

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

ROYAL MEEKER, Commissioner

BULLETIN OF THE UNITED STATES } . . . { WHOLE
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS } . . . { NUMBER 192

EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT SERIES: No. 1

PROCEEDINGS OF THE AMER-
ICAN ASSOCIATION OF PUB-
LIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES

A N N U A L M E E T I N G S :
F I R S T—CHICAGO, DEC. 19 AND 20, 1913
S E C O N D—INDIANAPOLIS, SEPT. 24 AND 25, 1914
T H I R D—DETROIT, JULY 1 AND 2, 1915



MAY, 1916

WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1916

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BULLETIN OF THE U. S. BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS.

WHOLE NO. 192.

WASHINGTON.

MAY, 1916.

PREFACE.

Unemployment is the greatest evil of our competitive industrial system. We have been exceedingly slow to admit the actuality of involuntary unemployment. Even yet we more than half believe that he who seeks may find work at all times, and that unemployment is due to the refusal of workers to work. Only in periods of industrial crisis and depression do we awaken to some faint realization of the fact of unemployment and the tremendous money losses and the irreparable injuries to the character of workless workers resulting therefrom. With enormous toil and turmoil and clatter of preparation we organize soup houses, bread lines, and philanthropic "industries" which produce for the most part piffling wares of little or no utility at substandard wages. With the onset of good times we drop our fevered activities in formulating complete programs to take care of unemployment, relapse into our normal state of profound indifference, and speedily forget the unemployed and their unemployment. We have never as yet acknowledged or realized that the unemployed (another name for the poor) we have always with us. In the best of times there is in the United States an appalling amount of unemployment, even in our most stable industries. The exceedingly fragmentary statistics at our command indicate that the losses due to unemployment are immensely greater, both in money and in morals, than the losses due to industrial accidents or industrial illness. All these industrial hazards must be frankly recognized and frankly faced. The ostrich, we are told, thinks to efface his enemies from the landscape by burying his head in the sand. He is a firm believer in the blissfulness of ignorance and the folly of wisdom. We have much in common with the ostrich. We hold tenaciously to the philosophy that social, economic, and political evils exist only when we open our eyes to them—that industrial accidents, illness, and unemployment are not burdens until we provide some sane method of carrying or eliminating them. Until very recently our favorite method of dealing with industrial hazards, including involuntary unemployment, was to close our eyes tightly and bury our communal head in the sand.

The establishment of public employment offices recognizes the fact of unemployment and the principle of a measure of public responsibility for the causes of unemployment and the obligation to provide remedies for it. The formation of the American Association of Public Employment Offices shows that public employment officials have an intelligent comprehension of the significance of their work and the necessity for coordinating, extending, and improving it. The magnitude of the undertaking to weld our scattered American public employment offices into a nation-wide—even a continent-wide—system is only equaled by its importance. The discussions at the three annual meetings thus far held have dealt with fundamental principles and practical problems of the greatest interest and usefulness. It is highly desirable that the papers and discussions should be published for the information and benefit of all who are interested. Both at the Indianapolis meeting and the Detroit meeting the desire was expressed by the American Association of Public Employment Offices that the Federal Bureau of Labor Statistics might aid in making known the aims, problems, and accomplishments of the association by bringing out the proceedings as a bulletin of the bureau. The suggestion was directly in line with the policy adopted by the United States Department of Labor at its creation of cooperating in every possible way with State and local agencies having to do with labor matters. The proposal met with the hearty approval of the Secretary of Labor and the Commissioner of Labor Statistics. The publication by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the proceedings of the first three annual meetings of the American Association of Public Employment Offices brings us a long step nearer to a national system of employment offices. It is greatly to be desired that in future the proceedings may be brought out annually as a regular bulletin of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

ROYAL MEEKER,
Commissioner of Labor Statistics.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES.

INTRODUCTION.

Either by State law or municipal ordinance public employment offices have been established in more than half the States of the Union. Such offices are now in operation in about 100 cities.

Most of the laws and ordinances have been enacted or revised within the last five years. Problems of organizing and reorganizing the offices, devising and improving forms, establishing methods of management and business policies have now to be met by administrative officers in many States and cities. Little has been written on these administrative problems, and until recently there was no cooperation among the offices, so that learning from each other's experience was difficult. Many offices have gone ahead and repeated the mistakes that others had made and learned to correct. While methods of management are still largely experimental, certain standards have already been established, and no State can afford to establish employment bureaus without being informed of this experience.

If public employment offices are to accomplish their purpose of bringing man and job together, principles and details of practical administration must be worked out. Mere enactment of laws and reiteration of the benefits that labor exchanges make possible will not bring the results. To get the superintendents together to discuss their practical problems and to learn to improve their methods is the purpose of the American Association of Public Employment Offices. To help those who could not attend the meetings and to direct public attention to the principles involved in practically administering public employment offices are the reasons for publishing these proceedings.

No stenographic reports of the meetings were taken. Therefore, all the addresses and discussions can not be reproduced. This volume is compiled from the written papers of some of the speakers and from the notes of the secretary of the association. Grateful acknowledgment is due to Mr. Harry Jerome of the University of Wisconsin for assistance in editing and compiling these proceedings.

WM. M. LEISERSON,
Secretary-Treasurer.

ORGANIZATION OF THE ASSOCIATION.

CALL FOR CONFERENCE.

Letter sent to all superintendents of public employment offices, suggesting a conference.

MADISON, WIS., June 11, 1913.

DEAR SIR: Would you be interested in the organization of an American association of public employment offices? Several officers in charge of such offices, with whom I have spoken, have felt that we were not getting the benefit of each other's experience as we should. Your methods of handling men, of registering applicants and sending them to employers, of keeping records and making reports, your attempts at advertising, and your attitude toward private labor agents are things in which we are all interested, and when one has worked out a new, successful method of doing some particular thing, the others should be in a position to learn about it quickly, and to adopt it, if it is suited to their needs.

There are national organizations of labor officials and factory inspectors, but we can expect nothing from them because they can not know the practical details of our business, and it is for discussing these details that we need an organization most. The National Conference of Immigration, Land, and Labor Officials, which met in Chicago last November, discussed free employment offices, but this conference had so many purposes foreign to the free employment offices that its time could not be taken up by a discussion of the details of our business. Nor can we expect to get real results from the national organization of the commissioners of labor, under whose jurisdiction most of us are; for they have so many other problems to deal with they can hardly give the time to matters which concern mainly the superintendents of the employment offices. We ought to have an association whose membership will be made up of officials of employment bureaus.

The idea is to organize an "American association of public employment offices" such as the German and Swiss labor exchanges have. Then we could hold annual meetings to discuss our problems and to consider methods of extending and improving our service. Our country is so big that we shall probably need smaller subsidiary organizations in different sections, just as Germany has the North German Association, the Rhenish Association, the South German Association of Employment Offices, etc. But first we must form a national organization to direct the work.

The European associations at their annual meetings discuss such topics as methods of record keeping, the placing of skilled help and apprentices, distribution of immigrants and farm labor, advertising the work of employment offices, reporting the labor market, methods of following up and verifying positions secured, etc. I know that what our offices in Wisconsin need is the benefit of the experience of other offices on the problems that come to us, and we could no doubt give to others the benefit of our experience on some points. If we could have a meeting of the superintendents of all the offices to read and discuss papers on the management of employment offices, we might work out a more uniform method of doing business which would make cooperation among

the various State offices easier. A system of interchange of reports might also be devised, and from these accurate information as to the condition of the labor market throughout the country might be compiled and circulated. In time such an association of American employment offices might publish a monthly journal in which information about various offices could be made public, and in which the managers of the offices could discuss from month to month their various problems.

What do you think of getting to work on this proposition now? The National Conference of Immigration, Land, and Labor Officials adopted resolutions requesting the new Federal Department of Labor to take steps to coordinate the work of the State employment agencies; but it hardly seems probable that the Federal Government will act until we start the movement ourselves. I am writing letters similar to this to all the western free employment offices; and Mr. Sears, of the Boston office, is trying to line up the East.

If you are interested, will you please write us your views and indicate whether you would be willing to serve on a committee on temporary organization? We can then summarize the views of all who have answered and send the information in a circular to all the offices in the country. After that it would be an easy matter to arrange a preliminary program for a meeting and call a national convention for the purpose of organization.

Awaiting your reply, I am,

Very truly, yours,

(Signed) WM. M. LEISERSON,

Suprintendent Wisconsin Employment Offices.

FOLLOW-UP LETTER.

MADISON, WIS., *September 25, 1913.*

DEAR SIR: In June a letter was addressed to the officials of all free employment offices requesting their opinion regarding the organization of an American association of public employment offices, for the purpose of exchanging views on methods of doing business, of promoting uniform systems of management and of developing cooperation among the various offices.

The replies have all agreed that such an association is needed. Following is an extract from one of the letters which excellently summarizes the views:

When I engaged in this work I was notified on June 27 that I would take charge of this bureau and open the books of this office on July 1, and I had never seen the inside of an employment office in my life; and since that time the only assistance I have had was that of calling on other free employment bureaus when in other cities. Realizing the importance of this work could it be carried forward along the right lines, I have used every effort to work out plans which will make it a success; and I realize more every day that one or two bureaus or a single State's efforts will never develop this work, but there must be an organized effort and uniform methods employed, with an interchange of information and reports as well as the movement of seasonal labor between the States.

Two difficulties, however, seem to stand out in most of the letters: (1) The impossibility of getting representatives from offices in remote parts of the country to come to such meetings, and (2) the expense of maintaining such an organization.

Both of these difficulties may be overcome if a suggestion of Commissioner of Labor Houk, of Minnesota, be adopted. He suggests that a "Midwestern association of public employment offices" be formed, to include the States of Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Ohio, and Wisconsin. Coopera-

tion among these States is a more immediate possibility and there would be little difficulty in attending meetings at a central point. The cost of attending would be small, and aside from that there need be practically no other expense. The meetings could be held in one of the employment offices, and proceedings could be published in the reports of any of the State labor departments.

Chicago seems to be the most central meeting place and December the best month because it is ordinarily the slackest in the employment business. Please let us know if it would be agreeable to you to send representatives of your offices to Chicago to meet on December 29 and 30 for the purpose of organizing such an association of public employment offices.

Inclosed is a tentative program with subjects for discussion. Will you kindly indicate which of these you or any of the superintendents of your offices would be willing to discuss at the meeting?

Yours, very truly,

(Signed) W. M. LEISELSON.

CONSTITUTION OF THE ASSOCIATION.

NAME.

ARTICLE 1. This organization shall be called "The American Association of Public Employment Offices."

OBJECTS.

ART. 2. It is organized for the following purposes:

1. To improve the efficiency of the public employment offices now in existence.
2. To work for the establishment of such offices in all the States.
3. To secure cooperation and closer connection between the offices in each State and among the States.
4. To promote uniform methods of doing business in all the public employment offices.
5. To secure a regular interchange of information and reports among the various offices.
6. To secure a proper distribution of labor throughout the country by the cooperation of municipal, State, and Federal governments.

MEMBERSHIP.

ART. 3. All persons connected with Federal, State, Provincial, or municipal departments that operate public employment offices shall be eligible to membership in this association.

DUES.

ART. 4. All members of the association shall pay annually \$1 in dues.

OFFICERS.

ART. 5. The officers of this association shall be a president, a vice president, and a secretary-treasurer, to be elected annually at the conventions of the association. Each of these officers shall be from a different State. There shall be also an executive committee composed of one member from each State not rep-

resented by the officers, who shall be members of this committee. The president shall be chairman of the executive committee, and the secretary of the association shall be the secretary also of the executive committee.

It shall be the duty of the executive committee to do all the active work of the association, make investigations, distribute information to members, and do such other things as it may deem advisable to promote the objects of the association.

MEETINGS.

ART. 6. Annual meetings of this association shall be called by the executive committee at such times and places as the executive committee may choose, provided that all members shall receive at least 30 days' notice of each meeting.

AMENDMENTS.

ART. 7. This constitution may be changed at any meeting of the association.

AMENDMENT.¹

Article 5 is amended to read as follows:

"The officers of this association shall be a president, four vice presidents and a secretary-treasurer, to be elected annually at the convention of the association. The president, the vice presidents and the secretary-treasurer shall constitute an executive committee. The president shall be chairman of the executive committee, and the secretary of the association shall be the secretary also of the executive committee."

OFFICERS AND EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE OF THE ASSOCIATION.

1915-16.

President.—Charles B. Barnes, director bureau of employment, State of New York.

Vice presidents.—Walter L. Sears,² New York City; Francis Payette, Montreal; H. J. Beckerle, Milwaukee; Hilda Muhlhauser, Cleveland.

Secretary-Treasurer.—W. M. Leiserson, Toledo University, Toledo, Ohio.

1914-15.

President.—W. F. Hennessy, commissioner of employment, Cleveland.

Vice presidents.—Mrs. W. L. Essman, Milwaukee; J. W. Calley, Chicago; Walter L. Sears, New York City; Edwin Dickle, Toronto.

Secretary-Treasurer.—W. M. Leiserson.

1913-14.

President.—Fred. C. Croxton, Columbus, Ohio.

Vice president.—James V. Cunningham, Lansing, Mich.

Secretary-Treasurer.—W. M. Leiserson.

¹ Adopted at the annual meeting of the association, 1914.

² Died December 15, 1915.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE CHICAGO MEETING, DECEMBER 19 AND 20, 1913.

PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES IN THE UNITED STATES.¹

W. M. LEISELSON, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF EMPLOYMENT OFFICES,
WISCONSIN.

Public employment offices are bureaus established for the purpose of bringing together wage earners seeking employment and employers seeking help. Their services are free both to employers and to workers, the expenses being met either by the State or the municipalities, and sometimes by both.

There are now² in existence 61 public employment offices in the United States, distributed over 19 States. All but 7 of them are conducted by the State governments. In Seattle, Tacoma, Spokane, and Everett, Wash.; Butte and Great Falls, Mont.; and Newark, N. J., the offices are conducted by the municipalities.

The State of Ohio took the lead in establishing free employment offices. In 1890 its legislature passed a law creating an office in each of the important cities of the State—Cincinnati, Cleveland, Columbus, Dayton, and Toledo. Following the depression of 1892, a number of other States and cities established employment offices, but up to 1900 the movement was slow, experimental, and not very successful on the whole. Within the last 10 years, however, many States have studied the subject. They have framed laws more carefully, increased the appropriations for the work, and in other ways have attempted to promote the efficiency of the offices.

All but a few of the public employment offices now in operation have been established since 1900. Illinois and Wisconsin opened their first offices in 1899; now there are six in the former and four in the latter State. The commissioner of labor of Missouri organized a free employment office at St. Louis in 1899 without legislative authorization; since then the State has passed a law establishing three offices. Minnesota began with a municipal office in 1901. This was taken over by the State and two others have been created. Kansas passed its free employment bureau law in 1901, and the same

¹ Extract from Appendix III of the report on unemployment in the State of New York prepared in 1911 by W. M. Leiserson for the commission on employers' liability and unemployment.

² Refers to 1911. For the more recent developments see article entitled "The movement for public labor exchanges," *Journal of Political Economy*, July, 1915, p. 707.

year Connecticut established five offices. Massachusetts began with the Boston office in 1906, and since then offices have also been opened in Springfield and Fall River. Michigan in 1905 passed a law establishing two offices. Three more were added in 1907, and the legislature of 1909 added three more, making eight in all. Oklahoma has recently established three offices, Rhode Island and Indiana one each, and in Newark, N. J., a municipal office was organized two years ago.

The conditions which have led to the establishment of these free employment offices have varied in the different States. In most cases abuses by the private employment agencies have been powerful arguments for the establishment of public offices. The lack of farm labor in the agricultural States and the presence of large numbers of unemployed wage earners in the industrial centers have greatly helped the movement. The growing belief that it is the duty of the State to prevent idleness as far as possible and the example of foreign Governments and neighboring States have also been important causes.

Where the State conducts the employment offices, they are usually connected with the bureau of labor, and the commissioner of labor is the responsible head. In Kansas the office of "director of free employment" has been created. Where the bureau is maintained by a municipality the superintendent is usually responsible directly to the mayor. In Newark, N. J., the city clerk conducts the free employment bureau.

The office force, including the superintendent, is in most cases appointed by the commissioner of labor, who also has the power of removal. A few States give power of appointment and removal to the governor. The mayor, with the approval of the city council, usually appoints the staff in the municipal employment offices. In Tacoma the mayor appoints the superintendent upon recommendation of a commission representing the city council, the chamber of commerce, and the trade-unions; while in Seattle a civil-service examination is required. The selection of the staffs in the three Massachusetts offices is also by civil-service examinations.

The size of the office force is in most States limited by law, and this has been a great weakness in the public employment offices of the country. The general rule is to have a superintendent and one clerk, while in some States only a superintendent is provided for each office. Massachusetts alone has no legal limit to the size of the staff, and the Boston office has, besides the superintendent, eight clerks and a caretaker. In Illinois a superintendent, an assistant, and a clerk are appointed for each office. Four States—Indiana, Maryland, Nebraska, and West Virginia—require the commissioner of labor to conduct a free employment office in the office of the bureau of labor, usually with the same office force.

The salary of the superintendent in no State is more than \$1,500 per annum. From \$1,200 to \$1,500 is usually paid. In a few of the smaller offices the salary is \$900. Clerks are paid from \$600 to \$1,000, and where there are chief clerks or assistant superintendents, the salary is from \$1,000 to \$1,200.

Office methods vary greatly in different States, and even within the same States different offices use different methods. Most of the laws require that there shall be separate rooms for men and for women. Only one office, that of Boston, has further division into departments for skilled and unskilled workers.

In Indiana, Kansas, Maryland, Nebraska, New Jersey, and West Virginia practically all the applications for employment as well as for help are made by mail. This mail-order system is necessary where no appropriation is made for fitting up and maintaining free employment offices, and where the work has to be carried on in the rooms of the bureau of labor statistics or of the city clerk. No efficient system of bringing together the supply of labor and the demand can be carried on by mail alone. In Iowa, and in Montana (where offices were given up) the mail-order system was used; and the least successful offices now in existence are those which conduct a mail-order business.

The laws generally stipulate that records shall be kept of the name, address, and character of work or help desired by each applicant. A few States require that a separate register be kept giving sex, nationality, duration of unemployment, etc., of each applicant, but this is not to be open to public inspection, and it is not obligatory on any applicant to give this information. In Massachusetts the bureau of statistics must devise the forms for keeping the records of the employment offices.

There is little uniformity and practically no cooperation among the various offices, even within a State. Hardly in any office are all the applicants registered. In many cases employers' applications are not taken if the help they want is not available, and there is a general practice of not registering applicants for employment unless there is some work to which they can be referred. This makes the statistics of the public employment offices very unreliable. It makes the proportion of applicants for whom work is found and the proportion of vacancies which are filled very high and gives no idea of the actual supply of labor and demand for help. The statistics of the number of positions filled are also not very reliable. The methods of finding out whether the men sent to employers have secured the positions are lax in many cases, and in few offices are they alike. The most efficient scheme has been devised in Boston, where a clerk verifies every position filled by means of the telephone or by mail.

In some States the superintendent of each office is required to make weekly reports to the commissioner of labor of the applications for employment and for help. The commissioner must publish these and distribute them throughout the State. This work has not been very successful, the results seldom justifying the expense. In most States the superintendent makes monthly reports to the commissioner of labor, who publishes them in his annual report.

The policy of the public employment offices in times of strike is shaped by their official heads. The first laws of Illinois and Wisconsin contained clauses prohibiting the superintendents from supplying help to employers whose workmen were on strike. These clauses were declared unconstitutional by the courts. In many States the trade-unions have secured the appointment of their men as commissioners or superintendents to look after their interests. Thus labor men have been favorable on the whole to the free employment offices, while employers have rather opposed them. In Massachusetts the applicant is informed of the existence of a strike by having his introduction card stamped to that effect. Then he may apply for the position or not, as he sees fit.

The total number of places found annually for wage earners by the public employment offices is about 300,000. The cost varies greatly. In Seattle, Wash., where the office places large numbers of unskilled workers in hop fields and lumber camps, the cost per position secured is only 4 cents. In some of the smaller offices the cost is as high as \$2, \$3, and even \$4 per position secured. In most offices, however, the average expense of finding a position for an applicant is less than \$1.

Illinois spends more money than any other State for employment bureaus. It appropriates annually over \$40,000 for the maintenance of its six offices. Massachusetts spends about \$20,000 annually on its three employment offices. In three or four States the law stipulates that not more than \$10,000 shall be appropriated for this work, and in about half a dozen States the expenses for the free employment offices have to be met from the appropriations for the conduct of the bureaus of labor. Massachusetts and Illinois, which have the largest appropriations, are doing the most effective work.

BUREAUS OF EMPLOYMENT IN EUROPE.

PROF. CHARLES R. HENDERSON, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

Fortunately we have a recently published report which gives us all the facts which it is possible to gather on our subject,¹ and I have used it freely in this paper.

¹ Bulletin trimestriel de l'Association internationale pour la lutte contre le chômage, July-September, 1913.

Two eminent statisticians of the German Empire, Dr. Freund and Dr. Zacher, were appointed in 1912 to gather from all nations the statistics of the bureaus of employment, in accordance with a previous resolution taken in 1910. No more reliable authorities could be selected. A schedule was sent to be filled out, and explanations and recommendations were solicited. Fifteen countries sent replies. Drs. Freund and Zacher arranged the tables and summarized the results.

Their first conclusion was: "The actual position as regards employment bureaus is almost everywhere unsatisfactory. The scattered nature of the organizations and the diversity of the methods of administration make it impossible to obtain a clear general view of the situation of the labor market at a given moment, to determine with certainty the number of workers available and the number of vacant places, to establish a rational equilibrium between supply and demand, to draw up useful statistics of the labor market, and to take preventive measures in time against unemployment."

It is desirable that this expert judgment, since it includes the United States, should be known here, and that we should try to understand how serious the situation is. We can never make progress while we choose to live in a fool's paradise and shut our eyes to disagreeable truth. All that we can do is mere patchwork and quackery until we have a scientific foundation in knowledge and the organization for obtaining knowledge of facts.

The international committee declares that this "survey reveals a multiplicity of forms, a splitting up into fragments, and huge gaps in the methods of employment agencies which actually amounts to anarchy. The only exception is England, which is the only nation which can show a network of employment agencies over the whole economic field which is unified and regulated by law. But even the English report gives no information whether and in how far there are, in addition to the State offices, other employment offices, especially those of employers or of employees; whether for the total number of the wage earners (14,000,000), of whom the State offices served only 500,000, there are agencies; and whether and how far the State organization is gradually drawing in the other offices and establishing a monopoly." This seems, from some figures given, to be the tendency, but the time of operation is still too short for assured judgment.

