the sanitary standards in the workshops or by providing definite health services for their members; in providing recreational activities; in various extensive business enterprises, such as labor banks, and in undertaking house-building programs.

HEALTH AND RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES IN INDUSTRIAL ESTABLISHMENTS

The nature and scope of the various personnel features contributing to the health and general welfare of employees which are found in various types of industries formed the subject of a survey by the Bureau of Labor Statistics published during the year as Bulletin No. 458, *Health and Recreation Activities in Industrial Establishments*. The survey involved visits to establishments in different sections of the country, information being secured from 430 companies which were doing enough along personnel lines to warrant inclusion. As a similar study was made in 1916-17 covering practically the same number of companies, many of them identical, the present study affords a comparison of industrial personnel activities then and now. The most decided changes were found in the extent of the provisions for the care of health, the extension of the vacation movement, and the increase in the number of companies carrying group insurance.

STATE AND MUNICIPAL RETIREMENT SYSTEMS

This study, outlined in the last annual report, is based on a field survey covering the retirement plans of States and cities of a population of 400,000 and upward. By personal interviews schedules were obtained covering between 70 and 80 systems, including systems maintained by States for their employees, systems embracing practically all the employees of the cities supporting them, and the systems for the benefit of special groups, such as teachers or the members of police or fire departments.

¹ Four homes only; 2 just started; 1, data not available.

With few exceptions these plans are maintained by the joint contributions of employers and employees. The contributions vary widely, however, both as between the two parties and as between systems.

There is much diversity in regard to providing for disability and for dependents of deceased members. When a service involves recognized danger, as in the case of police and fire departments, it is practically universal to arrange for retirement on allowance for those disabled for duty and it is also the general rule to make some provision for the widow and minor children of members dying in the service; often there is provision for dependents of those dying after having been retired. Among the teachers' systems such provisions are less usual, though retirement on allowance for disability after a specified term of service is not uncommon. State and municipal systems usually include allowances for disability and often give the retirant a choice of several options by which he may make a provision for his survivors at the cost of a lower allowance during his own lifetime.

Age and service qualifications for retirement are commonly established. Often retirement is permitted at one age and enforced at another, the optional age ranging from 50 up to 65, and the compulsory age being almost universally fixed at 70. Sometimes retirement at the optional age is permitted only if service has been rendered for a given term of years, ranging from 10 upward. Sometimes retirement is permitted at any age after the employee has served for a longer term, 35 years seeming to be the favored period for this purpose. In a number of the newer systems there is no age requirement, and either no service qualification or a light one. When an employee retires, the accumulated contributions standing to his credit are used to purchase his allowance. If he leaves early, it will be small, if he stays long, it will be large, and he is at liberty to choose for himself which alternative he prefers. In services like those of the fire and police departments, for obvious reasons an early age is apt to be set for retirement; or age may be ignored altogether, and retirement made a matter of incapacity. In such systems there is apt to be a service qualification, 20 or 25 years being the preferred periods, unless incapacity results from injuries received in the service, when retirement on allowance is permitted without regard either to age or length of service.

There is no uniform method of determining the retirement allowance. Sometimes it is a flat amount which seems to have been fixed arbitrarily, sometimes a fraction or percentage of the final salary, sometimes a specified amount for each year of service rendered. Usually it is given as a monthly or quarterly payment, continued through life. One system was found in which an attempt had been

made to relate the allowance to the cost of living by fixing it at half the salary of the rank held at the time of retirement and providing that if this salary should be changed the allowance should change accordingly.

Public-service retirement systems in foreign countries.

The public interest which led to the study by the bureau of public-service retirement systems in this country extended also to such systems in foreign countries, mainly as a measure of comparison, and therefore the bureau also undertook a study of the principal systems of Europe. The material was secured, through a special investigator, from original laws and reports, from unpublished material from the Department of State, and by personal inquiry from representatives of the countries concerned. The results of this study have been published in the *Monthly Labor Review* and will form part of a bulletin on such systems.

Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, and Switzerland all have public-service retirement systems. Those of Belgium, Great Britain, and the Netherlands (and in Germany for officials), provide pensions the entire cost of which is borne by the public treasury. In the other countries (and in Germany for employees), the employees contribute either the entire cost or a percentage thereof, usually 50, the system being in the nature of social insurance, even though often called a pension system.

The retirement age set ranges from 60 in Austria, Great Britain, and France to 70 in Denmark, Norway, and Switzerland, with variations within the same country in some instances. The length of service required also varies, ranging from 2 to 30 years, frequently longer service being required for maximum benefits. There is no age requirement in Italy after 40 years' service and in Switzerland after 50 years' service for males and 35 years' service for females.

APPRENTICESHIP IN BUILDING CONSTRUCTION

The study of apprenticeship in building construction to which reference is made in the annual report of the Commissioner of Labor Statistics for the fiscal year 1928, was completed during the year and published as Bulletin 459 of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The survey covers 19 cities of the East, South, and Middle West.

The unsystematic and planless nature of present-day apprenticeship made the investigation a difficult one, which resolved itself substantially into determining what is not being done rather than in finding and reporting upon concrete achievements in apprentice training.

Two popular theories explaining the collapse of formal apprenticeship are proved untenable by the investigation. These are the unwillingness of boys to take up manual work, and union restrictions on the number of apprentices permitted. On the first of these points the bureau report states that—

It is quite apparent that the dearth of apprentices in the building trades is not due to a dearth of boys interested in entering those trades. The unions everywhere reported long waiting lists of applicants for apprenticeships, and joint committees agree that the problem does not lie in finding material to train.

In the matter of union restriction the report finds that—

In practical application union regulations governing the ratio of apprentices to journeymen prove to be far less a deterring factor in apprentice training than is commonly assumed. Where the highly developed systems prevail union regulations are apt to be abrogated entirely and the whole question of quota is handled by the joint committee on the basis of the number of apprentices the trade can support in continuous employment. Where the method is more desultory the union quota is not an issue, for the reason that relatively few contractors have any apprentices at all and certainly have no disposition to take on more than the union agreement permits.

PARK RECREATION AREAS

A report on park recreation areas in the United States published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics as Bulletin No. 462 describes the recent developments in the park recreation movement and also sets forth the problems in regard to the provision of recreation facilities which has resulted from the industrial expansion of the past few decades. The study was made by the Playground and Recreation Association of America with the editorial assistance of the bureau.

The concentration of large populations in comparatively restricted localities has nearly always resulted in the absorption of areas which might otherwise have been available for recreation; and the very fact of this congestion of the population within narrow limits has made the provision of adequate breathing and recreation spaces more imperative. In order to meet the recreation needs of the people, therefore, a movement for the preservation and the development of park and recreation areas has been in progress for some time, the results of which are shown in this survey of the county and municipal park systems throughout the country.

The facts gathered in the present study, therefore, are of vital significance to the workers of the United States as well as to other community groups, since they show the extent to which our local governments are attempting to correct some of the mistakes made in their earlier history and to plan so that such mistakes will not be repeated.

FOREIGN INVESTIGATION AND STUDIES

The Bureau of Labor Statistics seeks to follow important developments of labor interest in other countries, and thus to serve as a clearing house for such information, partly through the medium of the Labor Review and partly through replies to the numerous inquiries received by the bureau. These inquiries cover a wide range. Information in regard to wages in other countries is particularly demanded.

Occasionally the bureau has felt it necessary to send its own representatives to Europe to secure information of particular difficulty and importance. Thus in the fiscal year 1926-27 a bureau representative made a personal survey of wage conditions in the iron and steel and pottery industries of Great Britain and Germany, the results being published in the Labor Review. And, during the year 1927-28 the assistant commissioner made a similar survey of wage conditions in the woolen manufacturing industry of Europe. The report of this investigation is now being prepared. Supplementing these special investigations by its own representatives, the bureau also obtains and publishes the results of studies made by foreign investigators of recognized standing.

In general, however, the bureau must depend for its foreign information on the cooperation of other agencies and upon published reports and studies. The cooperation of the State Department has been particularly helpful. Not only does that department furnish the bureau with copies of the reports from the consuls bearing on labor matters, but on several occasions, upon the request of the Department of Labor, has used its foreign representatives to obtain information desired by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Valuable information is also obtained from foreign publications, particularly the official journals and reports of the various labor departments of other countries. These are reviewed in the bureau, and important articles are translated and summarized for the Labor Review.

PUBLICATIONS

The combined publications of the Bureau of Labor Statistics during the past fiscal year amounted to a grand total of 6,462 printed pages, this number including 2,691 pages in the 12 issues of the Labor Review, and 3,771 pages in 23 bulletins.

Labor Review.

The Labor Review was started in July, 1915. Its principal function is to offer a medium for the prompt publication of the bureau's investigations and studies. In addition, it has now become a means by which the work of other agencies may be followed. Practically

all publications, foreign as well as domestic, dealing with labor matters are reviewed by the editorial division, and the developments of interest are described and important contributions are digested for the benefit of the readers of the Review. The character of the principal articles published in the Review have been described in preceding sections.

Bulletins.

The more extended studies of the bureau are published in bulletin form, although a summary of each study is usually carried in the Labor Review, where publication is more rapid. During the fiscal year ended June 30, 1928, the bureau published a total of 23 bulletins, as follows:

- No. 438. Wages and hours of labor in the motor-vehicle industry, 1925.
- No. 439. Handbook of labor statistics, 1924-1926.
- No. 440. Wholesale prices, 1890-1926.
- No. 441. Productivity of labor in the glass industry.
- No. 442. Wages and hours of labor in the iron and steel industry, 1907-1926.
- No. 443. Wages and hours of labor in woolen and worsted goods manufacturing, 1910-1926.
- No. 444. Decisions of courts and opinions affecting labor, 1926.
- No. 445. Retail prices, 1890-1926.
- No. 446. Wages and hours of labor in cotton-goods manufacturing, 1910-1926.
- No. 447. Safety code for rubber mills and calenders.
- No. 448. Trade agreements, 1926.
- No. 449. Building permits in the principal cities of the United States in 1926.
- No. 450. Wages and hours of labor in the boot and shoe industry, 1907-1926.
- No. 451. Safety code for forging and hot-metal stamping.
- No. 452. Wages and hours of labor in the hosiery and underwear industries, 1907-1926.
- No. 453. Revised index numbers of wholesale prices, 1923 to July, 1927.
- No. 454. Hours and earnings in bituminous coal mining, 1922, 1924, and 1926.
- No. 455. Proceedings of the fourteenth annual convention of the Association of Governmental Labor Officials of the United States and Canada, held at Paterson, N. J., May 31 to June 3, 1927.
- No. 456. Proceedings of the fourteenth annual meeting of the International Association of Accident Boards and Commissions, held at Atlanta, Ga., September 27-29, 1927.
- No. 457. Union scales of wages and hours of labor, May 15, 1927.
- No. 458. Health and recreation activities in industrial establishments, 1926.
- No. 459. Apprenticeship in building construction.
- No. 460. A new test for industrial lead poisoning. The presence of basophilic red cells in lead poisoning and lead absorption.

In addition, the following bulletins were in process of being printed on June 30, 1928:

- No. 461. Labor organizations in Chile.
- No. 462. Park recreation areas in the United States.
- No. 463. Safety code for mechanical power-transmission apparatus. First revision.
- No. 464. Retail prices, 1890 to 1927.

- No. 465. Beneficial activities of American trade-unions.
- No. 466. Settlement for accidents to American seamen.
- No. 467. Minimum wage legislation in various countries.
- No. 468. Trade agreements, 1927.
- No. 469. Building permits in the principal cities of the United States in 1927.
- No. 470. Labor legislation of 1927.
- No. 471. Wages and hours of labor in foundries and machine shops, 1927.
- No. 472. Wages and hours of labor in slaughtering and meat packing, 1927.
- No. 473. Wholesale prices, 1913 to 1927.
- No. 474. Productivity of labor in merchant blast furnaces.
- No. 475. Productivity of labor in newspaper printing.
- No. 476. Union scales of wages and hours of labor, 1927. Supplement to Bulletin 457.
- No. 477. Public service retirement systems: United States and Europe.

BUREAU OF IMMIGRATION

HARRY E. HULL, *Commissioner General*

During the fiscal year 1927-28 three laws were passed having an important bearing on immigration, which laws, of course, are enforced in addition to all other immigration laws, principally the immigration act of February 5, 1917, frequently referred to as the general immigration law, and the immigration act of May 26, 1924, as amended, referred to as the quota or numerical restrictive act.

On March 31, 1928, an act was passed postponing the adoption of the national-origins quota plan until 1929 and keeping in effect the present quota plan which is based on 2 per cent of the number of foreign-born individuals of each nationality resident in continental United States as determined by the United States census of 1890, but placing a minimum quota of 100 for any nationality.

On April 2, 1928, an act was passed to the effect that the provision of law in the immigration act of May 26, 1924, excluding, with certain exceptions, aliens ineligible to citizenship, should have no application to the right of American Indians born in Canada to cross the borders of the United States. This act does not extend to persons whose membership in Indian tribes or families was created by adoption.

On May 29, 1928, an act was passed changing, to some degree, the nonquota classes and the preference class under the quota as specified in the act of 1924. The purpose of this act is to enable, as far as possible, foreign resident members of families of United States citizens to be reunited; also to shorten the time within which foreign resident members of families of aliens lawfully admitted to the United States for permanent residence will have to wait before they may secure quota visas. In other words, the purpose of this legislation was to unite, with the least possible delay, families of citizens

and aliens lawfully resident in the United States. As an example of the way in which this policy is to work out, the act of May 29, 1928, increased from 18 to 21 the age of unmarried children of citizens of the United States who may secure nonquota visas because of relationship; permitted the husband of a citizen of the United States by marriage occurring prior to June 1, 1928, to come as a nonquota immigrant; and made a nonquota immigrant of a woman who was a citizen of the United States and who prior to September 22, 1922, lost her citizenship by reason of her marriage to an alien, but who at the time of filing her application for an immigration visa, is unmarried. As to the classes of aliens who are entitled to preference in securing immigration quota visas, the act provided that wives and unmarried children under 21 years of age of alien residents of the United States who have been lawfully admitted for permanent residence, may secure preference under the quota in applying for immigration visas. It likewise increased from 16 to 18 years the age of dependent children of skilled agriculturists who are entitled to preference.

IMMIGRATION STATISTICS

In the fiscal year ended June 30, 1928, a total of 500,631 aliens were admitted to the United States, as compared with a total of 538,001 aliens for the previous year. During the fiscal year 274,356 aliens departed, as compared with 253,508 departures during 1927. Therefore, for the past fiscal year there was a net gain of 226,275 as compared with a net gain of 284,493 aliens for the year 1927. Of the 500,631 aliens admitted, 307,255 were immigrants or newcomers for permanent residence in this country and 193,376 were either returning from a temporary trip abroad or coming here for a visit. Of the 274,356 aliens who departed from the United States during the past year, 196,899 were aliens who had been here for a short stay or who intended to return to the United States after visiting a foreign country. The remaining 77,457 departed without expressing an intention to return. About three-fourths of the present-day immigrant aliens are in the prime of life, 16 to 44 years of age, which percentage runs about the same as in the previous fiscal year. Of the immigrants admitted during the year, 230,832 were from 16 to 44 years of age, 49,680 were under 16 years of age and the remaining 26,743 were 45 years of age or over. During the previous fiscal year the male immigrants outnumbered the female immigrants, 194,163 males and 141,012 females being admitted in that year. Again, during the fiscal year 1928 the males outnumbered the females, 165,977 males and 141,278 females being admitted. However, a number of countries sent more females than males. For instance, Greece sent 410 males and 1,918 females and Italy sent 6,075 males and 11,653 females. Statistics

show that most of the countries sending an excess of females over males are located in southern Europe where the quotas are small. The excess of females over males is due largely to the fact that many of these females are wives of American citizens and as such are exempt from the quota provisions of the immigration act of 1924.

As in the previous fiscal year, countries in the Western Hemisphere furnished almost half the immigrants admitted, due to the fact that quota restrictions do not apply to most countries in this hemisphere. Immigrants to the number of 73,154 were admitted from Canada and 59,016 from Mexico. These two figures constitute 43 per cent of the total number of immigrants for the year. Europe sent 158,513 immigrants during this year, Germany leading with 45,778, being followed by the Irish Free State with 24,544 and Great Britain with 19,958. Italy sent 17,728 and the combined Scandinavian countries (Denmark, Norway, and Sweden) 16,184.

A study of the following figures will show what a tremendous effect the present restrictive immigration laws have. In a single year prior to the war, and of course prior to the first quota law, which was passed in 1921, immigration exceeded the million mark. A larger number of aliens arrived during individual years in that period from single countries in Europe than now come from the entire Continent of Europe. As an example, in the year 1913 the Russian Empire, as it was then known, contributed 291,040 immigrants to this country, Italy 265,542, and former Austria-Hungary 254,825, whereas in the fiscal year just passed only 158,513 alien immigrants were admitted from all European countries.

Deportation of aliens.

The expulsion of undesirable aliens from the country continues to be one of the most important functions of the Immigration Service. The classes of aliens subject to deportation include criminals, anarchists, insane and feeble-minded aliens, aliens who have become public charges, and the like. During the past fiscal year a total of 11,625 aliens were arrested and formally deported, as compared with 11,662 for the preceding year and 10,904 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1926. Of the past year's deportees, 11,625, 5,021 were deported to Europe, 2,511 to Canada, 2,934 to Mexico, 532 to other countries of the Western Hemisphere, 529 to Asia, and 98 to Africa, Australia, and the Pacific Islands. The number of aliens deported for the past year was slightly less than the number deported for the previous year, during which year the number of deportations was the largest ever handled by the Immigration Service in a single year. However, it will be noted that the number deported during the past fiscal year greatly exceeded the total of 10,904 aliens deported for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1926. In addition to the 11,625 aliens actually

deported there were 19,946 subject to deportation who departed in order to avoid formal deportation, as compared with 15,012 such departures for the previous year. From this it will be seen that the total number of deportable aliens whose removal from the country was brought about during the past fiscal year exceeded by 4,897 the number of such departures during the previous fiscal year, which in effect means that in the fiscal year just passed the Immigration Service was responsible for the removal from the country of more deportable aliens than during any previous fiscal year.

Visa petitions.

In accordance with the provisions of the immigration act of 1924 citizens of the United States may, by petitioning in the manner prescribed by law, secure nonquota visas for their wives and unmarried children under 18 years of age (the law in this respect having been amended in the manner described in the beginning of this report). The law in effect during the past fiscal year also provided that citizens could secure preferences in the issuance of quota visas to certain relatives by petitioning in the proper manner. During the year 38,460 petitions were filed with the bureau for the issuance of immigration visas in behalf of wives and unmarried children under 21 years, husbands, and parents, as compared with 34,169 such petitions for the previous fiscal year, or an increase of 4,291 petitions, which total was an increase of approximately 14,600 over the 12-month period of two years ago. It will be noted that the amended act increasing the classes of nonquota aliens became effective at the end of the present fiscal year and some few cases under the new act were included in the past year. Of the petitions filed this year 33,675 were approved and 3,210 rejected, the remaining 1,575, for one reason or another not being completed, as compared with 27,623 approvals, 3,203 rejections, and 3,343 uncompleted petitions for the previous year.

Reentry permits.

The immigration act of 1924 provides that alien immigrants lawfully admitted to the United States for permanent residence may return to this country after a temporary visit abroad without being charged to the quota. In order to facilitate the reentry of such persons without the necessity of obtaining nonquota immigration visas from American consular officers, there is a provision in the act whereby such aliens may secure in advance of their departure a reentry permit which is issued by the Commissioner General of Immigration with the approval of the Secretary of Labor. During the fiscal year just passed the bureau received 117,794 applications for permits as compared with 112,254 for the previous year, an increase in applications of 5,540 over the preceding year. Of this number 113,977

were granted and 2,103 denied, leaving a balance of 1,714 pending at the close of the fiscal year. Applications for extensions to permits were granted in 10,731 cases as compared with 9,110 for the previous year, making a total of 124,708 permits and extensions as compared with a total of 111,305 for the previous year, an increase of 13,403 over the previous year. Under the law a fee of \$3 is charged for each permit and extension. Therefore, there was a total of \$374,124 covered into the Treasury, as compared with \$333,915 for the previous year, an increase in revenue of \$40,209.

Chinese.

The number of Chinese admitted during the past fiscal year was 7,996, of which number 931 were immigrants and 7,065 were non-immigrants. Of this latter number 4,653 were passing in transit through the United States and 398 were entering as temporary visitors. In the previous fiscal year 8,305 were admitted, 1,051 being immigrants and 7,254 being nonimmigrants. It will therefore be seen that there was a slightly less number of Chinese aliens who came to the United States during the past year than during the preceding year. Chinese numbering 9,357 departed during the past year as compared with 9,881 the previous year. During the past fiscal year the departures of Chinese exceeded the arrivals by 1,361, as compared with 1,576 more departures than arrivals for the fiscal year 1927. Statistics show that in recent years the number of Chinese coming to the United States is decreasing. During the past year 462 aliens of the Chinese race were refused admission as compared with 598 refusals for the year before.

The act of 1924 operates in such a manner that the coming of Chinese aliens, except for temporary stay or more extended but not permanent residence, is practically a thing of the past.

As has been pointed out in previous reports, the main problem in connection with Chinese immigration has to do, not with alien Chinese, but with Chinese who claim American citizenship. While a considerable number of alleged citizens claiming birth in the United States apply for readmission, for the most part citizen applicants are those who claim to be citizens by reason of the birth of their alleged fathers in this country. There applied for admission during the fiscal year 3,276 Chinese who claimed citizenship as against 3,176 of this class who applied for admission during the fiscal year 1927. In order to determine the truth of the claims of these applicants, the Immigration Service at the ports and the department in handling their cases on appeal is still confronted with the difficult task of determining the relationship of an applicant to his alleged father when birth is said to have occurred in China. It becomes necessary, in order to test the relationship, to examine the applicant and his

witnesses minutely and at length in regard to the village and home from which he is said to have come, the members of the family in which he claims membership, and incidents of family and village life which would have been within the common knowledge of the applicant and his witnesses if the relationship exists. It has become increasingly difficult to combat successfully the fraudulent claims which are constantly presented by such applicants by reason of the attitude assumed by both the district and appellate courts in some jurisdictions when after rejection the applicants apply for writs of habeas corpus. On the theory that the disagreements in testimony are such on matters not in direct issue, that is, on home life and association rather than in direct statements of relationship, these courts have held there is no substantial reason for denying the claimed relationship, and have in a number of cases pronounced the hearing unfair and discharged the petitioners. The department feels that the best evidence of relationship in the common knowledge which the parties must have of matters growing out of or connected with the status claimed. The question of whether the courts have the right to assume their present attitude in view of the decision of the Supreme Court in the case of *Chin Yow v. United States*, 208 U. S. 8, has not been presented to the Supreme Court but no doubt in the near future a test case will be brought before that body.

Chinese immigration within the past few years has reached the stage in point of time when the grandchildren of Chinese who were born in the United States are applying for admission in considerable numbers. The department took the position that the son of the son of a person born in the United States was not a citizen thereof if at the time of the birth of such grandson of a native-born citizen his father had never resided in the United States. The matter was carried to the Supreme Court in the case of *Chin Yow v. United States*, and a few days before the beginning of the fiscal year 1928 the Supreme Court upheld the department's position and held that such persons were not citizens. The effect of this decision is to prevent the immigration of a vast army of Chinese who otherwise would have been eligible for admission regardless of any law governing the admission of aliens.

BORDER PATROL

The fiscal year covered by this report is the fourth since the creation of the immigration border patrol. Beginning July 1, 1924, with an appropriation of a million dollars and a personnel of 472 employees, the organization has been expanded to a total of 747 members, and during the year last past operated on an appropriation of \$1,600,000. Transportation equipment consists of 267 automobiles and 13 trucks. In addition to these, 15 saddle horses and 7 pack

horses are provided under a system of allowances to individual patrolmen. The outstanding accomplishment of the immigration border patrol for the past year was the apprehension of 25,534 persons of all kinds found engaged in unlawful or questionable activities. Of this number 23,896 were turned over by patrol officers to examiners of the Immigration Service. Out of this total approximately 18,000 were smuggled aliens and 330 were found to be smugglers of aliens. There were turned over to the customs service 871 persons; to the Prohibition Unit, 105 persons; to State and municipal authorities, 538; and to other branches of the Government, 124 persons. Seizures were made of 671 automobiles at an estimated value of \$291,919, and of 314 other conveyances at an estimated value of \$69,802. Liquor aggregating 353,392 quarts estimated at a value of \$386,692, and miscellaneous contraband goods valued at \$25,451 were seized by patrolmen and delivered to the appropriate governmental agencies concerned.

In the preceding fiscal year, 12,098 smuggled aliens were apprehended. The fiscal year 1928 witnessed an increase of 50 per cent in the number of such aliens taken into custody.

While the total personnel of the organization underwent a contraction as compared with the previous year, the total number of actual patrolmen was increased and it was possible to add 35 additional automobiles.

In the first three years of the organization's existence five fatalities among border patrolmen had occurred. Two additional patrolmen lost their lives in line of duty during the past fiscal year.

As stated in last year's report, the border patrol is the greatest deterrent of alien smuggling that has ever been devised, and besides its activities devoted to immigration ends it has made a substantial contribution to the cause of law enforcement in other departments of the Government, notably the prohibition and customs units.

FINES

The immigration law provides fines against steamship companies for unlawfully bringing aliens to the United States. During the past fiscal year the amount of fines assessed against the various steamship companies for bringing aliens here in violation of law amounted to \$314,960, as compared with \$440,010 for the previous year and \$644,540 for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1926. As stated in last year's report, the reduction in the amount of penalties imposed on steamship companies reflects increasing efficiency of inspection abroad, a system which was inaugurated within the past few years. It likewise reflects an increasing degree of cooperation on the part of the steamship companies with the Immigration Service.

FINANCIAL STATEMENT

Appropriation for the conduct of the Immigration Service and the administration of the immigration laws

For the enforcement of laws regulating immigration into the United States.....	\$4,985,000.00
For coast and land border patrol.....	1,600,000.00
For physical maintenance and upkeep of immigration stations....	50,000.00
For salaries, Bureau of Immigration.....	91,840.00
Total.....	6,726,840.00

The net amount expended during the year for all purposes, after deducting refunds to the appropriation for expenditures not properly chargeable to the Government, was \$6,690,100.82, leaving an unexpended balance of \$36,739.18.

Balanced against the expenditures mentioned there was collected as hereinafter shown the sum of \$3,959,409.56, making the actual net cost of operation \$2,730,691.26.

Income and sources thereof

Head tax collected.....	\$3,231,792.70
Administrative fines.....	203,171.78
Reentry permits and extensions.....	374,124.00
Bonds forfeited and paid without suit.....	148,323.90
Sale of exclusive privileges (feeding, money exchanges, etc.).....	1,166.00
Sale of Government property.....	263.78
Miscellaneous collections.....	248.33
Coin-box collections, Ellis Island, Boston, Philadelphia.....	319.07
Total.....	3,959,409.56

CASES REVIEWED

Within the past few years a system of review was devised for the purpose of checking and safeguarding the legal rights of aliens who are excluded at ports of entry and who, under the law, have a right to appeal to the Secretary of Labor, and of aliens for whom warrants of arrest were issued subsequent to their entry. In order to assist the Secretary of Labor in reviewing these cases a board of review was formed. During the past year this board of review prepared written opinions in 38,258 cases as compared with 32,970 cases for the previous fiscal year. The number of aliens involved in these cases totaled 71,698 as compared with 59,880 for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1927. In other words, this board of review passed upon cases of approximately 5,975 aliens during each month of the past year, or approximately 250 every working day. The following table shows in some detail the character of the cases reviewed. It is to be understood, however, that the figures above include some cases that have been reheard and therefore the figures do not mean there were

that many separate cases handled. As exemplified in last year's annual report, in the case of an alien ordered deported because convicted of crime and sentenced to a year or more in the penitentiary, if, after the deportation is ordered by the Secretary of Labor and before execution, a complete pardon is received from the governor of the State under whose law he was convicted, the case would be reopened, thus appearing a second time in the record of cases reviewed. Likewise, cases may be considered or reconsidered on different occasions when evidence is presented justifying such action. The following table, however, shows just how much work was actually accomplished by the board of review:

Cases handled by Secretary's Board of Review

Number of cases reviewed and decisions written.....	38, 258
Number of aliens involved.....	71, 698
Number of oral hearings by the board.....	1, 844
Accompanying aliens.....	104
Actors.....	980
Alien contract labor.....	25, 215
Anarchists, Communists, I. W. W., etc.....	89
Assisted aliens.....	388
Barred zone.....	120
Children under 16, unaccompanied.....	282
Crimes involving moral turpitude (burglary, felony, forgery, grand larceny, murder, perjury, robbery, smuggling, etc.).....	3, 052
Domestic servants.....	189
Entered within one year of deportation.....	540
Excess quota.....	1, 365
Heart trouble.....	198
Hernia.....	54
Idiots, feeble-minded, imbeciles, mentally deficient, etc.....	131
Illiterates.....	1, 770
Insane.....	1, 286
LPC (aliens arriving without funds).....	2, 249
Physically defective (deformed, epileptics, nervous affections, paralysis, and senility).....	938
Prostitution, immorality, procurer, etc.....	1, 557
Section 17 (23) (foreign contiguous territory).....	428
Student and student laborers.....	395
Surreptitious entry, stowaways, without inspection and without passport or visa.....	12, 268
TB, LCD, and DCD (Favus, leprosy, trachoma, venereal diseases, etc.).....	917
Visitors.....	10, 515
Chinese.....	2, 794
Japanese.....	779

MISCELLANEOUS IMMIGRATION STATISTICS

TABLE 1.—*Last permanent residence of immigrant aliens admitted and intended future permanent residence of emigrant aliens departed during the fiscal years ended June 30, 1927 and 1928, by countries*

[NOTE.—Residence for a year or more is regarded as permanent residence]

Countries	Immigrant		Emigrant	
	Fiscal year 1927	Fiscal year 1928	Fiscal year 1927	Fiscal year 1928
All countries.....	335, 175	307, 255	73, 366	77, 457
Europe, total.....	168, 368	158, 513	55, 402	57, 185
Austria.....	1, 016	1, 277	468	580
Belgium.....	764	698	482	485
Czechoslovakia.....	3, 540	3, 571	2, 276	2, 070
Denmark.....	2, 505	2, 473	536	540
France.....	4, 405	4, 438	1, 637	2, 030
Germany.....	48, 513	45, 778	4, 748	6, 645
Great Britain:				
England.....	9, 990	7, 338	4, 994	6, 039
Scotland.....	12, 611	11, 085	1, 441	1, 498
Wales.....	1, 068	1, 535	44	39
Greece.....	2, 089	2, 328	3, 130	2, 461
Hungary.....	813	857	841	920
Irish Free State.....	28, 054	24, 544	1, 049	1, 115
Italy.....	17, 297	17, 728	17, 759	17, 324
Lithuania.....	770	531	314	319
Netherlands.....	1, 733	1, 843	456	514
Norway.....	6, 068	5, 660	1, 786	1, 686
Poland.....	9, 211	8, 755	2, 650	3, 071
Portugal.....	567	584	2, 347	1, 358
Rumania.....	1, 270	1, 376	1, 248	1, 002
Russia.....	1, 183	1, 254	239	426
Spain.....	429	455	2, 178	1, 983
Sweden.....	8, 287	8, 051	1, 115	1, 282
Switzerland.....	2, 121	1, 994	594	726
Yugoslavia.....	1, 190	1, 386	1, 911	1, 941
Other Europe.....	2, 874	2, 974	1, 159	1, 131
Asia, total.....	3, 669	3, 380	6, 007	6, 073
China.....	1, 471	1, 320	4, 179	4, 364
Japan.....	723	550	1, 205	1, 085
Palestine.....	464	554	142	77
Syria.....	590	504	185	245
Other Asia.....	421	452	296	302
America, total.....	161, 872	144, 281	11, 393	13, 620
Canada.....	81, 506	73, 154	1, 953	2, 529
Newfoundland.....	3, 074	2, 127	487	532
Mexico.....	67, 721	59, 016	2, 957	3, 957
West Indies.....	4, 019	4, 058	3, 732	4, 244
Central America.....	1, 771	1, 751	721	758
South America.....	1, 777	4, 166	1, 453	1, 600
Other America.....	4	9		
Others, total.....	1, 266	1, 081	654	579
Africa.....	520	475	112	141
Australia and New Zealand.....	712	578	508	425
Pacific Islands (not specified).....	34	28	34	13

TABLE 2.—*Intended future permanent residence of immigrant aliens admitted and last permanent residence of emigrant aliens departed during the fiscal years ended June 30, 1927 and 1928, by States*

[NOTE.—Residence for a year or more is regarded as permanent residence]

States	Immigrant		Emigrant	
	Fiscal year 1927	Fiscal year 1928	Fiscal year 1927	Fiscal year 1928
All States, total.....	335,175	307,255	73,366	77,457
North Atlantic, total.....	166,731	156,658	49,042	52,624
Maine, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont.....	9,483	9,208	367	332
Connecticut.....	6,321	5,569	1,194	1,152
Massachusetts.....	25,907	20,461	5,900	2,603
New Jersey.....	17,059	15,967	3,490	3,454
New York.....	87,864	87,503	32,363	39,966
Pennsylvania.....	20,097	17,950	5,728	5,117
South Atlantic, total.....	6,483	5,023	2,362	2,196
Delaware, District of Columbia, Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, and West Virginia.....	3,593	3,298	911	817
Florida.....	2,512	1,413	1,360	1,286
Virginia.....	378	312	91	93
North Central, total.....	74,432	67,741	11,678	11,581
Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Wisconsin.....	16,479	14,412	2,141	1,982
Illinois.....	20,723	19,165	3,911	3,802
Michigan.....	28,104	25,872	3,128	3,071
Ohio.....	9,126	8,292	2,496	2,726
South Central, total.....	45,196	38,697	2,006	2,744
Alabama, Arkansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, Oklahoma, and Tennessee.....	2,057	1,999	539	492
Texas.....	43,139	36,698	1,467	2,252
Western, total.....	41,862	38,703	7,494	7,667
Colorado, Idaho, Montana, New Mexico, Nevada, Oregon, Utah, and Wyoming.....	5,520	5,244	1,050	909
Arizona.....	4,873	5,081	405	495
California.....	26,029	23,344	4,954	5,121
Washington.....	5,440	5,034	1,085	1,142
Alaska, Hawaii, Porto Rico, Virgin Islands, and Philippine Islands.....	471	433	786	645

TABLE 3.—*Increase or decrease in population, by admission and departure of aliens, during the year ended June 30, 1928, by race or people, sex, and age*

Race or people	Aliens admitted			Aliens departed			Increase (+) or decrease (-)
	Immigrant	Nonimmigrant	Total	Immigrant	Nonimmigrant	Total	
Total.....	307,255	193,376	500,631	77,457	196,899	274,356	+226,275
African (black).....	956	2,698	3,654	789	1,556	2,345	+1,309
Armenian.....	1,062	253	1,315	47	107	154	+1,161
Bohemian and Moravian (Czech).....	1,248	1,109	2,357	1,327	1,884	3,211	-854
Bulgarian, Serbian, and Montenegrin.....	531	664	1,195	1,396	832	2,228	-1,033
Chinese.....	931	7,065	7,996	4,300	5,057	9,357	-1,361
Croatian and Slovenian.....	935	909	1,844	534	441	975	+872
Cuban.....	2,058	6,533	8,591	1,282	7,006	8,288	+303
Dalmatian, Bosnian, and Herzegovinian.....	95	180	275	361	764	1,125	-850
Dutch and Flemish.....	2,880	3,723	6,603	1,084	3,896	4,980	+1,623
East Indian.....	38	155	193	106	107	213	-20
English.....	33,597	41,500	75,097	8,780	49,660	58,440	+16,657
Finnish.....	544	1,350	1,894	647	2,113	2,760	-866
French.....	17,963	8,380	26,343	1,915	8,615	10,530	+15,813
German.....	54,157	22,188	76,345	8,086	20,272	28,358	+47,987
Greek.....	2,848	2,919	5,767	2,525	1,829	4,354	+1,413

TABLE 3.—Increase or decrease in population, etc.—Continued

Race or people	Aliens admitted			Aliens departed			Increase (+) or decrease (-)
	Immigrant	Nonimmigrant	Total	Emigrant	Nonemigrant	Total	
Hebrew	11,639	3,737	15,376	258	1,698	1,951	+13,425
Irish	38,198	7,107	45,300	1,649	7,476	9,125	+36,175
Italian (north)	2,653	5,160	7,813	1,626	3,158	4,784	+3,029
Italian (south)	16,087	17,588	33,675	15,834	14,600	30,434	+3,241
Japanese	522	7,190	7,712	1,055	9,614	10,669	-2,957
Korean	2	48	70	39	64	103	-33
Lithuanian	326	341	667	351	403	754	-87
Magyar	1,112	2,051	3,163	1,024	1,521	2,545	+618
Mexican	57,765	3,857	61,622	3,873	9,198	13,071	+48,551
Pacific Islander	2	10	12	3	9	12	-
Polish	4,238	2,308	6,546	3,046	2,762	5,808	+738
Portuguese	844	2,398	3,242	1,430	1,977	3,407	-165
Rumanian	443	562	1,005	908	928	1,836	-831
Russian	1,249	1,265	2,514	642	1,121	1,763	+751
Ruthenian (Russiak)	411	91	502	59	90	149	+353
Scandinavian (Norwegians, Danes, and Swedes)	18,664	11,359	30,023	3,767	12,170	15,937	+14,086
Scotch	23,177	11,513	34,690	2,268	10,053	12,321	+22,369
Slovak	2,197	1,294	3,491	746	711	1,457	+2,034
Spanish	1,018	6,635	7,653	2,578	6,385	8,963	-1,310
Spanish American	3,490	4,691	8,181	1,720	4,854	6,574	+1,607
Syrian	613	660	1,273	232	467	699	+584
Turkish	143	186	329	116	135	251	-78
Welsh	1,723	942	2,665	85	518	603	+2,062
West Indian (except Cuban)	394	2,104	2,498	785	2,132	2,917	-419
Other peoples	484	653	1,137	189	726	915	+222
SEX							
Male	165,977	115,973	281,950	54,786	118,678	173,464	+108,486
Female	141,278	77,403	218,681	22,671	78,221	100,892	+117,789
AGE							
Under 16 years	49,680	10,172	59,852	3,500	10,201	13,701	+46,151
16 to 21 years	73,092	10,508	83,600	3,176	10,835	14,011	+69,589
22 to 29 years	95,727	44,453	140,180	16,977	45,308	62,285	+77,895
30 to 37 years	42,642	47,735	90,377	20,841	48,685	69,526	+20,851
38 to 44 years	19,371	32,301	51,672	15,124	33,552	48,676	+2,996
45 years and over	26,743	48,207	74,950	17,839	48,318	66,157	+8,793

TABLE 4.—Aliens debarred from entering, and aliens deported after landing in the United States during the years ended June 30, 1927 and 1928, by causes

Causes	Debarred		Deported	
	Fiscal year 1927	Fiscal year 1928	Fiscal year 1927	Fiscal year 1928
Total	19,755	18,839	11,662	11,625
Insanity, epilepsy	34	16	594	720
Other mental conditions	94	18	243	239
Loathsome or dangerous contagious disease	308	196	159	120
Other physical conditions	113	103	46	28
Likely to become a public charge	1,847	344	569	477
Professional beggars, vagrants, or paupers	3	—	2	1
Assisted aliens	46	4	35	15
Accompanying aliens	29	15	1	3
Under 16 years of age (unaccompanied by parent)	43	16	53	28
Unable to read (over 16 years of age)	353	60	708	333
Contract laborers	404	85	88	29
Criminals	160	59	953	1,211
Violation of narcotic act	—	—	54	67
Immoral classes	49	16	572	563
Had been deported within one year	14	3	182	91
Entered without inspection	—	—	524	400
Violation of Chinese exclusion act	—	—	141	139
Violation of percentum limit act of 1921 (excess quota)	—	—	833	493
Under sec. 17 of immigration act of 1924	40	16	77	41
Remained longer than permitted	—	—	192	1,165
Failure to maintain student status	—	—	17	20
Without proper visa under immigration act of 1924:				
At land border ports	13,536	15,718	5,464	5,307
At seaports	2,679	2,167	—	—
All other causes	3	3	155	75

TABLE 5.—*Aliens admitted to the United States, fiscal year ended June 30, 1928, showing principal classes under the immigration act of 1924, by country or area of birth, as specified*

[Quota immigrant aliens are charged to the quota; nonimmigrant and nonquota aliens are not charged to the quota]

Country or area of birth	Annual quota	Admitted			Total
		Quota immigrant	Nonimmigrant	Nonquota immigrant	
All countries.....	164,667	153,231	99,632	247,768	500,631
Europe, total.....	161,422	150,795	55,877	106,131	312,803
Albania.....	100	108	8	588	704
Andorra.....	100	4	-----	11	15
Austria.....	785	849	672	1,113	2,634
Belgium.....	512	558	714	853	2,125
Bulgaria.....	100	88	55	150	299
Czechoslovakia.....	3,073	2,939	636	3,575	7,150
Danzig, Free City of.....	228	211	25	22	258
Denmark.....	2,789	2,557	1,041	1,295	4,893
Estonia.....	124	122	40	64	226
Finland.....	471	485	441	1,255	2,181
France.....	3,954	3,548	3,192	3,256	9,996
Germany.....	51,227	47,576	7,129	10,697	65,402
Great Britain and Northern Ireland:					
England.....		12,102	18,012	9,196	39,310
Northern Ireland.....	34,007	1,998	358	346	2,702
Scotland.....		14,622	4,117	5,744	24,483
Wales.....		1,747	710	490	2,947
Greece.....	100	194	433	3,633	4,260
Hungary.....	473	507	971	1,389	2,867
Iceland.....	100	50	17	14	81
Irish Free State.....	28,567	27,093	1,405	4,157	32,655
Italy.....	3,845	4,020	3,657	31,696	39,373
Latvia.....	142	148	110	147	405
Liechtenstein.....	100	15	2	-----	17
Lithuania.....	344	386	165	531	1,082
Luxemburg.....	100	93	29	61	183
Monaco.....	100	9	8	9	26
Netherlands.....	1,648	1,543	1,353	997	3,893
Norway.....	6,453	5,944	1,808	2,442	10,194
Poland.....	5,982	6,129	1,202	6,387	13,718
Portugal.....	503	498	212	2,244	2,954
Rumania.....	603	846	450	1,423	2,719
Russia.....	2,248	2,060	1,379	1,586	5,025
San Marino.....	100	61	6	2	69
Spain.....	131	167	2,840	2,990	5,997
Sweden.....	9,561	8,605	1,145	3,382	13,132
Switzerland.....	2,081	1,874	1,193	1,350	4,417
Turkey in Europe.....	100	83	159	575	817
Yugoslavia.....	671	665	151	2,331	3,147
Other Europe.....	(?)	291	32	124	447
Asia, total.....	1,424	1,153	9,806	9,215	20,174
Afghanistan.....	100	-----	5	1	6
Arabia.....	100	35	5	6	46
Armenia.....	124	91	26	87	204
Bhutan.....	100	-----	-----	-----	-----
China.....	100	148	5,723	2,159	8,030
India.....	100	103	439	164	706
Iraq (Mesopotamia).....	100	102	20	14	136
Japan.....	100	17	2,801	5,026	7,844
Muscat.....	100	-----	1	-----	1
Nepal.....	100	-----	-----	-----	-----
Palestine.....	100	186	175	185	546
Persia.....	100	100	19	54	173
Siam.....	100	1	12	3	16
Syria.....	100	131	366	474	971
Turkey in Asia.....	(?)	71	129	969	1,169
Other Asia.....	(?)	168	85	73	326
Africa, total.....	1,200	341	605	191	1,137
Cameroon (British).....	100	-----	2	1	3

¹ Also includes aliens to whom visas were issued during the latter part of the fiscal year ended June 30, 1927, and charged to the quota for that year. Nationality for quota purposes does not always coincide with actual nationality. (See sec. 12 of the immigration act of 1924.)

² Annual quota for colonies, dependencies, or protectorates in other Europe, other Asia, other Africa, other Pacific, and in America, is included with the annual quota for the European country to which they belong. Quota for Turkey in Asia is included with that for Turkey in Europe.

TABLE 5.—*Aliens admitted to the United States, fiscal year ended June 30, 1928, showing principal classes under the immigration act of 1924, by country or area of birth, as specified—Continued*

Country or area of birth	Annual quota	Admitted			Total
		Quota immigrant	Nonimmigrant	Nonquota immigrant	
Cameroon (French).....	100		3	1	4
Egypt.....	100	108	129	47	284
Ethiopia.....	100		3		3
Liberia.....	100	9	26	2	37
Morocco.....	100	40	21	12	73
Ruanda and Urundi.....	100				
South Africa.....	100	116	349	85	550
South West Africa.....	100		5	2	7
Tanganyika.....	100		1		1
Togoland (British).....	100			1	1
Togoland (French).....	100				
Other Africa.....	(²)	68	66	40	174
Pacific, total.....	621	281	4,285	457	5,023
Australia.....	121	154	3,223	310	3,687
Nauru.....	100				
New Zealand.....	100	113	948	107	1,168
New Guinea.....	100		3	2	5
Samoa.....	100	3	28	7	38
Yap.....	100		7	3	10
Other Pacific.....	(²)	11	76	28	115
America, total.....		661	29,059	131,774	161,494
Canada.....			9,542	56,236	65,778
Newfoundland.....			573	3,539	4,112
Mexico.....			3,500	59,149	62,649
Cuba.....			5,822	3,928	9,750
Dominican Republic.....			844	400	1,244
Haiti.....			134	125	259
British West Indies ²		522	3,035	2,287	5,844
Dutch West Indies ²		5	164	32	201
French West Indies ²		34	27	37	98
British Honduras ²		27	90	17	134
Canal Zone.....			35	94	129
Other Central America.....			1,953	1,735	3,688
Brazil.....			367	1,061	1,428
British Guiana ²		58	133	80	271
Dutch Guiana ²		3	10	14	27
French Guiana ²			3		3
Other South America.....			2,808	3,020	5,828
Greenland ²		1	1		2
Miquelon and St. Pierre ²		11	18	20	49

² Annual quota for colonies, dependencies, or protectorates in other Europe, other Asia, other Africa, other Pacific, and in America, is included with the annual quota for the European country to which they belong. Quota for Turkey in Asia is included with that for Turkey in Europe.

TABLE 6.—*Immigrant and nonimmigrant aliens admitted, fiscal year ended June 30, 1928, by classes, under the immigration act of 1924, as amended, with comparative percentages, as specified*

Classes	Aliens admitted			Per cent distribution			Per cent of each class	
	Total	Immigrant ¹	Non-immigrant ²	Immigrant and non-immigrant	Immigrant ¹	Non-immigrant ²	Immigrant ¹	Non-immigrant ²
All classes, total.....	500,631	307,255	193,376	100.00	100.00	100.00	61.37	38.63
Nonimmigrants, total.....	99,632	1,947	97,685	19.90	.63	50.52	1.95	98.05
Government officials, their families, attendants, servants, and employees.....	6,348	1,008	5,340	1.27	.33	2.76	15.88	84.12
Temporary visitors for business.....	21,570		21,570	4.31		11.16		100.00
Temporary visitors for pleasure.....	43,011		43,011	8.59		22.24		100.00
In continuous transit through the United States.....	27,257		27,257	5.44		14.10		100.00
To carry on trade under existing treaty.....	1,446	939	507	.29	.30	.26	64.94	35.06
Nonquota immigrants, total.....	247,768	152,116	95,652	49.49	49.51	49.46	61.39	38.61
Wives of United States citizens ³	13,625	13,558	67	2.72	4.41	.03	99.51	.49
Husbands of United States citizens.....	61	61		.01	.02		100.00	
Children of United States citizens ³	12,075	12,059	16	2.41	3.93	.01	99.87	.13
Returning residents.....	94,502	134	94,368	18.88	.04	48.80	.14	99.86
Natives of nonquota countries ⁴	123,362	122,774	588	24.64	39.96	.30	99.52	.48
Their wives ⁵	555	555					100.00	
Their children ⁵	205	205					100.00	
Ministers of religious denominations.....	594	571	23				96.13	3.87
Wives of ministers.....	226	221	5				97.79	2.21
Children of ministers.....	393	392	1				99.75	.25
Professors of colleges, academies, seminaries, or universities.....	124	101	23				81.45	18.55
Wives of professors.....	40	39	1	.83	1.15	.32	97.50	2.50
Children of professors.....	27	27					100.00	
Students.....	1,816	1,299	517				71.53	28.47
Veterans of the World War and their wives and children ⁵	104	104					100.00	
Spanish subjects admitted into Porto Rico ⁶	55	12	43				21.82	78.18
American Indians born in Canada ⁶	4						100.00	
Quota immigrants, total.....	153,231	153,192	39	30.61	49.86	.02	99.97	.03

¹ Aliens whose last permanent residence was in some foreign country, who come with the intention of residing in the United States permanently or for an indefinite period longer than 1 year.

² Aliens coming for a short stay in the United States or returning from a visit abroad.

³ Wives and unmarried children born in quota countries.

⁴ Does not include aliens born in nonquota countries, who were admitted under the act of 1924 as Government officials, visitors, transits, returning residents, etc.

⁵ Admitted under the act approved May 26, 1926.

⁶ Admitted under the act approved Apr. 2, 1928.

CHILDREN'S BUREAU

GRACE ABBOTT, *Chief*

The Children's Bureau was created by act of Congress in 1912, the importance of a Federal research organization in the field of child welfare having been presented to Congress by both President Roosevelt and President Taft. In the 16 years that it has functioned as a fact-gathering bureau public and private agencies interested in the care of children and individual parents have increasingly made use of the information that has been painstakingly and dispassionately assembled by the scientific staff of the bureau.

As this and previous annual reports show, most of the local studies made by the bureau have been undertaken at the request of State departments, official and unofficial children's code commissions, child-health committees, associations for the prevention of crime and delinquency, and agencies caring for dependent children. Within the limits of its resources the bureau has sought to make the information assembled available in printed reports and popular bulletins, motion pictures and other exhibits, and news summaries, and to a limited extent by the loan of personnel for consultation and demonstration.

With the passage of the maternity and infancy act in 1921 the bureau was enabled to cooperate with the States in the development of an educational program for the promotion of the health of mothers and babies. That this program has resulted in the establishment of permanent educational centers and in a great saving of life and improvement in the general health of mothers and babies is a matter of great satisfaction to the department.

As at present organized the bureau has seven major divisions: Maternity and infant hygiene, child hygiene, industrial, social service, statistical, editorial, and general administrative. The maternity and infant-hygiene division administers the maternity and infancy act; the child-hygiene division is in charge of the bureau's research in the field of child health and assists the other divisions in the preparation of reports in which child health is a factor; the social-service division has for its field dependency, delinquency, and neglect of children; and the industrial division is responsible for studies relating to the employment of children, protective legislation for working children, and vocational guidance. The statistical, editorial, and general administrative divisions serve the other divisions of the bureau, the statistical division undertaking also some independent pieces of research. In the following pages the work of these several divisions is summarized.

Maternity and infancy.

Administration of the maternity and infancy act.—During the fiscal year 1928, 45 States and the Territory of Hawaii were cooperating with the Children's Bureau in accordance with the terms of the maternity and infancy act to promote the welfare and hygiene of maternity and infancy. The legislatures of three States—Connecticut, Illinois, and Massachusetts—have never accepted the benefits offered by the Federal Government.

The following table gives the amounts available and the total amounts accepted by the States from the appropriations for the fiscal years 1922, 1923, 1924, 1925, 1926, 1927, and for 1928 up to June 30. As the appropriations are available for a 2-year period

a final report on the 1928 appropriation can not be made until June 30, 1929.

A full report of the work which this Federal fund has made possible is published each year by the Children's Bureau. Only a very brief summary of the accomplishments of the past year can be given here. It is a pleasure to record that reports from the States for the fiscal year 1928 show continued expansion and improvement in the work being done. Its extent during the past year is indicated by the fact that the work was carried on in 2,070 counties. The child health and prenatal conferences have continued to be used in every State as a means of parental education in the hygiene and welfare of maternity and infancy. In the year under review 7,341 combined prenatal and child health conferences, 2,002 prenatal conferences, and 18,839 child-health conferences were conducted by the cooperating States. In addition to assisting with the conferences and class work, 390 county nurses who gave full or part time to maternity and infancy work and the nurses on the State staff made 686,964 home visits, helping the mothers to plan for better prenatal care for themselves and scientific care for their infant and preschool children. The number of expectant mothers reported reached during the year through conferences, instruction in classes, home visits, prenatal letters, and correspondence courses was over 150,000. A larger number of infants and preschool children were reached through conferences, instruction of parents, and home visits, over 1,013,000 being reported.

Each year some counties have assumed responsibility for maternity and infancy work initiated or assisted by the States, thus putting the work on a permanent basis. Since the beginning of the States' cooperation under the maternity and infancy act 162 counties have assumed responsibility for maternity and infancy work that had been begun with State and Federal funds. In 1928, 103 combined prenatal and child health centers, 190 child-health centers, and 17 prenatal centers—a total of 310—were established.

Amounts available to States and Hawaii from Federal maternity and infancy funds and amounts accepted¹

[Statement as of June 30, 1928]

States and Territory cooperating	Maximum amounts available from 1922 appropriation ²	Amounts accepted by States from 1922 appropriation	Maximum amounts available from 1923, 1924, 1925, 1926, 1927, and 1928 appropriations	Amounts accepted by States and Hawaii ³ from—					
				1923 appropriation	1924 appropriation	1925 appropriation	1926 appropriation	1927 appropriation	1928 appropriation ⁴
Total.....	\$477,500.00	\$316,554.02	\$1,201,725.96	\$716,333.40	\$877,122.04	\$932,754.69	\$947,939.59	\$977,866.97	\$919,075.78
Alabama.....	10,297.56	10,297.56	25,836.95	25,836.95	25,836.95	25,836.95	25,836.95	25,836.95	25,836.95
Arizona.....	5,753.88	5,000.00	12,253.71	5,000.00	12,253.71	12,253.71	5,000.00	12,253.71	12,253.71
Arkansas.....	8,933.03	5,000.00	21,817.51	6,855.75	16,817.51	13,000.00	14,000.00	12,000.00	21,817.51
California.....	12,731.12	(5)	33,112.01	24,276.35	13,114.93	15,620.00	26,730.00	23,941.58	29,130.00
Colorado.....	7,119.83	5,000.00	16,337.20	9,976.99	9,999.33	9,999.37	10,000.00	10,000.00	5,000.00
Connecticut.....	8,114.75	8,114.75	19,311.48	9,655.74	11,504.01	11,504.01	11,504.01	11,504.01	11,504.01
Delaware.....	5,503.10	5,503.10	11,504.01	11,504.01	16,531.72	16,531.72	16,531.72	16,531.72	16,531.72
Florida.....	7,184.90	5,000.00	16,531.72	8,621.28	16,531.72	28,400.00	29,530.00	29,530.55	29,530.55
Georgia.....	11,533.10	6,750.00	20,530.55	11,000.00	15,250.00	11,725.96	9,933.93	11,725.96	11,725.96
Hawaii.....			3	11,725.96	7,912.66	5,691.60	9,308.40	6,000.00	7,500.00
Idaho.....	5,974.30	5,000.00	12,912.66	6,250.00	7,912.66	5,691.60	9,308.40	6,000.00	7,500.00
Illinois.....	19,631.03	(5)	53,738.10	24,985.00	26,250.00	25,750.00	25,000.00	25,000.00	25,000.00
Indiana.....	11,611.07	8,199.09	29,763.62	26,213.60	26,213.60	26,213.60	26,213.60	26,213.60	26,213.60
Iowa.....	10,423.56	10,423.56	26,213.60	26,213.60	26,213.60	26,213.60	26,213.60	26,213.60	26,213.60
Kansas.....	8,991.51	8,991.51	21,932.52	12,097.33	26,298.64	26,298.64	26,298.64	26,298.64	26,298.64
Kentucky.....	10,452.00	10,452.00	26,298.64	26,298.64	26,298.64	26,298.64	26,298.64	26,298.64	26,298.64
Louisiana.....	9,037.50		22,139.80	17,590.60	22,127.79	21,664.27	21,664.27	21,664.27	21,664.27
Maine.....	6,732.66		15,179.77	19,277.05	19,277.05	19,164.58	19,277.00	19,277.00	19,277.00
Maryland.....	8,270.49	7,913.57	19,777.05	19,277.05	19,277.05	19,164.58	19,277.00	19,277.00	19,277.00
Massachusetts.....	13,691.06		35,681.70	34,741.11	34,741.11	34,741.11	34,741.11	34,741.11	34,741.11
Michigan.....	13,276.07	13,253.97	34,741.11	34,741.11	34,741.11	34,741.11	34,741.11	34,741.11	34,741.11
Minnesota.....	10,385.44	10,385.44	26,099.65	26,099.65	26,099.65	26,099.65	26,099.65	26,099.65	26,099.65
Mississippi.....	9,039.70	9,039.70	22,076.58	22,076.58	22,076.58	22,076.58	22,076.58	22,076.58	22,076.58
Missouri.....	12,473.15	12,473.15	32,958.19	28,527.38	21,752.17	24,000.00	25,000.00	32,958.19	30,000.00
Montana.....	6,238.31	6,238.31	13,701.91	13,701.91	13,701.91	13,701.91	13,700.00	13,700.00	13,700.00

¹ Under the terms of the act each State accepting receives \$5,000 outright; an additional \$5,000 is available to each State if matched; the balance of the appropriation is distributed among the States, if matched, on the basis of population. Amounts shown as accepted are the amounts actually accepted by the States less refunds of unexpended balances returned to the Federal Treasury as of June 30, 1928.

² Owing to the fact that only a few months of the 1922 fiscal year remained at the time the appropriation act for that year was passed a full appropriation was not made. The benefits of the act were extended to Hawaii on Mar. 10, 1924. No appropriation therefore was available to that Territory in 1923 and 1924. The total amount available to the States in each year from 1923 to 1928 has been \$1,190,000.

³ These funds are available until July 1, 1929. Actual acceptances up to June 30, 1928, are here given.

⁴ California and Illinois accepted the full amount available, and Vermont accepted \$5,000. However, these funds were not spent but were returned to the Federal Treasury.

Amounts available to States and Hawaii from Federal maternity and infancy funds and amounts accepted — Continued

States and Territory cooperating	Maximum amounts available from 1922 ap- propriation	Amounts accepted by States from 1922 appo- riation	Maximum amounts available from 1923, 1926, 1927, and 1928 ap- propriations	Amounts accepted by States and Hawaii from—						1928 appo- riation
				1923 appo- riation	1924 appo- riation	1925 appo- riation	1926 appo- riation	1927 appo- riation		
Nebraska.....	7,924.66	7,924.66	18,743.21	17,661.69	7,409.50	11,915.00	12,980.00	11,000.00	11,000.00	
Nevada.....	5,174.63	5,000.00	10,522.06	5,000.00	10,522.00	10,522.00	10,522.00	10,522.00	10,522.00	
New Hampshire.....	5,999.61	5,000.00	12,988.31	5,000.00	12,988.31	12,988.31	12,988.31	12,988.31	12,988.31	
New Jersey.....	12,119.83	12,119.83	31,284.55	31,284.55	31,284.55	31,284.55	31,284.55	31,284.55	31,284.55	
New Mexico.....	5,812.96	5,812.96	12,430.33	12,430.33	12,236.40	12,430.33	12,430.33	12,430.33	12,430.33	
New York.....	28,429.70	10,773.47	80,041.78	80,041.78	80,041.78	80,041.78	80,041.78	80,041.78	80,041.78	
North Carolina.....	6,459.36	10,773.47	27,259.66	27,259.66	27,259.66	27,259.66	27,259.66	27,259.66	27,259.66	
North Dakota.....	17,993.41	5,000.00	14,362.74	6,000.00	6,000.00	8,300.00	8,300.00	7,200.00	6,500.00	
Ohio.....	9,575.88	7,187.95	48,843.46	11,900.00	17,297.89	26,006.96	31,400.73	32,500.00	23,679.48	
Oklahoma.....	6,767.35	6,232.61	23,679.48	5,000.00	20,934.06	15,283.46	23,679.48	23,679.48	15,283.46	
Oregon.....	24,672.69	24,667.12	15,283.46	8,000.00	15,283.46	15,283.46	11,966.83	15,283.46	15,283.46	
Pennsylvania.....	6,393.54	8,797.50	14,076.28	8,810.99	68,810.99	68,810.99	14,076.28	68,810.99	14,076.28	
Rhode Island.....	8,798.54	6,436.07	14,076.28	4,999.86	21,355.65	21,355.65	21,355.65	21,355.65	21,355.65	
South Carolina.....	6,436.07	6,436.07	14,293.11	12,844.24	21,355.65	13,451.18	14,285.10	5,000.00	5,000.00	
South Dakota.....	10,274.35	5,000.00	25,767.55	18,521.94	22,410.73	25,767.55	25,767.55	25,767.55	24,035.00	
Tennessee.....	18,520.41	9,363.83	41,450.52	32,567.38	40,689.20	40,447.84	35,350.52	35,350.52	41,450.52	
Texas.....	6,013.85	5,000.00	13,030.89	6,365.00	13,000.00	13,000.00	12,279.23	13,000.00	13,000.00	
Utah.....	5,705.09	(3)	12,376.80	2,775.33	2,775.33	4,281.86	4,937.38	5,000.00	5,000.00	
Vermont.....	10,206.61	10,209.61	25,574.00	25,574.00	25,574.00	25,574.00	25,574.00	25,574.00	25,574.00	
Virginia.....	8,090.58	4,998.70	19,149.55	10,000.00	10,000.00	10,000.00	10,000.00	5,000.00	5,000.00	
West Virginia.....	8,302.16	5,000.00	19,871.74	5,000.00	10,000.00	10,000.00	19,871.74	19,871.74	19,871.74	
Wisconsin.....	10,998.04	8,993.03	27,751.62	27,751.62	27,751.62	27,751.62	27,751.62	27,751.62	27,751.62	
Wyoming.....	5,498.57	4,998.87	11,311.12	5,000.00	11,000.00	6,600.00	6,600.00	7,500.00	5,000.00	

³ California and Illinois accepted the full amount available, and Vermont accepted \$5,000. However, these funds were not spent but were returned to the Federal Treasury.

The medical and nursing staff of the maternity and infant-hygiene division of the Children's Bureau visited 33 States during 1928 to confer with State administrators and to review types of work in different communities within the States. The bureau accountant made the usual visits to the 45 States to audit accounts.

At the request of the States staff details were made to 29 States for special work. For example, the bureau's colored physician has spent the year in two southern States assisting in the instruction of colored midwives; a nurse was assigned to conduct demonstrations in maternity and infancy work in two States; the bureau's consultant in obstetrics conducted a graduate course in obstetrics in one State, and the consultant in pediatrics gave a similar course in another State; in eight States physicians were assigned for maternal-mortality studies, which in each case was undertaken at the request of the State medical society and the State board of health; and at the request of the United States Bureau of the Census and the State departments of health bureau agents have helped in birth-registration campaigns in four States since admitted to the birth-registration area, which at the end of the year under review comprised 42 States and the District of Columbia.

The maternal-mortality studies referred to are now being made in 12 States—Kentucky, Virginia, Michigan, Maryland, Nebraska, Minnesota, Oregon, Washington, Rhode Island, Wisconsin, Alabama, and New Hampshire. By the study of death certificates and hospital records and by interviews with physicians, midwives, and others who attended women who died in childbirth it is hoped to secure much needed information about the factors influencing the high maternal mortality in the United States. In this connection it is interesting to note that in Great Britain, where the maternal death rate is also high, an investigation along similar lines has been recommended by the Minister of Health and will be undertaken in England and Wales in the near future.

The fifth annual conference of State directors of maternity and infancy work was held at the Children's Bureau April 2, 3, and 4, 1928. At the invitation of Dr. Howard Childs Carpenter, the representative of the American Child Health Association on the bureau's consulting pediatric committee, April 5 was spent in Philadelphia visiting the children's hospitals and infant-welfare centers. On the morning of April 6, 15 State and bureau staff workers engaged in the maternal-mortality study returned to the Children's Bureau for a round-table discussion of field and statistical problems relating to the study.

The conference was opened by the Secretary of Labor. The subjects discussed were: "Care at time of delivery and during confinement";

"The decline in maternal mortality in the rural districts of certain States—how it was done"; "Infant and preschool-child problems (particularly the neonatal period)"; "The decline in infant mortality in the rural districts of certain States—how it was done"; and "Administrative problems and progress reports on maternal mortality studies."

Representatives from 46 States, including those from the 3 States that have not accepted Federal aid, were present. Members of both the consulting committee on pediatrics and the consulting committee on obstetrics of the Children's Bureau attended the conference and took part in the program and discussions.