A distinguished and honored citizen of our country has recently published an article, which has been widely quoted in the newspapers, in which he held up the German system as a model of unified, interlocking, systematic provisions for securing employment. No doubt some of these offices are doing excellent work; but this German report

is far from optimistic. The statistics and descriptions show that the organization of the labor market in Germany is very imperfect, "The two essential principles of a rational system of labor exchanges—neutrality and centralization—are far from being realized. The principle of neutrality is broken down particularly by the employment bureaus of interested parties, such as employers and employees. On the other hand, the labor exchanges are not centralized according to localities or trades, nor even interlocally. Interlocal centralization is equally a vital necessity in enabling the labor exchange to fulfill its essential work of maintaining, on the largest possible scale, the balance between the supply of and demand for labor" (pp. 689, 690). "The first attempt in the way of interlocal centralization was made by the federations of public labor exchanges. At the present time these exist in all the federated States except two, Mecklenburg and Bremen. In addition, all the Provinces of Prussia possess them or are taking steps for their organization. But for the success of their work, the federations need to become institutions established by public law. Lacking this, they are dependent on the good will of local authorities, having neither the power to create nor the right to inspect employment bureaus, profit making or otherwise. Finally, from the financial point of view, they are at the mercy of the State and the communes, whose subventions can at any moment be stopped.

"Besides the reform which aims at equipping the federations with the necessary legal powers, there should be created for the whole Empire a central organization to be intrusted, as a beginning, with the task of unifying at least the labor exchange statistics."

This must be taken as an official and authoritative statement of the situation in Germany.

FRANCE.

The situation in France is set forth in the statement of these facts furnished to the international association:

The gratuitous, semiphilanthropic exchanges are not growing in usefulness. The bureaus maintained by employers filled 324,000 places out of a total of 812,000 in 1911; the public free bureaus filled fewer than 100,000 places. About two-thirds of this work was done in Paris alone, chiefly for workers in the provision trades, domestic service, and hairdressing.

The profit-making bureaus filled 259,129 places, 239,884 of which were filled by domestic servants. The law of 1904, which was designed to suppress these profit-making offices, evidently failed of its purpose, since of 709 such exchanges existing in 1911, 235 have been created since March 14, 1904. Until good public exchanges are established these costly and dangerous offices will be able to exist in spite of adverse legislation.

But in France the half-measures of the public have made little progress. The State set apart in its budget 35,000 francs (\$6,755) to subsidize satisfactory municipal employment bureaus under joint management of employers and employed. Yet out of nearly 200 towns where bureaus nominally exist, there have been scarcely 20 which met the conditions of receiving the subsidy from the Government.

Various propositions have been made, but nothing satisfactory and adequate has been done by the supreme legislature.

AUSTRIA.

In Austria the public employment bureaus take various forms, there being no Imperial law to regulate them on uniform principles. Bohemia and Galicia have regulated employment bureaus by legislation in those Crown lands, in 1903 and 1904. Little has been done to encourage public employment bureaus by subsidies.

Public employment bureaus due to private initiative exist in all the Provinces, except Dalmatia and Carinthia. All these institutions are linked, very loosely and inefficiently, by the Imperial Federation founded in 1906.

Side by side with these public institutions there are in Austria bureaus organized by corporations, employers' associations, workmen's trade-unions, charitable, religious, social, and economic societies, and profit-making employment bureaus. The public bodies play the most important part. About one-half of their operations deal with domestic servants, and more than 40 per cent deal with workers in industry and in handicraft. The charitable bureaus deal principally with domestic servants; the profit-making bureaus find situations in about an equal proportion for servants and other wage earners, particularly in the catering trade. The finding of places in agriculture is effected principally by the public bureaus. In 1911 the Agricultural Society of Vienna created a central employment bureau for agriculture, in order to supply laborers to the Alpine regions. For some time this office has also undertaken to place laborers in other agricultural regions.

The most important exchanges are those of Vienna and the Bohemian cities.

The attitude of trade-unions toward public exchanges in Austria has changed from time to time, organized workers actually applying in large numbers to the public offices.

Hungary has no system based on the principles of neutrality and centralization. Three important exchanges are conducted by public officials and representatives of employers. Subsidies are paid by the State, by the cities, and by employers.

BELGIUM.

Employers have one exchange, established by the chamber of commerce. Some of the trade-unions try to place their members in situations, but their statistics are imperfect. A few offices are maintained by associations for providing workmen's dwellings. Philanthropic societies have a certain number of bureaus. Many efforts have been made, with some success, to establish exchanges in the management of which employers and employees are represented.

DENMARK.

The employment bureaus of the employers are few and relatively unimportant. Those organized by the wage earners number 21, with 73,235 members; their central office has not yet become very effective. The city of Copenhagen has a local exchange supported by the municipality and governed by a committee which represents employers and employees. In April, 1913, the legislature enacted a law in regard to labor exchanges which provides for the regulation of local public exchanges and a central office at the capital. The bureaus are to be governed by a committee of at least seven members elected by the municipal council or similar body, with equal representation of employers and employed; the chairman must be independent of both sides. The central office is a branch of government. The services of placement are gratuitous. Cost of transportation is to be met by the exchanges. The local bureaus are required to cooperate with the others through the central office.

Local bureaus are supported by the public funds of the municipalities served, with a subsidy of one-third of the expenses from the State.

ITALY.

There is only one bureau maintained by employers. The exchanges of the employees are maintained by labor offices, national trade-unions, isolated leagues, and organizations of agricultural laborers. There are a few not very important mixed exchanges, maintained by employers and employees, chiefly for bakers and hotel waiters.

There is only one municipal exchange. The State has only exchanges for sailors at the ports.

The famous Società Umanitaria at Milan has done some effective work on a small scale.

Italy has little to teach or encourage us on this point, according to the report of their committee.

SWITZERLAND.

Eighty-five bureaus replied to the question list; 24 are under joint management of employers and employed; 43 are affiliated with a federation, and 14 of this number with a federation which main-

tains exchange of information with States outside Switzerland. Thirteen bureaus ignore trade disputes; 20 notify both parties of the existence of a dispute and continue to work; 23 bureaus take part in disputes by boycotting one of the two parties. Nineteen bureaus were connected with unemployment relief funds. The Swiss union of labor offices, created about 10 years ago, comprises 15 public exchanges, with headquarters at Zurich; and the public exchange is gradually showing its superiority to those privately conducted in the interest of a party. The organization in Switzerland is worth study.

GREAT BRITAIN.

The most complete system yet constructed is that of Great Britain, which began its activity in February, 1909, under the Labor Exchanges Act of 1909. This law has few sections and merely gives the Board of Trade power to establish or take over labor exchanges, to assist labor exchanges maintained by other authorities, to collect and furnish information as to employers requiring workpeople and workpeople seeking employment; to establish advisory committees for the purpose of giving the Board of Trade advice and assistance, and to make regulations as to the management of labor exchanges, with special reference to the question of advancing fares as loans to workmen proceeding to employment.

The United Kingdom was divided into divisions for convenience in administration, with an office for each division and all being connected with the central office in London. There are 8 divisions, with 430 exchanges. These exchanges are also organs of the new unemployment insurance, in which policy Great Britain boldly leads the world.

Women are dealt with so far as possible by women officers, and a special staff takes care of juveniles. The buildings used permit of classification of applicants: Insurable and uninsurable, artisans and laborers, women, girls, boys have separate accommodations when desirable.

Applicants for situations fill in suitable forms, which are indexed, and they are notified when places are found for which they are adapted. Applications for workpeople are received by telephone, telegram, letter, or personal call.

“The duty of the manager of the exchange is first of all to endeavor to fill such vacancies as may be notified to him from his current or live register. Should, however, he be unable to do so, he communicates by means of special forms or cards with the divisional center to which that exchange is attached, which in its turn circulates the unfilled vacancies notified from the various exchanges under its control to the other exchanges in its district where applications of the class required are likely to be found. Should it not be

possible to fill the vacancy within the division, the divisional office circulates it to the other divisions, where a similar procedure is followed. Thus an application for employment or a vacancy notified entirely loses its local character and becomes available throughout the whole country."

In case of strike or lockout the association of employers or workmen may give a confidential notice of the fact to the exchange, and applicants are notified of the dispute and act accordingly. This procedure, it is claimed, has been satisfactory to both sides.

It is cruel mockery to offer a man a job at a distance when his shoe soles are already worn out, his stomach growling for food, his energy depleted by starvation, and his pocketbook long since empty. An essential feature of the English system is the provision for advancing railway fare to the place where work is found. In the year 1912, 96,189 persons took advantage of this measure, 12.3 per cent of all vacancies filled. Of the sum advanced, 94.4 per cent was repaid, and all but a trifle (1.6 per cent) would be paid in time. This advantageous measure is subject to the following conditions:

(1) That the privilege is limited to workmen for whom vacancies have been found through a labor exchange.

(2) That the advance is a loan and in no way a gift or act of charity, and that it must be repaid, by installments if necessary, which may be deducted from the workman's wages by the employer in convenient amounts.

(3) That fares may not be advanced in cases of workmen proceeding to vacancies caused by a trade dispute affecting their trade, or to vacancies where the wages offered are lower than those current in the trade in the district where the employment is found.

Without pretending to offer a complete program, the review of European experience suggests a few conclusions from the survey.

1. The necessity of establishing a central, national, nonpartisan organization is generally recognized by expert opinion; it is realized only in Great Britain; and even there it is still experimental.

In the United States the constitutional limitations upon the authority of Congress would probably make the British system impossible; but it might be possible to maintain a bureau at Washington whose function would be:

(a) To collect and circulate information about the labor market in all the important centers of the Union;

(b) To extend and improve the present facilities for guiding and protecting immigrants in search of places to work;

(c) To secure Federal legislative and administrative control of movements of labor between the States and in interstate commerce.

2. The several States should each have a central organization, a

network of free employment exchanges, all combined in a cooperative system, and equipped with means and authority for effective service.

3. The municipalities should have their own local exchanges, but these should be under control and direction of the State system, with such local functions as would adapt them to peculiar needs of communities.

**WHAT IS THE MATTER WITH OUR FREE EMPLOYMENT OFFICES?—
DISCUSSION.**

Mr. CROXTON, Columbus, Ohio. Employment offices do not get enough information about the unemployed. Why do the same people apply over and over again at the offices? Why are there so few skilled among them? These are some of the fundamental questions which employment offices ought to answer.

Mr. HALBERT, Kansas City, Mo. The main trouble with State free employment agencies is that they have not sufficient funds. Then the office force has not a permanent tenure of office. There is constant changing of administrations, and hence officials can not become experts. There are not enough State and municipal agencies. We must change the industrial system so as to absorb the labor supply. How do this? We must force all employment through the Government agencies. This would provide useful statistics for the future. Unemployment insurance is needed. We should put the highest premium on the most risky business; this will compel business men to be more regular in their employment because of the lower insurance fees.

Mr. CUNNINGHAM, Lansing, Mich. I will not admit that there is anything fundamentally wrong with free employment offices. They are doing the best they can under the circumstances. Of course, there is room for improvement. There are not enough of them, and they have not enough funds. In Michigan the law provides for eight offices, but no additional appropriation was granted when the last three were created, so they have not been opened. Competition of the private agencies keeps the public ones from growing. The private agencies solicit business and do much advertising. It is said that they even bribe foremen to give them orders. One private agency in Detroit pays its manager \$16 a day. One of our great difficulties is the "cheap lodging-house crowd" that keeps hanging around the offices. They are bad, do not care to work, and they keep the good men away. The free offices should advertise more and get people to understand that this is not a charity.

Mr. DUFFIN, Terre Haute, Ind. My State has five public employment offices. Some of these are successful and others are more so. When superintendents put in time to get acquainted with employers

they can get more business. Unless they do this the private agencies, which are always soliciting business, will beat them. In Terre Haute the public office has given satisfaction to employers, and this has been the best advertising for the office. The trouble with free employment offices has been that the superintendents got salaries. What we need is men who will earn wages. A salary is what you get. Wages are what you earn.

Mr. REYNOLDS, Minnesota. Superintendents are not interested in the work of the offices. There should be the same interest as people have in their private business. This can be done and thus confidence of employers and of workers gained, as in Milwaukee. There is practically no cooperation among employment offices at the present time. These should be organized into one system. Then there is no uniformity in methods or in record keeping. Uniform systems and close organization of the labor market is needed.

Mr. BECKERLE, Milwaukee, Wis. The first essential is a proper office force. In Milwaukee all the office force are under civil-service appointment. Only the best men are used for the office. Under the old system the office clerks were political appointees. The newspapers will do much advertising free of charge. We must learn the employers' needs and know the exact conditions in the places of work. We must get acquainted with the foremen and know how to please them. We must not show charity by giving an unfit man a place, but give the place to the best man. Lastly, we must get acquainted with the hangers-on, offer them work, follow their records, and drive out those who will not take steady work.

Mr. SCHERER, Peoria, Ill. Sometimes employers are too indefinite in statement of the time limit within which they desire help. One large company sends in orders for men, and then often some of the last men to go to the job are returned. There are some hangers-on always in the office, but there is usually some call for these.

Mr. EAKINS, Chicago, Ill. It is necessary to go out after the work. There should be a special man to do this; the superintendent has not time to attend to this matter. There are keen men from the private agencies in competition. At present the free agencies get the refuse after all the best has been picked out in the private agency. The solicitor must be an able and well-posted man.

Mr. LEISENSON, Wisconsin. Although we are hampered by lack of funds and other handicaps, there is much we can do if we go at it right. It all depends on us who are in charge of the offices. In the summer time there are more jobs than men; we must hustle then to get men. If the agency can not get the men, it must advertise for them. If necessary, it must go to the "dump" (cheap lodging house) for them. Try to induce the employers to come to the office and deal personally with the men. The bookkeeping of the office is not with money, but

with jobs and men. Records are of value for statistical purposes, and also to enable the office to fit the man to the job. The careful fitting of men to jobs can not be accomplished without adequate records. If we adopt methods like these we can greatly increase our business and win the confidence of the public. Then the legislatures will support the offices as they ought to be supported.

HOW TO ORGANIZE A STATE SYSTEM OF EMPLOYMENT OFFICES.— DISCUSSION.

Mr. SEARS, Boston, Mass. Free public employment offices should be organized under the laws of the respective States and be under the direction of a board or commission having to do with labor matters.

They should be so constituted as to provide a real market place for the buyer and seller of labor, to provide a meeting place or exchange where those in search of help or employment may be brought together for mutual benefit.

They should be so constituted as to provide a real market place. They should be managed on strictly business lines, the same as any highly organized and well-conducted business. The duty of the officials should be to furnish the public with information as to where help or employment might be obtained.

These offices should be located in the chief geographical and railroad centers, not less than 25 miles apart, unless it is evident, in a large metropolitan city, that the public convenience and necessity require the establishment of other offices.

There should be a provision for interchange of information relative to opportunities which can not readily be filled by the local office and also where there is a considerable number of a particular kind or class of help idle.

The system should be uniform in all the offices, or as nearly so as practicable.

The offices should be located preferably on the street floor, in well ventilated and lighted quarters, with separate entrances for male and female help, and accessible to the greatest number of people. Quarters with entrances on two streets have an advantage over the one-street place. There should be separate departments for the various kinds of help, the number of such departments to depend upon the number of people to be served and the size of quarters. A small office could have two departments, male and female, and this could be enlarged upon as conditions and demands require, so that an ideal office would have the following nine departments: (Male) Mercantile help; minors, with a vocational counselor in charge; industrial and mechanical trades; hotel, restaurant, and culinary help; farm hands

and general laborers; (female) mercantile and factory help; hotel, restaurant, and culinary help; certain classes of institution help; domestics and dayworkers. A competent person should be in charge of each department.

The administration or office division should have: An employers' registry clerk, to take charge of all orders received for help—whether in person, by mail, or telephone—with an assistant if necessary; a clerk to act as statistician or record clerk; a delinquent-employers clerk; a stenographer; a clerk in charge of employees' special applications; a superintendent and an assistant superintendent, the latter to have charge of a department and to act in the absence of the superintendent; a clerk to have charge of all handicapped cases sent in by the charities and public benefactors, also paroled and discharged prisoners and juvenile delinquents.

Whenever we have an opportunity to place a discharged or paroled prisoner or a juvenile delinquent, we inform the prospective employer of the facts about the applicant. We do not believe it good policy to advertise widely our work in this line, for the reason that it might result in a loss of public confidence in the office. A certain number of handicapped cases can be assimilated with our regular business, but we have a duty to a large number of the public whose interests are, perhaps, much greater and of more importance.

During the dull periods, certain clerks could be sent out to visit employers to request cooperation. I do not believe that we should have solicitors outside of the office, for though it might be perfectly legitimate, it could be construed as competing with private enterprise and make the office open to criticism. We are, in a sense, in competition with private enterprise, yet we should not be offensively so. Our office hours and methods of doing business should conform in a general way with those of the high-class private agencies. We should depend upon the rendering of efficient service to obtain and retain public confidence.

Mr. LEISENSON, Wisconsin. Our experience has shown that there should be a central office in the State to act as a sort of a clearing house for all the offices in the State. This should be in charge of a State superintendent whose business it would be to conduct all the offices on a uniform plan and to connect them into one system. The State superintendent should also train the office force of each of the offices and supervise their work. He should visit the offices regularly and keep tab on their business and methods. He should also travel over the State to get acquainted with employers, workers, and conditions of labor and to solicit business for the offices.

In Wisconsin we have four offices and the State superintendent has a central office at the capitol in Madison. Each office sends a

daily report to this office showing the business done, classified by industries and occupations. In this way if one office shows a demand for help which it can not fill, while another has applications for employment which might be used to fill the order, we try to fill it from this other office.

Our State superintendent is also supervisor of private employment agencies, and that is a good plan to adopt in organizing a State system of public offices. It takes an employment agent to catch an employment agent. No ordinary inspector can get on to all the tricks of the private agencies. But the superintendent of the public offices knows all the details of the business and he is therefore best fitted to regulate the private agencies. This, by the way, is the real reason why the agents object so strenuously to placing the regulation of private offices under the same management as the public offices. The State system of employment offices should be connected with the State labor department because the management of the offices is interwoven with many labor questions and with a knowledge of the labor conditions in the State. Besides, the employment offices are but a part of a program of dealing with the whole problem of unemployment which we must work out in the future and which the labor departments will have to administer.

Now, unfortunately, labor departments are generally considered purely political offices, and not only political parties but capital and labor each try to get control of them. The management of the employment offices is an administrative and technical matter and should not change with political administration. There may be some fundamental questions of policy that depend on different political views. These should be decided by the head of the department, who is a political officer and represents the successful political party. All other members of the staff of employment offices, including the State superintendent, should be civil-service appointees.

The objection is made that you can not get good men for superintendents by written examinations. But civil service does not depend upon such examinations. I, as State superintendent, took an examination, but it consisted merely of an interview with the chief examiner and some members of the civil-service commission. But a better scheme of examination has been adopted in selecting the superintendents for the Milwaukee office. There we have a committee representing employers, unions, and the State labor department, sitting with the civil-service examiners and conducting the examination. This consists mainly of oral interviews. There is also a written test, but it counts for only three points out of ten and is designed only to see if candidates have the minimum education needed for the work. By means of these examinations we have secured not only first-class

men but also men who both employers and unions confidently believe will do their work impartially as between capital and labor.

Impartiality must be the prime principle in managing public employment offices. So many have failed in the United States because either employers or unions controlled the offices for partisan purposes. In order to insure strict impartiality in the management there should be a committee representing employers' associations and unions in equal numbers attached to the employment offices to advise the staff in all matters relating to the work of the officers and to see to it that there is no discrimination for or against either side. Advisory committees of this kind have been organized in all European countries where public labor exchanges, as they call employment offices, are successful. We copied the scheme in Milwaukee, and there we have a committee representing the Merchants' and Manufacturers' Association, the Federated Trades Council, and also the local authorities, who supply funds in addition to the funds supplied by the State.

It is very desirable to have the employment offices supported not only by the State but by the local authorities as well. The State should pay and control the staff and furnish the record forms in order to insure uniformity, but local expenses, like rent, light, heat, etc., might be paid by the cities or counties. This plan is now in force in Ohio and Wisconsin, and it is found valuable in stimulating local interest and confidence as well as getting more adequate support for the offices.

A RECORD SYSTEM FOR FREE EMPLOYMENT OFFICES.—DISCUSSION.

WHAT RECORDS SHOULD BE KEPT AND HOW THEY SHOULD BE KEPT.

Mr. SEARS, Boston, Mass. Any public free employment office must necessarily have some form of record by which to keep account of the employer's demands. Our "employer's registry card" would seem to be as simple as it can be and yet contain certain necessary information by which the person intrusted with the duty of selecting applicants for the opportunity may know what is expected of the office and at the same time be able to have a record which is continuous for future use, showing the transactions between the office and the employer.

Some record must also be kept of applicants for employment who are sent out to a prospective employer, and our "employee's registry slip" is simple and at the same time records certain necessary information, not alone for statistical purposes, but for purely employment office uses.

The "introduction card" must exist in one form or another by which to give definite directions to the applicant for work, and our card accomplishes this result. Therefore, there would seem to be need in these offices for the use of an "employer's registry card," an "employee's registry slip," and an "introduction card." All other blanks or forms may be said to be supplementary to these three.

By our system of records, we are able at a moment's notice to tell whom we have sent to any employer, the date sent, and whether or not he was engaged. We can also tell where the employee was sent, when he was sent, and whether or not he was hired. Both are kept as a continuous record.

Our "index card," so called, is necessary as an office record; it really is an index or office directory of employers who are our patrons, it serves as an office check on all employer's registry cards sent to the departments during the day, is important for statistical work, and also serves as a ledger account for each employer's business with the office.

The "delinquent employer's postcard" is used for employers who can not easily be reached by telephone, notifying them of the service rendered and requesting a report as to whether the service is complete or not. There are many forms which can be devised for such use, but ours is very simple.

The "bulletin of opportunities" was created for use as a possible means of obtaining publicity in certain municipalities and giving persons a chance to learn of available opportunities without incurring the expense and inconvenience of a trip to the office.

The superintendent's "office card" is necessary. An "advertising card" for general distribution has its value; there are other forms which may be used, but ours contains all that would seem to be necessary. The "card of introduction to the superintendent" is useful to send to charities and public benefactors. It can be kept for record so that at the close of the year certain special statistics may be tabulated.

If a free public employment office is to have the semblance of making an intelligent selection of applicants for employment, and to render a proper account of its work, the records which we keep are essential.

Mr. LEISENSON, Wisconsin. The system of records used by Mr. Sears in Boston is very good, but for most employment offices it is likely to be too elaborate. It requires too much clerical work. In Wisconsin we studied the Boston forms and also the forms used in European countries, and we worked out a somewhat simpler system. We have one card for each applicant for employment, and only one. When we register a man we keep that card, and if we get him a job

it is marked on the back. Should the man return later, after two or three months or a year or more, we would get that card and merely place another date on it—spaces are provided—to show that he is re-registered. Then if he is sent to another job, this is noted on the back of the card again, and so on, as many times as the man may appear. The front of the card requires all such information as will enable us to know the man's experience, qualifications, reliability, etc. On the back of the card we note everything we do for the man—the places he is sent to, whether he got the job and stayed, and so on. By keeping one card for each man all the time we have a complete record of all the office does for an applicant, how many times he applied for work, how many jobs he got, and so forth.

Applications for employment are filed alphabetically. All those for whom positions are secured go into what we call a dead file. All those registered within the last month go into our "live file." If a man registers and we get him no job but he does not come back to renew his registration after a month, we assume that he got work for himself or left town. We then transfer his card to the dead file.