Reduction in infant and maternal mortality in the United States.—For a number of years the general trend in infant mortality in the United States birth-registration area has been downward. Interruptions in this general trend which are due to epidemic or other causes occur from time to time. According to advance figures for the calendar year 1927 reported by the United States Bureau of the Census for the States (exclusive of Utah) and the District of Columbia, which were in the birth-registration area in that year and the preceding year, 1,849,902 babies were born and 119,093 babies died in 1927, as compared with 1,842,912 births and 135,132 infant deaths in 1926. This great saving of the lives of babies made the infant mortality rate the lowest in the history of the United States—65 deaths per 1,000 live births for the birth-registration area in 1927 as compared with 73.3 for the area in 1926. The two States with the lowest rates, Oregon (47.5) and Washington (49.8), established new low levels for individual States, encouraging the hope that the United States may eventually be as safe a place for a baby to be born as New Zealand, which hitherto has held the record for the lowest infant mortality rate (39 in 1927).

Although maternal mortality rates have shown little variation during the period 1921 to 1926, there has been in general a downward trend during this period in the birth-registration area as a whole and in both urban and rural areas.

The maternal mortality rate for the whole area in 1921 was 68.2 deaths for every 10,000 live births. In 1926 it was 65.6. The urban rate in 1921 was 77.1; in 1926 it was 73.9. The rural rate in 1921 was 59.4; in 1926 it was 56.7. These decreases have occurred in spite of the tendency of at least two factors to raise the rates for the expanding birth-registration area. One of these has been the extension of the registration area to include States with maternal mortality rates that are higher than the average for the registration area, and the other is the more careful scrutiny of death certificates of women of the child-bearing age on the part of State vital-statistics divisions

and the United States Bureau of the Census. This careful scrutiny is resulting in the assignment of more deaths to puerperal causes.

A comparison of maternal mortality rates for the period 1917 to 1921, exclusive of 1918 (when rates were high on account of influenza), with 1922 to 1926 (the period of cooperation under the maternity and infancy act) in States that were in the birth-registration area from 1917 to 1926 shows a decrease in maternal mortality in every one of these States that had cooperated under the maternity and infancy act for four years or longer. A majority of the States had greater reductions in the rural than in the urban areas. Utah had a decrease of maternal mortality in rural areas of 35.9 per cent; Maryland, Michigan, Indiana, Washington, New York, and Minnesota had decreases of 20 to 26 per cent.

Infant and maternal mortality in the District of Columbia.—A survey of infant and maternal mortality of the District of Columbia was made at the request of the Washington Council of Social Agencies and with the cooperation of the health officer of the District.

The report includes statistical analyses of birth certificates and of infant and maternal death certificates in the District of Columbia and information secured through visits by a bureau physician to child-health and prenatal centers and to hospitals taking maternity cases. Material secured through questionnaires sent to hospitals and from printed reports was also utilized in determining what are the conditions in the District.

The study showed that the infant, stillbirth, and maternal mortality rates in the District of Columbia for the three-year period 1924 to 1926 were higher than those for the birth-registration area as a whole and higher than those for most cities that have 500,000 or more population and 2,000 or more colored births annually.

The higher rates in the District were found to be due in part to the rates among the colored population, which were invariably above those for the colored population in the birth-registration area and above those for the colored population of most of the cities under consideration. A larger proportion of both white and colored infants in the District were found to die of natal and prenatal causes than of the white and colored infants of the birth-registration area as a whole, and the puerperal mortality rates for both white and colored mothers in the District were found to exceed the rates for mothers of the same races in the registration area and in every large city with similar racial elements in its population.

The greatest need for intensive work to save babies' lives is shown to be in the central part of the city. In three precincts of this section the total infant mortality rates exceeded 100 per 1,000 live births in the year 1925. In this section of the city where there was great loss of infant life, there was little provision for prenatal and infant care.

Among the recommendations made in the report were:

The establishment of child-health centers in all precincts having 500 or more births annually.

The establishment or expansion of municipal child-hygiene centers in precincts most needing improvement, as shown by high infant mortality rates and high stillbirth rates.

The establishment by the Department of Health of prenatal clinics in connection with child-hygiene centers in precincts showing large numbers of maternal and infant deaths, especially stillbirths and deaths under 1 day of life.

An appropriation sufficiently large to permit expansion and improvement of the maternity service at Freedmen's Hospital, which has a very high maternal death rate.

The establishment of a maternity hospital in Washington taking only obstetrical cases.

Stillbirths and neonatal mortality in Minneapolis.—In cooperation with the University of Minnesota the bureau has undertaken the tabulation and analysis of approximately 1,000 autopsies of stillborn and live-born infants made by Dr. Fred L. Adair of the faculty and his associates. The material includes gross and microscopic autopsy findings, the history of the mother's previous pregnancies, the history of the pregnancy resulting in the child that came to autopsy, and the history of the labor and puerperium. Special emphasis is placed upon the prenatal care received and upon the relationship of observations during pregnancy to the autopsy findings. Comparison of autopsy findings with cause of death, as shown upon death certificates, should throw some light upon the problem connected with the large number of deaths during the first month of life.

Child hygiene.

New Haven rickets study.—Work on the New Haven rickets study during the past year has been chiefly statistical. Analysis of the material collected in the 3-year demonstration period is well under way. Children examined have been classified into two groups—the series and the nonseries. The children in the series group received their first examination at less than 6 months of age and were reexamined at frequent intervals during the three years of the clinic demonstration. The number of examinations per child varied from 3 to 27, the average being 9 examinations. These children were given cod-liver oil of proved antirachitic value, and their mothers were advised as to its dosage and the need for sunshine in preventing rickets. They were also instructed regarding proper diets and health habits for the children. The children of the nonseries group received only one examination. Their ages ranged from 1 month to 5 years. This group consisted of children who had had no special antirachitic

treatment or health instruction. The incidence of rickets in this group probably approximates that of the community.

The analysis of the material will be directed to show the relationship between clinical signs of rickets and X-ray evidence. Careful study will be made of the significance of the mildest forms of rickets, as well as the more severe and obvious forms, in relation to the general health and development of the child, his growth, nutrition, and diet. Cod-liver oil and sunlight, known to be the most significant factors in the cure of rickets, are being studied in relation to its prevention and control. Case studies of certain interesting groups of children are being made in addition to the statistical analysis.

The X rays taken of the children are serving as a basis not only for the diagnosis of rickets but also for a study of the ossification centers in the wrist. The development of the small bones of the wrist, which are spoken of as centers of ossification before they are fully grown, has been considered by certain writers in the last 25 years an indication of the degree of development or maturity of children. There have been numerous observations as to the age at which these centers appear, the order of their appearance, and the relation of their size and number to the sex, height, weight, and mental development of children. The New Haven rickets study has furnished more X rays showing these centers of ossification in children under 5 years of age than have been previously available for study, and they afford a valuable source for determining more exactly than has yet been done the time and order of appearance of the ossification centers of the wrist bones; that is, the beginning of the growth of the bone (ossification). At birth usually no wrist bones are apparent by X ray because they are as yet not bone, but cartilage, and hence not visible by X ray. X rays show that shortly after birth calcification, or ossification, begins in two of the wrist cartilages, and the bone continues to grow until maturity is reached. All the other ossification centers of the wrist (except one) may appear within the first five years, although many 5-year-old children have two or three centers still unossified.

In the analysis of the New Haven material the number of ossification centers present in the wrist has been studied in relation to age, sex, race (negro and white children), height, weight, and rickets. The New Haven material confirms previous findings that girls are definitely ahead of boys in the development of ossification centers. Negro children have been reported to be more advanced than white children in the development of ossification centers, but the New Haven group does not show this clearly. Height and weight, which are really biological indexes of maturity, are more closely related to the number of centers apparent in the wrist than the age of the child.

It is not clear that rickets has any effect on the appearance of ossification centers in the wrist, although marked rickets of long duration may retard their development. The actual time of appearance of the individual ossification centers varies considerably, but, in general, it is somewhat earlier than previous observers have estimated.

Porto Rico rickets study.—Statistical tabulation of the material from the study of rickets in Porto Rico is nearing completion. Some facts have been determined regarding 584 children who were given physical examination and of whose forearms X-ray photographs were taken. The X-ray photographs and the physical examinations show an almost negligible amount of rickets among the children. The children of Porto Rico receive a large amount of sunlight; of those examined 68 per cent were tanned. The diets of the children were found to be strikingly inadequate when judged by standards set in the United States. Analyses of the growth of the children in relation to diet, sunlight, and rickets are being made and will be included in the report.

Neonatal-mortality study.—The importance and need of a systematic study of the causes of death and sickness of children in the neonatal period (i. e., during the first month of life) have become evident because of the trend of the infant mortality rates in recent years in the United States birth-registration area and because of the comparative lack of knowledge of the causes of death in this period. Statistics show that though the infant mortality rate as a whole (infants under 1 year) has been definitely falling for the past 10 years, the rate for the first month of life has fallen very little, and more than half of the deaths under 1 year occur in the first month of life (53 per cent in 1922-1926). The actual causes of death in the neonatal period are often not determined, and hence the terminology used in the vital statistics is frequently obscure and meaningless, as "congenital debility" and "other diseases of early infancy." If the infant mortality rate is to be lowered still more it is evident that attention must be focused on the earliest period of life, that under 1 month; until the causes of sickness and death in this period are better understood little can be done.

A preliminary study to work out methods and schedules for later studies was begun in January, 1928, with the cooperation of the pediatric, obstetrical, and pathological departments of the Yale School of Medicine. One hundred newborn infants have been examined on the first day of life and reexamined approximately on the third, the tenth, and the forty-second day. It is planned to examine these infants again at 1 year of age. In order that the data may be subject to statistical analysis schedules have been prepared on which to record the details of these examinations and the family, prenatal, natal, and postnatal histories. Effort has been made to in-

clude all data that may possibly throw light on any of the obscure illnesses of this period. Complete pathological studies were made of the eight infants of this preliminary series who died. The studies will be continued and the scope gradually broadened to include groups of infants born under differing conditions.

Chelsea posture study.—The report of the 2-year posture study in one of the schools in Chelsea, Mass., has been completed and will go to press in the year 1929. It analyzes the results of posture training in a group of grade-school children who in no wise differed from other children in the school except that they were given special training in posture in addition to the regular school gymnastic exercises. Changes observed in the physical characteristics of these children who received posture training are compared with those found among the children of other rooms of the same grade of the school who received no special training, the grades being similar in nationality and age distribution. In all, 1,708 children, of whom 961 received special training in posture and 747 received no special training, are included in the analysis. The ages of the children ranged from 5 to 18 years, most of them being between 7 and 15.

The study shows that before any posture training was given 90 per cent of the children had poor posture and that a slightly larger proportion of girls than boys had poor posture. At the end of the school year 62 per cent of the children who received special training had improved in posture as compared with 10 per cent of those who received no training.

Improvement in scholarship and better deportment seemed to be associated with better body mechanics. The attendance records of the children also suggest that posture training is beneficial to health. There was less absence due to illness during the spring quarter than during the fall quarter among both groups of children, but the improvement in attendance was greater in the group receiving posture training. Good nutrition seems to be a prerequisite of good posture. It was among children who already had good nutrition that the greatest improvement in posture took place.

Preparation of popular child-hygiene bulletins.—Popular bulletins on child health issued during the year include a folder, *Keeping the Well Baby Well*, lesson material for mothers' classes on the care of the preschool child, and a revised and enlarged edition of *Child Management*. The lesson material consists of nine lessons with problems to be worked out by the mothers, each on a phase of child care, such as the child's health examination, teeth, posture, and food likes and dislikes. An additional leaflet gives a list of references. Two other folders are in preparation: *Why Sleep?* and *Care of the Preschool Child*; and a new bulletin on child care is being written, which

will be issued under that title as a revised edition of Publication No. 30.

Employment of children and mothers.

Child welfare and the employment of mothers.—At the request of the Child Health Society of Philadelphia the bureau has commenced a study of the relationship between child welfare and the employment of mothers in that city. It is hoped that the information obtained will throw light on the extent to which mothers of young children in a modern industrial community are employed outside the home, the trends and causes of such employment, and the relationship between mothers' employment and fathers' occupations, earnings, and contributions to the family income.

Facts relative to the nature and amount of the mother's work have been obtained for some 6,000 families in which there are one or more children between 1 and 16 years of age and in which the mothers have had some gainful employment, most of them outside their own homes, since marriage.

In addition, much more detailed information relating to the economic status of the family, the mother's household activities and her work outside the home, if she is employed, and the health, education, conduct, and general welfare of the children has been obtained for approximately 1,000 of these families in which the mother had been gainfully employed outside the home for at least five of the preceding six months, and for a corresponding group of 1,000 families in which the mother had never been employed since marriage. It is planned to obtain similar information for a group of mothers who have been occupied gainfully on industrial employment in their own homes.

Work histories of minors attending continuation school.—Work has been continued on the series of studies of employed minors attending continuation schools, undertaken for the purpose of finding out what industries and occupations are entered by boys and girls 14 to 18 years of age who are starting out on their first jobs, and the extent to which age, sex, and previous schooling affect their opportunities of obtaining and keeping desirable employment. The tabulation of the statistical information obtained in the course of this study for some 15,000 employed minors in Milwaukee, Wis., Newark and Paterson, N. J., and Rochester and Utica, N. Y., is now under way.

Laws affecting the employment of minors and their administration.—During the past year work has continued on the revision of the compilation of the texts of child labor and compulsory school attendance laws published by the bureau in 1915. Mimeographed summaries of the laws affecting child labor passed in 1927 and 1928 have been issued. An analysis of legal provisions affecting children in agriculture and an analysis and tabular summary of State laws

and municipal ordinances regulating the work of children in street trades have been prepared for publication.

Series of nontechnical child-labor bulletins.—Plans have been made for a series of bulletins presenting briefly the results of the bureau's inquiries as to various aspects of the child-labor problem. The first two bulletins of this series, relating to child labor in agriculture and in street trades, have been completed and will be available for distribution shortly. These summarize the findings of the bureau's investigations with regard to the work of children in these occupations and also give the results of inquiries made by other agencies.

Current statistics of children to whom first regular employment certificates were issued.—The industrial division of the Children's Bureau has continued during the past year to assemble reports on employment certificates issued to working children. Last year visits were made to a number of State and city officials issuing certificates for the purpose of explaining the new report form and obtaining cooperation of a larger number of States and communities in compiling information for the bureau. As a result of these visits there has been an appreciable increase in the number of States and cities that are reporting. Reports have been received for the year 1927 for the District of Columbia, 16 States, and 69 cities in 18 other States, whereas the corresponding material available for 1926 was for the District of Columbia, 12 States, and 26 cities in 12 other States. The bureau is now receiving reports from States and cities in which, it is estimated on the basis of the 1920 census, more than half the 14 and 15 year old children in the United States working in occupations for which permits are usually required are employed.

The material obtained has been tabulated to show not only the number of certificates issued but also the ages, school grades completed, the occupations entered by the boys and girls receiving these certificates, and the evidence of age accepted by the issuing officers.

Reports of first regular certificates issued to children 14 and 15 years of age show decreases in the number entering employment varying from 2 to 61 per cent in 1927 as compared with 1926 in 11 States, in 17 cities in other States, and in the District of Columbia. In 4 States—Alabama, Connecticut, Maine, and Oregon—and in 9 cities in other States—San Francisco, Calif.; Minneapolis and St. Paul, Minn.; St. Louis, Mo.; Omaha, Nebr.; Trenton, N. J.; Syracuse, N. Y.; Scranton, Pa.; and Milwaukee, Wis.—this decline in the number of certificates issued in 1927 as compared with 1926 followed a decline in 1926 as compared with 1925. Increases in the number of certificates issued were reported in 1 State—Kansas—and in 5 cities. Detroit, Los Angeles, New York City, and Wilmington had increases varying from less than 1 per cent to 13 per cent. Lincoln issued 10 certificates in 1927 and 5 in 1926. The total number of children to

whom first regular certificates were issued in the States and cities for which information is comparable over a period of three years increased 5 per cent in 1926 as compared with 1925 and decreased 8 per cent in 1927 as compared with 1926. It is generally believed that unemployment during 1927 is largely responsible for the decreases, although in periods of unemployment children who would otherwise be kept in school are often compelled to seek employment and are sometimes able to obtain work when their parents can not do so.

Five States and 22 cities in 8 other States requiring the issuance of certificates to minors 16 or 17 years of age, or both, supplied the bureau with reports for this age group. A comparison of the number of these certificates issued during 1926 and 1927 shows general decreases.

Delinquency and child welfare.

Juvenile delinquency in Maine.—At the request of the Maine Department of Public Welfare a study is being made of the extent of juvenile delinquency in that State, the facilities for caring for juvenile delinquents, and the methods used in dealing with cases in representative counties. As Maine has no juvenile-court system and as practically no record material is available, facts are being secured about current cases through the cooperation of courts and other agencies coming in contact with juvenile delinquents. Forms have been distributed through the State department of public welfare to courts, trial justices, police, sheriffs, probation officers, and social workers, and cases coming to their attention during the six-month period beginning February 1, 1928, will be used as a basis for study. In addition to obtaining general information about all cases of delinquency it is planned to make intensive case studies of a small number of children, including some who have committed minor offenses and some who have been committed to the State schools for delinquents.

Uniform reporting of juvenile-court statistics.—Cooperation with the bureau by juvenile courts and State departments of public welfare in the plan for uniform reporting of juvenile-court statistics of delinquency, dependency, and neglect increased steadily during the year. The number of courts participating is now about 100. In several States the departments of public welfare have taken this plan into consideration in making revisions of annual and monthly reports required of courts, and others have been active in calling the plan to the attention of juvenile-court probation officers.

Cards or tables were received from 42 courts for the entire calendar year 1927, and a consolidated report is now being prepared and will be issued shortly. These 42 courts represent 15 States in different parts of the country, as follows: California 1, Connecticut 2, Indiana 10, Massachusetts 1, Michigan 1, Minnesota 2, New Jersey 2, New

York 10, North Carolina 2, Ohio 3, Pennsylvania 4, Tennessee 1, Virginia 1, Washington 1, and Wisconsin 1. The total number of cases reported by these courts was 46,750, of which 28,387 (involving 25,456 children) were cases of delinquency, 12,150 (involving 11,785 children) were cases of dependency or neglect, and 6,213 were cases of children discharged from probation or supervision.

The charges on which children were referred to court showed a striking difference between boys and girls. In boys' cases "stealing or attempted stealing" represented 41 per cent of the cases and "act of carelessness or mischief" 27 per cent; in girls' cases the charge of "stealing" occurred in only 13 per cent of the cases and "act of carelessness or mischief" in only 7 per cent. The closely allied offenses of "truancy," "running away," "ungovernable or beyond parental control," and "sex offense" comprised 75 per cent of all girls' cases. "Ungovernable" and "sex offense" were the largest groups, the former representing 27 per cent of all girls' cases and the latter 19 per cent.

Although some courts handle minor conduct problems unofficially the greater proportion of delinquency cases (20,827 out of 28,387) were dealt with officially. In dependency and neglect cases, as might be expected, the tendency to handle cases officially was even more marked (9,777 out of 12,150).

Family courts.—Public interest in the family court, or court of domestic relations, terms often used synonymously, is increasing, but proposals for legislation establishing new courts are often made without an adequate basis of information concerning the work of these first experimental courts or existing local court systems and the legal framework and social setting in which the new courts must find their place. The report of the study which the Children's Bureau has been making of courts especially organized to deal with family problems is nearing completion. Part 1 of the report presents a general review of the legal aspects of the treatment of domestic-relations problems and of attempts to provide methods of organization and administration especially adapted to modern conditions, together with suggestions as to the general principles that should govern the establishment of new courts or the reorganization of existing courts. This section of the report was submitted to a number of the leading authorities on this subject, to whom the bureau is indebted for helpful criticism.

The conclusions reached as a result of the study emphasize the great need for extension as rapidly as possible of the judicial technique developed by juvenile courts to matters bearing upon family relations coming within the scope of the report. This technique includes informal adjustment and reference to appropriate agencies of cases not requiring official court action, thorough social investigation,

physical and psychiatric examinations when necessary, informal hearings conducted with a minimum of publicity, and constructive supervision of probationers. Because of variation in local institutions and conditions a nation-wide formula for the adjustment of family problems coming before the courts is impossible. Wide differences exist not only in constitutional provisions and court systems but also in the degree of public interest in a social approach to legal problems involving child welfare and family life.

It is quite clear, however, that efforts of all interested groups should be directed toward the establishment and maintenance of tribunals that have broad powers to deal with family problems. Depending upon local conditions, social treatment of the cases covered by the report may be developed in one unified court having also juvenile jurisdiction, in one court with separate branches for juvenile and domestic-relations work or in separate juvenile and domestic-relations courts. Unified jurisdiction is desirable when it can be obtained without the sacrifice of more important ends. The study has shown the significant facts of overlapping jurisdiction, inadequacy of treatment, and other failures of law to meet family problems. Public responsibility for the correction of these conditions must be fulfilled, though the particular type of organization selected for dealing with them may vary.

Dependent children.

Public aid to mothers with dependent children.—Interest in mothers' aid legislation and in the administration of such laws is steadily increasing. To meet the demand for information as to the extent to which mothers' aid laws are actually applied at the present time the bulletin on public aid to mothers with dependent children issued in 1926 was brought up to date and some additional information was incorporated. It is estimated that at the present time on any one date approximately 200,000 children are receiving this form of public aid in their own homes. No estimate can be made of total expenditure, but information available for 20 States indicates an annual expenditure in these States of about \$18,000,000 for the support of children in their own homes.

The preparation of a handbook on the administration of mothers' aid has been undertaken by the bureau in response to a request of the National Committee on Public Aid to Mothers of Dependent Children in Their Own Homes. That there is need for such a publication has been shown by the many requests from all over the country that have come to those State departments which have issued State manuals. The standards, policies, and procedures that have been worked out during the past 15 years will be presented in the handbook in a form suitable for reference by busy administrators.

A report of a study of the standards of administration with reference to health, housing, education, and recreation of representative agencies that were administering mothers' aid in 10 localities was in press at the close of the year under review. Descriptions of the community resources for providing health care, education, and recreation that were available in each of the localities and information as to the extent to which these were utilized by the agencies also are included. This report shows the extent to which these agencies were providing for the families under their care the services that make mothers' aid a welfare measure rather than a relief measure.

Welfare of prisoners' families in Kentucky.—A report has just been issued of a study of the influence of the imprisonment of the fathers upon the welfare of 210 Kentucky families with dependent children. The men whose families were included in the investigation had been imprisoned in the State penitentiary or the reformatory for periods ranging from nine months to nine years. Although the case histories showed that the majority of the mothers and older children did everything in their power to earn a livelihood for the family only 33 of the 210 families were known to be self-supporting at the time of the study. The compensation paid the prisoners for the labor they performed in the State institutions had been fixed by the State board of charities and corrections at 10 cents per day. The possible contribution by the men through their own labor to the support of their families was therefore so small that it had little effect upon the condition of the family, even in the cases where assignments were made regularly by the fathers. The burden of assisting in the support of the families fell usually upon relatives, in many cases at a sacrifice of standards of living for both families. Many of the families were showing the results of hardships endured during the father's absence in lowered physical resistance, interruption of schooling, and separation of families. (A 1926 law applicable only to prisoners employed on road work makes possible for such prisoners compensation greater than that specified above.)

During the time that the field work for this study was in progress (March-July, 1926) Kentucky had no public provision for aid to dependent children in their own homes and no organized county agencies for case work with families in need, and private social agencies were available in only a few of the more populous counties. The one agency providing assistance to any number of the families was the Mutual Welfare League, maintained by the prisoners in the reformatory. Within the last year a law has been enacted creating a State children's bureau and county children's bureaus and authorizing the counties to provide aid for mothers with dependent children.

Children of illegitimate birth.—A report is in press based on 253 selected case histories of children of illegitimate birth whose cus-

tody had been retained by relatives. Thirty-five histories are given in detail as illustrative of the methods of care by which the mothers or other relatives were enabled to keep the children with them. A brief analysis is included of the general findings of the study and of the policies of the agencies from which the histories were obtained.

A brief analysis and tabular summary of the laws of the United States relating to the care of children of illegitimate birth will be available for distribution shortly. The texts of the laws of a number of States are included as illustrating some of the most progressive of the recent laws enacted for this group of dependent children.

State and county child-welfare agencies.

Methods of administration of State child-welfare activities.—Since 1917 new legislation defining the responsibilities and activities of State departments concerned with child welfare and establishing administrative machinery has been passed in a number of States. In order to make the history of the development and experience of these States available for comparison field work has been begun in connection with a study of these State departments, boards, or commissions, as they are variously called. The administrative practice in 10 States that illustrate different types of administration will be studied as fully as possible.

Plans are in progress for a special study of the achievements and methods of work of the children's bureau of the Minnesota State Board of Control, which was established in 1918 and has been a pioneer in the development of coordinated State and county programs. The study will include a general analysis of the functions and activities of the bureau and of the county child-welfare boards that serve as its local representatives throughout the State of Minnesota, and an evaluation of the work done and the extent to which the needs of local communities have been met.

County studies.—A plan was made and schedules were prepared for a study in Wisconsin that would provide information as to actual conditions affecting the welfare of children in several counties. This material was desired by the children's code committee of the Wisconsin State Conference of Social Agencies to assist it in the development of its program. The Children's Bureau undertook to make the field study in four counties, local committees undertaking this work in six additional counties. Individual schedules were obtained of all children under the care of agencies and institutions, and information was gathered on the health and recreational resources of the communities and on the organization and activities of all available social agencies and institutions. The report will be

prepared and published by the children's code committee of the Wisconsin Conference of Social Agencies.

Field work has been completed on a study of child welfare in six representative counties in Washington. A preliminary analysis of the findings of the study has been submitted to the State conference of social agencies, at whose request the study was made.

Recreation.

Field work has been completed on a study of the recreation of children living on farms or in villages in West Virginia. This study was undertaken at the request of the extension service of the West Virginia State College of Agriculture. Through interviews with the children in the schools of 12 rural districts in five counties schedules were secured for 1,932 children between 10 and 18 years of age. Information was thus obtained in regard to the amount of leisure time of the children and the use which was made of it. Special emphasis was placed upon the character of the social contacts of the children and the extent to which the children participated in club activities and other organized recreation.

In addition to obtaining information as to the social life and recreation of individual children studies were made of community facilities and their use, the activities of agencies contributing to the social life of the children, and the character of the play leadership in the communities.

During the past year the bureau has cooperated with the agricultural extension service of the State university in six States in the development of recreation programs for club groups. Courses for recreation leaders in games, folk dancing, pageantry, and story telling and in the planning of recreation programs were given to 14 groups of 4 H Club members and rural women attending camps or short courses organized by the extension service. A similar course was given under the auspices of the Young Women's Christian Association in one city.

State child-welfare commissions.

Official child-welfare commissions have been more or less active during the past year in three States—Georgia, Kentucky, and South Dakota. The Kentucky Child Welfare Commission sponsored a bill for its own abolition and the creation in its place of a State children's bureau. This bill, which also authorized the establishment of county children's bureaus and public aid to mothers of dependent children, became a law. Members of the California Commission for the Study of Problem Children, authorized by a law passed in 1927, were appointed by the governor in February, 1928. The New Jersey Juvenile and Probation Study Commission recommended bills relating to juvenile and domestic-relations courts and probation, which were not passed.

Unofficial committees interested in child-welfare legislation have been at work in several States. After the discontinuance of the Pennsylvania Children's Commission in 1927 the executive committee of the child-welfare committee of the Pennsylvania Public Charities Association resolved to undertake a general study of Pennsylvania statutes relating to children and the proposal of such revisions as seem desirable in these statutes. The Illinois State Conference of Social Work and the State department of public welfare have appointed a committee to review the recommendations made in 1920 by a children's committee appointed by the department of public welfare and to draw up a program for future action. Reference has already been made to the assistance given by the children's bureau to the Washington State Conference of Social Work and the children's code committee of the Wisconsin Conference of Social Work in studies of child-welfare needs and resources in selected counties of these two States.

Child-welfare legislation.

During 1928 regular legislative sessions were held in nine states—Kentucky, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Mississippi, New Jersey, New York, Rhode Island, South Carolina, and Virginia. Special sessions were held in a few States, including Illinois, Nevada, North Dakota, and Wisconsin, but so far as the department has been able to obtain information, no child-welfare legislation was enacted in these special sessions. Legislative material has been received by the department from the States having regular sessions.

Measures relating to standards for the employment of children or to compulsory school attendance were enacted by Congress for the District of Columbia and by the States of Kentucky, New Jersey, New York, Rhode Island, South Carolina, and Virginia.

The new District of Columbia child labor law constitutes a great advance over the former law, particularly in regard to the enforcement and administrative provisions, the regulation of children in street work, and their employment in dangerous or injurious occupations. It establishes a minimum age of 14 in all gainful occupations except domestic service or agriculture performed outside school hours for the child's parent or guardian, with the proviso that children 12 years of age and over may sell newspapers and children 10 years of age and over may distribute newspapers on regular routes. It also provides for an 8-hour day and 48-hour week and 6-day week for children between the ages of 14 and 18 years. Work between 7 p. m. and 6 a. m. is prohibited for boys under 16 and girls under 18 years of age, and work between 10 p. m. and 6 a. m. is prohibited for boys between 16 and 18.

In Kentucky the enforcement provisions of the compulsory school attendance law were strengthened.

In New Jersey the educational requirement for employment certificates for children between 14 and 16 years of age was raised from completion of the fifth grade in certain subjects to completion of the sixth grade in those subjects or completion of a program in a prevocational or vocational school approved by the commissioner of education equivalent to one year beyond the fifth grade. This provision becomes effective September 1, 1929.

In New York amendments to the school attendance and employment certificate law greatly clarify and simplify the former law, broaden its application, and improve its administrative provisions. A physical examination is required when the child goes to work and each time he changes his employment instead of only when he first goes to work, as formerly. In one respect, however, it lowers the standard of the former law, since it requires attendance at continuation school of minors up to 17 years of age instead of 18 as would have been required by September, 1928, under the former law.

The Rhode Island Legislature passed three laws raising the standards of the child-labor legislation of that State. The maximum hours of labor for children under 16 in manufacturing, mechanical, and mercantile establishments were reduced from 10 per day and 54 per week to 9 per day and 48 per week. The night-work prohibition for children under 16 was made to begin at 7 p. m. instead of 8 p. m. The street trades law, formerly applying only to Providence, was extended to cover all cities of more than 40,000 inhabitants, so that it now applies to Pawtucket and Woonsocket in addition to Providence.

A compulsory school attendance bill was passed by the South Carolina Legislature and is now in the hands of the governor, who has until January 3, 1929, to decide whether he will sign or veto it. If it becomes law the compulsory school age will extend from 7 to 14 instead of from 8 to 14, and attendance will be required for the full term; at present attendance is required for only four consecutive months, or 80 school days.

In Virginia the new school code passed this year makes the age period during which attendance is required begin at 7 instead of 8 years of age, and end at 15 instead of 14. The local school board, after a public hearing, may make this attendance period between 8 and 16 instead of between 7 and 15 years of age.

Kentucky and Mississippi enacted laws authorizing public aid to mothers with dependent children, so that 44 States and the District of Columbia have now provided for this method of keeping dependent children with their mothers. A mothers' aid bill was introduced in South Carolina but did not pass. In New Jersey the amount of aid authorized under the law was increased. Louisiana amended the law relating to aid to mothers with dependent children by making it

optional instead of mandatory with parishes and municipalities to provide funds for this purpose.

The Kentucky law establishing State and county children's bureaus has been mentioned in the discussion of child-welfare commissions. Massachusetts amended its poor relief law, eliminating the word "pauper" from the statutes and changing the name of "overseers of the poor" to "board of public welfare." A New York bill proposing a new public welfare law to replace the old poor law and related statutes and providing for a permissive system of county administration passed the senate but failed in the assembly. In Kentucky and New York laws relating to the State board of charities (in Kentucky, board of charities and corrections) were amended, as were New Jersey laws relating to support of children by counties. New Jersey also passed legislation providing for county tax levies for a State institution construction fund, to be used for State charitable and correctional institutions. Porto Rico established the Insular Commission of Public Charity to study the medical-assistance features of the system of public charity in the island and to recommend reform to the legislature at its 1929 session.