For the employers we find we must have two cards. One is just a simple application for help, giving the kind wanted, number, wages paid, and so on. On the back of this are spaces to note the names of men sent in answer to that call and the dates. Every time an employer places an order a new card like this is filled out. Then to keep tab on all the business done with each employer we have an employer's record card, on which all the information from these order cards are transferred.

In sending an applicant to an employer, we have the common kind of introduction card which has the address of the office on the back, and the employer is asked to mail it back to us postpaid with a 1-cent stamp. About 50 per cent of these cards come back to us this way. The rest we have to verify by telephone or writing letters or personal calls. Many are never counted, because we can not find out if the men really got the work.

Finally, we have this "Daily report of business," which goes to the State superintendent at the end of each day's business. It contains a list of all the industries and occupations in Wisconsin classified and grouped after the United States Census classification of occupations.

There are four columns on the report blank to show how many applications for work, help wanted, referred to positions, and positions secured there were for each occupation. At the bottom will be seen the heading, "Casual work" (odd jobs). Under this we note every kind of work, skilled or unskilled, which lasts less than a month. All the others we consider not permanent positions but "regular positions." That is, we can tell by the name of the occupation how long the season ordinarily lasts.

From these daily reports we get up a monthly summary showing demand and supply for each industry and occupation. This is sent out to the press in the form of a labor-market bulletin.

THE WOMEN'S DEPARTMENT OF A FREE EMPLOYMENT OFFICE.

MRS. W. L. ESSMAN.

When establishing a women's free employment office great care should be taken in selecting the right location. I believe the office, in order to render the greatest service, should be on a prominent business street, preferably on the ground floor, distinctly separate from the men's department, and have a woman superintendent in charge.

One of the most important things to be considered is the registration of applicants. All women who apply for work should be registered. This should be done on cards, prepared for this purpose, having certain headings. The name, address, telephone number, country of birth, length of time in the United States, length of time in city, conjugal condition, and number of dependents are necessary items. Then the kind of work desired and, in order to know more of the applicant, her last position should be listed, together with the length of time employed.

Instead of reregistering an applicant when a second place is asked for, a column of renewals will greatly facilitate the work as the entering of the date will signify that it is a second registration. By registering each applicant as she comes in, each is given an equal chance, as the one registered first will be given the preference, other conditions being the same, and she will feel as if we have made an effort to assist her by placing her name on file. Blank spaces on the back of the cards with headings for employer, occupation, and date sent, and verifying space, make an easy system by which the history of these women may be kept.

Private interviews and registrations will prove of great value, as the applicant does not become embarrassed by having many listeners and the truth is more apt to be told. An effort is made to fit the applicant to the position and upon our efficiency in this depends the success of the work, so time and consideration should be given each individual.

Employers' orders also must be carefully recorded. Cards of a smaller size may be used, having spaces for the date, name, address, telephone number, kind and age of help desired, wages, hours, and remarks. Spaces on the back of these cards provide for the name of the employee sent and the date.

When sending an applicant to a place a card should be given her with the name of the employer and his address and her own name. This card bearing the name of the office is of great assistance to the girl or woman, since it states her business for her and enables her to reach the proper party more easily and quickly, and I believe people are more ready to assist her to find the right place. The name of the employer should then be entered on the back of the employee's card, and vice versa.

After an applicant has been sent out, one should by no means feel as though that work was finished. Some follow-up system must now come. The introduction card given her may be in the form of a post card having a space for the employer to sign in case the applicant is hired and it should then be mailed to the office. This would be an ideal system could the employers be trained to return all cards, but many of them put the applicant to work and forget all about the office. Then, after a short time, the employer should be telephoned to. A report can be usually secured in this way, which should be entered upon both cards. Any easy system of marks will do for this, but it is well to have several, as hired, hired and left, hired and did not report, not hired, and did not report. In this way one comes to know the applicants better and how to deal with them. Return post cards are sent out when the party can not be reached by telephone, and one of these three methods will usually prove efficient.

In filing the registration cards it is well to classify them into the following classes, viz: Factory help and clerical help, day women, domestic, hotel and restaurant help, which may be subdivided into several classes. If you then have a call for a waitress, for instance, the list will be convenient and an applicant may be telephoned to and asked to report.

A list of day women having telephones is an aid to promptness, particularly during the season when there is a great demand for these women.

At the close of each day a report should be made showing the number of employers' orders, number of applications, number of help wanted, number referred to positions and the number of positions secured.

There are several methods of obtaining the cooperation of the employers; however, I believe personal solicitation is the best way, for one becomes acquainted not only with the employer but with the place of employment, as factories, stores, hotels, and restaurants. This method would not be possible among private families, but an advertisement inserted in the daily papers will bring the office to the attention of these people and also of the employees. Cards and circular letters sent to the different clubs, organizations, and societies will prove of help, also the answering of want ads. These should be posted in the

office for the benefit of the employees. Employers should be encouraged to call at the office and interview the help there whenever possible, otherwise they should pay the carfare. During the different seasons of the year there are different problems to be met. In the winter, work in general is slack and many more women are forced to work, especially dayworkers, and it is very difficult, in fact impossible, to secure work for them all. Every possible effort should be made to secure work for them and the work should be so divided that all receive help to some degree.

The demand for domestics is always far in excess of the supply, but at this time of the year girls from other classes are taking up this work. Positions in hotels and restaurants are not so plentiful and the girls are forced to do housework until the summer resorts open. Most of these girls are not competent and do not give satisfaction. How to secure more competent girls for housework, and more of them, is a problem yet unsolved.

Factories have established employment offices of their own, as have department stores. This kind of help should be supplied by a central office. Much can not be done in clerical lines until a separate department is provided for and a great deal of soliciting done.

In summer the great difficulty is in securing enough help to supply the demand.

Ordinarily but one applicant is sent to a position unless there are several asked for and then it is safe to send one or two extra ones as some will not report or will not accept the work.

I think one of the most difficult daily problems is the one which confronts us when it becomes necessary for us to discriminate between applicants. As I have said, the one registered first should be given the preference, other conditions being the same; otherwise we must send the one having the best record and who appears in our judgment to be the one best suited for the position. If our judgment proves good the women will know that we are trying to do our best for each and every one and they will be satisfied. If a woman has failed to make good, we tell her that we do not believe she will be the proper one for the place because she has not proved herself to be reliable.

An employee should never be sent to any place where there is any doubt regarding its moral condition. In order to know the standing of different places it is wise to go to the city official to gain information, which, in some cases of which I know, has been freely given.

What advice shall we give to the girl who comes to the office and says she wants work but does not know what she wishes to do? This will happen frequently and we can not advise too carefully. I have recommended housework in some cases, thinking the moral influence

would be better than in a hotel or restaurant or factory. In other cases when the parents insist upon the girl rooming at home, factory or store work is the only available kind. If wages are to be considered, an inexperienced girl will make more in a private family than in a factory, but a girl who lives at home and takes up factory work and becomes efficient will receive good wages and have short hours.

Great care should be taken in sending applicants out of the city. In every case the employer should be made to furnish reference and to pay the railroad fare.

HANDLING OF IMMIGRANT WORKERS.

H. J. BECKERLE, SUPERINTENDENT FREE EMPLOYMENT OFFICE, MILWAUKEE, WIS.

One of the main objects of the State employment offices is the distribution of unskilled workers. The greater per cent of unskilled labor consists of foreigners who emigrated from countries where they lived the narrow static life of peasants, and on arrival are handicapped by unfamiliarity with the language and country; are remote from friends or relatives; and they are easy prey to exploitation.

To concentrate this class of labor, to prevent its helpless wandering in search for work, is a problem which confronts us to-day. Now the question arises not only how to do that, but how to do it most successfully. How can the offices make their services most available to the immigrant?

The State officers should not adopt a theory that they must wait for the alien to find them, knowing well that private agents, who prey upon him, pursue no such policy. It must be realized that a vital and immediate contact with the immigrant must be made. This is accomplished in two ways: First, by publishing in foreign papers articles describing the purposes of the offices, their work, and the results achieved, thus giving the offices publicity among the foreign element. Second, by employing officers who speak foreign languages, so as to give a chance to the foreigner to be thoroughly understood. I wish to emphasize that this is a very important matter, and no great success can be accomplished in the relations with aliens unless this is well taken care of.

Once the relation between the office and immigrant is established, considerable pains should be taken to gain the confidence of the foreigner. So often has he been abused, cheated, and exploited by private agents that naturally he has grown suspicious. He who has been made to pay for every service rendered him, for every job furnished, can not quite understand how it is that here he can get a serv-

ice free. He ought to be taught what a State employment office is and in what ways it differs from private agencies. It should be impressed upon his mind that it is not in any way a charitable institution and does not furnish relief or financial aid but merely brings him in touch with the job wherever it is waiting for him. He ought to be made to realize that in exchange for service rendered he is to give his best efforts to satisfy the employer by making good on a job and thus assure for himself the services of the office for future needs; and, on the other hand, that if he does not make good he need not expect any assistance in the future.

Now we come to another important issue: It is selecting suitable work for the foreigners. Upon proper solution of this question depends our success with the employer. An erroneous conception prevails among many State officers that all the foreign laborers ought to be treated alike in regard to their working abilities and intelligence. Such a conception is entirely wrong and can be taken as an explanation of many failures. As all the labor jobs are not alike, some being less disagreeable than others, some requiring less or more physical strength, or less or greater degree of intelligence, so are the foreign laborers not alike. Among them are more or less intelligent characters of different strength and looking for various kinds of employment. Generally speaking, the peasant immigrant is looking for ground work, construction labor, woods or farm work—kinds of work that require great physical strength and endurance and less intelligence. He is best qualified for this kind of work and generally makes good. Another kind of immigrant, namely, the city immigrant, presents a different case; he is better adapted for lighter factory work, hotel and restaurant help, and oftentimes has a trade and is looking for work in the line in which he is experienced. This kind of foreigner, when sent to perform hard manual labor, seldom succeeds. Here good judgment supported by previous experience ought to be used. Your ability to speak his native tongue will be of great value in determining for what kind of work the man is best suited. After this is done, it is necessary to give him all the information concerning the work he is to perform. Nothing should be omitted that would result in disappointment on the part of the worker. He should be well posted about the wage he is going to receive, the hours of labor, the conditions and probable duration of work, also if there are any deductions to be made from his wages. Then assure him that if he lives up to the agreement on his part he may expect that due protection will be accorded him in case an attempt should be made by the employer to break the agreement. Also he should be instructed that if any misunderstanding arise between him and the employer he should communicate with the office before giving up the job. This brings good results.

I can cite a few instances where misunderstandings were adjusted to mutual satisfaction. In one case some foreigners were sent to work in a paper mill. They were told that if they remained in the company's employ for 30 days their railroad fare would be refunded. Although they worked longer than the required time, the company, by oversight, forgot to refund fare, and the laborers, being unable to explain the trouble to the foreman, wrote to the employment office in their native language. The matter was taken up with the employer, and he willingly adjusted it. Otherwise the men would probably have quit their jobs. In another instance a party of woodsmen quit work when deductions were made from their wages for doctor's fees. They claimed that this was not agreed to beforehand; that no mention had been made of same. Their impression was that the company wanted to take advantage of them. After it was explained to them that such is the policy of all lumber companies, they returned to work. Cases similar to this occur very frequently and almost always are quickly settled.

So far I have dealt mainly with the foreign employees; now I would like to say that successful handling of the immigrant worker depends a great deal upon the methods used by the man who employs foreign labor. We have had complaints in the past, particularly from lumber companies, that the foreign laborers we send do not turn out satisfactorily. It seemed very odd to us, as we had been sending the same kind of men to other companies and received flattering remarks concerning them and the good work we were accomplishing in selecting good men. Anxious to determine the cause, we investigated the matter and found that the trouble was due entirely to the policy adopted by some foremen in handling the men. Upon the arrival of a gang of laborers they were given axes or saws and told to go to work. Naturally this resulted in confusion. Instead of showing the men the way to perform the work, the foreman grew impatient and started to swear (that language is usually understood by the foreigner) and bad feeling arose and the men did not make good. In other camps foremen (I presume, upon instructions from the office) used more judgment and common sense in dealing with the men and satisfactory results were a natural consequence.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALIEN AND CITIZEN LABOR.

WALTER L. SEARS, SUPERINTENDENT, FREE EMPLOYMENT OFFICE, BOSTON,
MASS.

Since congestion, the result of overpopulation in the larger cities in the United States, became a menace, those having to do with labor matters have endeavored to solve the problem by "labor distribution." I have given much thought to the question, and offer, as a par-

tial solution, the following plan by which the needs of both labor and capital would be clearly indicated and the chances of misrepresenting opportunities for employment would be somewhat lessened.

The real problem is, "How to get the people away from centers where there is greatest unemployment to places where there is a genuine scarcity of labor." When publicity is given to "opportunities for employment" all over the country, there should be an equalizing of labor conditions, such as does not now exist.

Practical, prudent publicity is the only means by which an effective scheme for labor distribution can be successfully accomplished. As a means toward that end, I recommend a bulletin similar to the Weather Bureau map. If the public can be judiciously, promptly, and reliably informed of "opportunities for employment" all over the country, a long step toward a solution of the problem will have been made. This "Bulletin of opportunities" for help or situations wanted should be posted in the post offices in the chief industrial, geographical, and railroad centers, and such other places as may be deemed advisable.

During the panic of 1908 a certain midwestern city appropriated a considerable sum of money with which to relieve conditions then existing in that city. This fact was published broadcast, with the result that a large number went to that city. The money was soon expended, and the people for whose relief it was set aside did not receive the full benefit, and conditions were very much worse thereafter. The same would undoubtedly be true of the labor market, were the information relative to opportunities in only one city made public.

I would give publicity to opportunities only where a considerable number of a certain kind or kinds of help were idle or wanted. I have arbitrarily set the figure at 500, for the reason that a smaller number could be taken care of locally. If there were 500 or more persons representing a particular trade or vocation idle or needed in any locality, the bulletin should show that fact so that those who were interested might learn just what to do.

The question arises as to how reliable information could be obtained. I recommend that the chief executive of each city in the United States having a population of more than 50,000 be requested to supply certain information on blanks to be provided by a centrally located Federal bureau. The mayor or other executive head should appoint a committee consisting of himself, president of the local board of trade, president of the charity board, a representative of the local labor council, and the postmaster; and if there is an immigration office or a public employment office in the city, it should be represented on the committee. After making the appointments the mayor should certify the same to the Federal bureau.

These committees, acting under proper rules and regulations to be established by the Federal bureau, could prepare information relative to the condition of the labor market in their respective localities and report when the conditions warrant it.

The Federal Government is manifestly the proper party to disseminate this information. Each report should be certified to by a notary public, thereby insuring its authenticity and truthfulness. The committee should be exceedingly careful not to misrepresent actual conditions and in no case should a strike, lockout, or other labor trouble be given publicity outside of the locality in which it may exist.

I am certain that this idea can be worked out satisfactorily to both labor and capital. The bulletin should be a graphic illustration of labor conditions in this country. The matter of publishing it in certain languages, together with other pertinent details, such as wages, hours, and tenure, is of secondary consideration and can be worked out as the result of experience.

This plan can be adopted without an act of Congress, as the Department of Labor now has full authority. The Division of Information, Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization, was established several years ago chiefly for the purpose of providing a scheme for the distribution of alien labor, and the Secretary of the Department of Commerce and Labor at that time, Mr. Strauss, subsequently ruled that the law applied to citizen as well as alien labor.

RELATION OF PUBLIC TO PRIVATE EMPLOYMENT OFFICES.— DISCUSSION.

Mr. CUNNINGHAM, Michigan. There were 42 agencies in Michigan last year, paying a license fee of \$100 each. The law requires that the commissioner of labor shall issue a license upon the payment of \$100 and the giving of a \$1,000 bond. As long as these agencies are legal the commissioners can not put them out of business. They do much good. They may give better service than the State offices. One office pays its superintendent \$16 per day and makes no trouble to the State through violation of the law. This manager is up to date and a general hustler. He travels much and knows his business. The danger of the private licensed offices is that men will be given jobs and then retained only a short time by the employer, so as to make room for others for the securing of another fee. An order lately came to Detroit for 59 men to be sent to Chicago. Mr. Hart was notified about this. Probably he will find who is making money in such a deal.

Mr. DUFFIN, Indiana. Much of the repeating of short-time men may be checked by careful consultation of the monthly records sent in by the private employment agencies. When an office has been

furnishing 10 or 20 men at nearly regular short intervals and no other office is supplying men to the same place, the chances are that something is wrong. In such a case it is well to write or telephone the superintendent of the works to learn whether the free office can not supply some of this help. On many occasions the superintendent does not know what has been going on. Some subordinate officer, possibly a foreman, has been responsible for the hiring and rapid discharge of the men. This results, in many cases, in the discharge of the foreman, because such a thing can not continue without loss both to the men employed and also to the industry through the introduction of so many who must learn the work. The State law demands an exact report from each private office under oath. These reports are always checked up and comparisons made. The law has never been tested in the supreme court, but fines as high as \$200 for violations have been paid to the State. These monthly reports must contain the name of the applicant for work, the amount paid the office for the service, and the name and address of the employer. If at the end of 10 days after receiving a fee no job is secured, 75 per cent of the fee must be refunded.

Mr. SEARS, Boston. The officials of the Massachusetts offices pay little attention to the private employment agencies and are somewhat indifferent as to their existence. When we receive complaints in regard to their conduct the complainants are referred to the law-enforcing authority. The existence of the public employment offices in Massachusetts has resulted in a decrease in the number of private agencies, chiefly the more unscrupulous places. The high-class mercantile agencies, booking agencies, and teachers' agencies may be rendering an important service to the public, and perhaps the State office could not, or rather does not pretend to, compete with such agencies. What may happen in time to come I can not tell. If the public employment office serves its patrons courteously and efficiently, the unscrupulous agency will soon be a thing of the past. In the last analysis the office which renders the highest service will eventually get the business.

RESOLUTION RESPECTING THE PROMOTION OF EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS BY THE SWISS FEDERAL GOVERNMENT.¹

READ BY DR. GUSTAFSON, CHICAGO.

1. With a view to the promotion of employment bureaus the Federal Government shall grant subventions: (a) To public institutions acting as employment agencies (labor offices and employment bureaus established by Cantons and communes). (b) To cantonal free food

¹ Adopted Oct. 29, 1909. See Bulletin of the International Labor Office, E. B. V. 68-70 (1910).

societies (*Verb. f. Naturalverpflegung*), provided that, and in so far as, they act as public employment bureaus. (c) To the league of Swiss labor offices.

2. The receipt of such subventions shall be dependent upon the fulfillment of the following conditions:

1. On the part of the said institutions—(a) They must assist persons of either sex in every branch of trade, industry, commercial occupation, agriculture, and domestic service. As far as circumstances permit special departments shall be instituted for different classes of occupation. (b) Assistance must be given without fee on either side; only the expense of any special efforts shall be charged to the applicant. (c) The institutions must be managed and carried on quite impartially; employers and workmen shall be represented in equal numbers on their supervisory committees. (d) In the event of a stoppage of work, strike, or lockout the institutions shall continue their work, but they shall take suitable steps to inform persons applying to them of the fact that a dispute is in progress. (e) With a view to referring applicants to other districts or a central office, the institutions shall unite in a Swiss league, at the head of which there shall be one or more central offices. The institutions may affiliate branch offices in their districts; free food societies may also become affiliated as branches; the several labor offices shall keep in constant communication with each other and with the central office. (f) The several institutions shall contribute regularly reports on the state of the labor market, in accordance with special regulations drawn up by the league and ratified by the department of industry.

The Federal Council may, where the circumstances justify this course, allow exemptions from these conditions.

2. On the part of the cantonal free food societies—(a) The procuring of employment must be carried on in touch with the public employment bureaus and a connection must be organized between each free food society and the nearest labor office. (b) The societies must contribute, by means of regular returns delivered to the labor offices with which they are connected, to the reports on the state of the labor market. The work of free food societies in procuring employment may be limited to male workers.

3. On the part of the league of Swiss labor offices—(a) The league shall designate, in agreement with the department of industry, one or more suitable labor offices to act as central offices. (b) The league shall, in agreement with the department of industry, draw up uniform principles governing the business management of the several institutions and their mutual intercourse, the central offices, and the development of the work of employment bureaus in general, and also the compilation of statistics setting forth the results of the work of all such institutions. (c) The league shall place itself at the dis-

posal of the department of industry for the purpose of cooperating in the compilation of statistics of unemployment and of promoting measures for the prevention of unemployment.

3. The Federal Government shall (a) reimburse the expenses of the central offices of the public institutions acting as employment agencies; (b) contribute one-third of the expenses of management of the several institutions, not including furnishing and building expenses; (c) pay to the cantonal free food societies 50 rappe (9.6 cents) for every place filled; (d) pay to the league of Swiss labor offices a yearly grant equivalent to one-half of its expenditures.

4. Establishments claiming Federal subventions in pursuance of this resolution shall submit to the department of industry their rules and regulations, together with estimates, annual accounts, and business reports adopted by the governing bodies concerned.

5. The department of industry shall have power to inspect at any time the business management of institutions and leagues subsidized by the Federal Government.

6. The Federal Government shall, in addition, have power to subsidize employment bureaus organized by trade-unions, provided that the conditions set forth in section 2 (1) shall be observed as far as possible. Notwithstanding, in such cases the subvention shall not exceed any grants made from other outside sources (Cantons, communes, etc.).

7. The Federal Council shall issue the necessary regulations for the execution of this Federal resolution.

8. The Federal Council shall, in conformity with the Federal act of June 17, 1874, respecting the referendum on Federal acts and Federal resolutions, cause this resolution to be published and determine the date of its coming into force.

**PROCEEDINGS OF THE INDIANAPOLIS MEETING, SEP-
TEMBER 24 AND 25, 1914.**

**ADDRESS BY DR. ROYAL MEEKER, UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER
OF LABOR STATISTICS.**

You men and women of this association are engaged in one of the most important businesses in the world. The people of the United States have given almost no attention to the business of directing workmen to employment. We have done nothing at all to furnish employment to the unemployed in dull times on public works, highways, harbor improvements, public buildings, and other construction work for the community. Yet such work has to be done, and it is perfectly feasible and practicable to arrange to have these works constructed during dull seasons and in times of depression, so as to relieve the stress of slack work and unemployment in such periods. The policy of pushing public construction work during the dull season and in times of depression is no new proposition. The experiment has been tried abroad and has worked successfully. We have done nothing to furnish work to the unemployed, and we have done little to bring together the employee seeking work and the employer seeking workmen. In fact we have ignored the existence of unemployment in our country as an every-day condition—a permanent job, so to say. When unemployed workmen have clamored for work, we have pointed out to them our stupendous resources, our marvelous economic genius, the majestic magnitude of our industries, and the tremendous velocity of our progress, and we have said, “No man who really wants work need be idle.” Long sophomoric essays have been written to prove that the only idle people in our unprecedentedly prosperous country are those who will not work. How otherwise could be explained the numbers of idle men and women in the midst of our plenteous prosperity? In recent years we are beginning to distrust this simple explanation of unemployment. The laboring men and women of the country are now insisting loudly upon their right to work and earn food, raiment, and shelter for their bodies, as a substitute for the privilege of receiving these indispensable goods as uncertain doles bestowed by the hands of professional philanthropists in the name of organized charity. Who can blame the workers for preferring wages above alms?