Bills amending the special juvenile-court laws for Buffalo and Syracuse were passed in New York, as were amendments to the New York probation law making the division of probation one of the statutory divisions of the State department of correction with general supervision over the administration of probation throughout the State, including probation in children's courts, and requiring that before any person is placed on probation the court shall consider his social history, previous court record, and the circumstances of the offense. New Jersey bills providing for juvenile and domestic-relations courts in other than first-class counties (which already have such courts) on vote of the people, and coordinating and strengthening the probation laws were sponsored by the juvenile and probation study commission established by the 1927 legislature but failed to pass.

Louisiana provided for a State industrial school for colored boys 17 years of age or under committed by juvenile courts.

Kentucky increased the penalty for kidnaping, making it an offense punishable by death or life imprisonment; and New Jersey made 30 years' imprisonment the minimum punishment for this offense. New York provided that the consent of the person kidnaped shall not be a defense unless such person is over 16 years of age.

Amendments to the nonsupport and illegitimacy laws in New Jersey removed jurisdiction over nonsupport from justices of the peace, provided that all such cases shall be heard in the future by courts of common pleas and criminal courts of record, and assigned to the latter courts exclusive jurisdiction in illegitimacy cases. Administrative

features of the nonsupport and illegitimacy laws of New York were strengthened.

Kentucky enacted a law providing that the mother and father are equally entitled to the services and earnings of a minor child. New Jersey amended the law relating to guardianship of minors, granting mothers and fathers equal rights to dispose of their children by will with the consent of the other parent.

New Jersey passed six new laws affecting the welfare of physically handicapped persons. The crippled children's commission created in 1926 was continued, and changes were made in the law relating to the rehabilitation of physically handicapped persons, the term "physically handicapped" being amended to include those incapacitated for education as well as those incapacitated for remunerative occupation and the provision limiting the application of the law to persons over 16 years of age being removed. Other laws relating to hospital care, maintenance in private homes, and education of crippled children were passed in New Jersey. Kentucky authorized boards of education in cities of the first class to provide for transportation to and from public schools of crippled children and of other children for whom the board after investigation deems it necessary. Massachusetts required deaf children between 7 and 18 years of age, with certain exceptions, to attend some school for the deaf approved by the department of education. In New York the powers of the Chautauqua County court with reference to physically and mentally handicapped children were enlarged.

Porto Rico established in the department of education a division of child hygiene with a physician as director.

Kentucky raised the minimum marriage age of boys from 14 to 16 years and of girls from 12 to 14 years. Owing to an error in the New York marriage law enacted in 1927 requiring proof of age, the prohibition of marriage of boys under 16 and girls under 14 was repealed. At the 1928 session this provision was restored.

Bills relating to recreation were introduced in New York and Rhode Island, but the New York bill did not pass. In Rhode Island the laws relating to admission of children to motion-picture theaters was amended so as to prohibit admission of children under 15 unaccompanied by a person 18 years of age or over, except that attendance of children over 10 and under 15 is permitted outside school hours and between the hours of 9 a. m. and 7 p. m.

Cooperation with Pan American child-welfare organizations.

The Fifth Pan American Child Congress, the first to be held within convenient distance of the United States, met in Habana, Cuba, from December 8 to December 13, 1927. It was attended by 14 delegates designated by the State Department and 5 unofficial representatives of organizations in the United States. The United States delegation,

official and unofficial, included representatives of three Federal bureaus (the Children's Bureau, the Bureau of Education, and the Public Health Service), the State of Indiana, the Territory of Porto Rico, and nine private nation-wide organizations. Many of these organizations and several others contributed to the child-welfare exhibit held in connection with the congress. The participation of so representative a delegation can not fail to result in greatly increased cooperation between the children's workers of North America and those of South America.

The Habana congress was the first that could look to a permanent Pan American child-welfare bureau to serve as a clearing house of information between the meetings of the child congresses. The International American Institute for the Protection of Childhood, an outgrowth of the child congresses, has been functioning since July, 1927, with headquarters in Montevideo. A valuable quarterly bulletin is published, of which four numbers have been issued. Membership of the United States in the institute was authorized by act of Congress approved May 3, 1928.

Exhibits.

During the year 355 shipments of exhibit material were sent to National, State, and local agencies, including the American Medical Association and other medical societies, public-health services, boards of health, child-welfare societies, fraternal societies, educational institutions, Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations, the American Red Cross, Boy Scout troops, Camp Fire Girls, women's clubs, State and county fairs, and social service organizations. This material included 3,795 panels, 485 reels of film, 1,766 slides, 30 film strips, 14 models, and 4 projectors. Reports from approximately 75 per cent of the borrowers show an attendance of 382,000 at the motion pictures and 529,000 persons at the other exhibits—an average of 76,000 persons reached each month by the exhibits of the bureau.

A one-reel motion picture, *The Best-Fed Baby*, was produced during the year to illustrate the advantages of breast feeding over artificial feeding. In the preparation of the scenario and the production of the film the bureau staff had the cooperation of the New York State Board of Health through the director of its division of maternity, infancy, and child hygiene, and the special assistance of one of its consultants who is a well-known pediatricist. Advice was also given by a pediatricist from Oregon who is an authority on breast feeding. The film was reviewed at the conference of State directors of maternity and infancy work before being released.

At the request of the American Medical Association the Children's Bureau cooperated with that organization during the year in the preparation of a special set of posters on the care of baby. Photo-

graphs and text were supplied by the bureau for these posters, which were reproduced in color by the American Medical Association. The posters will be distributed by both organizations.

Publications.

During the fiscal year 1928, 35 new and revised publications were issued, and 11 were in press at the close of the fiscal year. The most important of those issued are as follows:

Maternity and infant hygiene.—No. 178, The Promotion of the Welfare and Hygiene of Maternity and Infancy—The Administration of the Act of Congress of November 23, 1921, for Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1926; No. 181, Proceedings of the Fourth Annual Conference of State Directors in Charge of the Local Administration of the Maternity and Infancy Act of November 23, 1921; Leaflet, What Is Happening to Mothers and Babies in the District of Columbia; Folder No. 9, Keeping the Well Baby Well.

Child hygiene.—No. 143, Child Management (revised September, 1927); No. 179, References on the Physical Growth and Development of the Normal Child; 10 leaflets, Lesson Material on the Care of the Preschool Child.

Delinquency and dependency.—No. 180, Child Welfare in New Jersey, Part 4—Local Provision for Dependent and Delinquent Children in Relation to the State's Program; No. 177, The Children's Bureau of Cleveland; No. 162, Public Aid to Mothers with Dependent Children, extent and fundamental principles (revised); No. 182, Welfare of Prisoners' Families in Kentucky; Alcoholism among Parents of Juvenile Delinquents; The Extent of Child Dependency and Delinquency in Seven Pennsylvania Counties; Papers presented by delegates of the United States to the Fifth Pan American Child Congress—El Bienestar del Niño.

Child Welfare News Summary.—The Child Welfare News Summary was issued twenty-nine times during the year. On July 1, 1927, there were 1,148 names on the mailing list, and during the year 63 names have been added. This summary is sent, on request only, to persons who are engaged actively in child-welfare work and to child-welfare agencies and publications.

Distribution.

The number of publications distributed during the past year was 1,432,858, an increase of 126,794 over the preceding year. The distribution of popular bulletins, dodgers, folders, and charts intended primarily for mothers was 1,262,431. While this represents an increase in distribution over the preceding year it was necessary, nevertheless, to curtail many requests for quantities coming from public officials and public and private child-welfare agencies, such as children's clinics, health centers, and maternity hospitals. The demand

for the bureau's popular bulletins, folders, and charts continues to increase even though a large amount of material is now available through State and municipal departments of public health and other agencies. The numbers of popular bulletins ordered for sale by the Superintendent of Documents during the fiscal year 1928 were: Prenatal Care, 55,000; Infant Care, 130,000; Child Care, 33,500; and Child Management, 78,700.

The bureau has been unable, also, to meet the demand for its technical publications. The issuing of small editions and the curtailment of distribution by circularization of the mailing lists were continued.

BUREAU OF NATURALIZATION

RAYMOND F. CRIST, *Commissioner*

Declarations and petitions for citizenship.

Through the administrative supervision exercised by the Bureau of Naturalization over courts having naturalization jurisdiction, the records show that during the year 254,588 aliens declared their intention to become American citizens, 240,321 petitioned for naturalization, and 233,155 received certificates of citizenship on petitions for naturalization filed and heard. These figures show an increase in the number in the various actions taken over the preceding year, when 258,295 declarations of intention were made, 240,339 petitions for naturalization filed, and 199,804 certificates of citizenship were issued. While the year preceding had witnessed the largest number of filings of petitions for naturalization except in the year 1919, the present year has exceeded all preceding years with regard to the number of certificates of citizenship issued.

The courts denied 12,479 petitions for naturalization during the fiscal year, the principal causes being incompetency of witnesses, ignorance of the institutions of our Government, immoral character, and lack of sufficient residence. The petitions of 39,070 were temporarily deferred for the purpose of giving the Government further time to furnish evidence or to enable candidates to qualify for admission to citizenship. A total of 245,634 petitions for naturalization was heard by the 2,235 courts exercising naturalization jurisdiction, an increase of 33,884 over the preceding year.

Fees received.

The activities of this bureau resulted in the collection and deposit in the Treasury of the United States of the largest amount of money in any fiscal year of the 22 years of the administration of the naturalization law by the Federal bureau, the sum being \$1,015,235.08, of which \$76,732.50 was accounted for through the Department of Justice. The expenditures amounted to \$755,000.11, which is \$260,234.97 less than the revenues.

Appeals and cancellation proceedings.

The Supreme Court on April 9, 1928, in the case of *United States v. Amalia Manzi* (48 S. Ct. 328), decided that the widow of a deceased declarant could proceed upon the declaration of intention of her deceased husband only during such time as the law gave normal life to the declaration, or within seven years from the date it was made by her husband.

The question of the force of the requirement in the naturalization law that a certificate of arrival showing the date, place, and manner of arrival of the petitioner in the United States shall be filed with the clerk of the court at the time the alien files the petition for naturalization, is now pending in the Supreme Court in the case of *Anna Marie Maney v. United States* (48 S. Ct. 208) upon a writ of certiorari granted on January 9, 1928.

Petitions were recently made for the grant of a writ of certiorari in each of three cases to determine the meaning of the law with regard to service upon foreign vessels and its effect on residence in the United States for naturalization purposes. The law states that "service by aliens upon vessels other than of American registry, whether continuous or broken, shall not be considered as residence for naturalization purposes within the jurisdiction of the United States, and such aliens can not secure residence for naturalization purposes during service upon vessels of foreign registry." Notwithstanding this, the United States Circuit Court of Appeals for the Fifth Circuit held the language to be ineffective although during a great part of the 5-year period the alien served on vessels of foreign registry. The cases were *United States v. Marco Nicolich* (25 F. (2d) 245) and *United States v. Oscar Edwin Ferdinand Persson* (25 F. (2d) 247), both decided on April 4, 1928. On a similar statement of facts the Circuit Court of Appeals for the First Circuit in *Macdonald v. United States* (22 F. (2d) 747), on December 2, 1927, denied the right of citizenship. It is hoped that this question will be finally settled during the coming year by the Supreme Court.

Recommendations have been forwarded by the department at the instance of the Commissioner of Naturalization to the Department of Justice for institution of suits to cancel certificates of naturalization under the procedure contained in section 15 of the naturalization law of 1906. The various grounds for these suits consisted principally of absence from the United States for from upward of one to in excess of four years during the 5-year period in which the law requires residence to be within the United States, violations of State and Federal prohibition acts, bigamy, incompetent witnesses, and acts indicative of bad moral character and lack of attachment to the principles of the Constitution.

Visa archives.

Under the provisions of the immigration act of 1924, immigration visas are forwarded to this bureau from the ports of entry, and 313,057 of these visas have been received during the fiscal year, making a total of 1,247,582 received since July 1, 1924. From these papers the bureau is called upon to verify the correctness of facts alleged by aliens who arrived in the United States since July 1, 1924, in applications for permits to enable them to return to the United States after temporary absences, 21,003 of which were received during the year. The corresponding number the preceding year was 11,699, and the year before only 5,772.

From these visas the bureau also furnishes certificates of arrival for naturalization purposes, 88,678 of which were issued during the year, as compared with the 71,090 the previous year. This was an increase of 17,588. In addition to these, 1,919 applications for certificates of arrival were forwarded to the Immigration Service for further investigation as to the legality of entry into the country, as compared with 2,063 the preceding year. In addition to the certificates of arrival furnished for the use of those aliens entering the United States since July 1, 1924, certificates of arrival were furnished the field officers to the number of 29,026 for aliens desiring to make declarations who had arrived in the United States after the enactment of the first quota law and prior to July 1, 1924.

Petitions for preference or nonquota immigration visas from naturalized persons to enable them to bring in various members of their families were handled to the number of 30,797, as against 26,349 for the year ended June 30, 1927. Of these, 282 were returned because of lack of evidence to support the claims of the petitioners, 30,145 were forwarded for approval of the status to which they were entitled, and 370 were in process of investigation at the close of the year.

The work of verification of records for the various purposes mentioned discloses many irregularities which must be cleared up or reconciled before the papers applied for can be finally issued. Failure to establish record of legal entry into the country results in reference of the case to the Bureau of Immigration for investigation and possible deportation.

Citizenship textbooks.

The Federal Textbook on Citizenship Training has been furnished to 381 communities; 13,150 copies of Part I, 10,808 copies of Part II, and 9,299 copies of Part III.

Naturalization in New York City.

The large accumulations of applications to file petitions for naturalization awaiting action in the Supreme Court of Bronx County

and the United States District Courts in New York and Brooklyn have attained almost final adjustment. With the beginning of the fiscal year there were 23,725 applications on file awaiting completion of the action initiated by these individuals. With the close of the fiscal year there were but 7,632 such applications awaiting action, the year witnessing a reduction of 16,093 of this accumulation in addition to the examination and attention to the 40,000 applications received.

The work at Ellis Island closed the year in a current state, although the large number of applications received in the winter months for a time resulted in some slight accumulation.

WOMEN'S BUREAU

MARY ANDERSON, *Director*

During the year 1927-28 the Women's Bureau has carried on the duties with which it is charged and in connection with which it was authorized by the Congress "to investigate and report * * * upon all matters pertaining to the welfare of women in industry."

It is the purpose of the bureau to collect, correlate, and make available for reference a mass of information that will be accepted by employers, employees, health authorities, women's organizations—in fact, all interested persons—in their combined efforts to insure to all employed women good working conditions and satisfactory employment relations.

The important findings of the study of the effects of special legislation on the employment opportunities of women are finally in press.

In connection with this survey the development of labor legislation in three industrial States—California, New York, and Massachusetts—has been studied intensively to show how such legislation originated, the forces working for and against it, and the factors that made for its passage.

To round out still further the survey having to do with special labor laws, a concise record and interpretation of the laws for women in all the States, with the changes from the originals to date, has been prepared.

A most interesting and informative study of foreign-born women in industry in Philadelphia and the Lehigh Valley is in process of checking and editing for publication, and other reports will shortly be ready for the editorial department.

Interviews and correspondence have been conducted with certain State departments of labor for the purpose of securing their cooperation for the future use by the Federal bureau of data concerning wage-earning women collected by the States.

MARRIED WOMEN GAINFULLY EMPLOYED

The subject of married women gainfully occupied, especially mothers so employed, is one of increasing interest, and the bureau makes every effort to keep informed of the extent and status of their employment and the reasons for their going to work.

There has been a tremendous increase since 1890 in the number of married women gainfully occupied in the United States. The census of 1890 reported as gainfully employed about 5 of every 100 married women, and the census of 1920 reported as so occupied 9 of every 100 married women. In other words, in 1890 the married women gainfully employed constituted 1 in 22 and in 1920 they constituted 1 in 11 of all the married women reported by the census.

What has developed since 1920 there is no means of knowing. And the fact must not be overlooked that the census returns quoted refer only to married women living with husbands, since the census classes with single women those who are widowed, separated, or deserted.

Much has been said by the Women's Bureau and other organizations in regard to the numbers of widows and other women carrying the burden of family support without a male breadwinner. Omitting for the moment this phase of the problem, attention will be given here to the subject of the adequacy or inadequacy of the earnings of the husband in the cases where he is living at home and is employed.

Granted that a few married women leave the home because they desire a career or dislike housework; granted that a small proportion are gainfully employed though their husbands' earnings are adequate for the support of the family: the fact remains that the vast majority of married women seek gainful employment for economic reasons; that is, because the husband's earnings are not sufficient for the support of the family at anything like the American standard of living.

The Women's Bureau surveys repeatedly disclose this fact, and the bureau has abundant evidence of the needs that drive the mother into gainful employment. For the costs of living and for statistics on men's earnings, however, various authorities are consulted, notably the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, but including other reporting agencies as well.

In 1918-19 the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics made a cost-of-living survey (Bulletin 357) of more than 12,000 families of wage earners and small-salaried men in 92 cities and towns. The families averaged 4.9 persons—for all practical purposes the hypothetical five used in social studies. The average of the year's expenses for the 12,000 families was \$1,434. The husbands in these families

had average earnings for the year of \$1,349, failing to meet the family's expenses by an average of \$85.

In March, 1923, the cost of living for workingmen's families in Philadelphia, a "minimum health and decency standard" for a family of five persons, was found by the Bureau of Municipal Research to be \$1,854. [Philadelphia. Bureau of Municipal Research. The cost of a workingmen's standard of living in Philadelphia at March, 1923, prices. Citizens' Business, Apr. 5, 1923. No. 567, p. 3.]

Prof. Paul H. Douglas, of Chicago University, has estimated that in the larger American cities a family of five requires between \$1,100 and \$1,400 a year to live at even the minimum-of-subsistence level—shelter, food, and clothing, of a sort, but no surplus for other things: to reach the level of all necessary expenses plus "a modest balance" for recreation and sundries requires from \$1,500 to \$1,800; and the level commonly considered as the "American standard" costs between \$2,000 and \$2,400. [Douglas, Paul H. Wages and the family. The University of Chicago Press, 1925, pp. 5, 6.]

A study by the National Industrial Conference Board reached the conclusion that the year's cost of maintaining an industrial worker's family of five in New York City in 1926, exclusive of vacations, unemployment, savings, ranged from \$1,841 in Brooklyn to \$1,908 in the Bronx. [New York. National Industrial Conference Board. The cost of living in New York City, 1926, pp. 86-88.]

At these costs of keeping a family—\$1,434 in the Bureau of Labor Statistics survey, \$1,854 in that of Philadelphia, \$1,841 to \$1,908 in New York City, and \$1,500 to \$1,800 according to Professor Douglas—what weekly wage would be required by the head of the family and what do surveys show the actual weekly rates to be?

To earn \$1,400 or \$1,500 in 50 weeks a man must receive \$28 or \$30 a week, with no loss of time; to earn \$1,800 he must receive \$36 a week, and to earn \$1,900 he must receive \$38. To maintain his family even at Professor Douglas's minimum-of-subsistence level a man must earn \$25 a week.

A few surveys show these conditions:

The National Industrial Conference Board has made public the hours and earnings of 129,000 unskilled male wage earners in 23 major manufacturing industries in June, 1923. The average of their week's earnings was \$23.14, at which rate a year of 50 weeks' work—and workers can seldom be assured of 50 weeks' work in manufacturing—would produce \$1,157. At the same time the board made public the hours and earnings of 393,000 skilled male wage earners in the same manufacturing groups. The average of their week's earnings was \$30.90, at which rate a year of 50 weeks' work would produce \$1,545. [New York. National Industrial Confer-

ence Board. Wages, hours, and employment in American manufacturing industries, July, 1914-July, 1923. Research report No. 62, 1923, pp. 20, 28, and 29.]

About 94,000 men employed in factories were reported by the Department of Labor of the State of New York in 1923 as in groups averaging \$23 and under \$30—\$1,150 and under \$1,500 for a year of 50 weeks. [New York. Department of Labor. Employment and earnings of men and women in New York State factories, 1923-1925. Special bul. 143, June, 1926, pp. 159, 169.]

In regard to common labor, the United States Department of Commerce is authority for the statement that in February of 1928 the hourly wage of road labor in the United States was 38 cents, at which rate a 50-hour week for 50 weeks of the year—and road laborers ordinarily can not work the year around—would yield \$950 [U. S. Department of Commerce. Survey of current business. Bul. 80, 1928, p. 44.] and the Bureau of Labor Statistics reports that in January of 1928 the average entrance rate for 121,000 men doing common labor in 13 important industries in all parts of the United States was 43 cents an hour, at which rate a 50-hour week for 50 weeks of the year would yield \$1,075. [U. S. Department of Labor. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Monthly labor review. April, 1928, pp. 116, 118.]

Finally, to refer again to the survey of more than 12,000 families of wage earners and small-salaried men by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1918 [U. S. Department of Labor. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Cost of living in the United States. Bul. 357, 1924, pp. 7-68 and 76-107], which reports whether or not the wife and mother was in gainful employment, this condition is found:

In cities where the husbands' average earnings were equal to or fell only slightly below the average expenses, 6 per cent of the wives were at work;

In cities where the husbands' average earnings fell below the average expenses by \$50 and under \$150, 9 per cent of the wives were at work;

In cities where the husbands' average earnings fell below the average expenses by \$150 and under \$250, 10 and 12 per cent of the wives were at work; and

In cities where they fell below by as much as \$250 or \$300, 20 per cent of the wives were at work.

At the present cost of food, shelter, fuel, and other essentials, it would appear that a man whose employment yields him less than \$35 or \$40 a week for 50 weeks of the year can provide only the minimum of subsistence for his family, and the necessity of rising above such level must be met by other resources.

STANDARDS FOR THE EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN

The bureau continues to recommend its standards of hours, wages, working conditions, and employment relations, and feels a growing

confidence in its ability to furnish guidance and be of genuine assistance in putting such suggestions into practice. These standards, agreed upon for the employment of women on Government contracts during the war, and indorsed by representative employers and working women alike, are briefly as follows:

Hours.

A day not longer than eight hours.

A half holiday on Saturday.

One day's rest in seven.

At least 30 minutes allowed for a meal.

A 10-minute rest period in the middle of each half day without lengthening the day.

No employment of women between midnight and 6 a. m.

Wages.

Rates based on occupation and not on sex nor race, the minimum to cover cost of healthful and decent living and to allow for dependents.

Working conditions.

Cleanliness.

Good lighting, ventilation, and heating.

Machine guards, handrails, safe condition of floors, devices for drawing off dust and fumes.

Fire protection.

First-aid equipment.

A chair for each woman. Change of posture—neither constant standing nor constant sitting.

Prevention of overstrain and of overexposure to dust, fumes, poisons, extremes of temperature.

Sanitary drinking and washing facilities.

Dressing rooms, rest rooms, lunch rooms.

Adequate toilet arrangements—one toilet to each 15 workers.

General.

A personnel department, responsible for the selection, assignment, and transfer or discharge of employees.

Women in supervisory positions and as employment executives where women are employed.

Provision for workers to share in control of conditions of employment.

Opportunity for workers to choose occupations for which best adapted. No prohibition of women's employment except in occupations proved to be more injurious to women than to men.

No work to be given out to be done at home.

Application to and cooperation with Federal and State agencies dealing with labor and conditions of employment.

LABOR LEGISLATION DURING THE PAST YEAR

Very few State legislatures were in session during the winter of 1927-28, and of these only New York made any change in the labor laws for women. In that State an amendment was passed exempting women licensed pharmacists from the night-work prohibition for mercantile stores.

In several States attempts to enact legislation were made. A bill for a 48-hour week was introduced in South Carolina but no action was taken on it. In Massachusetts, New Jersey, and New York various attempts were made to amend the existing hour and night work laws. In Massachusetts the bills introduced again sought to allow women in textile mills to work as late at night as women in other manufacturing industries and to permit overtime beyond the 48-hour weekly limit. New Jersey once more tried to provide a penalty for infringement of its night work law. The purpose of some of the bills introduced in New York was to strengthen the 8-hour law that went into effect January 1, 1928; the purpose of others, to weaken or repeal it.

SPECIAL STUDIES

During the past year the bureau has developed or completed several special studies. In addition to the studies described as research, the following reports are in various stages of preparation:

The effects of labor legislation on the employment opportunities of women.

This report, a presentation of the facts obtained in an intensive field survey made in 1926, ranks foremost of the studies prepared this year for publication. It originated in a resolution of the Women's Industrial Conference early in 1926 asking the bureau to make "a comprehensive investigation of all the special laws regulating the employment of women to determine their effects."

The work in connection with the writing of this report continued far into the fiscal year, but the bulletin is now in press. It furnishes a series of studies, all in one volume in the interest of economy and to discourage the discussion of one of its parts without considering its relation to other parts, on the following aspects of the subject:

The occupational and geographic distribution of women.

The effects of legislation in five manufacturing industries—boots and shoes, clothing, electrical products, hosiery, and paper boxes.

Night-work laws in manufacturing and in newspaper offices.

Women employed as elevator operators; as street-car conductors and ticket agents; as waitresses in restaurants; in mercantile establishments; in pharmacy; in the metal trades; and in occupations pro-

hibited in some States—grinding, polishing, and buffing; electric and acetylene welding; taxicab driving; and gas and electric meter reading.

The investigation by the agents covered 179 cities and towns in 11 States, besides the questionnaire method of inquiry that elicited replies from 38 States in the pharmacy study and from 44 employment offices in regard to night work, prohibited occupations, and other subjects. Schedules were secured from 1,600 establishments, employing as many as 660,000 men and women. More than 1,200 working women were interviewed in regard to personal experiences of the effects of labor legislation on their employment, and these experiences form an important part of the study.

The report states that laws limiting hours of work apply to about a third of the 8,500,000 women reported by the census of 1920 as gainfully occupied in the United States, and that laws limiting or prohibiting night work are an additional regulation applying to slightly more than two-fifths of those whose hours are restricted. Laws prohibiting only certain occupations are in force for very small numbers of women, while laws requiring certain working conditions and sanitary facilities for women are more general in their application. The women to whom these laws apply are engaged in many forms of activity throughout the United States, and it has been the object of this study to discover what effects such legislative regulations have had on their opportunities and conditions of employment.

To quote from the foreword by the advisory committee, composed of Mary van Kleeck, chairman, Lillian M. Gilbreth, and Charles P. Neill—

These laws have been directed toward the control of conditions in industrial, mercantile, and factory occupations. When applied to certain occupations which differ from those for which they were drawn, such as street cars, labor laws have proved to be a handicap in a few instances. But the findings seem to show that the instances of handicap, which have been diligently sought by the investigators, are only instances, and should be dealt with as such without allowing them to interfere with the development of the main body of legislation.

The first caution in the reading of the report, which is demonstrated again and again in the material, is the impossibility of generalization, the necessity for recognizing differences in different occupations, different industries, and different localities. As to night work, laws prohibiting it were found to be "chiefly a reflection of the usual attitude of employers regarding such practice, but occasionally they result in a limitation of women's employment. When applied indiscriminately to special occupations that are professional or semiprofessional in type, night-work prohibition or regulation has resulted in restrictions of women's employment." In general, however, the report concludes that regulatory hour laws as applied to women engaged in manufacturing processes do not handicap them, but "serve to regulate employment and to establish the accepted standards of modern efficient industrial management."

Very important in any consideration of enlargement of women's opportunities is the conclusion of the report, that "in almost every kind of employment the

real forces that influence women's opportunity are far removed from legislative restriction of their hours or conditions of work. In manufacturing, the type of product, the division and simplification of manufacturing processes, the development of machinery and mechanical aids to production, the labor supply and its costs, and the general psychology of the times, all have played important parts in determining the position of women. . . .

"In other occupations other influences have been dominant in determining the extent of women's employment. In stores a more liberal attitude and successful experimentation with women on new jobs; in restaurants the development of public opinion as to the type of service most suitable for women; in pharmacy a gradually increasing confidence in women's ability on the part of the public; in the metal trades a breaking down of the prejudices against women's employment on the part of employers and of male employees and demonstration of women's ability along certain lines—these are the significant forces that have influenced and will continue to determine women's place among wage earners. Such forces have not been deflected by the enforcement of legislative standards and they will play the dominant part in assuring to women an equal chance in those occupations for which their ability and aptitudes fit them."

The value of this study, however, lies not in its conclusions so much as in its portrayal of conditions in such detail that the reader may see and judge for himself. The setting up of the problem, which is the essence of method, and the technique of procedure seem to the advisory committee to have been designed to safeguard the objective character of the results. It is unnecessary for the committee to prove this point, since again the reader can judge for himself by studying the report itself. All that the committee seeks to do is to bring together in brief compass what seem to its members to be the outstanding characteristics of the method adopted. It is with satisfaction that we have participated in the carrying forward of this investigation, because it represents an effort to approach a controversial issue by the objective method and spirit of science, and as such it should be a safe guide for action in the public interest.

Foreign-born women in industry.

According to the census of 1920, 1 in 5 of all women in the manufacturing industries of the United States are foreign born. To ascertain how and to what extent these women are fitting into American industrial life; how necessary such employment is for the women and what it means to them and to their families; and how much of their time and strength is given to industry, was the purpose of a survey of immigrant women in Philadelphia and the Lehigh Valley made by the Women's Bureau in 1925. This report is now in process of checking and editing.

The peculiar difficulties of these women in adjusting themselves to industry, since most of them speak little or no English on their arrival here and have had no factory experience; their courage in seeking and holding jobs; their earning ability and economic responsibilities; the causes of their unemployment—these are matters of interest and importance and in harmony with the purposes and duties of the Women's Bureau.

Scope of the survey.—Philadelphia and the Lehigh Valley were selected for study as fairly representative of the country as a whole.

One-fifth of all the employed women in Philadelphia are of foreign birth, and most of them are in textiles and clothing, the industries employing almost one-half of the foreign-born women reported as in manufacturing by the census of 1920.

In the Lehigh Valley, about 50 miles to the north of Philadelphia, are Bethlehem with its great steel works, Allentown with varied industries, and several communities in the cement and zinc sections that provide employment for thousands of foreign-born men.

Something more than 1,100 women were interviewed in Philadelphia and something more than 1,000 in the Lehigh Valley.

Employment in the old country.—One-half of the women had worked on farms before coming to the United States, 1 in 5 for wages and the others on the home farm. Fewer than 200 had done no work of any sort.

Country of birth.—Of the 2,100 women reporting on nativity, 22 per cent were born in Poland, 15 per cent in Austria, 15 per cent in Hungary, and 6 to 9 per cent each in Czechoslovakia, Russia, Yugoslavia, and Italy. One in 5 considered themselves Germans and 1 in 10 were of the Jewish race, mainly from Russia. In all, 94 per cent were of non-English-speaking races.

Years in the United States.—More than a fifth of the women who reported year of arrival had come to the United States between 1920 and 1925, and twice their number came before 1910. The war period had brought practically none.

Of the women interviewed 1 in 5 were citizens of the United States.

Age.—More than a third of the women were 30 and under 40 years of age. Less than 2 per cent were as much as 60, and 13 per cent were under 20. Two-fifths of the women had come to the United States alone, and of these more than one-half were less than 18 years of age at time of coming. Two of every three had begun work within a year of their arrival, large numbers within a few days or weeks.

Ability to speak English.—Only 60 per cent of the women were able to speak English; the recent comers more than the earlier immigrants had a knowledge of English; 1 in 5 of the women had been in the United States as much as 20 years, but of these one-third could not speak the language of their adopted land.

Less than a third of the women could read English, and 1 in 7 could not read at all.

Extent of schooling.—Nine-tenths of the 1,500 women who were at least 14 years old when they arrived had never attended school in the United States, and more than one-seventh of those who came before they were 14 had not been to school here. More than 200 had never attended any school, even in the old country. Of these a number described the political or religious prejudice that had prevented their attending school in their country of birth.

Late hours in certain lines of employment and home duties very generally prevented the women from taking advantage of night classes. In numerous cases the day's employment made no contribution to Americanization. "Everybody not talk English in factory. Never hear English only by the school."

Women in Philadelphia evening schools.—Simple questionnaires distributed among the pupils in evening schools in Philadelphia, more than three-fourths of the 730 being Germans and Jews, showed that 9 in 10 had attended school as much as 7 years in the old country. Two-thirds of those answering the questionnaires were at least 21 years of age and there were several whose age was 40 and under 50 years.

Of 712 who reported their present employment, 348 were in clothing manufacturing, 98 in textiles, 78 in miscellaneous manufacturing, and 89 in domestic and personal service.

Marital and family status.—Well over one-half of the women in the entire survey were married and living with their husbands. Slightly more than 1 in 4 were single. Only 139 were living independently, away from their homes and relatives.

The average size of the family was 4.5 persons; almost 1 in 10 had 7 or more persons, and a few had 10, 11, and 13.