The American people have been amazingly slow to recognize the fact of unemployment. We have not yet recognized either the magnitude or the significance of the losses due to regular irregularity of employment and constantly recurring seasonal and periodic unemployment. Our efforts to deal with unemployment are still mainly confined to handing out bread and soup indiscriminately to all comers. The Romans dispensed bread and circuses to their unemployed. We have substituted soup for circuses. That has been thus far our contribution toward the ultimate solution of the problem of unemployment. Whether we have improved upon the Roman formula for the treatment of the unemployed may be determined only by a careful statistical study of the relative merits of the Roman circus and of the American soup dispensed to the unemployed.

Public employment bureaus were established in part as a recognition of the fact of unemployment and of the duty of the State to furnish to workless workers something more permanently satisfying than bread and circuses or soup. A public employment office, even a very inefficient one, is a recognition on the part of the public of a solemn, tragic fact and of a great fundamental principle—the fact of unemployment and the principle of public responsibility therefor. The establishment of a public employment office is an evidence of good faith on the part of the public toward the workers who have no work. It is an assumption by the State of the responsibility for the furnishing of suitable employment to all the unemployed, both those who seek work to do and those who seek work to avoid.

The unemployed who want work should be given the opportunity to do productive work through public employment offices; the unemployed who want to live and loaf at the expense of the industrious should be made to work on farm colonies and in penal institutions.

The trouble with our public employment offices is the trouble which afflicts many if not most of our institutions. We have recognized the principle and defaulted in the interest.

The United States has no hereditary governing classes; the business of government falls upon the masses. Class government, of the classes, by the classes, and for the classes is relatively simple and easy to effect. There is nothing more difficult than to bring to pass mass government, of the people, by the people, and for the people. The American people are an ingenious and an ingenuous people. We have done more to substitute automatic machinery and devices for men and brains than any other people on earth. Whenever we see a man working at a steady job we want to devise a machine to take his place. We yearn for perpetual motion, social, political, economic, religious, spiritual, and physical. We want devices which,

when once set going, will go on forever, requiring no further attention or intelligent effort on our part. We elect legislatures which enact statutes making it unlawful to do wrong, and we go on our way rejoicing. When the wrongdoers continue to do wrong, we set up a board or commission to put a stop to wrongdoing. When the board or commission fails to work, we set up an automatic device to make it work.

The Father of our Country said, "Eternal vigilance is the price of liberty." We recognize the truth of these words, but eternal vigilance takes a lot of time and bother. Why, if we spent all our time eternally vigiling, our business would go to smash, our golf game would go bad, we would miss all the fine fishing. So we hire professional vigilantes to do our eternal vigilancing for us. This is much better. It saves an enormous amount of time, and the specialist who works at nothing but eternal vigilance 12 months in the year all his life becomes very expert in seeing things that would escape the mere amateur who can be eternally vigilant only on election days and during the heat and burden of the political campaign after all the nominees have been chosen by the eternal vigilance of the professionals who cheerfully neglect their own private businesses at the race track, in the State senate, in the private dance hall, in the public forum, at the bar, or on the bench, in order that eternal vigilance shall not perish from the earth. In recognition of his arduous patriotic services, the title of "boss" is bestowed upon the professional who works at eternal vigilance as a steady job. His title is indicative of the esteem and veneration in which he is held. Our political machines have apparently given us political perpetual motion, thereby saving us a lot of time. This saving is a very expensive economy, however.

The people in several States of the Union have said, "Let there be employment offices," and behold there are employment offices. Now an employment office is not an end in and of itself. It is but a means to an end. It is not a consumable good. It is conceivable that we might have a billion employment offices and be worse off instead of better off therefor. Unless the public employment offices furnish consumable goods to the ultimate consumer, they are a net loss instead of a net gain to society. This means that they must furnish not merely jobs to the jobless, but economically paying jobs—jobs that pay an American living wage to American workingmen. Unless you are furnishing real work to real workers, you are conducting a charitable institution and not a productive enterprise. The public employment office that furnishes substandard jobs to substandard jobbers may be doing commendable work in conservation; it is not doing constructive work. Both conservation and construction are needed especially as related to the human factor in production; but

they are two quite distinctly different things and should never be confused. If a public employment office endeavors to place the unemployable as well as the merely unemployed, it must segregate the two groups most carefully, dealing with each separately and by totally different methods. Otherwise it will fail miserably. Both classes of the unemployed should be taken care of by the State, but both can not be dealt with at the same time in the same room. You can mix oil and water successfully, if you go about it rightly; you can not mix charity and economics.

In view of all the difficulties they have had to overcome, the public employment offices of the United States have accomplished great things. They have forced a reluctant and unbelieving public to recognize partially, at least, the fact of unemployment and the principle of public responsibility for the existence of unemployment and for the furnishing of work to all the workless; they have courageously attacked the abuses which are inseparable from private employment offices conducted for the sole purpose of doing the greatest number and doing them good and plenty; they have, with gigantically small appropriations, met the competition of private agencies long established and deeply entrenched; they are overcoming the suspicions of bona fide workers and the contempt of employers. Their tasks have been rendered well-nigh impossible by the niggardliness of appropriations and the indifference of the public.

In Germany and Great Britain the public employment offices are organized into complete nation-wide systems. We must achieve the same kind of nation-wide organization if our public employment offices are to be as effective as possible. The city offices must be absorbed into State systems, and the State systems, in turn, must be either absorbed or coordinated with a Federal system, which will extend to the boundaries of the Nation. The public employment offices are at present obliged to work in the dark because of their isolation from each other and because, consequently, information as to the amount and kind of unemployment and the number and kind of vacant jobs throughout the country is almost totally lacking.

It must be much more difficult to conduct an employment office than to make a rabbit pie. The recipe for rabbit pie instructs you first to catch your rabbit. The recipe for placing an unemployed man requires not only that you shall catch your unemployed man, but that you shall simultaneously grasp with your free hand a job. And you are not at liberty to catch any idler who chances to be loafing in your vicinity or any unoccupied job. A nice judgment and discrimination are required of the public employment official in fitting the man to the job and the job to the man. A man is not necessarily suitable for a job or a job for a man merely because the man can do the work required in a satisfactory manner. The age and

capacity of the man must be taken into consideration. If he is capable of doing or learning to do better and more remunerative things, he should be put in a job if possible that will develop his capabilities. If the job is a preparatory school for more responsible work, it would be a mistake to put into it a man who is incapable of learning to do the more difficult work. The man should not be sacrificed to the job nor the job to the man.

The statistical side of this work of bringing employee and employment into profitable contact interests me. Do not, I admonish you, make the mistake of assuming that statistics are a sterile and unprofitable vanity. The statistician is just as much a producer of economic values as is the farmer, the miner, or the manufacturer. You can no more successfully conduct your employment offices without statistics than a farmer can farm without a plow. Your records should show how many apply for work, how many and what kind of employees are called for, and how many and what positions have actually been filled. When a national system of employment offices shall have been established and is working satisfactorily, you will have a statistical record of employment and unemployment, day by day, week by week, month by month, and year by year.

But the most complete records kept by the best possible system of public employment offices will be both incomplete and duplicate. For the purpose of showing the industrial condition of the country, we need a much more accurate record of the numbers of the employed and the unemployed, industry by industry, occupation by occupation, city by city, throughout the whole country. To hint at the possibility of obtaining such statistics in our present state of statistical ignorance sounds like the ravings of a mathematical maniac. However, I believe the national, State, and city officials who have to do with the administration of labor laws and the compilation of labor statistics should work together to collect, compile, and publish information on the numbers unemployed and the opportunities for work. Of course, we do not need accurate statistics of all the unemployed in all industries and occupations and of all jobs of all kinds offered by employers in order to put one unskilled laborer at work digging a sewer. Statistics for statistics' sake are as useless and as meaningless as art for art's sake or business for the sake of keeping busy. We don't need to wait till we get all the information possible to get on unemployment before we begin work on the solution of this all-important problem. I do want to say to you, however, with all the emphasis at my command, that we shall never get a solution that will be satisfactory until we get a great deal more and better information as to the available supply of labor, which constitutes the demand for jobs, and the demand for labor, which constitutes the supply of jobs.

The Federal Bureau of Labor Statistics should be in a position to furnish accurate information month by month as to the numbers out of work and the industries and occupations affected. The States are really in a better situation to gather this information from the only available sources than is the Federal Bureau of Labor Statistics. The States can, if they will, get from the local trade-unions within their borders monthly statements of the number of men out of work in each local trade-union, by trade. From employers they can get monthly statements of the number of men employed, establishment by establishment, and, perhaps, department by department. This information, if carefully followed up and checked, would eventually give us a pretty fair idea of the state of activity in the different localities and industries of the country. Of course, the information on unemployment furnished by our trade-unions would not be at all comparable to the figures on unemployment published in the Labor Gazette by the labor department of the British Board of Trade. The British trade-unions are much stronger organizations than ours and include a much larger percentage of the workingmen. Many of the British unions pay out-of-work benefits, so that every member who has been out of work for at least two weeks is known. Under the Unemployment Insurance Act all workers not members of the benefit-paying unions draw insurance money from the Government after they have been idle for one week. From these sources an almost perfect record of the numbers unemployed is obtained. The records obtainable from American trade-unions would be very imperfect, but they would give some indication of the state of employment. Not until we have a nation-wide unemployment insurance act, can we know exactly where we stand respecting the amount of unemployment.

Fortunately, we do not need to wait for this complete knowledge before tackling the practical problems of gathering statistics of and providing work for the unemployed. Some knowledge, however imperfect, is better than no knowledge. If the State labor departments will turn to and cooperate with the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, we can gather and publish some very valuable bulletins on unemployment. Let the States which are able gather statistics of employment and unemployment and turn them over to me. I will do the best I can to gather information in the States which are unable to do this work, and I will publish as bulletins of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics all the facts we are able to obtain on the numbers employed, the numbers unemployed, the work of the public employment offices, and any other information which will help us in dealing with the all-important and little-understood fact of unemployment.

**THE WRONG WAY TO CONDUCT A SYSTEM OF PUBLIC
EMPLOYMENT OFFICES.**

W. F. HOUK, COMMISSIONER OF LABOR, MINNESOTA.

We have had almost 10 years of experience in Minnesota with public employment offices, and we now feel that we are competent to make some comments on how employment offices should not be run. We would not presume to attempt to tell how they should be run.

In the first place, a State public employment office should not be run as a dumping ground for worn-out politicians or laboring men who have become so inefficient that they can not get a job in private employment. The business of managing an employment office is one that requires alert and capable men who understand the work which they are attempting to do. Whenever any State, in attempting to organize a system of public employment offices, fills the positions in those offices with laboring men who have had no experience in the employment-office business and no economic training to prepare them for the work they are trying to do, it will make a failure.

In the second place, the State public employment office should be more than merely an additional employment office. If the State does nothing more than add one or two or more offices to those already existing and simply competes with the other offices for the opportunity to supply the demand for labor and for jobs, it makes the situation worse instead of better. If the State offices can not organize the labor market, their usefulness is minimized.

In the third place, the State employment office should not be conducted as a "hang out" for the lowest grades of casual laborers. It should not be a place which efficient workmen shun and which is patronized only by those who are on the lower fringes of the labor army and who are almost "down and out." In other words, it should not be the resort of those who are below the normal standards of working efficiency. If a State free employment office can not do anything but hand out odd jobs to a type of laborers who are not competent to hold a steady job or who would not accept one, or find daywork for washerwomen, the office had better be abolished. The whole demand for such service can be supplied by the Salvation Army and the various charitable organizations.

If, on the other hand, the State organizes the entire labor market and the State office becomes a clearing house in touch with all local and individual employment agencies, the State may undertake the placing of the inefficient and the finding of work for the washerwoman and other dayworkers as an incidental part of its handling of the labor market; but this should not be its main work, as it has been in the past in too many States. It should not be possible for an investigator to say of any public office, as one of the men of our

labor department stated concerning some of the public offices which he investigated, "that in the Twin Cities, and to some extent in Duluth also, most of the workers placed by the offices are not the transient laborers whom we have described as moving back and forth over the country in response to demands for labor in the various localities, nor are they the steady and better classes of common laborers, but rather men who have lived in the cities for considerable periods of time, who are unsteady, and who are often almost 'down and out.' They are mostly men who work only when circumstances force them to. A portion of them are the transient floaters, and here and there is a sprinkling of the better type of laborers."

In the fourth place, State employment offices should serve more than local needs. If they serve simply a city or a portion of a city, they utterly fail of their purpose. Any investigation of American public employment offices will disclose the fact that the majority of them are merely local. If this is the most that can be accomplished by a State office, the appropriation had better be diverted to some other public use.

In the fifth place, a public employment office should not be conducted in absolute ignorance of the actual results that it is obtaining. The average public employment office sends a man out to a job, but never knows whether or not he gets the job or, if so, how long he keeps it or what his record is while working at it. Likewise, the office usually does not know what the record of the employer is as to his treatment of the men sent to him. An employment office should not keep its records in such shape that neither the manager of the employment office nor anyone else can discover exactly what its services to the community have been. The system of records must be exact in every detail, otherwise it misses the point and a business enterprise degenerates into a disorganized, haphazard effort which fails of its essential purpose. The local managers of the offices, both in Minnesota and in other States, usually underestimate the value of comprehensive records and resent the obligation to maintain an accurate system. As a result they become blind to the defects of the system with which they are working and are apt to object to any change; but unless the local managers can adapt themselves to the needs of the work and maintain a proper system of records the revision in the office organization must go deeper than a simple substitution of a new record system.

Efficient service should be the first object of these offices. Employers expect that the office will fill their orders with the best men available, and their expectations are just. On the other hand, employees who are best fitted and the most capable of doing the kind of work available are the ones entitled to receive it. The employee

should be protected against the unfair employer who misrepresents his work or the conditions surrounding it, or who does not pay the wages agreed upon; and the employer against the employee who never sticks to his work, is unreliable, or whose work is unsatisfactory from other standpoints. Information of this kind respecting the individuals with whom it does business should be in the possession of the offices. The only way to accomplish this is for our offices to have some system of records whereby they can keep accurate "tab" on both employer and employee.

What has been said thus far indicates that, in my opinion, a public employment office is a business that can be successfully carried on only by the application of business principles and the utilization of competent and interested employees. It has also been suggested indirectly that no system of public employment offices can be truly effective until it either has a monopoly of the distribution of labor, as in the English employment-office system, or else is in touch with every labor exchange, whether public or private, and constitutes a clearing house for them all.

Another important consideration is that of advertising. No public employment office can make a proper success of its work unless it conducts a systematic campaign of advertising which brings it before the attention of all employers and employees and causes every one who is looking for men or for work to turn naturally to the public employment office.

In conclusion, I would state that, in my opinion, no public employment office can make a reasonable success of its work unless it is absolutely free from outside control. I mean by this, freedom from control by political, labor, or any other organizations. Its employees must retain their offices on the basis of efficiency alone, but if efficient they should be permitted to remain permanently in office. No other system than a merit system, in the true sense of the term, will permit a public employment office to become and remain efficient.

WHAT MUST BE DONE TO MAKE PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES MORE EFFECTIVE.

L. D. M'COY, SECRETARY, BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, ILLINOIS.

We are coming to realize, not without a great deal of surprise and civic mortification, that the end for which we, in Illinois, established, 25 years ago, the first State free employment office, has not yet been fully attained. The problem of unemployment is far from being solved and the conditions then existing still exist and have grown more complex every year.

The eight free employment offices now existing in Illinois are doing a great deal, it is true; but lacking, as we do, a uniform and coordinated system, and without interstate or Federal cooperation and scientific and thorough investigation of the supply and demand of the labor market, we find ourselves handicapped and discouraged in the effort to successfully conduct our free labor agencies.

Does this imply that State labor offices are a failure? There are those who insist that no State, by reason of the necessarily limited jurisdiction and control, can adequately handle the question of unemployment. There are many good arguments to support such a contention, and in the broadest sense it is only an agency like the Federal Government that can effectively solve the problem; but such an agency does not now exist, although it is our hope that the day of its creation is not far distant, and in the meantime what can we do to bring the free employment offices of Illinois up to the point of highest efficiency?

In Chicago we have over 300 private employment offices, most of which specialize in some of the various divisions of labor, such as clerical, mechanical, domestic, professional, common labor, etc. The bureaus of the State do not so specialize, contenting themselves with doing a general business, and I am confident that if the State offices were organized along the lines of the private agencies their effectiveness and efficiency would be very materially increased.

We advocate a system of active cooperation among the States which have free employment offices, and would suggest a uniform system of registration, together with an arrangement for the publication and distribution of labor bulletins, which would keep the various offices posted on labor conditions in the other States.

So much of this question is interstate that it is evident that no practical or lasting improvement in the state of the labor market is possible without Federal assistance. In this connection we would advocate the establishment of a Government labor exchange, under the Department of Labor, with its central office located in Chicago, from which might radiate, like a gigantic web, branch offices and clearing houses, covering the entire national field of labor. Because of its natural position and industrial importance, Chicago should be chosen. Its railroads penetrate and tap the richest mineral and agricultural sections of the country and it is itself one of the world's greatest labor marts.

It should be easy for any State to reach a major part of its unemployed. The fraud, misrepresentation, and malpractices perpetrated by many private employment agencies should doom them, when in competition with a free State office scientifically managed, and it is the experience of the State of Wisconsin that, under trained

and competent officials, any State can take care of those of its own people who from time to time fall on evil days.

The next question to consider is a more stringent supervision and more effective control of the licensed agencies. That this is necessary is generally conceded.

During 1913 and up to the present time in this year there were instituted in Illinois 50 prosecutions of private employment agents, on which we secured 48 convictions. This number is by no means startling, but it represents the most which could be accomplished with the law under which we now operate in Illinois. A penal bond of \$500 is evidently not sufficient to deter a dishonest agent from the practice of fraud and misrepresentation upon his clients.

To secure the necessary supervision and control of such agencies, a law making them amenable to prosecution and conviction by the Federal authorities should be enacted. That such a law would be embraced in a system of State and Federal cooperation is the intention of those who advocate such a scheme, and without this provision no effective supervision may be had.

An amendment to our State law should be made, requiring private employment agencies to report quarterly to the State bureau of labor statistics the nature and condition of their business. This would enable the chief inspector and his assistants to keep the necessary check on such offices and would tend to cause the dishonest to refrain from the illegal course which by virtue of the weakness of the law many of them now pursue unmolested.

POLICIES AND METHODS OF EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES MAINTAINED BY EMPLOYERS' ASSOCIATIONS.

ANDREW J. ALLEN, SECRETARY OF THE ASSOCIATED EMPLOYERS OF INDIANAPOLIS AND THE INDIANAPOLIS BRANCH OF THE NATIONAL METAL TRADES ASSOCIATION.

It affords me much pleasure to be able, through the courteous invitation of your secretary, Mr. Leiserson, to address you at this time on the subject of what I shall designate as local employment bureaus as distinguished from public employment offices.

There are several kinds of employment offices, among them being the State and municipal public offices, which you represent; the private pay agencies, operated by individuals for gain; the shop employment departments, conducted by large individual employers in connection with their establishments, as distributing points for departmental assignments; and, lastly, the local employment bureaus, conducted by associations of employers.

These local employment bureaus are of mutual advantage to employer and employee and are to the workman seeking employment, whether resident or newcomer, what our Soldiers' and Sailors Monu-

ment was to the travel-stained carpenter who recently applied for a job to a contractor engaged in building some houses in a suburb of Indianapolis. In answer to the contractor's query, "How far have you come?" the man replied, "I've walked from the soldiers' monument," explaining that he had spent his last penny in reaching its summit, where he could obtain a view of the surrounding country, in the hope of locating new work under course of construction.

Like the monument, these bureaus are "pinnacles of observation," constituting the shortest cut between supply and demand. Here a conglomeration of human documents meet; a nondescript assortment of men of all trades and inclinations. They come from all parts of the city, from all parts of the country, in fact, from all parts of the world. Some of them are clean and of thrifty appearance; others are dirty and of careless demeanor. Some are good, some indifferent, some bad, and some worse. In this indiscriminate mass of applicants are found the desirable high-grade workmen who may have very good reasons for wishing to make a change in employment. Here also is the unfortunate victim of business economies, the man "laid off" on account of "no work" or for less creditable reasons; also the incapacitated, the inexperienced, the incompetent, the indolent, the "boomer" or "soldier of fortune," and the fellow who, habitually discontented, is continually seeking other employment. It is this vast differential in the labor market which makes necessary an extensive system of classifications at local employment bureaus. Broadly speaking, the labor market is divided into two classes—a superior and an inferior. The latter in turn may be divided into several separate and distinct kinds. Manifestly, it is unfair to both employer and applicant for employment offices to send to the former a nondescript assortment of men for work, without due regard to their fitness for the available positions.

A moral responsibility rests upon an employment bureau to assist in every way each of the parties to the bargain in reaching a satisfactory and permanent alliance as speedily as possible. These bureaus are in duty bound to furnish both employer and prospective employee with as complete information regarding each other as it is possible to obtain and as may appear needful. This also applies in time of strike, for under no circumstances should an existing troublesome condition of affairs be misrepresented to the applicant.

The large employer is necessarily more or less remotely removed from his employees. Usually when men quit or are discharged the only report which the employer receives is that of the foreman. Possibly through some misunderstanding discharged employees may harbor ill will and, in the belief that they have been denied an appeal to the "big boss," consider that they have not received a "square deal" and blame the "man higher up."

These are issues with which the local employment bureaus like to deal, since many workmen come there and, with fair accuracy, freely unburden themselves of thoughts and complaints that often deserve and invariably get attention. In their capacity as neutral intermediaries these bureaus have been instrumental in avoiding many unpleasant complications by pointing out to employers instances of disaffection and just causes of complaints, all of which results in the correction of abuses and misunderstandings. In many cases possible injustice to innocent and deserving employees has been averted or remedied. In other shops conditions have been improved.

The usefulness of an employment office necessarily fluctuates more or less according to seasonal periods and varies considerably where the demand for certain classes of help, particularly skilled workers, exceeds the available supply. A "tight" labor market is frequently experienced, and for that reason no employment office, whether public or local, can guarantee employment to all applicants or furnish employers with all the help they may need. It must also try to encourage workers not to acquire nomadic habits.

While the object of employment offices is to place the worker in touch with jobs commensurate with his degree of capability, it is obvious that during normal business periods the problem sometimes becomes not one of finding a job for the worker, but one of ways and means to find sufficient laborers to supply the needs of those who offer employment.

Successfully conducted employment offices which, to employer and employee, mean dollars and cents on the credit side of the ledger, are but the logical development of present-day efficiency methods, growing from the need of a central clearing house which, through the elimination of waste in time and effort and with some degree of permanency, will bring competent labor in touch with employers. It is a strictly business proposition for both of them, which accounts for the fact that local employment bureaus are conducted on a strictly business basis. They are not philanthropical institutions and could not thrive if their tendencies were paternalistic.

Employers found they could not obtain competent help through "private pay agencies." Workers of the higher class are not inclined to pay for the privilege of hunting work. These "agencies," where they are not under State supervision, merely promise to "assist" the applicant; they do not guarantee to get him a job. If he succeeds in finding work himself, this does not secure for him the return of his fee.