Two in 5 of the families had 3 or more children; a small per cent—67 families—had 6 to 9 children; 4 in 5 of the mothers reporting the children's ages had children 7 and under 14 years, and 2 in 5 had little tots not yet 5 years old; 46 of these employed mothers had children less than a year old.

Of the more than a thousand children under 8 years of age, 101 were left at home with older children, 417 with fathers or other relatives, and 9—including a child of 2 and a child of 3 years—were left to shift for themselves. About 500 of the children were cared for outside the home, in school, or with relatives or neighbors.

One mother explained that the 6-year-old girl had taken care of the 10-months-old baby. Another had been in the habit of locking the child of 6 alone in the house and requiring the boy of 8 years to play outside after school until the mother came home from the mill.

Number of breadwinners.—In 156 cases the woman interviewed was the sole breadwinner in her family. In most cases, however, the husband and wife were sharing the responsibility. In 10 per cent of the cases the families had 4 or more wage earners.

As many as 200 of the husbands were not contributing at the time of the interview. An astonishing number had not been employed for more than a year. Seasonal employment, such as the building trades, had its effect also.

Earnings were reported for 456 of the chief male breadwinners. The medians of the week's earnings in the various industries ranged

from \$22 to \$28, the average for all being about \$25. Only 1 in 4 earned as much as \$30. On the whole, earnings for the men reported were higher in the Lehigh Valley than in Philadelphia.

Practically all the women did their own housework in addition to their employment outside the home, and 1 in 8 had boarders or lodgers. In the Lehigh Valley group housekeeping was found, or, more exactly, the renting of rooms to perhaps several families with the use of the kitchen in common. Crowding was not the usual condition, though examples were found—one schedule in particular reporting 9 adults and 6 children in 6 rooms. Sanitary facilities were few, but tenants found it hard enough to meet the rent of shelter that lacked the barest essentials of sanitation.

Women's employment and earnings.—In the Lehigh Valley, to provide employment for the women whose husbands were in the principal man-employing industries, silk manufacturing had been introduced as early as 1880. A few small cigar factories, also to take advantage of the surplus woman labor, were established before 1905, but the 10 or 12 large cigar factories were of more recent date.

The more than 1,000 women interviewed in the Lehigh Valley were distributed industrially as follows: Cigars and cigarettes, 64.1 per cent; textiles, 34.6 per cent; and other, 1.3 per cent.

In Philadelphia the industries were varied. The more than 1,100 women interviewed were 39.5 per cent in textiles, 18.3 per cent in clothing, 5 to 7 per cent each in the manufacture of tobacco products, food products, and miscellaneous products, in clerical work, and in office cleaning and laundry work; while the others were sewing, sorting rags, working in hotels and restaurants, and employed in smaller groups.

A considerable number of women had been out of employment 3 months or more, and another group had been idle for 1 to 3 months. Furthermore, a number of industries employing women had been running short time, 2 or 3 days a week.

The earnings of the women interviewed, like those of their husbands, were higher in the Lehigh Valley than in Philadelphia; 29 per cent of the women in the Lehigh Valley, in contrast to 17 per cent of those in Philadelphia, earned as much as \$20 a week. Ten per cent of those in the Lehigh Valley and 11 per cent of those in Philadelphia received less than \$10 a week.

The median of the week's earnings for all women reporting was \$15.35 in Philadelphia and \$16.75 in the Lehigh Valley.

Home work in Philadelphia.—About 160 women interviewed in Philadelphia were doing factory work in the home. Approximately two-thirds of these women were Italians; they were sewing carpet rags, at 50 cents a bushel of uncut mill ends of material; finishing men's coats—felling the seams and doing other hand work—at 17

cents a coat; putting safety pins and snaps on cards, 12 to a card, at from 8 to 15 cents a hundred cards; embroidering a simple design, in four colors, on children's dresses, at 50 cents a dozen dresses; and stringing tags—that is, threading and knotting the string for attaching tags—at 10 cents a thousand.

The other home workers were Germans, who generally were putting pockets, cuffs, etc., on sweaters, with a neat and machine like stitch, at 40 cents a sweater, and Slavs, who were covering curtain rings, using a crochet hook and cord, at 40 cents a gross. The week's earnings, even with the entire family assisting, were pitifully small. The children pulled basting threads, strung tags, carded pins and snaps, and were of help in other ways.

The men in some of these families were reported as "digging in the street," "sweeping the street," "wheeling coal to furnace room," "loading boxes," and so on. Most of them were in seasonal trades or had other irregular employment. The median of the earnings reported for 51 men was \$24.25. One of these men earned less than \$10 and one earned as much as \$38.

The universal comment of the women was that home work offered a means of supplementing the family income without leaving the small children unattended.

A number of the women seemed to recognize the ill effects of home work. "We ask God to give us work and then we get so tired, more curses go on the cards than pins." They spoke of the low rates paid by the factories. However, "Some women would take the work if they paid only 2 cents; now work all day hard—50 cents all can earn by pins."

It is not surprising that they failed to think of the consumer or of the unfair competition for employers having higher standards of business.

The employment of women at night.

A report on the employment of women at night will shortly be issued from the press. This study gives the findings on night work in the State surveys by the Women's Bureau; medical, social, and economic testimony as to the effects of night work; the foreign experience; the Bern and Washington conventions, and the extent to which the various countries have ratified them; the principal night-work legislation of foreign countries, and the laws of the 16 States in the United States that prohibit the employment of women at night.

Negro women in industry.

Notwithstanding the importance of the subject and the interest it evokes, the bureau, in the 10 years of its existence, has been able to make but one study of the employment of negro women—its Bulletin 20, *Negro Women in Industry*. With this great deficiency in mind, all the data concerning negro women in the reports of State

surveys made by the Women's Bureau are being assembled and correlated. A brief preliminary report and a number of wall charts will be supplied to the National Interracial Conference to be in session in December of the present year.

Wages in 13 States.

In the same way the data on women's earnings secured in 13 State surveys since the Women's Bureau was established have been assembled and are being correlated and compared.

Domestic service in Philadelphia.

The Women's Bureau has been asked to participate in a study of household employment in Philadelphia under the auspices of the Women's Problems Group of the Social Order Committee of the Society of Friends, preparatory to the organization of a bureau of household occupations in that city.

Almost 1,000 housewives have returned the questionnaires, which are concerned with the occupations, hours, wages, and working and living conditions of domestic employees, and such personal data and family responsibilities as are known to the employer. Tabulation of these schedules is in progress.

Conditions for women in laundries.

Field work has been completed and tabulation is in process of a study of the hours, earnings, and working conditions in laundries. This survey, which was conducted with the cordial cooperation of the Laundryowners' National Association, covered 290 establishments in 16 States.

Humidity and absence records in cotton mills.

A number of textile manufacturers have cooperated with the Women's Bureau by keeping records of temperature and humidity and also employment records, with details on cause of absence, in order to furnish information on differences in causes of absence by sex and by department. Only the original data have been furnished by these firms, the staff of the bureau compiling and analyzing the material.

Women in the meat-packing industry.

A project recently begun is a survey of the conditions of employment and the economic status of women employed in meat-packing establishments.

LIBRARY RESEARCH

In the development of the Women's Bureau considerable attention has been paid to material that has been published elsewhere. It is the desire of the bureau to make accessible any valuable material on women workers that can be obtained from printed records or from factual studies made by other agencies. Such sources as the labor

laws of the various States, the records of the Bureau of the Census, and the reports of the International Labor Office have been studied and used in a variety of ways.

It is obvious that research is necessary in connection with every project undertaken by the bureau. Furthermore, a large part of the research work always consists in answering special inquiries. Among the multitudinous inquiries that come to the bureau, an unusually large number this year have been concerned with foreign labor laws and married women in industry. The increasing interest in foreign labor standards probably is due to the fact that practically every European country forbids night work by women, though most of the States of the United States permit it, and that the legal 8-hour day is far more prevalent in Europe than in the United States. The work of collecting and analyzing foreign labor laws is being carried on with the help of the International Labor Office, and it will enable the bureau to meet adequately the requests that it is receiving.

Two important reports have been completed during the past year—the history of labor legislation in three States and the chronological development of labor legislation for women in the United States.

History of labor legislation in three States.

An entirely new and most interesting type of study has been made during the past year to show the forces at work to bring about the adoption of labor legislation for women. The development of such legislation has been studied intensively in three important industrial States, California, Massachusetts, and New York, with the thought that the history in these States would be typical of a large part of the country. The report considers how such legislation originated; the forces working for and against it; the factors that made for its final passage.

In all the States roughly the same forces appear working for the laws, but the particular group that played the most important part in securing the legislation varied. Organized labor, men and women; the factory inspectors and other officials charged with enforcing the labor laws; the bureaus of labor statistics, the various special legislative committees or commissions appointed for the study of labor conditions, many governors, liberal-minded employers, and citizens organized in social, civic, philanthropic, and church groups have worked long and hard to improve the conditions under which women work by securing remedial legislation. Different methods have been used at different times and places. Sometimes one group was particularly interested in a certain bill and did the major share of the work; sometimes another group came to the front. Joint committees from all the interested groups frequently have been appointed to push legislation.

At times long campaigns of education to prove the need of laws have been undertaken. Factory inspectors and other labor officials have reported, year after year, on bad conditions and means of correcting them. In many cases the proponents of remedial legislation have secured authoritative factual studies to show the sore spots in industrial life, and have patiently presented these facts until public and legislators agreed to try to correct them through legislation. In spite of long delays, of some final refusals to act on the part of the legislatures, of attacks on hard-won laws to amend or repeal them, the struggle for comprehensive and effective labor legislation has been carried on without rest.

Leaders and organizations have left their stamp upon specific pieces of legislation, but behind these leaders and organizations are discernible always the social forces pushing on toward a better economic order. The overpowering urge toward social justice accounted for the flood of industrial legislation during the years 1911 to 1914. More important legislation affecting women's work was put on the statute books of each of the three States in that 3-year period than in any other period of corresponding length. Massachusetts shortened hours for almost all groups of women workers and passed the first minimum-wage law in the United States. New York shortened hours for women workers, prohibited night work, and passed a number of other statutes safeguarding the work of women. California enacted a comprehensive 8-hour law and then set up a commission to secure for women workers a living wage and proper working conditions.

In some cases legislative action has been followed by reaction, but the wage earners have opposed repeal and the work accomplished seldom has been undone. The laws passed may be considered representative of the spirit of the times that played its part in making their enactment possible.

Chronological development of labor legislation for women in the United States.

To complete the survey of the development of labor legislation in the United States, the changes in all the labor laws for women in all the States have been traced from the time the first labor law was passed to the present time. No attempt has been made in this report to discuss the forces effecting these changes, but each step in the development of the present code of labor laws has been recorded. When this report is published it will be possible for the first time to see quickly and clearly how extensive are the labor laws for women in each State and how long they have been in process of development in the various cases.

Special labor laws for women are found in well-defined fields. By far the greatest number of laws and those covering the most women limit hours of work. Laws requiring that seats be provided for the use of women workers are found in almost every State, but in many cases they cover relatively few women. Laws prohibiting the work of women at night and laws regulating or prohibiting their work in selected dangerous occupations also are quite common. The report traces separately the development of each of these types of laws. Moreover, in summarizing the laws it not only notes changes in substance—for example, by showing when the daily hours a woman is permitted to work have been shortened—but it gives the most important enforcement provisions, including the penalties for noncompliance.

Even in the brief form in which these laws are presented, the report paints a very complete picture of all labor laws for women. It shows waves of legislative activity rising and receding, pushed by the forces described in the accompanying History of Labor Legislation in Three States.

State laws affecting working women.

A revision to August 1, 1927, of the bureau bulletin on State Laws Affecting Working Women has been prepared and published.

PUBLIC INFORMATION

It has been the desire of the bureau to make its material available in as many forms as possible, so that it would reach the widest range of interests throughout the United States. Following this desire, an office on public information was added to the staff during the past year and a regular news and magazine service was inaugurated. Information has been furnished to correspondents upon request, and special articles on the work and interests of the bureau have been written for magazines.

Several new graphic exhibits have been developed. A two-reel motion picture, *Within the Gates*, shows the distribution of women throughout the occupations listed by the census of 1920, and their importance to industry in general, while using the textile industry as a specific example. A poster series called "The Woman Who Earns," done in black and white, pictures the problems of the wage-earning woman and the standards advocated by the bureau for her employment. A poster lithographed in colors, showing girls in a factory workroom, with the text, "Daughters of America—nearly 2,000,000 girls under 20 at work. They Have Youth, Have They Opportunity?" has been sold through the office of the Superintendent of Documents. Three chart series have been prepared from bureau publications—one on industrial accidents to women in Ohio, New

Jersey, and Wisconsin, one on lost time and labor turnover in 18 cotton mills, and one, now in press, on married women in industry. A small illustrated folder, "The Women's Bureau—What It Is, What It Does, What It Publishes," is in its second edition. A group of seven miniature stage sets, with cut-out figures in color, illustrating respectively Agriculture, Transportation, Manufacture, Trade, Professional service, Clerical Work, and Domestic and personal service, has been made for the Iberian-American Exposition at Seville, Spain, which is to open in March, 1929, and a copy has been prepared for use in this country. Other material to be sent to Seville, where the bureau will have a room of its own, includes the translation into Spanish of the folder on standards and an article by the director of the bureau, written originally for the Pan-American Sanitary Bulletin and covering the work of the bureau; copies in Spanish of the motion picture, *The Woman Worker Past and Present*; several charts, posters, and maps; and a displayor with approximately 90 photographs of women at work on various tasks.

Since June of last year 512 exhibits of various kinds have been sent out to 36 States and 5 foreign countries.

During the year the director and certain members of the staff have attended a number of conferences, made many addresses, and contributed articles on the subjects with which the bureau is concerned.

A little time has been spent on the index of the bureau publications that is being prepared for purposes of reference, but owing to pressure of other work it is far from up to date.

An assortment of the publications of the bureau was sent to the international press exhibit in Cologne in the spring of this year.

PUBLICATIONS

During the year the following bulletins have come from the press:

- No. 60. Industrial accidents to women in New Jersey, Ohio, and Wisconsin.
- No. 62. Women's employment in vegetable canneries in Delaware.
- No. 63. State laws affecting working women. (Revision of Bulletin 40.)

The following bulletins are in press:

- No. 61. The development of minimum wage laws in the United States, 1912 to 1927.
- No. 64. The employment of women at night.
- No. 65. The effects of labor legislation on the employment opportunities of women.

The following bulletins are in process of preparation:

- No. 66. History of labor legislation in three States and chronological development of labor legislation for women in the United States.
- No. 67. Women workers in Flint, Mich.

January and February, one on each side and labor turnover in 18
 cotton mills and one on the other in general industry.
 A small illustrated folder, "The Woman's Hour—What Is It
 Worth? Does It Pay?" is in the second edition. A group
 of seven miniature stage sets with cut-out figures in costume, illus-
 trating the various occupations of women, is in the third edition. These
 folders are made for the Bureau of Labor Statistics and are sent to
 States which have in March, 1922, and a copy has been prepared
 for use in the country. Other folders are to be sent to States where the
 Bureau will have a room of its own, including the translation into
 Spanish of the folder on standards and an article by the director of
 the Bureau, written originally for the Pan-American Sanitary Con-
 ference, covering the work of the Bureau in Spanish in Spanish of the
 nation pastures. The Woman Worker List and Index, a report of the
 Bureau, and a display of with approximately 90 photo-
 graphs of women at work on various tasks.

Since June of last year 512 exhibits of various kinds have been
 sent out to 25 States and a foreign country.
 During the year the director and certain members of the staff have
 attended a number of conferences, made many addresses, and con-
 sidered articles on the subjects with which the Bureau is connected.
 A little time has been spent on the subject of the Bureau's publications
 that is being prepared for the purpose of reference, but owing to the
 nature of other work it is far from up to date.
 The annual report of the publication of the Bureau was sent to the
 International Labor Office in Geneva in the spring of 1922.

PUBLICATIONS

During the year the following bulletins have been sent from the Bureau:
 No. 55. (Monthly) Bulletin to Women in New Jersey, Ohio, and Wisconsin.
 No. 56. Women's Employment in various countries in 1921.
 No. 57. State laws affecting working women. (12 copies to be sent to
 The following bulletins are in press:

No. 58. The employment of women in the United States, 1921.
 No. 59. The employment of women in night.
 No. 60. The effect of child legislation on the employment of women in
 the United States.

The following bulletins are in process of preparation:
 No. 61. The effect of child legislation in three States and a comparison of
 child labor legislation for women in the United States.
 No. 62. Women workers in food, drink, and tobacco.

PART II

COMMENTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

EMPLOYMENT PROBLEMS

A remarkable change has taken place in the economic structure in practically all lines of industry, and in the year under review these changes have had a marked effect in causing unemployment. If one age is distinguishable from another, this age can properly be called the machine age. From time long past machines have been in use, contributing their part toward reducing back-breaking labor. History reveals that their early use provided an impetus for new industries and increased employment, but of recent years the general introduction and installation, owing to the demand for mass production, of labor-saving devices have had a marked effect in reducing pay rolls and causing unemployment. It has been felt by the bank employee and the grocery clerk, the telegraph and telephone operator, the carpenter and painter, and by practically all classes of workmen. In the forward march of progress we welcome the scientific skill and genius of the American inventor—who will make further efforts to contribute newer and better economic devices—that will reduce irksome labor and add to mass production. Unfortunately the introduction of the new methods and devices has temporarily displaced many workers, who must be absorbed into other lines of endeavor if we are to continue to maintain the great prosperity and happiness which the United States of America has experienced during recent years. It will require the best minds of the country and earnest students of economics to work out a solution of the problem of readjustment which necessarily must follow such widespread installation of machinery, so as to minimize the hardship felt by men relieved from employment through this medium.

The United States Employment Service, in cooperation with the several States in conducting public employment offices, has experienced much difficulty in finding new employment for those who have been obliged to adjust themselves to the changed conditions. Many of the cooperating States are well equipped to take care of this additional demand upon its service, but it is a matter of deep regret that the services of many of the cooperating States are inadequate to handle this additional work. Such States have not made sufficient appropriation for the proper expansion and development of their work. Many States have made no provision for establishing and

maintaining public employment offices, and in order to encourage them to help the wage earners looking for employment the United States Employment Service has established offices. While it is true that these offices in many instances are not fully equipped or manned, it is an advance in the right direction. In contrast to those States which have not come to realize the value of having a public employment service, and which are out of step with progress of the time, it is encouraging to know that the legislatures of a number of States—California, Connecticut, Illinois, Massachusetts, Minnesota, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin—have made provision for establishing and maintaining public employment offices of high order. An increased demand for service from practically all walks of life requires an extension of facilities in order to serve properly those who look to the public employment service to direct them to where they may obtain employment. Each State should constitute a unit in conducting a public employment service, and the Federal Government should share a part of the responsibility and burden of conducting such offices. Unemployment in a State concerns directly the State where it exists; but in the recent sag in employment the unemployment question was one which engaged considerable attention of the late sessions of Congress. Logically, therefore, the conduct of a public employment service is a joint responsibility of the Nation and State and of their political subdivisions.

The newer industries, such as radio, aircraft, and rayon, have given employment to thousands; but their combined demands have not entirely absorbed all the unemployed.

A recent decision of the Supreme Court in the case of Ribnik, plaintiff, *v.* McBride, commissioner of labor of the State of New Jersey, reversed the decision of the lower court and held that the State authority could not govern the fees charged by private agencies. The effect of this decision is to challenge the public employment service to broaden its scope and to increase its personnel and its equipment so that it will be able better to serve. This would require additional appropriations, which should be made generously by the Federal and State governments. The profitable employment of its citizens is a matter of State and National concern, and it should not be necessary for men to pay for an opportunity to work. In the absence of adequate public employment facilities, it is only fair to state that there are private employment agencies which conduct their business on a high plane and give the applicant value received; but it is to be regretted that some private employment agencies prey upon the unemployed and do not give value received. A well-conducted public employment service benefits the entire community and promotes the general welfare.

Employment survey by Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Problems grow out of conditions. To be able satisfactorily to solve problems the conditions must be known. To arrive at a permanent solution of unemployment problems requires facts. This fact was recognized by Congress, as shown by Senate Resolution 147, agreed to on March 6, 1928, directing the Secretary of Labor to make report on the extent of unemployment and also the method whereby frequent periodic reports of unemployment, permanent statistics thereon, and so on, might be made available from time to time. In compliance with those requirements report was submitted not only as to the then present condition of employment but as to the amount required annually to keep the country adequately advised on all phases of the situation. The amount estimated to be necessary for the purpose was \$100,000 per annum appropriated to the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The Congress authorized this appropriation in the deficiency bill for the fiscal year 1929, which was passed by Congress and was approved on May 29, 1928. The value of the survey contemplated lies not in a single investigation of present conditions but in comparing conditions from time to time so as to note the trend of employment and the necessity for inaugurating means to take up the slack as soon as it is apparent that such slack may occur.

BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

In preceding pages of this report there is contained in some detail an account of the activities of the Bureau of Labor Statistics for the past year. They cover an unusually large number of subjects and the facilities of the bureau were taxed to the utmost. There are, however, a number of projects which have been under consideration for some years past, which appear to be of fundamental importance, but in which the programs have been impossible of accomplishment.

A family budgetary survey is necessary to supersede the survey made in 1918. The last survey was made 10 years ago and the statistics on the distribution of income in the cost of living is now the only means which the bureau has as an index to compute the standard of living in the United States. A resurvey of the cost of living upon somewhat broader lines than the study of 1918 would be of interest and value to the people of the United States.

As previously pointed out in a conference held in Washington in 1926, it was urged that the department be made a clearing house for accident statistics to work in cooperation with the States. Up to the present time there have been no marked results in this undertaking, although the department has endeavored to improve its work along this line. A complete linking up of all the States with the Bureau of Labor Statistics is necessary before concrete results can be expected.

More effective cooperation with organizations outside the Government is necessary in establishing a substantial basis for a labor-turnover index by industries.

A competent study of migratory labor in the Pacific States of California, Oregon, and Washington would be helpful not only to the States immediately concerned but to other States in which seasonal labor is a condition of some importance.

As in the Annual Report for 1927, reference is made to a clause in the organic law of Hawaii which requires the Commissioner of Labor Statistics to make a survey of labor statistics in that Territory once in every five years. In order to make such survey it is necessary to have appropriations for the purpose. Either Congress should authorize the survey by appropriation of the required means or that section of the law should be repealed.

In the comment concerning employment in the United States reference was made to the appropriation by Congress of \$100,000 to enlarge the work of the Bureau of Labor Statistics on employment returns and to ascertain by what methods accurate statistics on unemployment could be secured. While this work is being carried forward as rapidly as possible, attention should be called to the fact that the work can not be completed in the fiscal year of 1929, and, as previously pointed out, if the statistics are gathered only once they will be of comparatively small value. The continuation of this work is necessary to its effectiveness.

Industrial accidents in the United States.

Up to 1910 there was no attempt anywhere in the United States to keep a record of accidents to workmen in industry. In that year the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics interested certain iron and steel companies in keeping such records. The experience of the iron and steel companies in applying these statistics which they furnished the bureau, and which were returned to them tabulated in such a way as to indicate where and how the greater number of accidents occurred, enabled them to reduce these accidents to a most surprising extent.

With the introduction of workmen's compensation laws in the several States, records were made with reasonable accuracy within the provisions of the laws; that is to say, accidents which lasted longer than the waiting period which in some States amounted to as many as 14 days. These reports, however, were simply made by the firms in whose plants the accidents occurred to the insurance carrier, whoever it might be, and they were filed away practically without any attempt at tabulation.

This department, through the Bureau of Labor Statistics, has for the past several years stressed the point that the complete recording

of industrial accidents in connection with the exposure and regardless of the waiting-period factor should be made by industries and, if possible, by departments, and tabulated; and that the Department of Labor should be made a clearing house for such records by the States. In no other way can the accident-prevention work be brought to bear upon the spots which are really dangerous.

The need for this coordination, investigation, and cooperation, as stressed by the Department of Labor, is apparent to any thinking man and should be extended.

On July 14, 1926, a conference of representatives of the States was opened at the Mayflower Hotel in Washington, D. C., which although held in the middle of the summer was well attended. There was not a dissenting voice as to the wisdom and theory of the plan proposed; and yet with all of our efforts it has been impossible so far to get a complete or even an adequate return on the industrial accidents in the United States.

It is very apparent that if the machinery is to be set up by which industrial accidents in other industries can be reduced as they have been in the iron and steel industry, much personal work must be done. The difficulty is not so much with the large concerns nor with the industries grouped in well-knit associations. For instance, the cement industry has a record for the plants inside the National Cement Association as favorable as that of the iron and steel industry. However, some small plants, not represented, just as some of the iron and steel plants have a less satisfactory record.

The department has asked during four years for small appropriations with which to do some intensive work along this line, but the financial means has not yet been provided.

There are five States which have no workmen's compensation law and have no record of industrial accidents, except those of fatal cases which are made to the coroner and which are seldom tabulated. The States having court administration of their workmen's compensation laws keep records and many of the States which really have good individual records do not tabulate them, or even make reports to the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Industrial accidents probably never can be entirely eliminated. It may be possible that the ratio of accidents to hours of exposure can not be reduced in the small plants to the point attained in some of the big plants. But not all the large plants have a low accident rate and not all the small plants have a high accident rate; and where a real effort has been made, wonderful achievements have resulted. Throughout the entire field improvement is possible.

We pride ourselves upon being the greatest country in the world so far as our interest in the workingman goes, and yet in proportion to the number employed we kill and maim four times as many as Germany or England.

It is time we sincerely asked ourselves, "Are we or are we not interested in the death and mutilation of our working people?" Our individual answers are in the affirmative, but action by States and the Federal Congress is required if we are to do anything worth while to prove that interest. It is high time that something constructive was done about it.

IMMIGRATION

Population and immigration.

Population is a subject of interest in every country of the world, not only because it relates to man, and therefore all matters to be of concern must relate to it, but because national existence and prosperity are affected by the ratio of population to the productive capacity of the country. The subject is complex; and it is not the purpose of this comment to discuss all its phases. The total of the population which a country may support is not determined by the density per square mile, nor by the amount of foodstuffs which may be produced there. These factors were important once, but the evolution of transportation has made it necessary to consider individual communities in relation to the whole world. Concentration of population may be necessary in one country or state to develop certain resources which do not directly feed population or for industries more economically operated when concentrated than when diffused. Transportation facilities have made such a system possible; but while this enables large numbers to live in certain relatively small areas it follows that other areas must have sufficient open or tillable space given to food production not only for their own use but for such places as can not locally produce necessary subsistence.

With modern facilities for transportation and the improving methods of production, both of farm commodities and of manufactured articles, the capacity to support population is increasing. The problem of the future, however, will be in equalizing the increase in supporting power with the increase in population. Industrial communities may continue to increase their population, but there must be two outside influences to make it practical: Agricultural supply and a sufficient margin between wages and living cost to make the sale of the products of industry possible.

For many years Europe produced manufactured articles for American markets while the products of the soil from this country went overseas. As an illustration of how two countries may be affected by two distinct types of population, changing within but a century, Great Britain and the United States are cited. These are used because of the natural ties which have existed during the period, and also because my own experience has been directly with both. In 1800 England had a rural population of 79 per cent, only 21 per cent residing in towns of 10,000 or more; in 1900 only 34 per cent was rural, while in 1921 that percentage had decreased to 21, with

an urban population of 79 per cent. The position therefore was exactly reversed. In the United States in 1800 only 4 per cent was considered urban, but this changed by 1920 to 42 per cent. These figures are not, however, exactly comparable because of a slight difference in conditions in agricultural communities. Many small towns in the United States are of industrial importance and on this basis the urban population of the United States is estimated at about 52 per cent.

With the rise of importance of industry, coincident with an increase in population, England imported more and more of her food supply, exporting manufactured goods in exchange. The United States has figured largely in the exchange; but the situation of late years has changed, and we now seek to export in large quantities the same products which England has to send to us. While formerly our best market for agriculture was abroad, it is now at home, and our rural excess of labor, or rather our native-born farm boys, are increasing the population of the cities and entering the industries of the Nation. As our Nation has become more and more industrial we have taken on the problems of the other industrial nations of the world.

Population, or the increase of it, is not yet a problem in America, but with a change in conditions it may become so. This must lead us to a consideration of the problem as it exists in nations which have arrived at a condition toward which we are now progressing—a consideration of the problems of population of an industrial Nation. The question of population should cause no alarm now; but the kind and amount of population we admit from outside, together with our own native increase, will have a tremendous effect during the next few generations. Our care should be as much for these as for the present.

The estimated population of the world at the present time is about one and three-quarter billions. A century ago it was about one-half that number and chiefly rural. The increase for the more important countries of Europe was about the average rate, and statistics covering the last century are interesting. For the first half of the period German population increased about 43 per cent, while for the second half the increase was 61 per cent, notwithstanding a large emigration. Great Britain and Ireland increased their population by 70 per cent in the first half and 50 per cent in the second. Europe is estimated to have had a century ago a population of but 200,000,000, now 476,000,000. Asia has increased from 400,000,000 to 940,000,000, Africa from 100,000,000 to 140,000,000, and all America (North, Central, and South) has grown from 20,000,000 to 225,000,000, or increased more than tenfold. Japan doubled her population in only 50 years. Note, too, that notwithstanding that Europe contributed greatly to America's increase, her own population jumped

more than 100 per cent. In other words, immigration even at the high rate of last century can not be expected to relieve the density of European people. Another interesting thing about the distribution of population is that while such countries as England, Germany, Italy, Japan, and others have a density per square mile up to more than ten times that of the United States, the average density of world population is less than in the United States, the figures estimated for the world being 32 (excluding polar regions) and for the United States, exclusive of Alaska, 39. We therefore have crossed the line of average population, as we have crossed the line from an agricultural to an industrial Nation.

That many countries of Europe are overpopulated there is no question, and countries like England must look to the more open spaces for support. These densely populated countries have a real problem, but if their rate of increase continues at a hundred per cent a century (and modern science constantly decreases infant mortality and increases the span of life) those with 400 per square mile will be 800, and in only 200 years will be four times the present. While making this rate of increase, however, Europe has also given to America the bulk of the latter's population; for it must be considered that an increase from immigrant stock would have taken place in Europe if it had not migrated here. If the overflow from Europe to the United States continued for the next 200 years we could look for a population in such countries as England, Germany, Italy, and the rest, of 1,500 or more per square mile, but in the United States of at least twice that number!

But this will not occur; for already the United States has recognized that a certain balance must be kept as to population, agriculture, and industry, and has taken steps to curb excessive growth by immigration. So long as the various elements of our economic life are maintained in proper ratio we can absorb more population. That is to say, if we could have just enough of farmers and just enough of other industrials to keep up our ability to make equal exchange, we would maintain our present prosperous condition. But if we add to our industrial forces (and some industries are already overdeveloped) without balancing our consumption and other production, we can only be faced with the same problems that now confront Europe in a more marked degree. In other words, if we should absorb the excess urban population of Europe into the urban districts of the United States, from past experience it is readily apparent that Europe's problem would still continue to become more acute, and our own prosperity would be imperiled.

In the comment which follows particular reference is made to the immigration of farmers and the preference which our immigration laws give to that class of European immigrants.

Immigrants for farms.

Immigrants "skilled in agriculture" form a class which by the act of 1924 are preferred for admission to the United States. That is to say, they, together with certain members of their families, are in a preferred class as to their applications within the quota, up to not exceeding 50 per cent of the particular quota to which by their nationality they belong. This feature was written into the law for those who feel that an increased supply of farm labor is desirable. Unfortunately, however, the law has not worked out exactly as intended, and this provision has not to any large extent provided real farm labor. There are several reasons why this is so. First, there is no way at present of bringing to the attention of desirable farm workers the fact that they are preferred; second, when the information is secured the farmer, frequently more or less prosperous in his own country, feels disinclined to give up what he has for what he may believe to be an uncertainty. In other words, he has no assurance of agricultural employment in the United States; third, should he be so fortunate as to get an offer of farm employment he is immediately confronted with the contract labor law which forbids him entry.