Newspaper advertising for help wanted did not secure the desired results, especially when work was plentiful, wages good, and competition in labor rife. Of those laborers who answered such advertisements many were perhaps unsuited in various ways for the work

offered, resulting in a waste of time and effort on the part of foremen or others in giving unnecessary interviews to a conglomeration of more or less unqualified applicants.

This led employers to conceive the idea of establishing their own employment bureaus in connection with the numerous trade, civic, and other business organizations throughout the country. These bureaus are all in charge of regularly paid secretaries of the various associations, who may be considered as direct personal representatives of association members.

In many cases these local employment bureaus have been able to cooperate with the public offices which have been established, although I have heard that in some localities there seems to be a feeling on the part of employers that they can not expect as efficient service from the public offices as they can secure through their own bureaus.

Possibly this is because of the political complexion usually given the work of public employment offices. In such cases it may be that the persons in charge of these public bureaus are usually in office only for a specified time and change with the administration. Possibly the new incumbent possesses as little experience in handling employment problems as did his predecessor when he took office. Then, again, the scope of the work of a public office is such that it may appear to the employer that the same time or attention can not be given to consideration of his individual needs as that which he has a right to expect of his own employee, the secretary of a local office, among whose duties is that of interviewing, registering, investigating, and selecting workers competent to fill available jobs.

Some public employment offices may not investigate the applicant's capabilities sufficiently to insure his fitness for the jobs offered, and in neglect to do so may be found the reason for the failure of the employers to rely upon them for help and the reluctance of skilled workers to trust to them for employment. The workers do not, in many instances, feel sure that the job offered is high grade enough for their skill, or it may be that time is lost by sending a man of limited ability to a job too high class for him to fill.

In discussing the operative policies of local employment offices, let us take for example the two bureaus which for the past 10 years have been conducted in conjunction with each other in the same office by the Associated Employers of Indianapolis and the Indianapolis branch of the National Metal Trades Association, respectively.

By way of explanation, let me state that the Associated Employers of Indianapolis is an organization local in its scope, including in its membership several hundred employers, representing widely diversified interests and practically every branch of commercial and industrial activity in the city. The National Metal Trades Association, as

its name implies, is national in scope and comprises a membership of almost 1,000 representative employers in the metal manufacturing line.

The National Metal Trades Association has 14 branches in various large industrial centers. These branches conduct local employment bureaus in the following cities, respectively: Springfield, Worcester, and Boston, Mass.; Hartford and New Haven, Conn.; Cleveland and Cincinnati, Ohio; Chicago and Moline, Ill.; Providence, R. I.; Pittsburgh, Pa.; St. Louis, Mo.; New York, N. Y., and Indianapolis, Ind.

These bureaus charge no fee to employer or applicant. Their combined registration of several hundred thousand workers would practically be impossible of duplication by any individual manufacturer without extraordinary expense and painstaking labor. This registration is largely dependent upon the power of these bureaus to place their applicants. In order to make them popular institutions, places must be found for those who apply.

Applicants come to these bureaus either in response to advertisements or upon the recommendation of employers, or by reason of their having been referred to the office by workmen whom the bureaus have assisted, and from whom many letters of thanks and appreciation have been received. Many of the association members have assisted in making the bureau efficient by posting in conspicuous places about their establishments large placards stating that preference would be given to applicants who present cards of introduction from the employment bureau maintained by the association.

Several of the largest association members hire practically all their help through these bureaus. One of them recently stated that during a given period of time only 5 workers, out of a total of 1,200 who applied at the shop, were employed without coming from the bureau. This indicates the value of a bureau registration card to the man in quest of work. The place it holds in the workers' estimation is indicated by the frequent requests made at the office for these introduction cards by applicants who state that, at this or that place, they have noticed that persons presenting these cards are given employment, while those standing in the same line who do not have them are told to step aside. This is because the employer feels reasonably sure that the worker with the card is more or less suited for the job and hence no lengthy interview is necessary. The capabilities of the man who does not present such a card are doubtful and he must await the employer's opportunity to interview him.

Thus the wage earners are taught that instead of trusting to other mediums for employment they may look to these bureaus for assistance with the feeling that the members of the association may be relied upon for employment, all of which makes it easier for local bureaus to get in touch with new applicants and to retain the confi-

dence and friendship of the older ones. When they are able to place more applicants in positions the prestige and popularity of the bureaus among the working classes are increased. This, in turn, means more applicants, which augments the registration from which to select. The larger the registration, the more prompt and satisfactory are the service and efficiency of the bureaus. The plan of having members refer to the local bureaus all shop applicants for employment operates to the mutual advantage of all concerned. Some firms are daily turning away workers of whom other employers may be in urgent need.

The bureaus of both associations mentioned are conducted merely as divisions of the regular business of the organizations. * * * The joint cost of the operation of these two bureaus is approximately \$3,500 a year. On the basis of 5,174 applicants who were placed last year, the approximate cost to the bureaus per applicant would be about 67½ cents. Indirect ministrations reduce these figures. And what does this service cost the member? Say, for example, that the associations with an income of about \$20,000 a year represent 400 members. The average cost in that case would be \$50 per member. Suppose the members individually advertised for help. This would probably mean at least 25 cents or more per day, or \$1 for four days of the week, a total of \$52 for the year. And to this must be added the loss of time and effort which the bureau saves both employer and applicant.

The total registration of the two Indianapolis bureaus consists of between fifty and sixty thousand names, comprising many hundreds of occupations, trades, and specialties. Workers from coast to coast are registered there, including superintendents, foremen, production managers, efficiency engineers, and men possessing high-grade executive ability generally. The attempt is made to limit more or less the registration to tradesmen of all crafts and common labor of the better grade, inasmuch as calls at the bureaus for nonproducers are few and far between. The field for clerical help is considerably overcrowded, and there are other agencies for handling these workers. Common labor of most kinds can be hired at the door of the individual establishment and requires no loss of time in interviews. On the other hand, the requirements for productive or skilled workers are more exacting and the supply limited, hence the demand is greater.

During the fiscal year ending December 31, 1913, these two bureaus registered 8,250 applicants, of which number 3,679 were duplications and 1,736 were new applicants at the bureaus, while 2,835 additional applications were received at the shops through members who secured and forwarded them to the bureaus, in order that those who sought employment might more readily be placed in touch with it through these offices. A worker might make the rounds of ninety-nine shops

before he found a job at the hundredth one, whereas with his application on file at the local bureau he stands a fair chance of being put in touch with the job at once.

During the 12 months named, 5,174 employees were reported as hired by members, of whom 3,679 were old applicants and the remainder were new ones, having registered for the first time. This by no means represents the total number of men sent to jobs, as many vacancies are filled through the ministrations of these bureaus of which no report is made by either beneficiary.

It is difficult to approximate the percentage of men supplied by these bureaus in comparison with the total number employed in the membership, but it is safe to say that about one-third is a fair estimate. Many men are employed at the shops direct, not because the workers would rather be so hired, but because of emergency requirements, temporary needs, and sometimes on account of the distance from the bureau to the plant, not taking into consideration the class of wage earners which the bureaus may not handle. Also, in many instances, former employees who have been laid off on account of slack work are reinstated. There are no exact figures available as to the actual number of men hired in a year by the members of these associations, but it can be estimated at 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ to 50 per cent of the total employed. A certain percentage of workers have not changed places for many years, so that the fluctuation will be found principally in seasonal or casual pursuits.

These bureaus require each applicant to give the name of his last employer, together with two additional such references, his age, occupation, experience, whether married or single, and wages wanted. He is not asked as to his union affiliations, although it is sometimes advantageous that this information be had, because it is a waste of the applicant's time to send a union man to a nonunion job, or a non-union man to a union job. The latter would not be eligible, under the rules of the union, to accept the job, nor would the employer be at liberty to hire him, while the union man would be restricted by his union from taking employment in a shop which his organization might be boycotting or have on the "unfair list." Neither do these bureaus ever place men in strike jobs under false pretenses. The applicant is invariably fully advised and left to his own judgment and pleasure in the matter. Nor is the attempt ever made to replace strikers with other men where it is evident there is likelihood of their soon being thrown out of work through reemployment of the strikers. Upon these points the policies of the associations are well defined.

The references of each applicant as to his skill, productive ability, and general character of service are fully investigated. It is necessary for a well-conducted bureau to have this information. Obviously, it would be useless to send a third-rate man to fill a first-

class job which he is incapable of holding. He either would not be hired or could not "make good," with the result that after an unnecessary loss of time and effort, he still would be looking for a job and the needs of the employer would not have been met. Meanwhile, an efficient worker could have secured and held the job to the mutual advantage of both parties concerned, while the third-rate man would be placed in a position that he could fill. Net result—the community prospers by reason of the permanency thus assured.

Applications received at these local employment bureaus are reduced to permanent form as follows: An alphabetical card is made out, together with a so-called "traveler," this latter card being placed numerically in the unemployed specialty file. Its object is at all times to indicate the men available under the respective classifications of trades. When requisitions for help are received, these files are consulted and post card "notices for jobs" are mailed, or the registered applicant is notified of vacancies by telephone if he has one. The unemployed file is separated into three divisions: Local, out of town, and "dead." The effort is constantly made to eliminate the cards of applicants with whom the bureaus are, at least for the present, unable to get in touch.

While it is not compulsory that they do so, members are asked to furnish the local employment office with daily or weekly employment reports in order that these bureaus may know whether the men they have sent to jobs have been hired. They are also requested to make reports on employees leaving. This is not compulsory, but is a valuable aid in keeping the bureaus in touch with the movements of workers. In this way they are able to advise men laid off or out of work where vacancies exist, thus reducing the percentage of unemployed and satisfying the needs of other employers.

To insure absolutely fair, honest rating of operatives, is a cardinal point in the system, the sole object being to classify properly the workers as to skill and experience. * * * Temperamental characteristics, environment and shop conditions are of consequence. To secure, at all times, a satisfactory employment bargain, the peculiar requirements of the worker necessitate his being placed in surroundings where associates and atmosphere will be agreeable to him, else he is not able to give the best service that is his.

These bureaus assume no responsibility for the accuracy of their information. It is used primarily for their guidance alone and is occasionally furnished to members, upon their request, the employer being left entirely to use his own discretion in the premises. Of course, the member could have obtained this information himself from the applicant's reference, but one of the objects of the bureaus is to save the employer the time, trouble, and expense of doing so.

The operative policies of these bureaus are largely followed by almost every institution or medium having to do with employment, such as the employment departments of such organizations as the Young Men's Christian Association, the Children's Aid Association, and others of similar standing, which, before they will serve as an intermediary, must know that an applicant is worthy of his hire and of the confidence of an employer. Not until the past record and history of the individual have been satisfactorily canvassed will they recommend anyone for employment.

The endeavor has been made to conduct the two local bureaus in Indianapolis so as to secure and retain the good will of both employer and employee, and of the general public. To-day these two institutions rest upon a comparatively solid foundation of confidence and mutual understanding. Their prestige and popularity are steadily on the increase. Their operation is a source of never-ending benefit, each member helping the other, and all with a view to encouraging the worker toward greater efficiency and progress.

A REPORT OF THE CONDITION AND MANAGEMENT OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES IN THE UNITED STATES, TOGETHER WITH SOME ACCOUNT OF THE PRIVATE EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES OF THE COUNTRY.

CHARLES B. BARNES, DIRECTOR, NEW YORK STATE BUREAU OF EMPLOYMENT.

HOW DATA WERE GATHERED.

A personal study was made of 22 public employment offices located in 19 cities in 10 different States. The superintendents and clerks of these offices were interviewed. Observations were made of the work carried on in the offices. Interviews were held with secretaries of chambers of commerce, leaders of labor unions, mayors, and other public and private citizens, concerning their knowledge of the public offices. In addition to this, other offices have been visited by investigators, and correspondence has been held with nearly all of the offices in the country. In May, 1914, the United States Commission on Industrial Relations held a three-day hearing in the city of New York on the subject of employment offices, which resulted in a great mass of testimony concerning both public and private offices.

All this material both from first and second hand has led to an intimate knowledge of the way in which the public employment bureaus throughout the entire country are run. It is purposed here to give briefly some of the salient points concerning their conduct and management, as well as some suggestions looking to their betterment.

HISTORY, EXTENT, AND WHY ESTABLISHED.

Public employment bureaus were first established in this country in Ohio, in 1890. Many causes led to their establishment, the principal one being that some relief was sought from the exploitation of workers by the private agencies; also there developed a strong need for the distribution of farm hands at certain seasons of the year as well as for the distribution of the unemployed who congregate in the larger cities, particularly in the winter time, or in times of industrial depression. Labor organizations have in many instances been instrumental in securing laws for the establishment of public agencies. While the organizations made little or no use of these agencies, yet the knowledge of the wrongs committed by the private agencies led them to lend their aid in securing the passage of laws, even though afterwards they took only a mild interest in the running of them.

For some one or all of the reasons just given, different States at different times have passed some sort of public employment office law until now there are 19 States having such laws. They are Colorado, Connecticut, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, New York, Ohio, Oklahoma, Rhode Island, South Dakota, West Virginia, and Wisconsin.

Illinois has the largest number of public offices (eight), while most of the States have from three to five. In at least three of the States the public employment office is merely an adjunct of the labor department, and the work is as yet carried on largely by mail. The laws are far from uniform, and the public offices in the different States come under the control of various State departments. In some, they are under the bureau of statistics; in others, under an industrial commission; and in most, under the commissioner of labor. In the States of Massachusetts, Wisconsin, and Ohio, which have as yet the best public employment offices in the country, all the employees are under civil service.

In addition to the States which have established offices, various cities have created municipal bureaus, especially on the Pacific coast, where offices have been opened in such cities as Los Angeles, Tacoma, and Seattle. In the States of Wisconsin and Ohio the State has cooperated with the cities both in the running of the offices and in their financial support. In the city of Cleveland, Ohio, the office is known as the State-city free labor exchange. There are now municipal bureaus opened in cities of the States of Arizona, California, Kentucky, New Jersey, Oregon, Texas, and Washington. Power has been granted the commission in the Philippine Islands to open public employment bureaus.

There is a rapidly growing interest in the subject of public employment offices. This is evidenced in many ways. There are at

present two bills on this subject before Congress. The United States Commission on Industrial Relations has issued a proposed plan, which may later take the form of a bill, looking to the establishment of Federal employment bureaus and clearing houses or to Federal cooperation with the States. In this second annual meeting of the American Association of Public Employment Offices 43 delegates representing 13 different States and Canada have come together to inter-delegates representing 13 different States and Canada met to interchange information and reports; to secure cooperation and closer connection between all public employment offices; to promote uniform methods; and to devise plans for the better distribution of labor throughout the country. The membership of this association is made up of superintendents of public employment offices, State labor commissioners, members of State industrial commissions, and others interested in the subject. Many reports have been read. The discussion of these and the resolutions which have been passed show that the delegates have realized the importance and possibilities of their work and are eager to raise the standard of it in every way.

THE NEED FOR PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES.

Is there a real need for public employment offices? A man seeking work to-day finds several avenues through which to go. He applies at the actual place of work. Or he goes to the headquarters of his labor union. Or he goes to a private or a public employment agency, or to the employment bureau of an employers' association, or to the bureau of some school or some philanthropic society. Or he may answer or insert an advertisement in some newspaper or technical journal.

So many diverse ways mean a scattering of energies and a loss of time and money not only to the one seeking work but to society as a whole.

Private agencies not only exploit the workers, but the hit-or-miss style in which most of their work is carried on results in a great economic loss. According to the size of the city, there may be anywhere from a dozen to two or three hundred private agencies in a community, each with its separate office and overhead expenses. These are supported largely by the class of workers who receive the lowest wages.

Most of the other ways through which men secure employment are just as costly and just as inefficient. For the man himself to seek the job directly from the employer and for the employer thus to hire means that the man in most cases must go from place to place at a great cost of time and money; that the employer must interview and

sort over hundreds and even thousands of men when he may only need ten or a hundred.

Peddling labor thus from door to door or from factory to factory is as primitive as the ox team. Some method which will save the time of the employer and the employee must be devised, and this method must be comprehensive enough not only to cover all the field, but to do it with the smallest expenditure of time and money. For this purpose a cooperating system of public employment offices must be created.

It must, however, be clearly recognized that employment offices in themselves do not and can not create jobs. They seek only to minimize the number of persons fruitlessly searching for work and more quickly to bring employer and employee together. It is nevertheless true that as these public offices grow and more and more cover the field they will in time (through the information which they are gathering) be able to devise a method whereby the worst effects of seasonal and cyclical variations in the labor market can be avoided. Thereby the number of casual laborers will be decreased and year-round employment made less a matter of chance and "luck."

EXISTING OFFICES LARGELY FAILURES.

It was the purpose of this investigation to find out if the present public employment offices were accomplishing the thing for which they were created. Observation of the actual conditions in the majority of the public employment offices now existing shows that they are, taken as a whole, a distinct failure and are not doing the thing for which they were established. In saying this, however, it must be understood that there are some very bright exceptions to this rule, and further that in the past year many of the offices have made changes in their methods which it is believed will gradually bring about great improvements.

The public employment office in Boston is generally considered the best in the country. All its employees are under civil service, and altogether their office force numbers 18. The men and women are handled in two distinct departments. There is a further division into skilled, unskilled, and juvenile, with a special clerk in charge of each division. The record system used is excellent, and it enables the office to know at any time the amount of help they are furnishing any employer. It also enables them to tell the number of times they have referred any one applicant to positions, and how often that applicant has secured work. With this sort of record system they not only keep in touch with the wants of employers, but to a large extent know the qualifications of the people they send out. A very good class of help is handled, and, as a rule, both employers and

employees seem satisfied with the work of the office. A monthly labor bulletin is issued, which endeavors to give the condition of the labor market for the past month, as well as the outlook for the coming one.

It is difficult to make a comparison between the public employment office in Boston and that in Milwaukee. The work of the office in Milwaukee is carried on just as effectively as that in Boston, but the conditions are different and the kind of employees handled is different. There is a large foreign population and it is the boast of this office that its employees are able to speak 18 different languages. A specialty is made of sending out farm hands, and very good work is done along this line. The men's department is entirely separate from the women's, the two being located in different parts of the city. There are two employees in the women's department and four in the men's, all under civil service. In the men's department there is a division into skilled and unskilled. The record system used is based somewhat on the Boston system. Changes, however, have been made to meet different working conditions. They have worked out a code scheme, which enables them to tell by glancing at an applicant's card just what he did on previous occasions when referred to positions. The State and city cooperate in the support of the office, and it has an advisory committee which is of real help, in that it takes more than a perfunctory interest in its conduct. This committee not only meets to hear a monthly report of the work done, but it endeavors to interest the public generally in the work of the office. While much of the work of the bureau is the sending out of group labor, there is a constant growth in the number of skilled employees handled, and a growing confidence on the part of the employers that the employment office can furnish them with efficient help.

The public employment office at Cleveland, Ohio, deserves mention for the good work which it is doing. In the last few months this office has been brought under civil service. The State and city have cooperated and the superintendent of the office, who receives his appointment from the State, has also been made commissioner of labor for the city. In this way the city immigration and the city vocational bureaus have been brought under the one head, and the work is all carried on in one office furnished by the city. There are nine employees altogether. The record system used was made up by taking the best parts from the Boston and Milwaukee systems, and is very good. Such changes have been made as were found necessary for the particular work of this office. There is a separate department for women. It is too early to say much about the work of this exchange under its new management, but the activity of the superintendent and his assistants has already built up a very large business,

and the office is making good both from the standpoint of the employer and of the employee.

The office at Tacoma, Wash., and the one at East St. Louis, Ill., are well conducted. The superintendent of the East St. Louis office spends about one-half of his time visiting the employers of the city, and by this means has built up a very good bureau. A very few of the other offices are doing fairly effective work.

POOR STATISTICS.

In spite of the statistics which are gotten out by most of the public employment bureaus they actually do very little business and the number of positions really filled by them falls far below the published figures. The reason for this is that most offices count every man sent out of the office as a position filled. It is a fact that some of the offices even count as positions filled jobs which they may later learn the men never reached. This, because at the end of the day the count is made of so many men sent out, and these are set down as positions filled. It is then too late to change the count. Most of the offices attempt to get returns from the applicants sent out, but on account of lack of clerical help and of persistence, the proportion of these is not in most places above 50 per cent, and offices were found where it was as low as 15 per cent. In some places the count was made by adding to the positions actually heard from a certain number of the unknown ones which, in the judgment of the office, must have been taken. This sort of calculation is absurd. The offices which make the greatest endeavor to learn the actual number of positions they fill find that only about 60 per cent of the applicants sent out secure positions.

The taking of information both from the applicant and employer, in the larger number of offices, is done in a very slipshod way, and it is only in a few of the better ones that there is recognition of the importance of getting full information about the job from the employer or full information concerning the working ability and character of the applicant. In several of the offices blanks are handed to the applicant which he is asked to fill out, and little information is obtained further than his name, age, and nationality. In other offices the designation of the work, the name of the employer, and his address are all that is taken.

CATER TO INEFFICIENT WORKERS.

The larger number of employment offices investigated seemed to exist for the handling of casual labor and of the class generally known as "down and out." This has resulted in employers refusing to patronize the offices because they say they can not get good workers

through them. Only employers having the poorest paid and most undesirable positions seek the aid of these offices. For this reason the offices get applicants for only the very poorest paid jobs. On the bulletin boards of many of them were listed jobs which the clerk said it was impossible to get men to take, because no one could earn a living at the wages offered. However, now and then, a man drops in who is in such desperate straits, or who is so poor a workman that he finally accepts such an offer. On the other hand, the better class of workers refuse to use the offices because they do not wish to be classified with the general run of applicants attracted to the public office.

While to a certain extent public employment offices have the taint of charity, yet it is not always for this reason that the better class of workers refuse their aid. It is because they are so often the resort of men who care for short-time jobs only or who are unfit for holding any but the most poorly paid and undesirable work. Even if the better class do use them they soon find that, from the very nature of things, the offices can not offer the grade of work sought. Too many of them were found to be simply the loafing places for the bums and hoboos of the community. In two or three of these offices the condition of the rooms and the class of men allowed to hang about in them are almost unbelievable.

It is charged that the public employment offices have a tendency to make workers more casual; that a man will the sooner throw up a job because he knows he can get another without cost. Most of the superintendents and clerks admitted this was true to a certain extent, but the claim was made that they attempted to prevent it by giving a warning whenever the tendency was noted.

HOUSING BAD.

Our observation of the housing of public employment offices showed that in many cases it was bad. Several of the offices were cramped for space and too frequently they were located either in the basement or on the second floor. A few were not well lighted and their ventilation was bad. The last meant foul smells from unwashed bodies of applicants and resulted in headaches for the office force. There was not always a thorough separation of the sexes, and in several offices both men and women had to come to the same counter.

HAVE NOT LESSENERD ABUSE OF PRIVATE AGENCIES.