In appropriate cases this "contract labor" bar may be removed by application of a prospective employer in the country. The management of a large industry needing skilled workers whom it can not secure in the United States consults counsel and is informed that by means of a special permit the law sanctions the importation, and the necessity for the labor being proved, the contract labor law is no barrier. But the American farm proprietor, in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, does not know of and does not inquire into this phase of the labor question. Hence the Secretary of Labor receives few requests for permits to import, free from contract labor ban, skilled workers for the farms. Furthermore, under the present provisions of the law there is no assurance that an immigrant admitted under the agricultural preference clause will become a bona fide farm worker. The law gives preference to "an immigrant skilled in agriculture," and does not require, as does the nonquota clause for ministers of religion and professors, that the alien shall have been engaged in the preferred occupation just previous to application, nor that he shall be seeking admission for the purpose of such employment. To illustrate the point: A certain immigrant who was a graduate of a recognized agricultural college and had had many years of previous farm employment, sought and secured a preference visa because of his qualifications as "skilled in agriculture." Of this there was not a shadow of a doubt; but the alien had not just previously been engaged in any phase of farm management or production, and did not enter with intention

of aiding American agriculture more than in the amount of farm produce which he would consume. The alien was a particularly desirable type of immigrant, but this illustrates the unsatisfactory language of the law for adding to farm population. Reports from American consuls abroad indicate thousands of city dwellers employed in small shops and in factories, who have had farm experience in their early years and who now seek preference as agriculturists. They know that there is nothing which can compel their labor on farms of the United States, and that, once admitted, they will be free to work where they will. Such "skilled agriculturists," if they can be so classed, only add to the urban population.

The higher wages of the cities of the United States also attract legitimately admitted preference farmers. It must be remembered that the great farm operations of the United States are not immediately adjacent to the principal ports of debarkation, and the condition of the small farmer in the East generally is not so easy, especially for a newcomer, as may be that of the city worker. Without a definite place in view, or assured support, it is easy to understand why newly admitted farm workers drift into urban occupations.

In the case of some farmers who do prefer agricultural employment and find places upon American farms as workers, there probably is oftentimes an analogy to the cases of domestics who come to us from abroad. Many American families seek foreign-born servants recently from abroad because these have not become familiar with American standards of wages and American standards of living. Frequently these servants are encouraged to migrate by offers of employment, there being no prohibition against contracting for domestic servants. These Americans complain that they lose their servants to other employers, usually, however, in the case of domestics, to other families, and the reason is that the original employer is not willing to pay what in America is a fair wage, or because they impose conditions of employment which their employees learn can be bettered elsewhere. The European farm worker, like the domestic, will not long remain in employment which does not pay the prevailing wage or which represents a living standard below the normal for American life. Foreign labor can no more be expected to remain in such relatively unprofitable employment than native Americans. The American farmer who expects to get and keep farm labor at European peasant wages is therefore doomed to disappointment, for while he may succeed temporarily, such labor will very soon find its way to other employment. The only way such employers could keep a supply of cheap labor would be in permitting unlimited numbers to enter, and in taking advantage constantly of the lack of American experience and knowledge of an army of newcomers.

Something might well be worked out, however, to encourage the more practical use of the farmer-preference intention of the law. The system of application and permit proposed in Senate bill 3019 of the present Congress would accomplish this end. In substance, it provides for the continuance of the preference in the case of quota immigrants who are skilled in agriculture, but with the provision that such preference shall not apply unless specifically authorized by the Secretary of Labor upon a valid showing that the service of any such immigrant is needed in the United States or that the immigrant seeks to enter the United States to engage in independent agricultural pursuits. The present system places the jurisdiction to judge "skill" in agriculture in American consuls, who, while they act conscientiously in giving the preferences, according to the information before them, can not determine where that "skill" will be used. Official investigation and approval here in granting these preferences would work more directly in the interests of those to be served.

Special industrial needs.

Senate bill 3019 provides also for the selection of immigrants with regard to the special needs of industry for particular kinds of labor. A discussion of these and other provisions of the proposed law is contained in the following reprint of letter from the Secretary of Labor to the chairman of the Senate Committee on Immigration. In considering the comments and recommendations given, it should be observed that to some extent facility in uniting families has been given by the passage of the Reed-Jenkins Act and of special legislation permitting entry of certain Indian tribes residing in Canada.

The letter follows:

AMENDING THE IMMIGRATION LAWS

DEPARTMENT OF LABOR,
Washington, March 24, 1928.

Hon. HIRAM W. JOHNSON,

Chairman Committee on Immigration,

United States Senate, Washington, D. C.

MY DEAR SENATOR JOHNSON: I beg to acknowledge receipt of your letter of February 8, inclosing copy of the bill (S. 3019) to amend the immigration laws, and for other purposes, and asking for a statement or report from the Department of Labor concerning the proposed measure for the information of the committee.

The bill contains several important provisions.

1. It proposes to establish a definite annual limit on immigration from all sources by extending the quota system on a liberal basis to the countries of the Western Hemisphere, with a provision for the temporary admission of a limited number of needed seasonal laborers from Canada and Mexico.

2. It provides for an important extension of the highly desirable policy of selecting immigration at its sources.

3. It suggests what appears to be an equitable compromise between the present system of establishing quotas and the so-called national-origin plan. This would increase some of the European quotas to a limited extent, but such increases would be offset by the proposed extension of the quota principle to the New World.

4. If enacted into law, its provisions would reduce immigration from Mexico, but would have little or no effect on the present immigration from Canada, Cuba, and other New World countries.

5. It proposes quotas for Haiti, Santo Domingo, and the independent countries of Central and South America which are in every case largely in excess of the present immigration from such sources.

6. It contains no provisions which would in any way interfere with the entry from any country of persons coming temporarily for business or pleasure or as students.

7. It makes reasonable provision for reuniting families, and proposes a plan under which such separations ought to be avoided in the future.

8. It affords an additional safeguard against the entry of stowaways, accords deserved consideration to Canadian-born Indians, and, if enacted into law, I feel that on the whole it would be an important step in the way of perfecting our system of regulating immigration.

With no thought of minimizing other features of the bill, I want to say that to my mind the proposed measure contains two outstanding proposals which are absolutely essential to a sound and permanent immigration policy. These are:

1. The provision fixing an exact number of immigrants who may enter the United States annually from all sources, instead of from certain countries only as under our present system. So far as numbers are concerned, the bill would to some extent increase the present quotas of certain European countries, but it would materially decrease the present immigration from other sources, and on the whole would fix the total number who may come in any year at about the number who did come from all sources in the last fiscal year. This number, however, can be increased or decreased by Congress, as occasion requires, by the simple method of increasing or decreasing the percentage factor.

2. The provision under which a considerable part of our immigration could be selected with a view to meeting the needs of agriculture, industry, and other activities in the United States. Experience in the administration of the quota laws has fully convinced me that such a provision is highly essential.

I want to say also that from my point of view the humanizing features of the bill are no less important than the two proposals already referred to. President Coolidge has more than once expressed himself as in favor of legislation along this line, and I shall take it for granted that the members of the committee are of like mind in this respect. Consequently I regard the provisions for reuniting families that have been kept apart under the quota law and for preventing future separations as essential.

For the convenience of the committee I shall comment on the bill section by section, attempting to point out the effect its enactment into law would have on the volume of immigration as experienced under existing law, and also the changes that would be brought about in certain matters of procedure in carrying the law into effect.

In this connection I again want to emphasize the fact that this discussion is concerned only with immigrants, which means aliens coming to the United States for permanent residence. In other words, it does not concern those who come as tourists, or temporary visitors for business or pleasure, or as so-called treaty

merchants or international traders who enter for the purpose of carrying on business in conformity with our various treaties of commerce and navigation. I restate this very important fact because it has come to my attention that in some of our neighboring countries there appears to be a prevalent belief that the further extension of our quota-limit system might interfere with the large and increasing volume of travel between other countries of the New World and the United States. Such fears, of course, are groundless, as has been amply demonstrated during the nearly seven years that quotas have been applied to permanent immigration from European and other countries.

SECTION 1. NUMERICAL LIMITATIONS—QUOTAS

This section contains two important proposals. First, it provides for the establishment of a numerical-limit system with respect to natives of countries of the New World coming to the United States for permanent residence, in substitution for the present provision of law under which natives of such countries may come in unlimited numbers, and second, it proposes a compromise between the present method of reckoning quotas on the basis of 2 per cent of the foreign-born population of the various nationalities resident in the United States in 1890 and the so-called national-origin system, which unless Congress determines otherwise will become effective July 1, 1928, thus superseding the quota system which has been in effect since July 1, 1924.

The bill provides for the retention of the national-origin plan to the extent that wherever the quota of any nationality is larger under such plan it shall be the quota of the nationality concerned, but in no case shall the quota of any nationality be less than the number allotted under the population of 1890 system which is now in force. In other words, the result of combining the two plans will be that those nationalities favorably affected by the national-origin provision will have the benefit of its operation, while those whose quotas would be reduced by that plan, standing alone, will retain the same quotas they have had during nearly four years.

The final quotas computed under the national-origin plan, which have already been transmitted to the Senate, show increases over present quotas in the case of 16 nationalities and decreases in the case of 14 nationalities, while 37 quota allotments, all having the minimum of 100, are unchanged.

The countries whose quotas are increased under the national-origin plan are as follows:

Group I

Country	Present quota	National-origin quota	Increase
Austria.....	785	1,639	854
Belgium.....	512	1,328	816
Finland.....	471	568	97
Great Britain and Northern Ireland.....	34,007	65,894	31,887
Greece.....	100	312	212
Hungary.....	473	1,181	708
Italy.....	3,845	5,989	2,144
Latvia.....	142	243	101
Lithuania.....	344	492	148
Netherlands.....	1,648	3,083	1,435
Poland.....	5,982	6,090	108
Russia.....	2,248	3,540	1,292
Spain.....	131	305	174
Syria.....	100	125	25
Turkey.....	100	233	133
Yugoslavia.....	671	739	68
Total.....	51,559	91,761	40,202

The countries whose quotas would be less under the national-origin plan than they are at present are as follows:

Group II

Country	Present quota	National-origin quota	Decrease
Armenia.....	124	100	24
Australia.....	121	100	21
Czechoslovakia.....	3,073	2,726	347
Danzig.....	228	137	91
Denmark.....	2,789	1,234	1,555
Estonia.....	124	100	24
France.....	3,954	3,308	646
Germany.....	51,227	24,908	26,319
Irish Free State.....	28,567	17,427	11,140
Norway.....	6,453	2,403	4,050
Portugal.....	503	457	46
Rumania.....	603	311	292
Sweden.....	9,561	3,399	6,162
Switzerland.....	2,081	1,614	467
Total.....	109,408	58,224	51,184

If the bill under consideration is enacted into law, the aggregate quotas of the present quota countries or areas will be as follows:

Group I. National-origins quotas.....	91,761
Group II. Population of 1890 quotas.....	109,408
37 countries with minimum quotas.....	3,700
Total quotas.....	204,869

The total quotas of present quota territory under the bill, therefore, would be 40,202 in excess of the present total of 164,667, and 51,184 in excess of the national-origins plan total of 153,685.

However, as already pointed out, the increase would undoubtedly be more than offset by the reduction of immigration that would follow the adoption of the proposal to place countries of the New World under the numerical-limit system which is found in the bill. The extent to which the immigration of natives of New World countries would have been affected had this proposed quota system been in operation during the fiscal year 1927 is pretty clearly indicated in the following table:

Country	Proposed quotas	Nonquota immigrants admitted in 1927
Canada and Newfoundland.....	98,094	73,728
Mexico.....	7,785	77,155
Cuba.....	2,000	2,279
Dominican Republic, Haiti, and Central America (9 countries) ¹	18,000	1,829
South America (10 countries) ¹	20,000	3,666
Total.....	145,879	158,657

¹ The aggregate quotas proposed for these countries greatly exceeds immigration from them in 1927, and it is not likely that the number applying from any of the countries concerned will reach the available quota for years to come.

In view of the very evident fact that public opinion is sharply divided as to the respective merits of the national-origin and percentage systems, it seems to me that the proposed plan of utilizing both systems would meet the most serious objections urged on both sides of the controversy, especially when this can be accomplished without making any considerable increase in the aggregate quotas of all nationalities. Moreover, quotas are always subject to revision, which means that if errors in the present figures are discovered they can be rectified.

It will be seen from the foregoing figures that there would have been no reduction in the number coming from Canada and Newfoundland. As a matter of fact, there would have been an unused balance of some 25,000 in the quotas of such countries at the close of the year, and, while the numbers involved are much smaller, the same would have been true to an even more pronounced degree in the case of the island republics and the independent countries of Central and South America. On the other hand, immigration from Mexico would have been materially curtailed, while there would have been little effect on the number coming from Cuba. It is very obvious, therefore, that if the quota system proposed in the bill under consideration had been in effect during the fiscal year 1927 there would have been an appreciable increase in immigration from England, Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland, with small increases principally from the Netherlands, Italy, Russia, Poland, and Hungary, while the allotment of Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Switzerland, France, and a few other countries would have been maintained as at present. The tables (pp. 137 and 138) show these facts in greater detail, and the other table (p. 138) indicates that the possible increase of immigration from Europe would have been more than offset by a decrease in the number admitted from Mexico.

In this immediate connection it may again be pointed out that there has been a large increase in immigration from Mexico coincident with the decrease in the number coming from European countries, such decrease being occasioned by the World War and continued under the quota-limit system. Prior to the World War there was little or no connection between Mexican and European immigration. The former went largely to the border States, with a limited number finding their way into agricultural or other industries in the Mountain States and to some extent in the Middle West. Following the slowing down of immigration from Europe, however, there was a large increase in the number of Mexicans entering the country, and many of the newcomers found their way to the industrial centers east of the Mississippi, and even to the mines and factories of Pennsylvania and New York. In other words, they took and are continuing to take the places formerly filled by south and east Europeans much as the latter had taken the place of earlier immigrants from the north and west of Europe. Under the existing law they can continue to come, as they undoubtedly will do, in increasing numbers, thereby defeating one of the main purposes for which the quota laws were enacted, namely, to prevent the further overcrowding of our labor market.

I want to say emphatically that I entertain no prejudice against the people of any country, but, being absolutely convinced that the barriers that have been erected to prevent the unlimited coming of European labor have proved to be highly beneficial, it is impossible to avoid the conviction that the industrial situation ought to be guarded against the difficulties and dangers which will almost certainly follow the unlimited immigration of workers from another source.

The proposal to place countries of the New World under a quota limit system is modified to some extent by section 8 of the bill, which, although not so stated, obviously is intended to provide for the temporary admission annually from each of the foreign contiguous countries (Canada and Mexico) of 10,000 aliens to perform seasonal or emergency labor, provided that labor of like kind unemployed can not be found within a reasonable distance of where the labor is to be performed. It is noted, however, that this authority is limited to the fiscal years 1929 and 1930. In my opinion, this is a wise provision, because it will make it possible to relieve any local labor shortage that may result from a sudden application of a quota limit system, especially on the Mexican border, and allow employers two years in which to adjust themselves to the new condition.

As a matter of possible interest to the committee, there is appended to this letter a table which shows the relation between the quotas of the principal countries and their population as shown by the latest information available.

SECTION 2. IMMIGRATION VISAS TO FAMILIES AS UNITS

This section in effect provides that the head of a family who desires to come to the United States shall not be granted that privilege until immigration visas are also available for his wife and minor children. I am heartily in favor of this proposal, because it will tend to prevent an indefinite separation of the members of a family unit, and the provision that visas issued to the wife and children shall be available for one year, and under certain conditions for two years, will make it possible for the head of the family to come in advance and prepare a home for his wife and children and, if needed, to earn the money necessary to provide their transportation. Moreover, I believe that the adoption of this plan will eliminate the source of a just and quite widespread criticism which has been directed against the quota system in the past.

SECTION 3. STUDENTS

The department favors the proposal to transfer students from the nonquota immigrant class, as now provided in section 4 of the immigration act of 1924, to the nonimmigrant class, as defined in section 3 of the same act. This is the only instance in which an alien designated as an immigrant is admitted for temporary residence, and it seems to me that they properly belong in the non-immigrant or temporarily admitted class, although in the nature of things a student may come for a longer period than the ordinary visitor for business or pleasure. The proposal that admission may be under bond is also favored, for border-line cases frequently arise in which a bond obviously ought to be exacted if the student applicant is admitted, but there is no provision for this under the present law.

SECTION 4. PREFERENCES

The immigration act of 1924 provides that a United States citizen may petition for a preference in the issuance of a quota immigration visa to an applicant who is the father, mother, minor child, wife, or husband of the petitioner. Such petition must be filed with the Commissioner General of Immigration, who, after finding that the relative is entitled to preference, with the approval of the Secretary of Labor, forwards the petition to the Secretary of State, who, in turn, authorizes the consular officer with whom the application for an immigration visa is filed, to grant the preference. The act of 1924 also provides that a preference in the issuance of immigration visas shall be granted to applicants who are "skilled in agriculture," but there is no requirement

that such preference shall be granted only on a showing of fact in the United States, as in the case where relatives of citizens are concerned. Under existing law 50 per cent of a quota is available for applicants who are entitled to preferences under the provisions named.

The bill under consideration proposes that a preferential status shall be extended to two other classes of quota immigrants: (1) To members of any recognized learned profession upon a valid showing that the service of any such immigrant is needed in the United States, and (2) to skilled labor in cases where the contract-labor provisions of the law have been waived on the ground that labor of like kind unemployed can not be found in the United States in the manner provided by section 3 of the immigration act of 1917. In both classes of cases preference shall not be granted unless specifically authorized by the Secretary of Labor, as now provided in the case of relatives of citizens. The bill further provides for the continuance of the preference in the case of quota immigrants who are skilled in agriculture, but with the provision that such preference shall not apply unless specifically authorized by the Secretary of Labor upon a valid showing that the service of any such immigrant is needed in the United States, or that the immigrant seeks to enter the United States to engage in independent agricultural pursuits. In each case it is provided that the preferential status shall also extend to the wife of the applicant and his dependent children under the age of 18 years if accompanying or following to join him, and it is further provided that 75 per cent of the quota of any nationality shall be subject to the various preferences instead of 50 per cent, as in the present law.

I am strongly in favor of this proposed extension of the selective principle. In the course of a year a good many cases arise in which some deserving American interest desires to bring in a chemist or an electrical or mechanical engineer to aid in improving processes already in use or, in some cases, in establishing new industries. Other cases arise in which educational institutions in the United States desire the services of an alien as a teacher or a professor, and it so happens that such person, although fully qualified to fill the position involved, can not meet the requirements of section 4 of the immigration act of 1924 under which professors must have had two years' experience immediately preceding their entry before they can qualify as nonquota immigrants. In all such cases the applicant is entitled to enter the United States under contract because specifically exempt from the contract-labor provisions of the general immigration law, but, of course, there must be a compliance with the quota-limit provisions, and as in most countries the quotas are pledged to previous applicants for two years or more the perfectly legitimate needs of American interests are defeated. The same thing is substantially true of skilled labor, and however much such labor may be needed in the development of American industry the quota limitation is an unsurmountable obstacle, for under the present law quota visas are, and of course must be, issued in the order that applications therefor are received. Accordingly it repeatedly happens that quota immigrants whose services are not needed in this country and who, if they come, will enter a profession or occupation which is already overcrowded, are granted quota visas, while those who are actually needed are held back until their turn is reached on the long waiting list of applicants of our consulates.

In my own experience as a worker I have personally seen several industries which were new to the United States built up as a result of highly skilled labor being brought in from Europe for the purpose of beginning the work and teaching American workmen to do it. In these instances, and in many others, the result was highly beneficial to American industry and to American labor:

and while the need is not so great now as in earlier days, it nevertheless prevails to a limited extent, and to my mind our immigration ought to be so shaped as to make it possible to meet such needs as they arise, especially when it can be done without increasing the quota of any nationality. In my opinion this provision of the bill will prove to be a long step in the right direction.

As to the preferences accorded to persons skilled in agriculture, it is very clear to me that the evident purpose of Congress would be more fully carried out under the provisions of this bill than under the present system where, so far as the law itself is concerned, the mere fact that an applicant is skilled in agriculture entitles him to a preference, there being no specific provision that such applicant must be coming to follow agricultural pursuits here. Under this provision of the bill it would be possible for employers of high-grade farm labor to demonstrate their needs to the Immigration Service and the Secretary of Labor. The department would then be in a position to determine the validity of the need and the probability that such employment would be continuous, and having so determined, it would be able to render useful service in supplying that need.

The same would be true in cases where it is desired that immigrants come to the country for the purpose of establishing themselves as independent farmers, and I may say that the department is constantly receiving what appear to be legitimate requests for aid in directing immigration to districts where farms are being abandoned or to parts of the country where new farm lands are being developed. Under the present law it has not been possible to be helpful in such cases in any practical way, but I believe that if the matter of agricultural preferences could be controlled in a systematic way and in accordance with the demonstrated needs and opportunities in this country, it would be possible to render a real service to our agricultural interests.

SECTION 5. NORTH AMERICAN INDIANS

In commenting on this proposed provision perhaps I can do no better than to quote the following brief statement from my annual report for the last fiscal year, which represents my present views on this subject:

"Since the naturalization laws permit the naturalization only of persons of the white race or of African nativity or descent, American Indians born outside the territory of the United States can not become citizens, and therefore they belong to the classification 'ineligible to citizenship,' and their immigration to the United States is definitely prohibited. Considerable comment has been made on this effect of the law, especially as it affects North American Indians who reside close to our northern border and who have been for many years accustomed to crossing and considered that privilege a matter of right. I see no reason why members of these tribes whose original domain consisted of territory in the United States and Canada should not be permitted to come to this country when they desire. Their numbers are not large and could have little, if any, effect upon our economic position."

SECTION 6. STOWAWAYS

The handling of stowaways has always been one of the troublesome problems of the Immigration Service, and since the policy of restricting overseas immigration was adopted so many aliens attempt to gain admission to the United States as stowaways that a more serious situation has developed. In my last annual report I pointed out that during the past eight years (1920-1927) 19,085 stowaways have been found on vessels arriving at United States ports, the

annual average being 2,386. The annual average just prior to the World War (1910-1914) was only 613. In that report I commented in part as follows:

"Cases are constantly arising in which there is strong suspicion, and sometimes positive proof, of collusion between stowaways and members of steamship crews. The law provides no penalty in such cases, unless it can be shown that the aliens were embarked for the United States with the knowledge of some responsible officer of the vessel, and this is usually difficult of proof. The situation has become so serious, however, that an additional safeguard is needed, and legislation is recommended to the effect that whenever stowaways are discovered at ports of arrival, and, in the opinion of the Secretary of Labor, their presence on board might have been detected at the port of departure or during the voyage, an adequate penalty shall be imposed upon the steamship line.

"One of the recent flagrant cases of collusion between stowaways and members of steamship crews was the bringing to this country on an American ship of 19 such aliens. Upon arrival of the ship in the United States port, these 19 aliens were placed in the oil tanks of the steamer, the ship being equipped with oil-burning furnaces. It developed that it was only the timely arrival of the immigrant inspectors and their immediate release from the tanks that saved the lives of the clandestine passengers. They were in various stages of suffocation from the fumes of the oil when dragged out of the quarters in which they had been concealed."

The provision of the bill relating to stowaways is in accord with the above recommendation, and I trust that it may be enacted into law.

SECTION 7. UNITING FAMILIES

This section relates to the much-discussed question of separated families and, it seems to me, proposes a well-considered solution of a situation which, as I have repeatedly said in my annual reports, ought to be remedied. Briefly stated, the section under consideration provides that the unmarried child under 18 years of age, or the wife, of an alien who was legally admitted to the United States for permanent residence prior to July 1, 1924, and who has continued to reside therein, shall be accorded a nonquota status, with the important provisos that such nonquota status shall not apply in cases where marriage occurred subsequent to July 1, 1924, nor unless immigration visas are issued to such wife and children within one year of the approval of the act, and finally that the total number of such visas issued shall not exceed 30,000.

It is a well-known fact that a good many heads of families who entered the United States prior to the enactment of the present quota limit law have been unable to bring in their wives and children by reason of the more severe restrictions imposed by that legislation. The number of cases involved has been variously estimated, but there is really no definite information available in this regard. The department, however, believes that the number would not exceed 30,000 individuals, and in any event the bill limits the nonquota visas that may be issued to that number, thereby insuring that the number of entrants will be kept within reasonable bounds. Formerly these cases were far more numerous, but a good many have already been taken care of through the completion of citizenship on the part of the husband and father and the subsequent issuance of nonquota visas to wives and children as provided in the act of 1924. In this connection it is a well-known fact that a good many aliens have been forced to resort to naturalization in order to hasten the coming of their families. It would not be just to censure them for doing this, but, in my opinion, it would be better if the desire for American citizenship proceeded from other motives. Unless relief is granted through legislation it is altogether probable that the

great majority of the cases in which families are still separated will be taken care of in like manner during the next two or three years, so that the result of the proposed law would merely be to hasten the coming of a limited number of women and children most of whom eventually would acquire a nonquota status through the naturalization of the head of the family. In the long run, therefore, the number of persons admitted to the United States would not be materially increased. The proposal is a very humane one, and I sincerely hope that it may be enacted into law.

In concluding let me say that I hope that in commenting on the legislation proposed in the bill under consideration I have made it clear that to my mind our present system of regulating immigration, while admirable as far as it goes, is lacking in two fundamental particulars: First, that while a numerical limit is put upon immigration of natives of some of the countries of the world, the natives of other countries are free to come in unlimited numbers; and, second, that in admitting immigrants almost no attention is now given to the important matter of whether their labor or service is needed in the United States or whether they are coming to engage in activities which are already overcrowded, thereby lessening our own people's opportunity for profitable employment in such activities. From a humanitarian point of view, I regard the matter of separated families of an equal importance, but that problem is a temporary one which can and I feel sure will be adjusted, and, therefore, can be disassociated from the two other factors referred to, which factors involve only the extent of what may be called new immigration and the proper adjustment of such immigration in this country.

The purposes for which the Department of Labor was formed, as stated in the act creating it, are "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."

During the years immediately following the armistice, the unemployment situation in the United States grew to an alarming extent. According to reports of the Commissioner of Labor Statistics, upward of 5,000,000 men were unemployed in the United States at the time of the enactment of the first restrictive immigration law, and at the same time European aliens were crowding through our gates by the hundreds of thousands, and there was reliable information to the effect that millions more were preparing to come. The passage of the 1921 quota law stemmed the alien flow, and the next few years saw unemployment practically disappear and the wheels of industry turned, manned by home labor, clearly demonstrating that the United States had, already here, sufficient labor of all kinds to meet its every need.

After seven years' experience in administering the restrictive immigration laws and observing the benefits derived therefrom by labor, I can not refrain from calling your attention to the fact that in my judgment the protection of our labor will not be complete until quota restrictions in some form are applied to the countries of the Western Hemisphere.

Accordingly, keeping in mind the future welfare of our people, as Secretary of Labor I can not avoid expressing myself in favor of the proposals contained in this bill, and since my understanding is that the United States, along with the other nations of the world, has recognized and accepted the doctrine that immigration is entirely a domestic question—that is, that every nation has the right to say who shall be admitted within its borders—I can not conceive that any valid objection could be raised by any of the countries to which the limited-quota system proposed in the bill would be extended.

Sincerely yours,

JAMES J. DAVIS, *Secretary.*

RECOMMENDED CHANGES IN PRESENT IMMIGRATION LAW

Comment has already been made in the form of the letter of March 24, 1928, to the chairman of the Senate committee on what are believed to be desirable changes to meet the industrial and economic needs of the country. Those changes require a redraft of the quota act. In addition to that comment the following recommendations for corrections to the present law are made; they concern principally matters of administration.

Wives of American citizens.

Under the 1924 act the wife of an American citizen is entitled to a nonquota status, provided the husband resides here and files a petition for the status. In practice approval of petition is given for such status to the fiancée of a citizen, provided she is named by him, that a place and approximate date of intended marriage is given, and contingent upon verification by the American consul abroad that the marriage has occurred prior to the time of granting the nonquota visa. When the visa is given under these conditions the woman is actually the wife of a citizen and therefore entitled to the nonquota status allowed.

It frequently happens, however, that an American citizen, especially of foreign birth, goes to Europe for a visit and decides to marry. Under these conditions he can not immediately return with his wife if she is of a quota nationality, but must then execute a petition, which in turn must be sent to Washington for approval and the approval communicated back to the consul.

The purpose of the approval in Washington is to ascertain whether in fact the petitioner is a citizen of the United States. Since the citizen abroad in the circumstance outlined must have in his possession a passport evidencing his citizenship it seems to be an unnecessary procedure to require the routine of approval at Washington. The law should be changed to allow the American consul to grant the nonquota visa, reporting the case to the Secretary of State that the latter may advise the Secretary of Labor for purpose of record.

Fiancées of American citizens.

It is also believed that provision should be made, under appropriate safeguards, whereby an American citizen may bring his intended wife to the United States for the purpose of marriage, without putting the citizen to the expense of going abroad for marriage. To prevent fraud, the admission might be made under bond, and penalty of deportation provided if the marriage is not consummated. Fraud on the part of a citizen not acting in good faith could be made a penal offense, if such safeguard is also believed necessary.

Husbands of American citizens.

By act of May 29, 1928, husbands of American citizens by marriage prior to May 31, 1928, were accorded nonquota status, preference status only being allowed to such marriages occurring after that date. As the privilege of the nonquota status is based upon the fact of citizenship of the wife, there is no apparent reason why it should be limited to marriages occurring prior to a given time. It is certain that this action by Congress will not prevent occurrence of marriage, and there is no justice or reason in preferring one citizen to another. The wife is still a citizen whether the marriage was on May 31 or on June 1. The date qualification should be removed.

Certain data unnecessary on immigration visas.

Section 2 (a) of the immigration act of 1924 provides that an immigration visa shall consist in part of a copy of the application for visa as described in section 7. This application is a large, cumbersome document, and as a part of the visa most of the questions and answers serve no useful purpose. It is upon these questions and answers that the consul issues or refuses the visa. If the answers are satisfactory, the visa is evidence of that fact; if they are not satisfactory, it must be assumed that the consul, acting under the law and regulations, will refuse the visa.

These applications take up valuable space in the files of the department. They consist of a leaflet of four full-size pages. If the information is confined to a single leaf, as it can be, the saving will be 300,000 sheets a year. This saving is most important in the file space required in Washington, especially since the visas must be preserved for naturalization purposes, and may be required a half century hence. The information upon which the visa is based would continue to be received and filed by the consuls in the manner now required, and would be available by reference if at any time this should be necessary. A saving of many hundreds of dollars in expenditures for printing also would be effected.

Other changes.

Reference is made to the Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor for 1927, especially relating to codification. The recommendations there made are renewed for the consideration of the second session of the Seventieth Congress.

Examination of aliens.

One of the achievements of the past few years has been the perfecting of an examination system abroad which enables prospective immigrants to determine almost to a certainty prior to their embarkation whether they will be admitted to the United States. A discussion of the plan and its scope is contained in the Annual Report

of the Secretary of Labor for 1927. The system continues to work with admirable results.

The next step in the improvement of examination of aliens, it seems, will lie in the possibilities of examinations aboard the larger steamers while they are en route to the United States. The examinations abroad are advisory only to the American consul to guide him in the issuing of visas. Legally these examinations do not meet the requirements of the law for admission to the United States and therefore every alien, whether examined abroad or not, must be accorded an examination upon arrival at an American port. It was suggested in a previous report that it is perfectly feasible to place on board the larger steamers entering the port of New York immigrant inspectors who will make their examinations on board the steamer while it is proceeding across the sea. The possibility of such examinations, not only as to aliens but also as to citizens, has been discussed informally with representatives of the customs and the Public Health Service. If these three services of the Government could work out a plan for making examinations aboard ship—that is, as to the physical condition of passengers, the admissibility from an immigration standpoint, and the matter of customs clearance—the landing of passengers would be greatly facilitated and considerable time saved for passengers who use these large and fast steamers with the hope of saving a day or two in the journey across the seas. Frequently there is delay of several hours, and at times all night, at quarantine. If the three services of the Government referred to could cooperate in the manner indicated, there appears no reason why these steamers could not dock at any time of the day or night, it being necessary for them to stop only long enough outside of the port to pick up their pilot. The last few hours on board ship, because of the anticipation of delays and annoyances of examinations, are the most trying of a journey. It would be a welcome service to passengers to be relieved of these details during this part of the trip.

This plan could at least be tried experimentally on one or two of the largest ships; and it is hoped that arrangements to do so, with the cooperation of the other services involved, can be made.

BORDER CROSSINGS

The crossing and recrossing of citizens of the United States and Canada, as well as of persons who are citizens of neither of these countries, presents several problems. The difficulty of the problems is intensified by the extreme effort made to prevent any annoyance or inconvenience to any legitimate intercourse. We welcome the visitor and the business man from across the border and wish to encourage the neighborly calls of our friends across the line.

The problems grow out of the fact that in making entry especially easy for the majority, opportunity is increased for the entry of aliens not entitled to admission; that aliens not entitled to admission for residence seek the right to employment (this phase of the situation is considered in later comment); and, further, that the staff of inspectors and patrol officers available is inadequate for complete inspection.