Interviews with the private agencies in cities where public employment offices are located showed that the public offices were in no way their rivals, nor had the public offices taken from the private offices any desirable trade. In fact, many of the private agents expressed what seemed to be real satisfaction in their existence. "Before the

public office was established," said one, "I had to handle a lot of these short-time jobs to accommodate some of my customers and for this reason I had a lot of men hanging around my office that I did not want. The public office has taken all that away from me." In only a few cities did the private agencies give any serious regard to public offices.

One of the main reasons for the establishment of public employment bureaus was to lessen the exploitation of the workers by the private agencies. In no place was this found to have been accomplished by them. Whenever there was less exploitation it had been brought about by State inspection and regulation.

NO EXCHANGE OF INFORMATION.

There is no particular exchange of information between the different public employment offices. This was found to be so even in cities where two or more were located, and the exchange of information between the public employment offices inside of any one State is very perfunctory. Little use, if any, is made of such information as is exchanged.

VERY LITTLE ADVERTISING OR SOLICITATION.

Very few of the offices do any advertising in the daily papers and very little attempt is made to get before the public through the newspapers in any way.

It is a rare superintendent who makes any systematic effort to solicit from the employers of his section. Many of the superintendents, because they occasionally visit some plant where they are known or because they have an acquaintance with this or that business place, seem to consider that they have fulfilled their duty as far as knowledge of labor conditions is concerned, and that they have done as much soliciting as is necessary. In too many places the office force merely sits around waiting for applications for help to come in. In fact, several of the superintendents are just simply holding down their jobs.

LACK OF KNOWLEDGE ON THE PART OF THE PUBLIC.

The inactivity of the superintendents as well as the lack of public interest is shown by the small amount of general knowledge about the public offices. Public officials and leading men in the different States, secretaries of chambers of commerce, labor-union officials, mayors, and others were interviewed. It was an exception to find a man who had more than the vaguest notion of the public employment office. In one city there was a public official connected with the bureau which licensed private agencies who did not even know of the existence of the public employment office. In one well-known city

the secretary of the chamber of commerce, after having held the position for several years, had his attention called to the public employment office and claimed that that was his first knowledge of it. Often when inquiry about the public employment office was made of some public man or prominent labor official, the reply would be: "I have never heard any complaint about it." It seemed that if there was no complaint about the office, that that was the best that could be expected.

LACK OF UNIFORM RECORDS.

As has already been noted, the blanks and forms used in the various offices throughout the country were collected. These show a great lack of uniformity. It is intended in each State that all the offices of the State shall use the same system, but variation was sometimes found even here. There is so little communication between the offices in the different States that it was rare to find a superintendent who had more than a superficial knowledge of the methods used in other cities or States.

RECAPITULATION.

To sum up, then, the public employment offices of the United States, as a whole, are issuing inaccurate statistics. They are slipshod in recording information about employers and employees. They cater too much to casual laborers and down-and-outs, thus driving away the better class of workers. Too many are poorly housed and insufficiently lighted and ventilated. They fail to supplant private agencies or to lessen their exploitation of the workers. They do not exchange information with one another even when closely located. They fail to bring themselves to public attention either by advertising or otherwise. Their superintendents are inactive, and they have failed to arouse the slightest public interest in their work.

SOME CAUSES OF THIS CONDITION.

To what are these conditions due? Probably the one thing most apparent is the system under which superintendents and other employees of the offices are selected. Generally the offices have been regarded as "political plums" and turned over to men who had had little or no experience and who were not naturally fitted for the work. Then, even when the superintendent displayed an interest and had entire fitness, it often occurred that after he had held the office long enough to become more or less familiar with the work, a change in politics in the State meant his dismissal and a repetition of the same conditions. Then, too, where civil service has come in, it has happened that through noncompetitive examinations political appointees of the undesirable kind have been retained.

"ANYBODY CAN RUN AN EMPLOYMENT OFFICE."

It is too generally a belief that little or no experience is needed to conduct an employment agency. A man who could not earn more than \$15 a week as a clerk in a business house may, through political influence, be given a superintendency of an employment office at \$100 or more a month. It is considered that anyone can run an employment office. It is simply a question of sitting at a desk and receiving orders for jobs and sending out applicants to these jobs.

A superintendent is selected, let us say, because he is a member of a labor organization or because he is a veteran. This man has never had any experience in handling men. His education has been poor, because he has always had to earn his own living. He is far past middle life. He is of kindly nature and humane disposition, but he does not know even the first principles of questioning an applicant concerning the kind of work the applicant might desire or the sort of work for which he is fitted. He is a man who realizes to a certain extent his own deficiencies, and for this reason resents any suggestions on the part of his subordinates as usurpation of authority, thus not only creating friction, but killing in those younger, more active, and intelligent subordinates all desire to make the office better than it is. The deadening and inert atmosphere of such an office can be felt almost instantly upon entering and surely has its effect upon those who come to patronize it.

EMPLOYMENT OFFICES HELD IN LOW REGARD.

The conduct of many of the private agencies has led to a rather low regard on the part of the public for all employment agencies. Sometimes ex-saloonkeepers run private agencies; certain cities segregate the agencies and only allow them on certain streets, or after the consent of the residents of the neighborhood has been obtained. All this brings about a low regard for the calling and leads to bad political appointments. Further, it gives the idea that it is a business to which no very close attention need be paid. For instance, a superintendent in a well-known city holds two positions. One position, which depends upon the favor of his fellow workmen, is well attended to, while the superintendency of the public employment office gets only the most perfunctory attention. Another significant example is that of a saloonkeeper who receives an appointment as superintendent of a public employment office and runs the two businesses side by side without protest from anyone.

ATTITUDE OF ORGANIZED LABOR.

The attitude of organized labor toward public employment offices is another cause of their weakness. It was surprising to find in interviews with leading labor men how little they knew about the public

employment office of their city, and, without doubt, while on the surface labor organizations are more or less friendly toward public employment offices (often because a man from their own ranks holds the superintendency), yet it is true that on the whole organized labor regards the bureaus with mild contempt and considerable suspicion; contempt, in that no labor-organization men ever use the public bureaus, except in cases of dire necessity; suspicion, because there is always the fear that they may become strike-breaking centers.

On the other hand, interviews with manufacturers and other employers showed that they rarely, if ever, regarded the public employment office as a place where they might secure help. Among them also was found lack of knowledge and more or less suspicion. This was especially true if the superintendent of the public office happened to be a labor-organization man.

INSUFFICIENT APPROPRIATION.

Another leading cause for the present state of public employment offices is the lack of adequate financial support. Once an office is established, with a fairly decent salary for the superintendent and more or less meager salaries for office help, it is considered that enough has been done, and that the public employment office should be run without further expense. In many of the legislatures delegates from farming districts seem to think that these public employment offices are of value only to the cities in which they are located, and that they are of little or no use to the farming communities. Hence they are chary of voting for any but the smallest appropriation.

LOW PRICE PER PLACEMENT.

Insufficient appropriation leads to an endeavor on the part of superintendents to make a showing in the way of a low price per placement. The number of positions filled must total large so that the cost can be stated in a few cents. The cost per position secured is given as 19 cents in Minnesota and 30 cents in Indiana. Where it was suggested in one place that it might be well to make some changes looking to the betterment of the office, the reply was that the State would not stand for a higher price per placement than that which has been published in the yearly report. The way in which this price has been worked out was a true exemplification of the fact that figures can be made to lie.

SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR BETTERMENT.

All these statements sum up the causes of the condition of the majority of the public employment offices of the country. What is the remedy?

The law.

An adequate law is necessary, although even a good law will not accomplish all the changes desired. This is shown by the fact that in one State having several employment offices, some of them were found to be the worst examples of their kind, while an office in another part of the State was among the best found anywhere.

Such a law will not enter too much into details, but will specify general principles, leaving details to be worked out by the director and superintendents. It will call for flexible salaries, so that all the employees will have the incentive of a raise for giving their very best efforts to the work.

Civil service.

The law will above all things require the appointment of all employees by civil service, from top to bottom, and not the kind of civil service which will keep in bad political appointees by noncompetitive examinations.

Is civil service a good remedy? Our observation of many offices showed that in those where the employees had been selected under civil service a far higher grade of workers was found than in the offices where the appointments were political.

Impartiality.

An essential requirement is that the office should maintain a strict impartiality as between employers and applicants. It will be disastrous to any public employment office if it is thought to be dominated by the influence of either. The success of the office will depend on the friendship both of employers and organized labor, and both must be made to understand that the public employment office is a common meeting ground.

Advisory committee.

Not only for the purpose of securing impartiality, but also for the purpose of assuring all interested that the office is really being conducted impartially, there should be an advisory committee. This advisory committee should have equal representation from the ranks of organized labor and from the organizations of employers. The general public, through its elected officials, should also have representation. The bringing together of these different men would tend to a better understanding of the real status of employment offices and also to the taking of a more active interest in them. Thus, in addition to securing impartiality in the running of the office, there would come about the education of the public to a higher regard for employment offices. This would lead to larger appropriations. Then too, when it was understood that there was real benefit accruing from

such offices, it would be possible to induce a better class of men and women to do the work at an adequate compensation. Our observation of the best offices in the country shows that to conduct an employment office successfully requires the same amount of training and the same intelligence as is required to conduct our best public schools and colleges. And every superintendent should be of that grade.

Financial cooperation of cities.

In specifying the cities where public employment offices should be established, the law should give preference to those cities which are willing to extend adequate financial support to the State office. In this way a cooperation could be brought about which would greatly aid the advisory committee in its work. This also might help to overcome the prejudice of the rural districts against liberal appropriations. That such cooperation can really be effected is shown by the example of Cleveland, Ohio, and Milwaukee, Wis. There are several other States in which the city or county furnishes quarters to the public employment office, rent free. But too frequently this means the placing of the public employment office in the basement of a public building, often inaccessible and lacking in ventilation and light.

Reporting to a central office.

A uniform system of reporting from all offices should be required. These reports should be sent to some central office and should show the amount of work done by each office and contain such other information as the State director of public employment offices may deem necessary.

Elimination of the word "free."

The law should specify that the services of all these should be free. But in any reference to the offices, as far as the blanks or any legal documents in connection with them is concerned, the word "free" should never be used. We have long outgrown the use of the term "free public schools"; why should the word "free" be used in connection with employment offices, which in their field are covering just as important a public service?

With the law framed in the general manner here outlined, it will be possible to make State employment offices conform more or less to local conditions, and while local conditions will, to some extent, govern the method by which they are conducted, there are certain things which can be more or less standardized.

The superintendent.

The superintendent should be, if possible, a man who is known to be free from the influence of labor organizations on the one hand and of employers on the other.

Where the size of the city justifies, he should be largely free from the detail work of the office, and even in the smallest offices he should arrange to have certain hours for outside work. Before starting an office in any city, or, if already established, before taking active hold of the office, the superintendent ought to visit every manufacturing plant and every place where extensive operations are carried on within his jurisdiction. He should get acquainted with the owners and the foremen. He should have the kind of talks with them which would convince them that he meant to deal fairly with everyone and that he was there for the purpose of making his office a place in that city to which any and all could turn when they wished to secure help. He should find out at each place the kind of men needed and assure the foremen that attempts would be made to give them the kind of men required, asking, of course, for their forbearance in the first trials.

In his rounds of this kind the superintendent should get acquainted with the seasonal character and varying demands of the labor market in his city, and in the same way he should learn about impending changes. He ought to do this several times a month, not at set periods, but just as frequently as good judgment and time would allow.

When the superintendent learns of the taking out of building permits or when he learns of the successful bidder on a contract, he should visit those at the head of the different firms intending to do the work and solicit their patronage.

He should become a member of the city club or of any other public body having to do with the business of the city so as to keep himself informed on all proposed activities.

After he has thoroughly covered his field and become well acquainted, much time could be saved if he would adopt a method of regularly calling up employers on the telephone and asking for their orders or for the prospects concerning future orders. Of course, judgment and discretion would have to be used, and this would be a thing which could not be turned over to someone who would merely make a perfunctory lot of telephone calls. It is nearly always necessary for an employment office to follow up the sending of an applicant by a telephone call the following day, and this gives another opportunity for the soliciting of orders.

This taking a vital interest not only in the worker sent to a position, but also in the needs of an employer, is bound to result in increased confidence and good will. An active, tactful superintendent by taking note will find many ways by which he can be helpful to both employer and worker.

Where possible he should hold himself ready to address any meeting in the city concerning employment, and he could gradually bring

it about that whenever any subject concerning the welfare of the city was being discussed he would be invited to tell the part his office could take in such a movement.

Location of offices.

In selecting rooms for an employment office the ground floor should always be preferred and they should be located in a part of the city readily accessible to all local transportation. An ideal condition would be to have separate waiting rooms for all the different classes of applicants. If this can not be done, as much space should be allowed for applicants as is possible, always giving ample working room for the office employees.

Loafing in offices not permitted.

An office can be more successfully run if it keeps in touch with its applicants, and it should, if possible, have an available supply for emergency calls. It should be a fixed rule that the public employment office should not come to be looked upon as a loitering and loafing place, however. An applicant should not be allowed to remain at any one time in the office longer than is necessary to obtain information and to be sent out. It is especially desirable that at no time should the waiting room be filled with a standing crowd unless the applicants are properly lined up; in other words, the mob appearance should always be avoided. During the early hours of the morning, when the rooms are necessarily filled, all applicants should be required to stand in a line. For all other hours of the day (unless for special periods) chairs should be provided for as many as can be accommodated, and no standing about should be permitted.

Specific hours for certain work.

Certain hours should be set apart for employers to apply for help. They can be educated to understand that they can get men only at certain hours in the day. This education of employers has already been accomplished in one or two cities. On the other hand, applicants should be taught that they need apply only at certain hours and they should be made to feel perfectly secure in absenting themselves from the office at all other times. All this should be done to make it clear that the public employment office is not a loitering place for those out of work, but, rather, a place for those who seek work.

Should offices discriminate?

It was found in this investigation that even in the offices which were badly run, discrimination was made, and most of the superintendents were free to say that they made discrimination and felt that they were justified. On this question there undoubtedly can be only one position taken: Public employment offices must and should

make a most rigid discrimination, but only along the line of fitness and reliability. No applicant should be discriminated against because he refuses certain work offered him, nor, on the other hand, any employer because he refuses to take certain men sent him. It is only by proper discrimination that the confidence of applicants and patronage of employers can be secured. It is true that promptness should be the motto of every office and orders should be filled as soon as possible. Often, to do this, close scrutiny of the men can not be made, but hasty orders are generally for a class of men which do not require such fine selection. But in all other cases the office ought to select such men as will build up a belief among the employers that it always tries to send them the best class of workers to be had.

A high standard beneficial in the long run.

Observation shows that the public employment office must take itself, not only in the public belief but in actuality, out of the class of employment agencies dealing only with the unfit. To set up a high standard will in the long run give the public employment office more opportunities to be of help to those who are less capable. Once it has thoroughly established itself in the confidence of employers it will then be able to secure from them, orders for all sorts of help. Among these orders there will always be a certain number of jobs which can be given out to the less capable workers. If, however, the office starts out to handle only the less efficient workers, orders for help of any kind will naturally grow less.

After having seen the state to which public employment offices in this country have been brought, largely through their dealing with the less capable class, we do not believe that too strong insistence can be made that the public employment office must be an agency where the very best of workers can be obtained by employers and where the very best workers can feel that they can apply and get the kind of work for which they are fitted.

Division into departments.

The subject of handling different classes of workers leads us naturally to the subject of dividing the larger offices into departments. Of course all offices should have separate departments for men and women, though, if possible, both should be in the same building. Where the size of the office will at all justify it, there should be a further division into skilled and unskilled, and as the office grows larger, there should be a further division into mechanical, clerical, etc. By thus having departments it will be possible to handle a large number of the less dependable as well as the short-time workers in the unskilled department. When the employer demands certain cheap labor it can always be made clear to him that he is getting his supply of workers from the department handling this class.

Advertising.

The public employment offices should advertise. The amount and kind will have to be decided by each superintendent. The private agencies find it profitable to advertise, and some of the best public offices advertise regularly in the daily papers. Too little advantage is taken by most offices of opportunities to get free advertising. The live employment office is always a source of "live" news from the daily newspaper standpoint, and advantage should be taken of this to keep the office well and favorably known. Many superintendents content themselves by sending out a perfunctory circular or card. Some of the very clerks sending them out expressed the belief that these circulars were thrown into the waste basket and that little or no patronage was secured through their use.

Bulletin boards.

The use of a bulletin board will largely have to be decided by local conditions and the number of positions an office has to offer. There are many arguments made for and against them. It is said by some that if applicants do not see on the board positions they feel they can fill, they leave the office without registering for future work. Also that applicants, seeing certain positions posted, will claim they are able to do the work and thus get sent out to positions which they are utterly unable to fill.

On the other hand, it is said that all positions which the office has to offer should be posted so that when applicants see the board they at once know whether there is anything available for them and are thus not required to loiter about till their turn comes to inquire. It is admitted that applicants not fitted for positions will claim the right to be sent out to posted positions, but it has been proved by experience that frankness with applicants is just as necessary to the success of the office as is frankness with employers.

Where a bulletin board is used, it should be kept right up to the minute. All positions ready to offer should be put on it, and every position removed as soon as filled. A "stale" bulletin board begets a lack of confidence in an office.

Office hours.

Quite a wide variance was found in the hours of opening and in the closing hours of the different public offices. Some open as early as 7 a. m. and others not until 9 a. m.; some close as early as 4 p. m., but 5 p. m. is the usual hour; a few close at noon for an hour, but most are open throughout the day. Where an office handles a large number of common laborers, it must open at 7 o'clock to get them to their work on time. In the large cities, where the size of the office

force admits of relays, offices should open at 7 o'clock; most assuredly there should be some one at the telephone by 7 to receive orders. In this connection we believe that it is possible to educate employers so that they may make their applications in the evening for workers to be sent them the following morning, and that it may even be possible to get many employers to give their orders between 3 and 4 o'clock of the afternoon before, so that laborers may be given introduction cards in the evening, thus enabling them to show up for work at the proper time in the morning.

Charging a fee.

A few public employment officials were found who advocated charging applicants a nominal fee, say 5 or 10 cents, for the purpose of eliminating undesirable applicants. This would not be at all advisable. It would entail a large amount of clerical work; it would not accomplish the thing for which it is advocated—keeping out the undesirable. Many of these people manage to get enough money to patronize the private agencies. Then, too, if this class paid the small fee, they would feel they had the right to demand that they be sent out. But, above all, it is better frankly and openly to tell an applicant why he is not sent to a position than to attempt to keep him out through a fee.

Record system of the offices.

Every public employment office should have an effective system of record keeping. Unless this is done, there can not be proper discrimination made among the applicants nor among employers.

The employment bureaus of employers' associations, all high-grade private agencies, and many public offices are agreed that the card-filing system is the best. This system can be so adjusted as to meet the demands of the smallest or largest office. It can be started with two filing cards and an introduction card.

The first card is used to register the applicant and gives his name, age, last occupation, kind of work desired, etc. It is filed alphabetically.

The second or employers' card registers the demand for help, the number and kind, the wages paid, etc. It is filed alphabetically.

The card of introduction should be either a Government postal card or a card ready for mailing. This gives applicant full information where he is to go, to whom to apply, etc. It contains a request that it be returned to the office showing whether or not the applicant has been taken on.

As the work of an office increases or as soon as the work is divided into departments a third filing card will be found necessary. This will be an extra employers' card. It will be kept permanently on

file while the other employers' card (which is "tied" to it by a number) can be shifted about into the different departments. The third card is made necessary because the same employer orders help from different departments, some skilled and others unskilled. When the third card is introduced it is filed alphabetically, while the second card is now filed numerically.

In order to keep correct record of both applicants and employers, whenever an applicant is sent out to an employer that employer's name or number is noted on the back of the applicant's card, while at the same time the applicant's name is written on the back of the employer's card, the date being given in both instances and the kind of work.

If the applicant secures the place it is later noted on his card. If he does not, by a system of check marks, the reason why is noted. The same information is also recorded on the employer's card.

By this means the office has a full record of its transactions with both parties. It is now able to tell how often it has sent any one applicant to work, how long he held his position, something about his ability as a workman, etc. From the employer's card can be learned the amount and kind of work he has to offer at different times and the amount of business the office has done with him in any given period. . It is plainly evident that this information is of value in adjusting men to positions and meeting employers' demands.

The amount of information taken on the cards might vary. No more information should be asked than is necessary to the actual work of the office. Offices which started out with a card very full of questions found that improvement could be made by cutting out questions which were rarely answered and of doubtful value. Improvement has always meant simplification.

In addition to the regular records kept of all those with whom the office has dealing, there should be a "live" list of applications for work from those out of town or those having special skill or unusual qualities. These applications should be renewed monthly so that the office can know whom it has to draw from when it receives an order for help of this kind.

The reports issued by public employment offices should show the number of applicants referred to positions, the number of positions reported filled, and the number of applications for help. Further, they should show the occupation of the applicants, the kind of work to which they were sent, and the kind of workers demanded by the employer. It would be well also to classify the positions given out into regular and temporary. When time and clerical help permit the number of actual applicants appearing at the office seeking work should be taken. Beyond this is a wide field of statistical information into which the office can venture as it finds time and necessity.

REGULATION AND CONTROL OF PRIVATE EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES.

PROF. M. B. HAMMOND, INDUSTRIAL COMMISSION OF OHIO.

I have not had as long experience in the supervision of private employment agencies as have some of the other gentlemen who are present at this convention. My knowledge of the situation has been gained within the past year, while, as a member of the Industrial Commission of Ohio, I have had the management of the five public employment offices in the State and the supervision of the private exchanges. I do not feel, however, that I can agree with the opinions expressed by a number of those present, to the effect that the private employment offices should be legislated out of existence.

In the first place, it seems to me that no such steps should be taken until the public is ready to substitute something to take their places, and at present in no one of our chief industrial States could existing public offices handle all the applicants who present themselves at private exchanges seeking employment.

In the second place, I believe that many of these private exchanges are doing excellent work and are doing it in an honest manner. This is particularly true of the specialized labor exchanges, those that undertake to find work for teachers, engineers, clerks, and the better-paid class of manual labor. No public employment office which I know of is prepared as yet to handle this class of applicants. The specialized private employment agencies are for the most part, I believe, doing this work in a fairly efficient manner, and those who seek the offices can easily afford to pay the commission charged for the service rendered.

Third, even as regards the general labor exchange, I feel that it should be the aim of the public office to force these out by competition rather than to undertake to force them out by means of legislation. Of course I do not mean that in case of violation of the law regulating them they should not be forced to surrender the license; but I mean that as long as the public fails to furnish a sufficient number of free labor exchanges the matter will only be made worse by undertaking to abolish the private exchanges.

In the city of Cleveland we have at present twenty private employment exchanges. One of these offices claims to have handled, during the past year, about 30,000 applicants; this office has had in its employ, I understand, about 18 clerks and solicitors, and has been able to canvass the city for jobs. In spite of the great improvement in the public office in that city, it is not able, with the funds allowed to it, to do anything approaching this work. It will be some years, I fear, before the public will take sufficient interest in the work of our public labor exchanges to provide funds adequate for the handling of the unemployed.

With regard to the regulation of exchanges, it seems to me that the two things most needed are: First, that the private employment offices should be forbidden by law to send applicants to employers who have not applied directly to the office for help; and second, that only a very small fee should be charged to applicants at the time of registration and no other fee should be charged unless a position has actually been secured, in which case a commission might be charged varying in amount with the wage paid and the length of time for which the position is filled.

As you all know, it is the practice of many offices to study the "want-ad" columns in the newspapers and then bill such positions on their books or blackboards as applications for help which they have received; some of them do not undertake to call up the employers who have advertised to find out whether or not the position has been filled, and some of them send several applicants for the same position. This is something which the offices should be forbidden to do.

With reference to the fees, my own feeling is that a registration fee of not more than 25 cents, certainly not more than 50 cents, should be charged at the time of registration, and that the office should not be compelled to refund this even if it is not able to find employment for the applicant. Of course I know that the objection is immediately raised that the office will charge the fee and not undertake to find work, but I think that applicants will soon learn that certain offices do not have positions to fill and will be able to distinguish between the offices which do have positions and those which charge a registration fee merely for the sake of the fee.

In behalf of the offices it should be said that they should be allowed to make some charge for the trouble of registering the applicant and undertaking to find work, even if they do not succeed in doing so. Such a system of small registration fees, not refundable, would put an end to one of the most difficult matters which we have to handle in Ohio—and I believe it is a problem in other States—that of determining when a refund is due.

THE DISTRIBUTION OF LABOR AND THE PROBLEM OF TRANSPORTATION.

WALTER L. SEARS, SUPERINTENDENT, PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAU, NEW
YORK CITY.

Labor distribution is a problem which has taxed the ablest minds of the world for a generation. The efficient distribution of labor is a vital matter. There are millions of employables in the United States who are unemployed some time during the year, even during

periods of greatest industrial activity and prosperity, and while this vast army of willing workers is idle, though honestly seeking employment, thousands of employers are vainly seeking help. In the absence of reliable information they do not know where to look for such help as they may need.

Doubtless the public employment office, labor exchange, or clearing house is an important factor in the solution of the question. Well-managed public labor exchanges can render valuable service by co-operation with the Federal Government in an effective scheme for distribution of labor, but public employment offices alone, as they exist in this country at least, can not solve the problem.

A scheme for practical, prudent publicity is what is needed in order that reliable information as to the condition of the labor market may be had from competent unprejudiced authorities and promptly given such country-wide circulation as the conditions require. We know that employers somewhere are seeking help and that willing employables are vainly seeking employment; therefore it is of paramount importance that we earnestly endeavor to devise some plan by which, without too much legislation or machinery, we can judiciously collect and disseminate information relative to the demand for labor throughout the country.

Whatever method is devised should be simple yet comprehensive and practical in every sense of the word. As suggested heretofore, it is chiefly a matter of distributing information. In the first instance, there must be a demand for labor, and then competent authorities should determine whether or not it can be supplied in the immediate locality of the demand. If it can be obtained there, well and good, but if the kind of labor in demand is scarce, and assuming, of course, that conditions as to wages, etc., are right and no labor trouble prevails, then the next move is to widen the sphere of publicity with a view to obtaining the required help from the nearest available market.

The Federal Government, which is manifestly the proper party to deal with this question, has done very little in a practical way. It is the duty of the Federal Government to institute some plan by which to reduce idleness, to shorten the time between the loss of one position and the procuring of another for every individual who is unfortunate enough to become idle, and thereby to increase the number of producers. To this end, it should furnish country-wide, authentic information to the public as to where help or employment may be secured, so that the seeker either for work or help may readily learn where to apply.

Until very recently it was thought by some that Federal legislation was necessary before anything could be accomplished. The

authorities now realize the fact that the Department of Labor can operate under the act of 1907 creating the Division of Information. As a practical means of disseminating information as to the labor market under existing authority, I recommend a bulletin of opportunities, to be issued by the Federal Government, similar to the Weather Bureau map. The judicious publicity of "opportunities for employment" in this country obviously would tend to accomplish a nation-wide equalization and betterment of labor conditions. This bulletin could be posted in such places as expediency and experience proved desirable.

Publicity should be given to opportunities only where a considerable number of a certain kind or kinds of help were idle or wanted, and I have suggested that the figure be set at 500, for the reason that a smaller number could probably be taken care of locally. If there were 500 or more persons representing a particular trade idle or wanted in any locality, the bulletin would show that fact, so that all who were interested might readily learn just what to do.

Now, the question arises: How shall we obtain authentic information relative to the needs of the employer? My proposition, it seems to me, offers the simplest and most practical plan relative to the collection and dissemination of such information, for the reason that it deals with information coming directly from the best source in each respective locality, a competent representative committee. I recommend that the mayor or chief executive of each city in the United States having a population of over 50,000 appoint a representative committee, consisting of himself and a representative of the chamber of commerce, of the charity board, of the labor organizations, of the postmaster, and of the immigration office or public employment office, if there are any such offices in the city. These committees, under proper rules and regulations, could prepare information relative to the condition of the labor market in their respective localities and report to the Federal Government on specially prepared blanks.

One very vital consideration must not be lost sight of, and that is, employers should not be encouraged or permitted to bring into a given territory more of a certain class of help than is actually needed to supply the demand in that territory. Obviously great care will have to be exercised along that line to prevent the flooding of a given section with certain classes of help, thereby lowering the market rate of wages for that kind of labor. On the other hand, organized labor should not be permitted to keep out certain classes of help from a given section, simply for the purpose of cornering the market for that particular kind of labor.

The plan outlined obviates the occurrence of such undesirable conditions by providing for a competent advisory committee represent-

ing all elements concerned in the placement of labor. The committee should be exceedingly careful not to misrepresent labor conditions. Each report should be certified to by a notary public, thereby assuring its authenticity.

The matter of publishing the bulletin in certain languages, together with other pertinent details, such as wages, hours, and tenure, while important, is of secondary consideration and can doubtless be perfected as the result of experience.

I feel certain that the plan outlined can be made peacefully operative and highly beneficial to both capital and labor. It should be a country-wide graphic illustration of labor conditions, and the Federal Government is the proper party to prepare and disseminate this information.

THE TRANSPORTATION PROBLEM.

The distribution of ordinary commodities is a vastly different problem from the distribution of labor. The bill of lading would not be tolerated by intelligent human beings. In Germany and a few other European countries they have a system for the distribution of labor and for handling the matter of transportation which is doubtless ideal in a country where there are distinct classes, but such a system would not be tolerated in this country for one minute. The liberty-loving American properly refuses to be tagged or passported about the country, as would be necessary if we adopted the German system.

Conditions in America differ, also, in that under the interstate commerce law the railroads are prohibited from making reduced rates for transportation, except under certain conditions with which I am not familiar.

The United States is a free country where no class lines are drawn, or if they are, it is very difficult to tell where the lines begin and where they end. The Government does not own the lines of transportation, and in other ways conditions are vastly different than they are abroad, and perhaps properly so. We are living under a republican form of government, and while there may be certain ideas which we may properly adopt as a result of the experience of the foreign offices, we should be very careful not to go too far along paternal lines. We should be extremely careful not to adopt any scheme which will tend to make the individual dependent upon the Government for support or that will be likely to make him a public charge or take away his initiative or independence.

Whatever plan is adopted by which to provide for paying or advancing the expense of transportation, I have yet to learn of any plan which will insure that the applicant will accept the position upon reaching his destination. We have tried the so-called Wisconsin plan, but it is not sure. Suppose the applicant had no bag-

gage? Should he be denied an opportunity to work? Suppose he had ample baggage and it was checked to his prospective employer, the applicant could under the common law demand his baggage, unless he had signed a legal paper to the contrary, and the prospective employer would be compelled to give it up. So where is the surety that any applicant will accept employment upon reaching his destination? He may claim, and perhaps properly so, that conditions are not as they were represented to him, and in that case who is to be the arbitrator? I have not yet heard of any plan being advanced which would be proof against fraud.

I have no systematic plan to offer, but will be pleased to make a few suggestions as a result of my experience in handling the transportation phase of the unemployment question.

In the first place, I would not favor any plan which would provide for transportation being paid wholly by the Government, except where it was clearly evident in a given city that there was excessive congestion and unemployment. Under such conditions I would favor a plan by which the city and the Federal Government would each pay half of an excursion or trainload rate.

I do not believe it wise to consider the payment of transportation where the fare would be less than some minimum rate, such as \$5. Where it is in excess of the minimum rate I think it would be best to require the applicant to pay 20 per cent, the Federal Government 40 per cent, and the employer 40 per cent. If there were excursion rates or shipment made in trainload lots the rate would be much lower and all would benefit correspondingly.

Whenever practical it would be well to require the applicant for employment to show proof of his offer of employment from the employer before transportation is advanced. I should not favor any scheme providing for the assignment of wages as security for repayment, for the reason that there might seem to be an implied agreement on the part of the applicant for employment to accept the position on reaching his destination though conditions might be vastly different than represented before embarking, and thus more or less controversy might arise as to the financial obligation of the workman.

PLAN FOR GATHERING AND DISTRIBUTING HARVEST HANDS IN THE GRAIN STATES.

W. G. ASHTON, COMMISSIONER OF LABOR, OKLAHOMA.

Let me say by way of opening this subject that I am not theorizing in any way on the plan advanced, but have confined myself to the plan actually put in operation by our own department in handling 13,000 men.

Since it was our first attempt, I am sure that another year the same amount of work, with little additional expense, can be handled more easily and more quickly. I desire to say also the entire expense was less than \$800.

ORGANIZATION.

By reason of the fact that our grain crops are perishable and, therefore, must be harvested in a very short time, I can not but liken the situation to that of our industrial institutions where speed is the important factor.

Unity of action is necessary to the success of handling the army of men required, just as much as it is to the success of any industrial undertaking. We can secure unity of action only by means of a thoroughly competent organization.

This organization must be carefully planned and with but one end in view—results. It must be subject to one man and that man and each of the several employees under him must be thoroughly experienced in handling men. The same principle that applies to a large mercantile establishment or manufacturing plant is applicable in this case. No one would entertain for a moment the idea that a corporation doing a mercantile or manufacturing business would employ, as the head of such an institution or of the different departments, an inexperienced laborer or incompetent man.

The work of handling the wheat harvest, being something that assumes unusual proportions, demands of the head of the Government agency, and the several subordinates, even greater consideration.

The head of the organization and each man under him should possess, above all things, good common sense. The fact that he is versed in mathematics or is a mechanic or a practical farmer does not in any way qualify him to act as an agent of the State in such an undertaking. Again, it would be unwise to select men for this work because of any political affiliation or any special favoritism on the part of the community in which they are to be employed.

You understand it is not always the man who offers his services to the country who is the logical man for the undertaking, and I would a thousand times prefer a man who makes some personal sacrifice. Men should be selected not because of their desire to benefit themselves financially through the work but because of a desire to serve the country, the farmers, and the business men and to see the immediate community prosper.

In every community there are a number of such men who are thoroughly familiar with the local situation and by virtue of this fact they are more desirable as representatives of the State department.

These are not merely suggestions, but rules that must be strictly adhered to; therefore the most important feature that should be considered in legislation looking to the handling of the crops in the grain States is that the department having jurisdiction and control of the work should not be bound by any legislative act that would force it to select the services of some certain official as a part of the organization. Such a procedure, in my judgment, would be the height of folly, for the reason that these men are not to be expected to be adapted to such work, and again, it would be imposing upon them an additional duty with no compensation therefor, which undoubtedly in some cases would be a burden.

The department should be absolutely free to select any person it pleases and be given authority to compensate him, at the expense of the State, for actual service rendered.

DETERMINING THE NUMBER OF MEN NEEDED.

A perfect organization would avail nothing if compelled to grope in the dark and have nothing definite to work by.

A contractor would not give you an estimate upon a house without first having seen the plan and specifications in order that he might know the amount of material required and the amount of time it would take to construct the building.

It is just as necessary that the State determine in advance the exact number of men that will be required, the exact acreage, and the wages per day, as it is for a contractor to determine in advance the amount of material required to erect a building.

In determining the number of harvest hands we can take a trip over the State and by talking to implement dealers, hardware men, bankers, merchants, and commercial club secretaries, gather some idea of about how many men will be needed, but the State should not do business in this haphazard way.

In this connection it may be said there are a number of avenues open through which the preliminary work may be carried on, but in my judgment there is only one practical way—only one way that will give you the exact number of men needed—and that is by interviewing the farmer.

I speak from practical experience on this question. In the southern part of the State one of our representatives in his trip visited the newspaper offices, the commercial club secretaries, the bankers, and others who might be interested or who had some knowledge of local conditions. He talked to none of the farmers and after the conclusion of the trip could only say that they would need approximately so many men in each county. There was no positive conclusion.

In the north and northwestern parts of the State we adopted different tactics. In other words, we came in direct contact with the

farmers by use of the telephone, by meeting them in the cities while they were shopping, and by letter. The result of this canvass was that at its conclusion we had orders from individual farmers for over 3,500 men, the result of a systematic campaign.

Now, let me speak briefly of the work to be carried on upon entering a town. We will take for instance a county-seat town. The first thing upon arriving there is to step into the rural telephone office and secure some telephone directories. Take these down to the bankers and the implement dealers and after explaining to them your mission request them to take a directory and place a check mark opposite the names of those farmers who have good wheat acreage.

By visiting the several implement dealers and the several banks you have in concrete form a list of the farmers who grow the bulk of the wheat within a radius of from 15 to 25 miles of that town. While these men are thus engaged you can step into the county clerk's office and secure from him the exact wheat acreage of that county. If he is at all posted upon local conditions, and such officials usually are, he can tell you the particular townships in the county that raise wheat. In addition to that, county officials are, as a rule, more or less acquainted over the county and within a few moments' time, from a list of the taxpayers, you can secure a list of those farmers whom it will probably be impossible for you to reach on account of the limited time in which you have to make the canvass, or of their location in isolated parts of the county.

The next step is to call at the local telephone office, where you will be accommodated with a telephone, and upon request the operator will put in on the line over which you wish to talk a general alarm ring. This will bring each subscriber to the telephone. In 2 minutes' time you can explain your mission and request that they in turn call the operator or the bank or the implement dealer, or whomever you have made arrangements with, and advise him as to the number of harvest hands they will need. You go on to the next line, or interview individual farmers over the phone, as seems most practicable.

Now, another valuable thing about the telephone is, it is unnecessary to make a personal visit to all the little towns in the county by reason of the exchange service with the near-by small towns, and by asking for those connections you can reach farmers for miles and miles. In short, a half day actively spent in the ordinary country town will reach the majority of the farmers within a radius of from 20 to 25 miles.

At this point the letter program becomes valuable; in fact it is the only way in which it works successfully. After the day's work is over, a personal letter should be sent to each farmer from whom you secured an order, assuring him that you will do everything in

your power to supply him with men and urging him again to insist upon his neighbors informing you of the number of men they will need. This, coming from the main office, shows him you mean business.

Again, those farmers with whom you do not come in contact should be communicated with and informed that you regretted inability to talk with them personally, explaining your proposition in detail, and soliciting their cooperation. This, with us, brought results.

Another important feature is this: Suppose that after calling some three or four farmers on a given line, with no response, you secure a connection with a farmer and, after getting his requirements, you inform him that you were unable to reach Mr. Jones. Invariably that farmer can tell you and will tell you that within the last day or two he has talked with this man about harvest hands, and that he will need so many men. With this man the letter is an important factor. You can simply write him to the effect that you secured the information from his neighbor, and that unless you hear from him to the contrary you will send him so many men at a certain time. He will appreciate your good offices and probably get more information for you.

All of this agitation brings results, and, in addition to this, the bankers, the merchants, and the newspaper men will urge upon the different farmers whom you have not interviewed the necessity of cooperation with the department. I am confident that I do not exaggerate when I say that a systematic campaign of this kind, waged from 15 to 20 days prior to the time it becomes necessary for you to place your advertising for men, will give you within 5 per cent of the exact number of men needed in each and every county in the State. You can verify these figures very easily when you have the wheat acreage and the county's male population, rural and city.

This preliminary survey must be conducted in 15 days' time at the most, and therefore your force must be sufficiently large to cover the grain belt within that time, as weather conditions are liable to change the condition of the wheat crop at any time prior to 30 days before the actual harvest begins.

When this survey is completed you have the individual orders from the different farmers, and this aids you materially in the distribution work which follows.

The system I have mapped out to you was executed by three men who covered some 25 or 30 counties in a period of about 18 days. You can understand that the survey was of necessity limited, but the result we obtained justifies my conclusion that, with the proper number of helpers, it is a sure method by which to determine the number of men required.

In conclusion on this point, my experience shows we would need only a limited force to do the preliminary work, for the reason that every merchant, banker, and enterprising citizen desires to advertise, and by putting this proposition to him in the right way he will do this work for you. To illustrate, one afternoon I phoned a banker in another town about my mission and advised him I would be there the next day, but would have only about two hours in town. I outlined my system of getting information and requested that he do some telephoning in advance.

He did the work, and the next morning I secured orders for 250 men from 75 farmers in less than one hour.

On another occasion a retail lumberman secured information from all farmers in his locality. The chairman of the commercial club in another city secured orders for over 700 men in five days by use of the telephone, covering half the county. These things can be done all over the State with the proper effort.

DISTRIBUTION OF INFORMATION.

Probably 50 per cent of the men who follow the harvest in the grain States are what might properly be termed professional harvest hands who follow this vocation every year. The remainder consists of college students, employees of different industrial institutions, and railway employees who are out of employment and who come to the grain States knowing of the opportunities to make a nice "stake" within a short time.

These men come principally from the northern, eastern, and southern parts of the United States. Under the present system or condition about the only method of reaching these men is through the newspapers and, as has been demonstrated during the past year, through the post office and other Government agencies. In my opinion, the newspaper is the most effective on account of the fact that it does its work quickly.

The bulletins in the post office no doubt attract hundreds of men to the wheat belt, but when it comes to saying that this is a practical idea and one that should be followed out in future years I have a grave doubt. Our experience was that it resulted in a flood of letters from all parts of the country, as many as 300 to 400 being received a day for about two weeks, and these letters indicated very clearly that a majority of them were not from the class of people we were seeking. I think perhaps the only way the bulletins could be used effectively would be to post them when the preliminary work starts, when general conditions seem to justify, and have them removed immediately when the first press notices are given out. This I believe would put the department in touch with many seeking employment who could be placed by mail.

The advertising campaign, being confined to the newspapers, should be very carefully conducted. I believe that from 15 to 20 days prior to the time the actual harvest begins is sufficient to attract the attention of the desirables who wish to go to the harvest fields.

The story should be skillfully worded, showing the approximate acreage, the probable yield per acre, the wages to be paid, and the probable duration of employment.

Another important feature that must not be overlooked is that the story should clearly state at what point the men should report for speedy and safe distribution, and in order to accomplish this it is my opinion that instead of giving out one general story we should give out a story from each point in the State that we are going to make a base of supply, and that story should be sent only to those States adjoining that would have the easiest access to the particular point in question.

My reason for making this statement is that in our campaign we gave out our press story from Oklahoma City, which is fully 60 miles from the distributing point or our base of supply. While we stated specifically in that story at what points we wanted the men to report, yet many of them went direct to Oklahoma City and in a great many cases were compelled to travel back over the same ground in order to reach the wheat fields.

My experience is that such a story given to the press will in less than 48 hours bring hundreds of letters from men who are seeking employment. One can easily detect from the tone of a letter whether or not the man is really seeking work and will report at the designated point in the State if assigned to work. We supplied one entire county in Oklahoma by mail. This is, however, only incidental to the main work at hand and will result in the army of men starting to move so that they will reach their destination from three to five days in advance of the time when the work is actually to begin.

In this connection it is necessary to state that the advertising should tell definitely when the farmers will be ready to use the help asked for. In this respect we must take into consideration that the wheat harvest begins at different times in different parts of the State, and in handling this phase of the question it is desirable to have your advertising so placed that near-by States, from which you can expect a goodly number of harvest hands, will be reached in ample time, so that the vanguard of the movement, or those who will participate in the early harvest, will come from such points.

It is my opinion that the exact number of men desired should be advertised for. This, I believe, is the only safe plan. Under ordinary circumstances, I think we are safe in assuming that we will always receive more men than would ordinarily be required and this little surplus will be taken up in filling the places of those who can

not stand the work and in manning thrashing crews that start work almost simultaneously with the harvesting.

But this advertising is the smallest part in handling this movement. That is to say that after the army once starts to move it becomes necessary for the man in charge of the work to put forth his best efforts. It is surprising how quickly you can turn a movement of this kind by a little newspaper publicity.

To illustrate: While in Wichita Falls, Tex., securing something like 700 men, a newspaper story issued by the representative of our local Oklahoma City office was to the effect that we had all the men we needed. I happened to be in Wichita Falls and felt the effect of that story within 14 hours after it was given out, but at that time I did not know what caused the influx to cease. Later on I discovered what had happened.

Now it is just as easy to pilot the men to different parts of the State from their original destination as it is to stop the influx entirely, and this can be very easily done by a little newspaper publicity carefully worded and carefully posted.

With the cooperation we get from the railroad companies, it is very easy to determine in a very few hours about the number of men strung out along the line and in what direction they are headed. In order to change the destination of these men, a little publicity in the right newspapers and a little work on the part of train crews will accomplish the results desired; and if the head of the movement, the man who has active charge of the work, is in close touch with the situation throughout the State at all times, it is the simplest thing in the world to put the men just where you want them without any loss of time on their part.

The method of handling this press information is this: Instead of asking the local correspondent to give you a good news story, write the story yourself, give it to him, and pay the telegraph expense to the papers where you want this story to appear over his signature. Fifty dollars spent in this way will do more good than a thousand dollars spent through other avenues.

To show you how easy it is to carry on an advertising campaign and secure the desired number of men, I desire to cite one little instance that occurred during our campaign for harvest hands.

About five days before the harvest opened in the extreme north-western part of the State it was discovered that we needed something like 1,800 men and there was nothing in sight. Woodward was the main distributing point for this part of the State and it looked almost like a physical impossibility to marshal sufficient forces to handle the wheat. However, with the aid of a telephone, we got into communication with the different police departments of Dallas, Wichita Falls, Gainesville, Galveston, and Amarilla, Tex., informing

them that we needed between 1,200 and 1,500 men at once, and that a representative of the department would be at Wichita Falls, Tex., which is a good railroad town and on the main line of railroad coming into Woodward, on Sunday night.

In addition to this we had an associated press report sent to the different papers in these towns, stating the condition. The result of this advertising was that Monday morning 125 men were sent out of Wichita Falls on the first train and for four days we handled from 75 to 150 men each day, securing in all something over 800 men. Three days later the same program was repeated and 145 men secured.

Now, in addition to this, advertising along the line through Oklahoma was done by simply dropping off the train at every station on the way to Wichita Falls and informing the people of the condition at Woodward and points north, and this resulted in securing another 300 or 400 men.

At this time I desire to point to the principal reason why one man should have complete charge of the entire work. As has been related, the work at Wichita Falls was hampered somewhat by a misunderstanding which resulted in a press report being sent out that we had all the men we needed. Had it been generally understood that no press report was to be given without being censored by the man in charge, this would not have happened.