Crossings of the border have grown in number as new channels of communication have been opened. New bridges, new tunnels, new roads, together with the larger use of automobiles makes the problem one of increasing difficulty. At the same time this communication should be encouraged.

The opening of new land channels of travel, however, is not the only problem; the use of the airplane presents new angles of administration. That this means of transportation bids fair to become one of major importance no one doubts. It is therefore essential that in its early stages definite and well-considered plans be laid by those Government agencies which are concerned with the entry of people and merchandise. Representatives of the two departments principally concerned, Treasury and Labor, are working together under the authority given to each by the aircraft act of 1926, which gives the Secretary of the Treasury and the Secretary of Labor authority to designate landing fields as ports of entry.

The problem is entirely different from that of any means of land travel or water travel which must cross the boundary in the proximity of some port of entry, for the plane may be entirely inaccessible—at a point hundreds of miles from any station where proper inspection can be had. The possibilities for unloading and distributing its load and returning to the air before any check up can be made is readily apparent.

Recognizing, however, the legitimate growth of this valuable means of transportation, and its practical utility, every effort should be made to facilitate the inspection and clearance of planes. As it is not practicable for all planes to alight at the point of crossing upon regular routes, it is suggested that certain fields, either on one side or the other—in some cases original starting points, in others points of destination, and in others intermediate stations—be designated as clearing fields, where the proper customs and immigration regulations may be complied with.

CONDITIONS AT CERTAIN PORTS OF ENTRY ON THE CANADIAN BORDER

During the past year a grave situation has arisen affecting the administration of the immigration laws along the Canadian border of the United States. By reason of certain court decisions in the Federal districts embracing New York and Michigan an application

of requirements governing admission of aliens has been forced which does not prevail at seaports of the United States nor along the Mexican border. This has made necessary a decision by the department whether to abandon its policy and accept such court decisions as law to be applied uniformly at each port of entry of the United States or to carry the question to the highest court of the land. Should the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States be against the department's view, it would appear to be advisable promptly to pass amendatory legislation to prevent a breakdown of the restrictive provisions of the immigration laws, as otherwise it will be impossible to frustrate the surreptitious residence within the United States—under the guise of temporary admission—of aliens not only from Canada and Mexico but also of aliens from all parts of the world who may be able to gain entry to the adjoining countries on our northern and southern borders. The amazing growth of certain of our industries since the close of the World War, in the vicinity of Buffalo and Detroit especially, caused an influx of aliens from foreign contiguous territory. Many of these did not elect to emigrate to the United States with their families, being mainly Canadian citizens at first. These were given identification cards to facilitate entry and exit each day. With the close of the World War the pressure of aliens to enter this country grew so great that the quota acts were passed on May 19, 1921, and May 26, 1922, with the result that many aliens who were barred from admission to the United States by quota restrictions went to Canada. The high wages at our border cities attracted these, as it had the natives of Canada, and the volume of daily border crossers became greater.

After the passage of the immigration act of May 26, 1924, putting further restrictions on the admission of aliens, with added documentary requirements, it became more and more apparent that additional regulations would have to be made to enforce the law at inland points of entry. Impetus was given to this decision by increasing protests by labor and mercantile interests against conditions at Detroit and Buffalo.

The immigration laws require the examination of every arriving alien, whether coming to the United States for permanent residence, for a visit, or after a temporary absence; and this includes mental and physical examination, as well as of personal history and characteristics and ability to read, only certain classes being designated in the law as exempt from the literacy test. After careful consideration General Order No. 86 was issued on April 1, 1927, whereby after a reasonable time aliens who had been enjoying the so-called "border-crossing" privilege for purpose of employment in the United States were to be considered as immigrants on payment of head tax and their entry into the United States legalized and made

a matter of record, regard being therein had for the provisions as to admission as quota and nonquota aliens under the quota acts of 1921 and 1922. Aliens who came within the provisions of the 1924 immigration act were given a certain time in which to obtain immigration visas if of the class designated in that act as "quota immigrants." By arrangement with the Department of State the cooperation of American consuls abroad was secured and immigration visas were issued to most aliens of this class within a period of a few months. This plan worked out satisfactorily, and in a short time practically all of the border-crossing cases were cleared up and an irritating situation was brought under control. Despite loud and persistent opposition and protests on the part of certain Canadian newspapers and local officials that the application of General Order 86 would cause serious embarrassment and hardship to residents of that country the order finally proved to have none of the disastrous effects predicted.

However, aliens who had found it impossible to procure immigration visas in their country of birth but who desired to enter the United States to take advantage of the prevailing high rate of wages continued to arrive in Canada from quota countries. Under General Order No. 86 such aliens could not come to the United States to look for work and be regarded as bona fide tourists or visitors for business or pleasure, as the term is used in the 1924 immigration act. Aliens advancing such a reason (looking for work) for admission to this country as tourists or visitors never have been and are not now admitted at water ports of the United States. A determined effort was made to break down the application of General Order No. 86, however, and aliens from European countries residing in Canada were used to test this order in court. In the initial cases at Buffalo and Detroit the Federal district courts decided in favor of the Government, but on appeal to the Circuit Court of Appeals for the Second Circuit that court held in the case of *Mary Cook and Antonio Danelon v. Karnuth* that the order of the department was void and of no effect, deciding that aliens coming to look for work or to continue to work in this country and returning each day to a home in Canada were not immigrants, but were within the exemption of section 3 (2) of the 1924 immigration act as aliens visiting the United States temporarily as tourists or temporarily for business or pleasure. The court further held, also, as to the same aliens that they were entitled so to enter the United States under that provision of the Jay treaty of 1794 which granted the right to "His Majesty's subjects and to the citizens of the United States, and also to the Indians dwelling on either side of the said boundary line freely to pass and repass" the Canadian border.

Following this decision of the circuit court of appeals for that circuit the district court extended its application by holding that any person residing in Canada is a British subject. It becomes apparent that if these decisions are upheld it will be impossible to prevent the entrance into the United States of aliens of any race or color from any part of the world who may gain entry into Canada. A serious situation will develop if the provisions of a treaty made in 1794 finally are held to override positive provisions of existing immigration laws which require the examination of every person at any time seeking admission to the United States, a power which has been held by the Supreme Court in *United States v. Sing Tuck* to be a sovereign right and sufficient even to authorize the detention and examination of American citizens seeking entry to this country until citizenship is established. Under the provision of the Jay treaty similar rights of free passage are not accorded American citizens attempting to enter Canada. It becomes apparent that if any alien can enter the United States from Canada as a visitor to work indefinitely and continuously without regard for immigration laws, aliens without number likewise may enter from Mexico under the same conditions. Although the facts in the *Mary Cook* and *Antonio Danelon* cases indicate that these aliens contemplate returning to Canada each evening after the day's work in this country, it will be perceived that one could be as well within the court's reasoning who merely departed from the United States each week or each month, or even longer. Clearly a great deal depends upon the decision of our highest court as to whether the provision of the Jay treaty overrides later immigration acts and as to the interpretation of the expression used in the 1924 immigration act regarding "an alien visiting the United States temporarily as a tourist or temporarily for business or pleasure."

This question is now before the Supreme Court of the United States. If its decision is against the Government, then the present restrictive immigration law will no longer be of any effect as a protection to the wage earner of the United States against alien labor of foreign countries, whether Canadian, Mexican, or European.

IMMIGRANT STUDENTS

The immigration act of 1924 provides that bona fide students may come to the United States without regard to quota restrictions and remain here for the duration of their status as students. During the past fiscal year 1,816 students were admitted to the United States as nonquota aliens, as compared with 1,833 for the previous year and 1,920 for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1926. It will be seen that the number of students admitted during the past fiscal year remains

about the same as the number admitted for the previous year. Since the immigration act of 1924 became effective a total of 7,031 aliens have been admitted for the purpose of pursuing studies in colleges, academies, seminaries, or universities which have been approved by the Secretary of Labor. Of this total 2,256 completed their studies and left the country. During the past fiscal year 117 institutions of learning have received the approval of the Secretary of Labor as required by law, making a total of 1,279 approved institutions. For the past two years attention has been called to the lack of authority given in the law to exact bonds guaranteeing that students maintain their status in those cases where the department is doubtful of their bona fides. Such authority is contained in the law concerning other classes of aliens, and bonds are taken guaranteeing that certain aliens will depart, will not become public charges, and so on. However, such a provision does not apply to students. The opinion that authority is needed for exacting bonds is still warranted by the fact that during the past four years it was necessary to issue warrants of arrest in the cases of 206 alleged students who failed to maintain their status as such. It is desired to repeat that the approved institutions of learning cooperate splendidly with the department, and, when it is ascertained that a student has not maintained the status under which admitted, reports are immediately submitted by these institutions with the result that a warrant is issued and the alleged student is deported when apprehended.

DEPORTATIONS

It will be noted from the section of this report devoted to details of activities of the past year that the department has continued its effectiveness in ridding the country of undesirable aliens and aliens found illegally here. While the number of forceful expulsions remains about the same as for the previous year, there is an increased report for the total number of departures for this type of aliens effected. In other words, of those types of aliens not inherently dangerous found illegally here and informed of the necessity for their departure, verification was had of a large number of actual departures from the United States. The total number of aliens who were either deported or departed upon notice of their illegal presence numbered nearly 30,000.

Attention of Congress is again called to the necessity for taking other means of enforcing the immigration laws against those deportable than merely requiring deportation when the violation is other than the first offense. The department finds many instances of aliens who are deportable for a second time, after the Government has once paid transportation expenses to return them. The wisdom of making

the second offense in gaining illegal entry into the United States a criminal matter, with penalty of fine or imprisonment, or both, where the court is satisfied the law evasion is willful, is apparent. The necessity is particularly apparent as to aliens who take up residence in the United States after having gained admission as seamen under the law which permits a seaman to enter in pursuit of his calling and to remain for a period not exceeding 60 days in which he may reship on another vessel. Many of these so-called seamen remain and evade the immigration officers. A very large number of these are apprehended, but when they are deported the Government must bear the expense of their transportation as passengers. Needless to say, it is no penalty to a seaman to be transported as a passenger out of the United States, and he therefore feels that his effort to gain admission and employment here, even if unsuccessful, is worth while.

The department cooperates in every possible way with the Department of Justice in bringing to trial persons engaged in the smuggling of aliens into the United States. Upon conviction the smugglers may be sentenced to imprisonment; but as to the aliens themselves, they are merely deported from the United States at Government expense, and this, it has been noted, occurs frequently a second and a third time.

Alien gunmen.

Reference is made occasionally to the ineffectiveness of the Immigration Service in ridding the country of what is popularly termed "alien gunmen" and other criminals who are frequently referred to in newspaper dispatches. Comment on that subject, therefore, is not out of place. In this connection it seems appropriate to point out that because a particular name appearing in a newspaper account of some crime reacts in the minds of some readers to indicate alienage, that fact is not necessarily established. It is well to remind the reading public that the population of the United States, at least so far as the names of individuals are concerned, is entirely of foreign derivation. Representatives of every nationality are represented in our population. They have been, practically, ever since its very foundation. What may appeal to one as an alien name may strike another as a very common and native name, depending upon the environment or ancestry of the one who gives the matter thought.

It is unfortunate, however, that there are communities, associations, or affiliations in parts of the United States which are alien in custom, association, and ideals to this country. Such a situation is to be deplored and some steps should be taken to change the condition. In that connection reference is made to a discussion of naturalization and Americanization work under the heading "Enrollment of aliens."

But to consider the question of the individual criminal and the reference to "alienage" as a factor in our criminal statistics, such alienage is not established by name. In the department's investigation of cases referred to it as possible subjects for deportation, it is very frequently brought out that these subjects of contemplated proceedings are citizens of the United States.

Citizenship may be acquired in four different ways:

1. Birth in the United States.
2. Naturalization in the United States.
3. It may be derived by a minor residing in the United States, one of whose parents becomes naturalized.
4. By birth abroad after the naturalization of parent in the United States.

If citizenship is acquired in any manner, the Immigration Service is entirely without jurisdiction looking to deportation for acts committed in the United States.

The department's activities in deporting alien criminals is also circumscribed even where alienage is established. No act committed by an alien in the United States may be made grounds for deportation unless such grounds are designated by statute. To be deportable for the commission of a crime the alien must be convicted and sentenced for a period of a year or more within five years after the entry into the United States. In other words, if there is no conviction of crime during the first five years of residence in the United States, the alien is protected against deportation unless he comes within the other criminal grounds of deportation, which provide that an alien who is convicted and sentenced more than once since February 5, 1917, on each occasion to a year or more of imprisonment, for crimes involving moral turpitude, shall be deported. The deportation, the law requires, shall occur after the serving of the sentence specified. In all those cases where deportation for crime is indicated by the law the department uses its facilities to the utmost to accomplish that result.

The foregoing discussion will serve to indicate some of the difficulties which arise to prevent the deportation of what are popularly known as "alien gunmen" and so-called "undesirable aliens." A discussion is had on the effect of pardons and paroles in the Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor for 1927. That comment should be considered in connection with this vital subject.

CHILDREN'S BUREAU

Child welfare vital to the Nation's welfare.

If there is any subject endowed with a national interest it is the welfare of the Nation's children. Its future existence, the intelligent use of its resources, the rôle it will play in world affairs, depend on

its children—whether or not they are physically fit and whether or not they are trained in self-control, in respect for the rights of others, and in understanding of their own rights and obligations. That the first responsibility must rest with the nearest government—the State, the county, and the municipality—is the reason why the rôle that the Federal Government must play in the training of children is that of an intelligent and interested cooperator ready to assist but not to control or hamper.

The Children's Bureau was created to serve as a central bureau of information, research, and consultation, so that unnecessary experimenting with the lives of children might be reduced to a minimum and the experience of each made available to all.

Cooperation in promotion of child health.

In 1921 the well-established principle of Federal aid was utilized to promote the health of mothers and babies, and the Children's Bureau was intrusted with the administration of this important measure known as the Sheppard-Towner Maternity and Infancy Act. That Federal interest in this field was approved by the States is indicated in the acceptance of the act by all but three States and the resolutions adopted by the Association of State and Provincial Health Officers, which declare that the administration of the act has quickened local interest and promoted local responsibility. All these States were so convinced of the value of the service that they not only applied for the initial allotment of Federal funds but made their own appropriations to carry on the work, by which fact they were enabled to participate more fully in the benefits, as the law provided could be done where the States bore a fixed proportion of the expense. Thirty-one States appropriated sufficient of their own funds to receive the maximum Federal assistance provided by the law. The act expires by limitation on June 30, 1929.

It has served well in demonstrating the usefulness of Federal, State, and local cooperation in the promotion of the health of children.

Research in the prevention of delinquency.

In previous reports attention was called to the importance of greatly increasing the resources of the Children's Bureau for investigation and consultation on request in methods of preventing delinquency. In recent years there has been much concern about crime and lawlessness in the United States. State and national commissions and associations have surveyed the situation. Some important recommendations have been made as to the improvement of criminal court methods and the treatment of criminals, but all of them have pointed out that prevention must begin with the children. There is no single cause of the development of antisocial tendencies in chil-

dren. There is no single remedy. The subject calls for continuing scientific research in problems and methods of treatment. The Children's Bureau has excellent working relationships with the agencies dealing with delinquents. Its assistance and cooperation are desired. To delay in making possible the employment of the necessary experts by the bureau for this work is costly economy.

National statistics regarding children.

The United States has been very slow in the accumulation of the basic facts about children, except in a limited sense. We do not know the facts about dependent, delinquent, feeble-minded, or crippled children, or the number of boys and girls who go to work. We are making some progress. The vital-statistics division of the Bureau of the Census can now tell us how many children are born and die in most States; the Children's Bureau has inaugurated a plan for uniform reporting of juvenile-court statistics, which has had a most encouraging reception, and the annual reporting to the bureau of the work permits issued to children is being undertaken by a considerably increased number of States and cities this year. This work needs to be extended. A plan for uniform reporting of the facts with reference to dependency should be inaugurated. But money is needed for presenting the plans to the agencies, for printing schedules, and for tabulating and printing the findings.

The care of the Nation's wards.

The Federal Government has direct and sole responsibility for large groups of children. It should meet that responsibility with increasing effectiveness each year. It is a matter for great satisfaction that there has been marked improvement in the care of children in the District of Columbia in recent years. Two years ago a "mothers' pension" law was passed, and the care of dependent, neglected, and delinquent children was centralized in the children's division of the department of public welfare. During the last session of Congress the standards of the child labor law were raised, machinery for the enforcement of such laws was greatly improved, and provision was made for the detention of children by the department of public welfare. It is to be hoped that Congress will find it possible to round out this program by more adequate provision for prenatal and infant care by the health department and the publicly maintained hospital, and by making available, to the juvenile court and to the truancy department of the schools, psychiatric clinics to assist in the diagnosis and treatment of maladjusted children and thus to promote the reduction of delinquency and crime.

It should not be forgotten that the Federal Government has never provided modern care for children who offend against the Federal statutes. Though an offender may now be placed on probation by the

Federal courts, the old methods of indictment by grand jury, imprisonment while awaiting trial, and punishment of children still obtain. Either provision should be made for the filing of information against these children in the State juvenile courts or authority for informal hearings in a chancery court—with the object of treatment and not of punishment—should be given the Federal courts.

NATURALIZATION

Practically all the legislative recommendations heretofore made concerning the naturalization of aliens have been incorporated in bills introduced into the two Houses of Congress. These bills are S. 2426 and H. R. 9035, which are identical except in a few minor particulars. If enacted by the Congress they would effect the complete codification of the naturalization laws. If such codification should not be possible during this Congress, it is hoped that action may be taken to meet certain outstanding embarrassing conditions.

Action already has been taken by the House of Representatives to amend the naturalization laws by the passage on December 19, 1927, of a bill (H. R. 349) to make more practical the requirements for proof of character and residence of the applicant for naturalization and to require continuous residence in the United States during the period the petition remains pending.

A bill (H. R. 13793) relating to records of arrival prior to June 3, 1921, of certain immigrants was reported favorably by the House Committee on Immigration and Naturalization on May 19, 1928. This bill would provide for a record of registry of any alien whose lawful entry does not appear upon the immigration records if he entered this country prior to June 3, 1921, if since his entry he has resided continuously in the United States and has been of good moral character, and if he is not subject to deportation. This bill would provide also for the issuance from such record of a certificate of arrival for naturalization purposes on payment of a fee of \$5. No declaration of intention could be made prior to establishment of lawful entry and issuance of certificate of arrival.

Certificates of arrival are now required only of those aliens who arrived in the United States after June 29, 1906. They should be required of all applicants regardless of date of entry. A large number of aliens who entered prior to June 3, 1921, the commencement of the quota restrictions, are in this country in conformity with the immigration laws but can find no record of their entry. No administrative action can relieve applicants for citizenship for whom no records of arrival can be found. Such aliens, having made no lawful entry, are in the anomalous position of not being subject to deportation and yet being unable to become citizens or even to obtain reentry permits if they wish to leave the country temporarily. Should such

persons leave the country, even for a few days, upon returning they must comply in all respects, including the quota provisions, with the immigration laws in effect at the time of application for reentry. The quota limitation in some of these cases is an obstacle that can be removed only by years of waiting. Doubtless there are thousands of law-abiding alien residents who are put to great inconvenience and even hardship by these conditions.

The need for legislation to enable this group of aliens to become citizens is becoming more urgent as the number of requests increases for statements from the bureau certifying to the citizenship of those wishing to take examinations for admission to the bar or for the practice of medicine, to obtain passports, to take civil-service examinations, or to satisfy other demands for evidence of citizenship.

Certificates of citizenship for all those naturalized.

There is especial need for the early enactment of legislation providing for the issuance of certificates of citizenship to those who have derived citizenship through the naturalization of others; that is, to persons of foreign birth who have become citizens through the naturalization of the parent of the husband but did not themselves petition for naturalization. Since the act of June 29, 1906, became operative more than 2,500,000 petitioners have become citizens and have received certificates of citizenship. Not all these petitions bore the names of wives or children who would derive citizenship from the naturalization of the petitioners, but as a large proportion carried the names of several such relatives it may be safe to assume that as many persons have derived citizenship in this way as have obtained it through petition. All who have so derived citizenship or have acquired it otherwise but who have not received certificates are subjected to embarrassment in establishing their claims to that status. It should be legally possible to issue certificates to such citizens, but only if they are actually in the United States and appear before an officer of the Naturalization Service to receive them. Each should be required to take the oath of abjuration of former allegiance and the oath of allegiance to the United States before receiving the certificate.

Photographs on naturalization papers.

The owner of a declaration of intention or a certificate of citizenship and the Government also would be protected against the fraudulent use of such documents if the law required that the owner's photograph should be attached thereto. The immigration act of 1924 requires each alien to obtain an immigration visa upon which his photograph is affixed. If a photograph were also required by law in connection with the first application for citizenship, comparison of the two documents would positively identify the applicant and would prevent fraudulent naturalization.

Use of depositions in proving residence.

Under the existing law depositions may be used to prove residence in another State in cases where an applicant has resided for less than five years within the State where he desires to become a citizen. But depositions may not be used to prove residence for part of the five years in another county of the same State. The Government is not protected by this artificial restriction, and no reason is seen why depositions should not be taken to prove residence anywhere outside the county in which the applicant petitions.

Residence within the United States.

For years the Federal and State courts have been construing the provisions of the naturalization law relating to residence within the United States during the five years preceding the filing of a petition for naturalization. It has been fittingly stated that after 21 years of judicial dealing with this subject such authorities are further apart now than when the law was enacted. Untold thousands of dollars and the expenditure of time of judicial and executive officers have accomplished no uniformity of rule in the interpretation of this most vital provision of the law. Legislative definitions of the term "residence" would be helpful.

Declarations in cases of unlawful arrival after June 3, 1921, should be declared invalid.

A large number of aliens who have made declarations of intention and expect to be able to acquire American citizenship are reported to have entered the United States illegally since the first quota restriction law became operative on June 3, 1921. Legislation is needed to state definitely that declarations of intentions based upon illegal entry into the country shall be invalid for all purposes.

Issuance of copies of lost or destroyed naturalization papers.

Practically all the work relating to the issuance of copies of lost declarations of intention and certificates of naturalization is performed by the Bureau of Naturalization. This is necessary to prevent fraudulent issuance and use. Such new papers are finally issued by the clerks of courts through the simple act of signature and seal after the identifications have been made complete by the Bureau of Naturalization. The lack of uniformity in the charges for these papers by clerks of different courts necessitates constant explanations by naturalization officers. A statutory fee for such service might be established.

Survey of naturalization data.

As has been stated in previous reports, much valuable information is contained in the records of the Bureau of Naturalization that would be enlightening to the Congress, to the executive branch of

the Government, and to the public, if authority could be obtained for its collation and analysis. It would establish definitely the relationship between the citizenry of this country and the countries from which our foreign population has come.

The enrollment plan.

In order that the status of all aliens in the United States may be known, particularly so that the Government may be helpful to them through the Bureau of Naturalization, an alien census or enrollment should be taken and such enrollment could be made the basic evidence of legal domicile for naturalization purposes. All aliens who arrived prior to June 30, 1924, the effective date of the present quota law, could then be given a legal status for permanent residence. Hundreds of thousands of aliens in the United States now ineligible could be reached for naturalization purposes if an enrollment plan were carried out and the enrollment certificate made the basis of naturalization in place of the declaration of intention now required. Prior to the recent quota acts the necessity for making a registration upon arrival to the United States was not apparent to aliens who came for residence here. The immigration laws, for instance, provided that alien seamen who chose to abandon their calling might be examined for immigration purposes and entered upon the records of the port of arrival within three years after entry. It was commonly thought that after the statutory period for deportation had elapsed the alien acquired a lawful residence in the United States. This theory has now been abandoned, not only by the courts but by express legislative direction.

An enrollment of all aliens made by act of Congress prima facie evidence of lawful arrival in the United States, if prior to 1924, would make available to them facilities for Americanization and citizenship. Reference should be made to previous annual reports under the topic "Enrollment of aliens."

WOMEN IN INDUSTRY

The work of the Women's Bureau is stimulating and inspiring, the staff is efficient, and the value of this work to the welfare of the Nation constantly becomes more evident to the public. Because of the growing value of its studies it is unfortunate that each year the bureau must postpone important work and decline requests for assistance in problems connected with wage-earning women asked for by employers and employees, public and private organizations, and many persons interested in women's employment. Among the surveys which should be conducted are those enumerated below, each with appropriate comment.

Occupational hazards.

There should be a comprehensive study of women's employment in plants using poisonous substances. An investigation of this subject, requiring careful and scientific study, should not longer be postponed, and it is hoped that financial means for the purpose may be made available. The special problems arise because of fundamental changes that have been initiated in industrial processes within recent years and that have brought in their wake hazards to the health and well-being of hundreds of thousands of women workers. The bureau has had many requests for such information, but has been unable to supply it. Technical studies of these problems that will furnish information in regard to the relation between certain conditions of employment and impaired health conditions of women workers should be made, in this way increasing the bureau's service in behalf of better standards for working women.

Not only is the work that is being done along the line of hazards fragmentary, but the studies undertaken in the States and by public and private agencies up to the present time have pertained almost exclusively to the occupational hazards of men. As a Government agency charged with the duty of formulating standards and policies that will promote the welfare of wage-earning women, the bureau should make an all-around investigation that would give, on this very important subject, facts that would be helpful to employers and the workers alike. For this service the bureau requires experts specially trained to handle this type of scientific investigation.

The piecework system.

Another subject that should be carefully considered is the piecework system, by which wages are based on output rather than on time at work. The question is so clearly related to matters of health and efficiency and is of such paramount importance to the worker and to the employer that a scientific analysis of the advantages and disadvantages of the system and a comparison of this method of work with that of time-work should be made.

Married women in industry.

There exists in many quarters of the United States a strong feeling against the gainful employment of married women, due largely to the failure to understand the problems of this type of wage earner, to the belief that married women take the jobs that should go to single women or to men, and to the fear that the employment of married women will tend to break up the home. There is a great need of authentic information—facts that are gathered and presented wholly without prejudice.

The increase in the numbers of married women in industry would seem to call for additional information on the subject. The census

of 1920 reported almost 2,000,000 married women in gainful occupations; and women occupy a larger place in industry to-day than they did in 1920. The subject of the gainful employment of married women is extremely complex, linked so closely, as it is, with the welfare of the home and the family and related so definitely to the health of the race and the progress of the Nation. That injustices may not be worked in any direction, a comprehensive study of this problem should be made.

Information gathered by the Women's Bureau shows that most women are at work to supplement the family income; and all the material collected on the subject points to the fact that large numbers of married women must share, and widowed or deserted women must assume, the father's responsibilities. Mothers must toil outside the home and away from the children who should have their care. There is need of further data, gathered at first hand, giving current information on all phases of the problem. Such a study would require considerable field work, since it would be extensive in scope, but it would present truths of vital importance to the American people.

To be of most value there should be a number of simultaneous studies in industrial centers and supervision of the collection of data by other interested agencies. Special attention should be given in these studies to the problems of employed mothers and their children, including information on the occupations and earnings of the fathers as well as the mothers.

Posture at work.

Another study of significance that should be made by the bureau is the problem of posture—the combining of comfort and efficiency in a work chair of practical design and inexpensive construction. The very general lack of attention to this problem is a detriment to the health of the workers. The bureau has been requested by the Association of State Departments of Labor to undertake such a study, and a number of firms have again and again urged it to do so. Workers should be given this service, which would contribute to their health and efficiency and to the perfection of the product upon which they are employed.

Other recommendations.

In addition to the projects recommended there is an aspect of women's employment that the bureau has been unable to inquire into—that of the employment of women in semiprofessional and professional pursuits. The bureau is continually being asked for information along such lines, and it is serving to the best of its ability. The facilities of the Women's Bureau, however, are not adequate to develop the aspects of this type of employment for women.

Cooperation of States.

The bureau has always worked in close cooperation with certain States. It has been handicapped, nevertheless, by the lack of personal contact with officials of departments of labor, except at such times as agents of the bureau have been in the States in connection with specific projects. Each year has brought evidence of the increased value of personal contact with such organizations. During the past year, therefore, a special effort has been made to establish contact with State departments of labor for the purpose of making a practical working arrangement for the use by the bureau of information about wage-earning women collected by the States.

Sixteen States were visited for this purpose during the year. Splendid response resulted in a number of cases, and a real beginning has been made in the more extensive cooperation desired by the bureau.

While the majority of States collect and publish a considerable amount of labor statistics, each prepares its material for local use only and does not present figures intended to have special value as a basis of comparison with other States publishing information on the same subjects. For example, many States fail to separate by sex or even by age any of their published data about wage earners, while in other cases tabulations include minors with adult women.

Standard reporting of statistics.—It is highly desirable that a more uniform method be devised for presenting information on hours and conditions of work, fluctuations in employment, and the extent and nature of industrial accidents. State departments of labor could render great service in the field of social statistics by presenting their figures on wage earners by sex and age—always separating those under 16 from the older workers; in fact, a third group of those 16 and under 18 years would have great significance.

Accident statistics.—The bureau has been greatly encouraged also in regard to securing information on the number of women injured in industrial occupations. One State has furnished unpublished data concerning accidents to women in 1926-27 and a number of States have offered to cooperate in the classification by sex and age of the accident data they make public from time to time. Though the development of the project will be slow and comparable results may not be achieved for two or three years, all such information will be a valuable contribution to the knowledge on this important subject.

In the past very little has been done. Only a few States have presented accident statistics by sex. A few have done so intermittently, and New York has, in addition, published two special bulletins on the subject of accidents to women.

The fact that the great majority of accidents occur to men probably explains why there has been so little consideration of the problem of

accidents to women. The bureau has brought to the attention of the committee on standardization of accident statistics the fact that the standard code under consideration for the recording of accident data does not list separately the industries in which women predominate in numbers, but allows them to be lost sight of in the residual group "others."

Cooperation along other lines.—Still another cooperative undertaking is the collection, by agencies especially concerned with employment problems, of information about married women who seek employment. The personnel officers of two large stores in different States and one employment agency are gathering information to be turned over to the Women's Bureau for compilation and analysis. The schedule forms have been furnished by the bureau, and the material from the several sources should be comparable. Should Federal appropriation permit of a study of married women by the Women's Bureau, one State has promised to assign one worker and another State to assign two or three workers to assist the bureau.

Low wages a public responsibility.

Reference is made in this report to wages received by married women and children to increase the family income, particularly the very low rates for such home work as sewing buttons and snaps on cards, miscellaneous sewing, and the like. In a country in which the great majority of workers receive not only a living but a "saving" wage, it is deplorable that such conditions should exist. It may be necessary, because of disability or death of the husband and father, for a woman with children to accept home work or otherwise engage in occupation of the type indicated; and if that is necessary, then reasonable and appropriate wages should be paid. If the necessity for such work is extremely low wages received by the heads of these families, there is something radically wrong. If it is true that such low wages are for occupations such as street cleaning, as the report shows, then the taxpayers of the community owe it to society, in common decency, to see that not less than a living wage is paid to their servants. The very few classes and numbers to which it would apply make it certain that the difference could not be more than a few cents a year to the taxpayer, and it is worth the amount to the community's self-respect.

In industry in general the public should realize the plight of the underpaid unskilled labor in certain establishments or lines. An increase in pay of these few—and comparatively they are few—would relatively make but small difference in the cost of the finished product and be absorbed by the ultimate consumers—who include employers as well as employees of all industry and who are in the

main sufficiently prosperous—at a total increase in the yearly budget of a few paltry dollars. Nor would this be, in the last analysis, a cost, for out of the homes where children are neglected, underfed, and underschooled come a large number of our undesirable members of society. Seeds of communism, hate, and disregard for law are sown and grow out of such conditions, and these in turn increase the cost of police protection and correctional institutions. To this cost there is added the maintenance of public asylums and charitable homes for the aged who otherwise might have taken care of themselves.

Perhaps bargain hunting by the thrifty housewife plays its part in keeping down the wages of underpaid men and women who are forced by circumstances to take any kind of employment offered. Buttons, snaps, and pins that require cards will continue to be carded, whether the rate is 8 cents or 50 cents a hundred cards, in either case this cost being hardly noticeable; but the difference between the two figures would be the difference between conditions worse than slavery—neglect of children, undernourishment—and what might be a comfortable existence. No American woman would purchase a card of high-grade buttons at 39 cents a dozen involving misery to a widow and children if she knew that a 40-cent card meant comfort for the same family. There are shoppers who will not purchase merchandise which by examination of materials show that decent wages could not be made by the operators, preferring to buy elsewhere standard articles which they know are produced under fair conditions. This practice is commendable and truly American. If more were thus considerate—and they would be if they realized the result—the intolerable conditions found in a few of the homes of the less fortunate would be overcome. There would be no boycott of the production, because those manufacturers who use this type of labor would soon correct the situation. The end desired could not be accomplished by purchasing the objectionable article at a higher price without a corresponding increase to labor. There can be no criticism of thriftiness and economy in buying. Sales of remnant stocks, discontinued designs and patterns, and so on, of merchandise honestly produced will always provide legitimate bargains for those who seek low prices. These do not disturb the main proposition that the goods can be and are produced under conditions honest to the worker.

This idea in buying is not alone for the housewife. It is commended to men as well as women and in all walks of life. Identical materials of which an article is composed have a definite value. If the article is regularly sold at a cost which is known to be very little above the value of those materials, it is a certainty that no one has received much for the labor involved in its making and distribution. If a higher price is standard, the probabilities are that labor received

a higher wage all along the line. Examination should show how much labor is involved, and inquiry would develop how it was produced.

I have for many years advocated a saving wage. Employers in general recognize that national prosperity depends upon the ability of the worker to purchase the products of industry. If the public, largely composed of wage earners, would realize more fully that they are the real and ultimate employers, because they furnish the funds by their purchases, conditions would soon adjust themselves so that the few remaining instances of deplorably low wages would be removed.

There will always remain a few cases of poverty caused by mismanagement, irresponsibility, and other conditions over which society at large can have no control. That problem is different, and it is doubtful whether any amount of public concern will ever solve it. That fact, however, should not deter us in making a determined effort to do the right and square thing by those honestly entitled to our consideration.

CONCLUSION

The material progress of America is one of the most astonishing things recorded in the annals of nations. Our wealth, estimated at \$400,000,000,000, is 40 per cent of the entire worth of the earth. But, as I have said in a previous statement, this striking fact would mean little to one in whom the modern spirit is incarnate if the masses of our people did not share its benefits. There have been rich nations other than ours recorded in history, but their wealth belonged to comparatively few people, the mass sharing therein only to the extent of being provided with food, clothing, and shelter. The worker in ancient days had not attained to the status of a true individual. Usually he was but a slave or serf, to whom the destiny of his country meant little. Whether his country was prosperous or poverty-stricken, victorious in war or subjected to the ignominy of defeat in battle, to him was inconsequential. He built all the great monuments of ancient genius which men now go thousands of miles to see and view with awe; he created all the wealth that enabled his masters to live in luxury and ease; but nobody praised him while he lived, nor for nearly 2,000 years after he was dead. The greatest martyr of all history has been labor. The greatest minds of the ancient world, though they may have differed on most other subjects, were unanimous that slavery was an economic necessity. For in that ancient world, and centuries afterwards, machines were few and simple; the hand was a hundred times more important than it is to-day. We speak now of the machine as "labor saving," but for thousands of years nobody was interested in labor-saving machinery

The brain of man had not conceived the possibility of saving the masses from back-breaking toil by means of the application of science to industry; nay, only one here and there had so much as a conception of physical science. Under the conditions of the ancient world, and its mental state was one of those conditions, one could not hope to improve the status of the worker.

Most ancient philosophers believed that the bulk of mankind were slaves by nature; that is, they looked upon the sort of man whom they employed to do their more laborious work as one for whom nature had done little. They did not think of him as one who could be educated; they were certain that he could never understand philosophy or appreciate poetry and art. Why bother with him, then? As a hewer of wood and a drawer of water he was useful; he could be taught to sow and reap, to pile brick on brick and stone on stone; his hands were capable of amazing feats of endurance and strength, but his brain, they thought, was a negligible quantity. For several hundred years there have been great scholars who regarded Plato as the master mind of the ages, and other scholars equally great who so regarded Aristotle, both of whom held the point of view which is here recorded. Some twenty-odd years ago Saloman Reinath, of Austria-Hungary, a European scholar with an international reputation, went to London to deliver a course of lectures on Plato. As it was supposed that only the most intellectual would care to hear him, a small hall was secured; but when the night for his first lecture arrived a crowd of English workingmen large enough to fill several halls of the same size applied in vain for admittance to the auditorium. The rest of the lectures on the great Greek philosopher were given in one of the largest halls in London, and the greater number of auditors belonged to the working class. One wonders what impression this spectacle would have made upon the shade of Plato if a report of it had come to him in his abode in the Elysian Fields.

The notion that large masses of mankind are slaves by nature persisted for centuries, and it might have persisted forever if the machine had not come to relieve the masses from some of the burden of their toil. Even when it did come, the owners of machines sought to keep the workers who operated them in a condition of virtual servitude; and it is but truth to say that for a time after the invention of the steam engine, the spinning frame, and the power loom the condition of the workers was somewhat worse than before the period of inventive genius. The demand for labor produced an increase in population, most of whose members were compelled to live in a manner not befitting human beings. Every attempt to ameliorate the condition of the workers by means of legislation was vigorously resisted by the authorities, and Thomas Carlyle was

regarded as a preacher of extremely radical doctrine when, 88 years ago, he advocated the education of British workers by the Government.

Every new age produces a new logic, and the machine age could be no exception to the rule. The thinkers who saw the true meaning of the machine pointed out the necessity for regarding labor from a different angle than any hitherto known. The greatest minds in England were resolved that the machine should minister to something better than human greed. And more and more, as the possibilities of the machine were apparent, the workers of England found their cause championed by men upon whom the nation could not look with disdain. John Stuart Mill, for example, the greatest political economist of his time, frankly admitted that he preferred communism to the sort of thing that British manufacturers aimed to perpetuate. Carlyle and Ruskin, Kingsley and Morris, and many others moving in the highest circles of society, thundered against the iniquities engendered by a class of employers who thought nothing important except their business profits. And while it is true that the remedies which some of these advocates sanctioned for the alleviation of poverty were almost as bad as the disease—or were even, in some instances, worse—their appeal to the conscience of England was productive of immense good to the world of labor in general and bears fruit to this day.

The day of labor's martyrdom is now over—at least in America. We no longer think of the worker, as men previously thought, as a man without a soul. The soul of a prince and the soul of a toiler are essentially one. Each has the same appetites and passions, and the same potentialities. One is as capable of being educated as the other.

The prosperity of America is one in which the American workers share, and eventually will share even more. The educated worker no longer labors without hope of an adequate reward, and most of our workers have received a considerable degree of education. The time is come when the American worker is resolved to have the best of all that is made and produced, and more and more he is receiving it. It is true that we still have the poor with us, but hopeless, involuntary poverty is becoming rarer and rarer, and there is reason to hope that eventually it will be quite unknown throughout the civilized world. While there are still employers so far behind the times in which they live as to pay no more than a mere subsistence wage, the majority of American employers have learned that it is to their own interest to pay what I have called a saving wage, and by a saving wage I mean one that will provide not only the comforts of life but enable the worker to lay something by for the later days when the need of ease has become apparent.

The employer of to-day who does not sympathize with the ideal of a saving wage is out of step in the march of progress. He is ignorant of the forces that have molded the present and will mold the future. He does not understand the logic which the invention of the machine should have taught him. Such an employer is the type of man who opposes the restrictive immigration laws because they prevent him from obtaining immigrant labor willing to work for considerably less than the rate to which the American worker would consent. I call such an employer unpatriotic, because he considers what he regards as his private interest as paramount rather than the interests of the whole Nation from which he has derived his entire prosperity.

It should be apparent to any person that the workers of America have become a vital part of the economic prosperity of America. There is nothing bought and sold in the market that a worker of our time will not buy if he is paid a wage sufficiently remunerative to enable him to do so. What is sometimes called overproduction is not infrequently underconsumption, and underconsumption is due to the comparative poverty of men who would willingly spend more money for commodities if they had more to spend. The notion that prosperity is produced by a wealthy class is antiquated. He who still thinks so will think wrong in respect of all economic matters. Prosperity is not the product of a class; it is the product of the mass.

All economic progress has come from the growing multiplicity of human wants. If a man wants little, he may be of a noble type of refined spirituality; but, economically speaking, he will be not an asset but a liability to the community in which he lives. There are still prophets who advocate the simplification of life; but we do well not to listen to them overlong.

Business suffered in former days from the fact that it was only a class—a wealthy class—that had many wants, or which could afford to have many wants. If you go back 750 years, you will find that a carpenter in England received only 5 cents a day and that many other kinds of workers received only 3 cents. Now, that fact is not quite so bad as it seems; for the carpenter who received only 5 cents a day, and the common laborer who received only 3 cents, were able to buy practically everything that they wanted; for they did not want much. So long as a worker in England 750 years ago had enough to eat of the plainest of food and a roof over his head, he had about all that he cared for. And at that time he could buy 10 eggs for a cent, and for a quarter he could buy 16 pounds of butter, from 6 to 8 hens, or the eighth part of a good cow. His clothing was coarse, his habitation rude, and there is no reason to suppose that he longed for the rich clothing or the palaces of the wealthy.

As a matter of fact, there has been a good deal of exaggeration in regard to the rich clothing and palaces of the wealthy 300 years ago, for even a great gentleman like Sir Philip Sidney had fewer clothes than many American workers of our time, while his home was far less sanitary and comfortable. Even the rich a few hundred years ago—the men and women who were capable of experiencing wants—were not able to gratify as many desires as an American carpenter or bricklayer. They may have wanted books, but there were not many books to be had. There are American workers who have larger and better libraries than the wealthy scholars of those times. One does not need to go back very far to find a time when hardly a Christian owned a Bible, for the simple reason that there were not many copies of the Bible in existence, while the few there were had to be, for their protection, chained to a wall or desk.

Our American workers share in the great wealth now being produced, because they have acquired the multiplicity of wants that formerly distinguished only the aristocracy. There is virtually no want possessed by an American employer of our day which is not shared by the men whom he employs. The meaning of this fact to business ought to be evident to all. Before you can have economic progress you must accomplish two things: The first is to create the multiplicity of wants previously mentioned; the other is to enlarge the class that shares this multiplicity. The reason slave or serf labor is unprofitable lies in the paucity of desire which such a class manifests. The reason a poorly paid class in our time is unprofitable lies in its inability to purchase what most of its members have actually come to want and would purchase provided they had the means. Even high wages will not accomplish all that they are capable of accomplishing if the hours of labor are so long that the worker has little or no time for recreation. A leisure class has ever been regarded as a necessity to society, because it is only the man or woman possessing leisure who has the time to gratify a multiplicity of wants. It is the leisure to think that makes men and women thoughtful; and much of the leisure that has belonged to the aristocracies of the past must now be appropriated by the masses who earn their living by means of manual labor or attendance on a machine.

An old saying we have often heard is that "Necessity is the mother of invention"; but it would be even truer to say that invention is the mother of necessity. People seldom regret their lack of knowledge of things unknown, but when knowledge comes to be possessed by one or a few, the desire of the many to learn is keen. There is no reason for thinking that the employers of labor regretted that they did not possess a steam engine, or a power loom, or a spinning frame before these things were invented; it took the world some years to be con-

vinced that these inventions were likely to be profitable. Men were content to jog along on foot or on a horse before the railroad came, and to cross the sea in sailing vessels before the ocean greyhound arrived. Few cared for the ability to read and write until they found that the ability to do so gave to its possessor advantages unattainable in other ways. The last few years have witnessed the invention of many machines for the relief of household drudgery, such as vacuum cleaners, electric washing machines, and electric flatirons, none of which was so much as foreseen or consciously desired by our grandmothers. But their invention has created in the modern housewife a desire to own them, and this desire has seeped from the top to the bottom of society. As I have said in a previous report, "The difference between our own time and that of all previous eras is found very largely in the fact that labor now shares in desires that were formerly regarded as aristocratic."

It is impossible to overestimate the gain to humanity that has come from something like universal education, for it was universal education that opened the eyes of the working class to the opportunities presented by life. Kings and lords had no difficulty in keeping the workers of the world in subjection to them so long as none of these had the knowledge of the world which comes from the ability to read. For hundreds of years the kings and lords themselves did not possess this ability. Even the great Charlemagne did not learn to read until he had become an old man, and how to write he never learned. I have said that Carlyle's advocacy of educating the workers was regarded as radical doctrine 88 years ago. And it was radical doctrine at the time. Nor is it strange that those in power looked upon this doctrine with an unfriendly eye, for a class which is intrenched in power does not desire to share its power with a class which it has always considered as beneath it. The student of history discovers that every class, as a class, has despised its social inferiors and that it has always desired to keep its social inferiors as ignorant as possible, though, curiously enough, the first promulgators of radical doctrine are ever found to have belonged to the socially superior class. When William Godwin published his radical work, *Political Justice*, he was saved from prosecution by the government only by the somewhat contemptuous observation of William Pitt that he could not see how a book which sold for 3 guineas was likely to do any harm, since the only persons likely to be swayed by it were persons most of whom had not 3 shillings in their pockets. Time was when statesmen dared to boast that the majority of people in their realm, even if they knew how to read, were too poor to do so.

Not only in the realm of thought but in the economic sphere likewise, the governmental education of the people has had far-reaching

consequences. It was education that taught the worker that he had a soul, a doctrine which some of the ancients laughed to scorn; and it was education which created in the worker a hundred wants he had never known before. Indeed, the education of the workers was nothing less than a veritable revolution in human life, and real revolutions, one should remember, never go backward. The step that was then taken can never be retraced. The gain can never be lost. Education did something for labor that will never be obliterated to the end of time.

The overwhelming majority of mankind now, as in the past, belong to the ranks of labor, and this means, since labor has been and is being educated, not only that labor is destined to advance but that the advance of the world in the future will be conditioned by the gains that accrue to labor. In years to come there will be no legislation of an economic character and very little of any other character which neglects to consider the desires of those who live by toil. It was Abraham Lincoln who said that he thought God must love the plain people—he had made so many of them. And by plain people he meant those who work with their hands as he himself had done in his youthful years of poverty.

The man who sneers at labor to-day is himself deserving of nothing but a sneer. One can forgive the ancients who saw no hope for the world except through the enslavement of the many to the wise and cultured few, for in their time they probably were right. But one can not forgive a person who teaches a similar doctrine to-day. For we are living in an age of machines, an age when the machine has come to be the slave of man and to set every child of Adam free. The machine may be destitute of a soul, but it has taught the worker that he has one, and it is also teaching him to exercise his soul on the paths that lead to power. For thousands of years labor had no control of its destiny nor any control of the world's destiny. All that it was taught is contained in the word "Obey." Knowledge and power alike were forbidden to it. For many centuries the world for labor was but a weary hospital of pain, where human hurts were incurable. The toilers sowed but they did not reap the fruits of their toil; they builded the palace but they lived in hovels; they kept the world alive and suffered a living death. But the night of labor has flown and the dawn has come.

I do not profess to know what the future of labor is going to be, because I do not know what the future contains for the world. But I am certain that in the future labor is destined to share all the good that the earth will know and that there can be no progress without substantial gains for labor. He will reckon ill who leaves labor out of his calculations in days to come.

I have said, and I now repeat, that the earnings of the workers are a vital part of the economic prosperity of the Nation, and I believe that these earnings in the future are destined to be an even greater part of our prosperity than they are to-day. If they are not, then the machine is destined eventually to be a curse rather than a blessing. There are those who think that it will, for they perceive that the machine has reached or is reaching such a stage toward perfection that it threatens to leave a goodly part of those who toil without employment. Already we have looms for the manufacture of cotton goods which work so nearly automatically that one weaver can operate a score of them. In the iron and steel industry, with our present equipment running full force, we can produce in eight months the needed quantity for our markets, and if we could put all our plants on the same basis of efficiency as the best of them we could produce all the iron and steel necessary with one-third the number of men used at present. And what is true of these industries is equally true of many others; indeed, in several of them the situation is even more serious than in these. Surely here is a problem which needs to be considered carefully. No machine can be too efficient if it adds to our general prosperity, but we shall be paying too dearly for the prosperity of a few if machines become so efficient as to impoverish the many by keeping them unemployed. The only satisfactory solution of the problem that I can see is the payment of a high wage to all our workers, so that it will enable the masses to purchase goods to an extent that few have dared to dream in the past. Any other course of procedure might easily wreck our present economic system and prepare the way for an economic system highly undesirable.

I shall have virtually closed, in presenting this report, an 8-year term as Secretary of Labor, serving under two Presidents, and it has been my signal good fortune during this period to have witnessed an immense change for the better in many phases of our industrial life. The most gratifying part of this change, to me, has been the movement, very nearly nation-wide, away from the long-hour day. The long day in American industry is, or should be, as dead as slave or serf labor. There are still, however, a few sections of the country and a few industries which, not having seen the new light, continue to lag behind in this matter—industries and sections that ought without delay to get in step with the progressive industrial program which has won all the forward-looking lines of business.

All our progressive industrial leaders have learned that it is profitable to them to pay high wages. They have come to perceive from experience—man's only infallible teacher—that high wages make efficient and contented workers; that they develop a spirit of harmony

and cooperation, and engender a finer sense of relationship. Humanitarianism really pays in dollars and cents, and it is the economic aspect of it that now concerns us. No industry can flourish to-day unless the workers therein are satisfied; and never again will the workers of this country, in any industry, be satisfied unless their wage is high. Again, no industry can flourish unless its workers are highly paid, because it is largely to the workers that the great basic industries and agriculture must look for the sale and consumption of their products. There are 43,000,000 persons in America gainfully employed, of which number more than 25,000,000 are termed as wage earners; and we must see to it that they all receive a wage sufficiently high to keep the wheels of industry in motion. Unfortunately, there are still many who are supposed to be gainfully employed who have difficulty in discovering the gains, and industry in general derives little benefit from them—their wages are so pitifully small.

I desire to call attention to the fact that the employer who refuses to pay an adequate—that is, a saving—wage to his workers injures himself even more than he injures those who work for him. Unconsciously such an employer is engaged in the unprofitable business of robbing himself. The worker who receives a bare subsistence wage will never learn to be a good buyer. He will eat only the coarsest of foods; he will wear only the shoddiest of fabrics; he will contribute but little to his church and moral uplift; he will never dream of buying a motor car or a book, of going to the theater, of trying to live as every self-respecting person should live. In view of the fact that there is not a worker in America who would not like to rise to the full stature of a human being, how is it possible that an employer of our time can fail to see what a market for his goods he could cultivate among the 25,000,000 wage earners of the land if the latter were all paid a wage that would enable them to live like human beings?

The employer who is not willing to pay his workers an adequate wage is no longer in harmony with his environment, and the student of evolution knows that organisms unable to adjust themselves to their environment soon die. Great human societies and nations, including some of the proudest that have ever lived, were eventually brought to the dust because of their inability to adjust themselves to the conditions of their time. And so has it been with industries likewise. The stagecoach could not compete with the railroad—and succumbed; the sailing vessel could not compete with the steamer—and succumbed; the hand loom could not compete with the powerloom—and succumbed. So will it be also with those industries of to-day whose managers have failed to learn the lesson that progressive managers everywhere have learned, namely, that high wages

and shorter hours of labor are a crying need of industry in our time. There is no room in our present state of society for the employer who believes in low wages and long hours of labor; he will soon be as extinct as the dodo, and, when he is gone never more to return, none will mourn his absence.

What a happy country ours would be to-day if the coal and textile industries were stabilized, affording steady employment to their operatives at a wage whose purchasing power would equal that of other basic industries!

It may be said for these industries that they have been subject to forces not easily controlled. During the war the bituminous industry was stimulated to meet the demand for a maximum output. Now that this extraordinary demand for coal has disappeared the industry is overloaded with mines and with miners, with the inevitable result of sharp competition between mine owners for capture of a more limited market, and with unemployment or part-time employment and falling wages for the miners over long periods of time. I am hopeful, however, that wise counsel within this industry will in time achieve a plan for voluntary reduction of the number of surplus mines, with a further plan for easing unneeded miners into other profitable employment. Organization, scientific management, and better relationships between employers and workers, such as obtain in so many of our other great industries, will, I feel sure, soon bring this industry into line with them.

The textile industry has suffered because of sweeping social changes, alterations in public taste, which have for the time reduced the demand for cotton products. Here again the result has been loss to owners of textile mills and wage reduction to their workers, together with unemployment or part-time work. Cities in which the textile industry is largely centered have lost accordingly. Where thousands of workers are much reduced in purchasing power the business of the locality loses at once. Merchants note a shrinkage in their sales and must reduce or cancel their own orders for goods. So from any ailing industry an expanding circle of loss flows out into many another industry. No one great industry can be ill without affecting them all. Again I am hopeful, however, that forces within the textile industry, notably the new National Textile Institute, lately formed to serve as a clearing house and organization center, will enable this industry to gauge its output, discover new markets, and restore itself to its former vigor.

Except for the largely unavoidable misfortunes of these two industries, American industrial effort is pervaded throughout with a better feeling than ever before between employer and worker. Recent years have witnessed a gradual reduction in the number of strikes and lock-

outs, in itself a cause for rejoicing, and a solid and valuable economic gain. Avoidance of strikes means avoidance of loss; for every strike, with its halting of production and earnings, has caused a loss to the entire country. Often ill feeling has continued long after the settlement of a strike, with inevitable effects on the industry which has suffered the affliction. In every way this elimination of the strike is a material as well as a moral gain. It marks in our industrial life an increasing will toward peace, and belongs with the other advances in business intelligence which have enabled our people to enjoy the longest period of prosperity in their history. Every sign and portent indicates that with the experience we have now amassed, the wisdom we have gained, we shall make this prosperity and general contentment as nearly permanent as it is humanly possible to do.

It is with a feeling of satisfaction and pride that attention is invited to the large part the Department of Labor through its Conciliation Service has had in bringing about this condition. Through the tireless efforts of that service many strikes which threatened serious disruption to business and loss of employment to workers have been averted; through its mediation better understandings have been attained; and in countless instances harmony and contentment instead of strife and dissatisfaction prevails.

With elimination of the strike to prove increasing intelligence among our workers, I hope industry will be further improved by relief from a tendency that here and there lingers in business management. Nothing in our industrial life is so completely paralyzing as the reign of the Dead Hand, this blind subservience to what has always been done. This reign of the Dead Hand is pernicious in every sphere of life, but in the economic sphere it is deadly. The man in our time who says that what was good enough for his father is good enough for him is a son of whom no strong-minded father could be proud. Such a man is exactly on a par with one of the lowest tribes of Africa who say, whenever a stranger asks them the reason of one of their customs, "How should we know? Our fathers have always done so." When the railroads were first introduced in the Orient there were thousands upon thousands of orientals who objected to the new method of travel, saying that their fathers had always ridden on jackasses, and that what was good enough for their fathers was good enough for them. It is that attitude of mind which has kept all Asia economically backward. And we have some men in America so benighted that they echo this expression.

It is my firm conviction that the business genius of the future will devote its energies still further toward the American program of giving to the workers the highest wage that it is possible to pay; and that in the future men of business will be known and honored, not

alone for their success in building up gigantic corporations by issuing tremendous cash and stock dividends but rather for their constructive ability to raise the rate of wages and to lower the hours of work. All the signs of the time point in this direction.

The time is coming when the employers of labor will admit to their associations only those who pay an adequate wage; and they will take this step for economic reasons. They will take it because they know that the workers are, or may be, a large part of our economic prosperity. High wages will enable the workers to buy the products that they help to produce, and it will come to be the pride and joy of every member of an employers' association that he pays a wage that enables his employees to live up to our best American standard.

The workers of this country love the institutions and traditions of America. They respect our laws and customs, and they have not an atom of sympathy for the views of those who think otherwise. They have refused to have any dealings with those who are out of accord with American ideals, traditions, and institutions. Are not such workers entitled to consideration at the hands of those who employ them? I think they are.

We should ever bear in mind, of course, that our basic industries must be the basic fact of our purchasing power, and the material which they turn out ought to be sufficient to make a good return on the investment and to enable the employer to pay a wage high enough for the purchase of so-called luxuries.

Our well-being as a Nation depends largely on the prosperity of the workers. Our tariff has been so devised as to protect them from competition with foreign wage earners employed for less wages and living under lower standards than our own workers. The restrictive immigration law has spared our work people from competition at home with an unlimited number of immigrants who, if permitted to do so, would compete with our labor for jobs. We have seen the beneficial effect of these safeguards in the great progress of American industry. Both employers and employees have reaped the reward—satisfactory earnings for all concerned.

There may be some who will pronounce as radical the ideas here put forth, and, in the true sense of the word, they are radical; for a radical idea in the proper etymological sense is an idea that embraces the root of any given problem. Labor in the future will insist upon being a cooperator with and a partner of business, and its claim will be allowed because our great American progressive business men are not those who live on the traditions of the past, gripped by the dead hand of their ancestral generations, but men who themselves have come up from the ranks and know business life from top to bottom.

They know and admit, what must eventually be universally admitted, that the worker has the same right to prosper as the man who employs him; and that sound economics teach that the time is come when the prosperity of both depends upon the sound financial status of the former.

Respectfully,

JAMES J. DAVIS,
Secretary of Labor.

APPENDIX

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 Divi-

sion 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 Columbia, 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.

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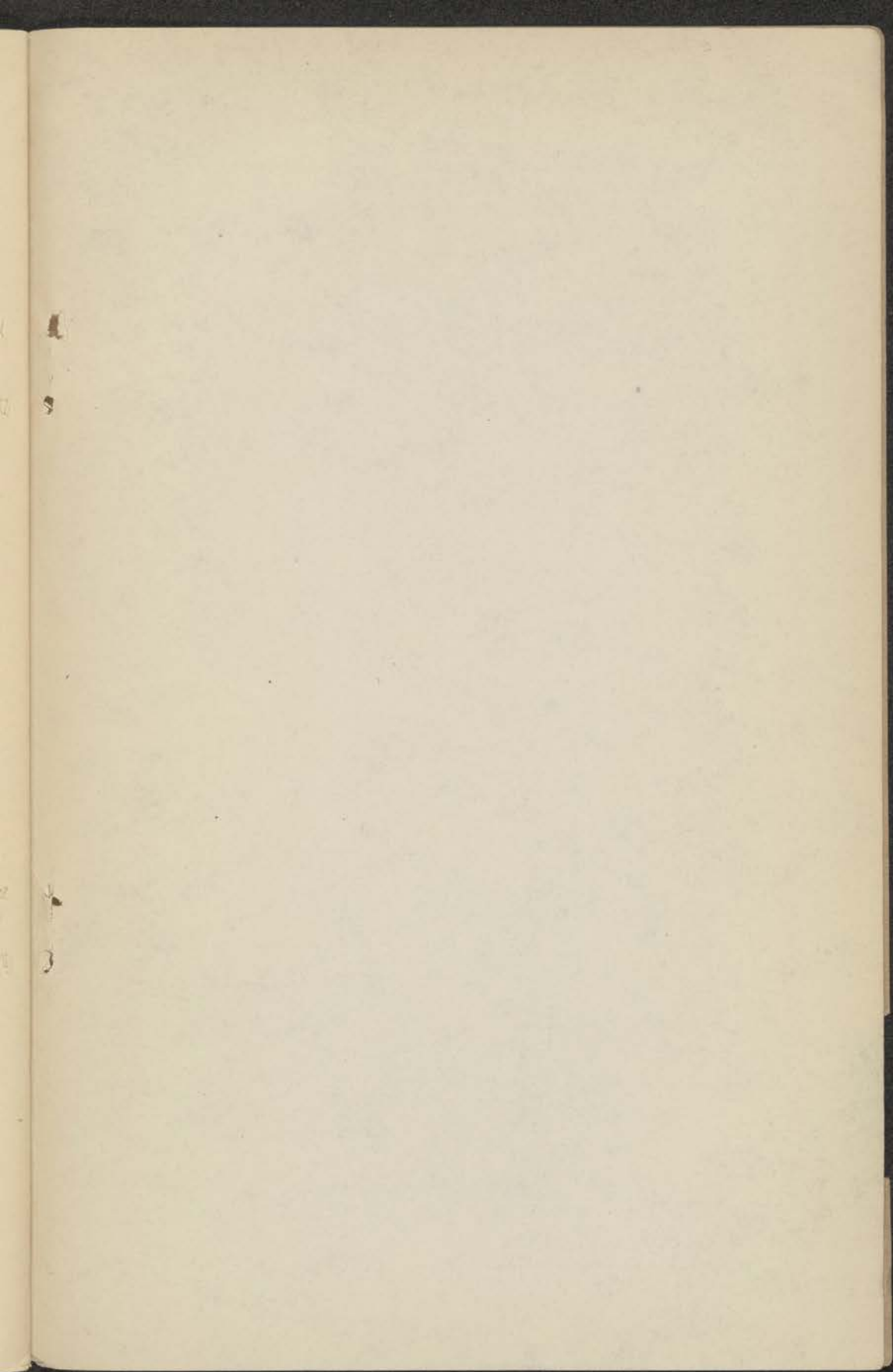
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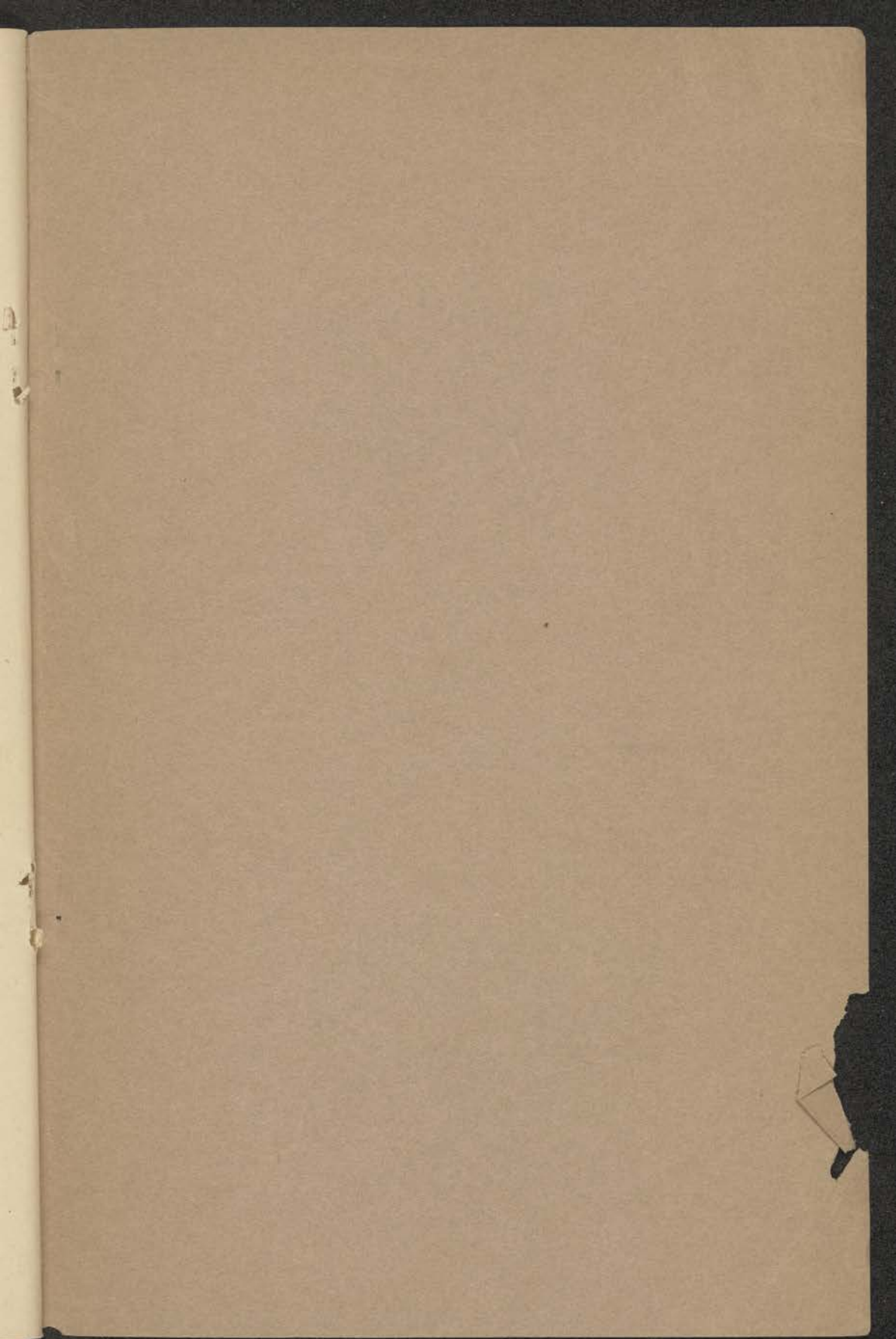
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