Again, at Alva, Okla., upon arrival at that point to make our distribution, I found we needed something over 2,000 men and there were very few men in sight. Upon picking up the daily Kansas papers, I discovered a news story under an Alva date line, stating in substance that they feared a surplus of men and that men were actually walking the streets with nothing to do. Investigation showed that the local correspondent had sent out this report because of the fact that local business men became alarmed and were afraid they might have to feed or care for a few of these men for a few days. It took 48 hours to correct this impression and get the men started toward Alva.

AID OF FEDERAL AGENCIES.

Undoubtedly the system contemplated by the Federal Government, of free offices at different industrial centers throughout the United States, will prove of great value in carrying on this work and will do away with much newspaper work. Even so, it will be years before we can entirely eliminate advertising through the papers. The Federal system, whatever it may be, should be organized upon the same lines that we are organized to handle the wheat crop or any other grain crop. It does not necessarily follow that laborers always congregate in the large industrial centers. As a matter of fact, they can be found at different points throughout the United States in

some of the smaller towns, and very often this class of labor is more desirable than that found in industrial centers.

To this end, then, the field force of the National Government must be sufficiently large to be familiar with all conditions throughout the country. Then it becomes a community proposition rather than a general proposition so far as advertising is concerned, which will almost entirely eliminate the probability of flooding the country with an unnecessary number of men and with what might be called undesirables.

In my judgment there is no system of advertising under the present method of dealing with the subject under discussion so effective as the press. The bulletin system, if used at all, should be carried on so that the bulletins would be posted in advance of even the preliminary investigation and be removed immediately when the newspaper stories are given out.

COOPERATION BETWEEN STATES.

Now, at this point it seems advisable to digress for a moment from the individual proposition and consider the grain belt generally, which consideration necessarily implies that there must be thorough cooperation between the States that have grain to harvest. To illustrate: In Oklahoma the harvest in our southwestern counties started about June 1 to 5; in the hard-wheat belt, which is in the north central counties, it opened from June 10 to 15, and in the northwestern counties, which covers the soft-wheat belt, it opened from June 20 to 25. Therefore, in placing our orders the general public was apprised of the fact that the harvest would open on those dates. It is true that the southwestern counties did very little for the northern counties toward supplying them with help, but, on the other hand, the harvest coming at a much later date, the northwestern part benefited materially from the surplus of labor in the southwestern part of the State so that some 40 to 50 per cent of the men employed in the southwest migrated to the northwest and secured an additional two or three weeks' work.

This same condition is applicable to every other State in the grain belt. We have the Oklahoma wheat harvest from June 1 to 20; Kansas follows from June 20 on; Nebraska follows in a few days; and the Dakotas are ready about the middle of July.

The assumption is that at least 40 per cent of this army of men migrate from one State to the other. Therefore, Oklahoma, opening the harvest, should get out her advertising in advance, this to be followed by Kansas with the statement that she needs so many men, which must be the actual number needed, less 40 per cent of the men actually in the field in Oklahoma. By such a system it is very easy to understand wherein it would be possible to prevent such conditions as we have in some of the Northern States.

DISTRIBUTION OF MEN.

The success of the work of distribution depends entirely upon the organization of your force. The State first of all must be districted in such a way that you can first handle points in the State where the harvest starts early, and in order to carry on this work you must have a base of supply for each district. This base of supply must be located entirely from the standpoint of railway facilities, and in this connection we must consider both the question of access from without the State and access to the principal grain sections in the district from within the State.

We must also take into consideration what possibility your offices, located in the State but not in the wheat belt, have of getting men to this base of supply.

The next thing is to determine at what point within range of that place you are going to place men for distribution purposes. On this question I would suggest that above all things a man be stationed at every junction point where it is necessary to make a change. Further than this the work must be governed entirely by the acreage.

To illustrate my point on the junction question, I will state that we placed a man at Alva, Okla., which is about 7 miles from the junction of the Frisco and the Santa Fe railroads. This was a mistake; the man should have been stationed at the junction point for the reason that men arriving there were picked up by different farmers and given employment before reaching Alva. We soon discovered our mistake, however, and all trains were met at this junction, which enabled us to make an equitable distribution of the men.

The actual work of distribution should start not less than five days before the wheat is ready to harvest. This is deemed necessary by reason of the fact that this army of men must be kept moving. To allow the men to congregate in industrial centers and railroad division points is a mistake. Such a condition makes possible the successful operation of the stick-up man, the card shark, and the crap shooter. In addition to this it imposes upon the citizens of the towns where the men congregate to the extent that they must feed them and often leads to serious complications. That it is possible to distribute these men before the actual work begins can not be questioned. To do this it simply requires initiative on the part of the local agent, and if he informs the farmers of the fact that they must take these men at that time in order to get them, and shows them wherein it is a feasible plan, invariably they will take his advice.

If the proposition is rightly presented to them they will at least take the men and board and house them until they are ready to cut

and oftentimes they have some haying or other work that will pay a nominal sum per day.

The men are glad to receive this compensation, or the majority of them at least, and especially when they are given to understand that they can not congregate in the towns, that they must keep moving.

Our main base of supply was Enid, Okla., and we moved men from that town from two to three times per day. While we always had from 100 to 400 men in the city, they were different gangs entirely.

The first and most necessary thing in distributing is to fill up the intermediate points; that is to say, if we are shipping men for a given point in the State along a certain line of railway and at a distance of 30 miles we have a representative at a junction point, the agent at the base of supply must fill up all towns along the line before attempting to get any men through to the junction. Unless he does it will result in much confusion in that the farmers will not receive the men assigned them.

Our experience on this point was that in trying to get men from Enid to Alva, a distance of probably 75 miles, the first two shipments of over 125 each were completely swallowed up and not one of them reached their destination. We quickly overcame this but it was only by giving the farmers along the line the men they desired.

Now the distribution to intermediate points should be to individual farmers. The men should be instructed to report to no one else, and they can be easily convinced that unless they adhere strictly to your rules they are liable not to secure employment.

Upon arrival at a town the different farmers will invariably meet them if they are notified in advance that a certain number of men are assigned to them, and this can be done by the use of the local telephone and the cooperation of the local bankers or merchants.

At junction points and points where you have a representative, the men should be consigned to this representative in bunches. It is his duty to meet these trains and reassign the men to the individual farmer.

Now a word relative to the office details of assignment. The office work must necessarily be done quickly and to this end when an order is received from John Jones for five men, five introduction blanks should immediately be made out to John Jones on the application for help wanted slip, so that when the man presents himself all you have to do is to insert his name and the other data required. This is applicable to all agents working under the department. Where big bunches of men are sent to local agents or other distributing points the main office can expedite matters materially by making out the application and introduction blanks to the individual farmer

and instructing the men to present them to the local agent at the distributing point for his O. K.

Now, another important feature that must not be overlooked is filling up the short lines, and this depends entirely upon the local representative at the base of supply. It is a fact that farmers who are isolated from railroad points and located on short lines realize that they will have some difficulty in securing men, and in view of this fact they are often willing to pay a little more money and, as a rule, furnish better accommodations than the farmers on the main lines.

The local agent at the base of supply can overcome this condition very easily by taking the same interest in his work that a private employment agent would. In other words it is up to the local agent of the free employment bureau to put up just as much of a talk in placing one of these men as would be put up by a private agent.

If you were selling goods on the road and approached the average merchant with your samples and simply spread them out on the counter for him to examine and purchase without manifesting any evidence of salesmanship, undoubtedly your business would be very small, and that principle is applicable to the representative of a free employment bureau. It is a mistake to entertain the idea for one moment that because the service is free it is unnecessary to discuss with the applicant the various phases of the position.

Now, a word on the transportation problem. I am informed that there is a very strong current of sentiment in favor of passing a Federal statute making any man guilty of trespass who rides on any train, either freight or passenger, without paying fare, and to offset the effect of this it is insisted that the railroads make some special rates for harvest hands.

I am strongly opposed to such a procedure until such time as a thorough investigation of conditions can be made and some feasible plan worked out. Just why such a wave of sentiment should hit the country at this time is as yet unexplained. For years and years the same system has been followed in getting harvest hands into the wheat belt. And while I am willing to concede that it is not a very tenable position I am sure that the railroads have offered no great opposition to the present plan, and that they are unwilling at this time to take up the proposition of special rates.

Analyzing the situation further, we find that the professional harvest hand will get there some way. He knows what conditions are confronting him, and he knows that he can follow the harvest for a period of something like three or four months and can leave at the expiration of that time with a nice "stake." He wants work, and he will get to that work somehow.

Now, let us reverse the situation. We practically prohibit him from riding a freight train, and we make a rate of, say, 1 cent

per mile. That would mean that it would take probably, on an average, a \$10 bill to carry the man to the harvest. What would be the result? Is it not a fact that we would have more office men, clerks, and the like who positively could not stand up under the work, which would be a detriment to the men who could perform this work and really want to perform it. It seems to me that this would be a worse condition than we have at the present time.

We are now confronted with the problem of caring for this kind of help, and it is safe to say that from 25 to 40 per cent of all the men who enter the harvest "burn out" after two or three days and are unable to stand the work. This not only is a burden to such unfortunates, but it is a rank imposition upon the farmer who is forced to put up with conditions of that kind.

In conclusion I must say a word as to the duty of the farmer. The farmer must, in order to make the movement a success, cooperate in every way with the agents of the Government who are attempting to bring him relief, and you can not expect the farmer to cooperate with you until you have absolutely demonstrated to him your ability to give him the number of men required. By doing that you have gained his confidence and in doing so you are bringing about the desired result. There is no man on earth who will not cooperate with you to the fullest extent if he is confident of your ability to carry out the program.

Further than this, he must pay the price agreed upon in advance, but most important of all is the proposition of proper care of the men. I do not know what the climatic conditions are in the various States, but I do know that in Oklahoma we are confronted with excessive heat and in some parts the water is not always agreeable to those who are unused to it, and I believe that these two factors contribute to the fact that so many of the men give way or "burn out" after two or three days' work.

The farmer must use the same judgment in taking care of a raw recruit who enters the harvest that he would use in caring for one of his horses. There is no complaint that the men are poorly or insufficiently fed. As a matter of fact, our farmers provide five meals per day. But on the question of water, my observation is that the men are not always given fresh water, and that further than this they are allowed to drink whenever and as much as they desire, and this certainly is a mistake. The general belief of humanity is that in drinking strange waters one is liable to suffer some ill effects, and for this reason the men should be allowed to drink as often as they desire, but only a little at a time; furthermore, they should be provided with fresh water at least every hour. On this point my observation is that many farmers will fill a keg with water in the

morning and it must last until the noon hour. Being exposed to the boiling-hot sun, it becomes stale and does not quench the thirst in any sense of the word.

The men should also be supplied with a sufficient amount of blankets and bedding, so they will sleep comfortably and have a good night's rest.

A WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT OFFICE.

AGNES L. ATWOOD, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT, DULUTH FREE
EMPLOYMENT BUREAU.

It seems to me that nothing could have a colder or more uninviting sound than the regular term, "Employment agency." Somehow, in the past, they have been so closely associated in our minds with fraud, exploitation, and injustice that we can readily imagine in what frame of mind the majority of people seeking work may approach us.

To meet and overcome that possible feeling I have endeavored to make those who apply to my department feel that in me they can find a real friend who is ever ready to go out of her way to serve them to some good purpose, while at the same time impressing upon them that they need feel under no personal obligation to me for any benefits derived through the office.

In some cities this would not be necessary, but our city, while progressive and composed of a splendid citizenship, is deficient in many social lines because of its being a young city. I can say this because I have an everyday working acquaintance with the true condition. And so, being able to study social conditions through my work, I have endeavored to be of service to the city by furthering as much as possible any movement for the public good affecting women and girls.

Probably the most effective of these has been the municipal lodging house for women and girls, established about two years ago while the welfare board, of which I happened to be a member, was in existence. To this, from various agencies, are now sent women and girls who are sick, stranded, or temporarily out of work and who are confronted with the urgent necessity of seeking a shelter for a few days. Many of these people are 100 per cent efficient in their work and if compelled to leave town or return to their homes would be lost to the economic life of the city.

Standing as I do between the supply and demand, what that ultimately means to the community is very plain to me. Likewise, the inefficient or absolute dependents are quickly disposed of and do not become a continual drag on the city. The need of such a place might never have been demonstrated had it not been for the one

central place to which they all applied for work, namely, the State free employment bureau; for I can truthfully say that the office enjoys the utmost confidence of the public.

Therefore I am firmly of the belief that until such time as welfare work is everywhere organized along the lines of some such example as that at Kansas City it is the duty of the person in charge of the women's department, especially, of every public employment bureau personally to make the knowledge that comes to her through the office count for social betterment in her community. In no better way can she serve the State, and in no quicker way can she raise the standard of the office to a high level.

The work of the women's department of a public employment bureau is by nature far more complex than that of the men's department, and its problems are many and difficult.

In the first place, so very many workers are so poorly equipped to earn their living and are in such a discontented and unsettled state that it is almost impossible to keep them employed in one place for any length of time. The need of vocational guidance for the young is clearly shown every day in our work.

To fit this class into proper places is far more difficult than to furnish work to a first-class waitress, for instance, who knows there will be an opening for her and who has been able to save enough to pay her board until such time as she gets what she wants.

Then the girl who is a kitchen girl or chambermaid, but who is really fitted for a less menial position, is another kind of problem, and so on; it is a case of constantly making over the material at hand to satisfy the demand and of thus using up the supply.

Deserted or widowed women without homes and with one or more children to support are perhaps our greatest source of real worry, for to them we represent a great deal. If they can secure work, all is well; if not, they must often see their last hope shattered. The unmarried mothers present an even harder problem. To fit each one into a suitable and proper place requires much patience, good judgment, and an abundance of nervous energy. No report can possibly represent the effort put forth by every women's department of a public employment bureau, to say nothing of the technical work and the energy consumed in trying to be agreeable to perhaps a hundred people of different temperaments a day.

Labor exchanges such as have been suggested would, I think, be particularly beneficial to girls in the rural communities and smaller towns who are planning on coming to the cities for work. It would probably induce them to write in ahead, and thus a sort of connecting link would be formed which would, in many cases, be the only means of protection which they would have.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE DETROIT MEETING, JULY 1 AND 2, 1915.

REPORT OF SECRETARY-TREASURER.

Since our last meeting in Indianapolis there has been great progress in the development of public employment offices in the United States. California, Iowa, Illinois, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania have enacted laws authorizing the establishment of employment bureaus. The Illinois statute amends an existing law, but in the other States the public employment office laws are entirely new. In addition to these State offices many employment offices have been established by municipalities as a result of the hard times during last winter.

Altogether the mailing list of our association now contains the names of 99 State and city employment offices located in 30 States. Following are the States in which there are public employment offices conducted either by the States or cities: Arizona, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Texas, Washington, Virginia, West Virginia, and Wisconsin.

In addition to these there are the Federal employment offices, operated in connection with the Bureau of Immigration, in 18 cities. These offices, except the one in New York City, were started last fall and most of them are located in cities where there are also State or municipal offices.

In Canada, too, the movement is taking hold. There are public employment bureaus now in 10 cities in the Provinces of Manitoba, Ontario, and Quebec.

Most of the offices, both in the United States and in Canada, it must be admitted, are far from accomplishing their purposes. In many of our States the laws are on the statute books only; they are not carried out. In most States people do not yet understand the real purposes of public employment offices, and the legislatures do not supply enough funds to do the business successfully. Then, only a few States have learned the value of keeping their superintendents and office force permanently, so that they will learn the work thoroughly and build up a successful business. Instead of that, they are turned out with changes in political administrations. Finally,

not many of our offices have the careful and accurate system of book-keeping or records that is necessary to run a successful employment business and to convince the people who vote the funds that they are doing the business.

However, in all these matters great progress has been made during the past year, as no doubt the discussions at our present conference will bring out. In the legislatures of all the States which this year enacted laws on this subject, and of several other States where such laws were not passed, bills were introduced either for improving the existing employment offices or for establishing new ones according to improved methods. In Cleveland, our president, Mr. Hennessy, has improved and developed the State-city labor exchange during the last year in a remarkable way. We ought to study his experience carefully when he tells us about it at this meeting. The State of New York appointed Mr. Barnes director of its newly-created bureau of employment, and since last fall this bureau has established employment offices in five cities with the most up-to-date record systems and business methods. Mr. Sears at the same time was put in charge of the municipal employment bureau of New York City, and he has started that in a bold and businesslike way, adapting and improving the methods that he had successfully worked out in Boston.

From all over the country requests have come to the secretary for information about employment offices: how to establish them, how to conduct them, the best forms to use for registration and records, how to get business, how to get up reports and statistics, how to frame an employment-office law, and so on. As far as possible your secretary has tried to answer these inquiries. The office of the secretary now has a mass of material on employment offices all over the world. The laws creating employment offices in this country and in Europe, the forms used in practically all American and foreign offices, and the reports of most of them are on file, and from these most of the questions can be answered. The secretary desires to urge upon all the delegates present to help us make the best use of all the material; call on the secretary's office for any information you may want, but also send to the office your own reports or forms whenever you get out anything new.

In this connection the secretary desires to call your attention to two things that ought to be acted on by this convention: First, a uniform set of record forms which the association can recommend to States and cities as approved by this association; and, second, a model public employment office law which can be similarly recommended.

Last year at Indianapolis we appointed two committees to carry out these purposes. Mr. Sears will report for the committee on standards and will recommend a uniform set of cards. We have no more important subject to discuss. Let us thrash this report out

thoroughly and then agree on forms which we can recommend to all States and cities that are just establishing employment bureaus. In time also the older offices which have other forms can change to this system, and then we will have one uniform system in use all over the country and be able to make comparisons of the work in different States, as well as to arrange cooperation among the offices on an intelligent basis. If we can not agree here, we ought to appoint a committee representing all points of view, with power to determine finally the details of a uniform record system.

Similarly the committee on standards ought to be instructed to submit a model employment office law to the association for approval. I understand that this committee has no report to make this year. It is most important, when new laws are passed or a new organization of employment offices contemplated, that this association have a form of bill or organization which can be officially recommended and urged. At present when requests for information along this line come to the secretary's office he can give only his personal opinion.

The United States Commission on Industrial Relations has worked out a plan for a United States bureau of employment, which will not itself establish employment offices, but will try to help the States and cities that have offices to improve and extend their work. It will also try to unite them all into one national system. For this purpose a model organization for State employment exchanges has been devised, and certain minimum requirements are made for records and reports. The idea is to have all employment offices agree to adopt the standards worked out by the Federal bureau, and those that do adopt them will be numbered as branches of the United States labor exchange and get the franking privilege for postage and such other subsidies as Congress may decide. The commission's plan will probably not be made public till next fall. Until such a national bureau is established our association ought to assume the duty of supplying information and recommending the laws and business methods that our experience has shown make the most successful employment offices.

Another important question that will come up in connection with Mr. Sears's report is the matter of temporary and permanent or regular positions. When we say one office has filled a thousand positions and another 800, we must be sure that we are comparing the same things. Every superintendent gets up against this problem. Some decide to call every job lasting less than a month temporary; others make two weeks the limit, while most offices make no distinction whatever between temporary and regular positions. Obviously it is not fair to say that two offices are each filling a thousand positions when one placed a thousand men at snow shoveling for a couple of days, and the other secured positions in regular employment for

mechanics, clerks, and similar workers. In order to avoid confusion it would be well for this association to take some action expressing a consensus of opinion as to how temporary and regular positions ought to be recorded.

One of the direct results of the work of our association during the last year was the organization of the National Farm Labor Exchange. Commissioner McCaffree, of South Dakota, who is president of the exchange, will give us an account of its organization and purposes. Here it may be well to mention that the National Farm Labor Exchange was organized to help in securing a better mobilization and distribution of harvest hands in the grain States. After the discussion of this subject by Commissioner of Labor Ashton, of Oklahoma, at our convention in Indianapolis, a conference on harvest hands was called to meet in Kansas City in December. Your secretary cooperated with Mr. Ashton and the United States Commission on Industrial Relations in calling this conference. A temporary organization was formed at the meeting in December, and in February a second meeting was held in Omaha to perfect the organization and to work out plans for handling the harvest hands during the present season. The National Farm Labor Exchange is only in its infancy. Much, however, is to be expected from it in the future when it gets its organization perfected. Thus far it is centering most of its attention on getting laborers to come to the harvest fields. It was pointed out at both the Kansas City and the Omaha conferences that just as important a duty of the National Farm Labor Exchange must be to see that too many harvest hands are not attracted. The supply of harvest hands must be controlled through the public employment offices of the States from which the men come. This advice was not heeded by the national exchange this year, with the result that they have already had some trouble in Oklahoma and in Kansas.

The secretary has found it very difficult to prepare the proceedings of our conventions for the printer, because we have had no stenographic reports, and few of the speakers put their remarks in writing. However, as many papers as could be secured have now been edited and are ready for publication. It would be better, perhaps, to include with these also the papers read at our present meeting and publish them all in one volume. The proceedings of our first three meetings, so far as we have the papers, would make one volume of about 150 pages. This association ought to take up the question of providing a stenographic reporter at future meetings.

Pending the publication of our proceedings, two reports of our last meeting were mailed to every member of the association. One was the report written by Mr. Barnes and published in *The Survey*, the other a more detailed report by Mrs. Samuel Semple, published in

the monthly bulletin of the Pennsylvania Department of Labor and Industry. There are a good many copies of the latter report still in the secretary's office. If anyone here has not received a copy and wants one, please notify the secretary.

Financially this association is not only "broke," it is "in the hole"; or, as they say it politely, it has a deficit. During the year only 35 members paid the dues of \$1. The balance on August 1, 1914, was \$1.55, so our total receipts for the year were \$36.55. Our expenses were \$52.66, leaving a deficit of \$16.11.

If we are to print the proceedings of our meetings, therefore, we will have to arrange for each member to buy one or two copies. Further, if we are to make our association valuable to each member by sending him information, reports, etc., we will all have to pay our dues. Therefore I should like to ask each one to pay his dues while he is here. It is very hard to collect by correspondence.

Despite our financial embarrassment I think all will agree that the American Association of Public Employment Offices is forging ahead rapidly and becoming a force in dealing with unemployment in a practical way. Those who were at the first meeting in Chicago in 1913 know what a meager beginning we had. Last year we had a bigger and better convention, and every year hereafter we hope it will be bigger and better still. As we wrote in our circular invitation to this meeting, ours is not an ordinary convention. It is a school for employment agents. We go back after every meeting knowing more about employment offices, about how to get business, how to run the offices, and how to improve our methods. And this is what we were organized to accomplish.

SOME PROBLEMS IN ORGANIZING A STATE SYSTEM OF EMPLOYMENT OFFICES.

CHARLES B. BARNES, DIRECTOR BUREAU OF EMPLOYMENT,
STATE OF NEW YORK.

The law establishing the bureau of employment in New York was approved in April, 1914. The holding of a civil-service examination for the office of director and for a list of superintendents, the appointment of the director and part of the superintendents, and the organization of the bureau all took place during the latter part of the same year.

The establishment of branch offices of the bureau was commenced in Brooklyn, the office there being opened on January 4, 1915. The next office was opened in Syracuse on January 25. The office in Rochester was opened February 4 and that in Buffalo on February 8. The last office opened was in Albany, on April 23.

All the offices have done better, both in the kind of workers handled and in the number of persons placed, than might have been expected from newly established offices. It will have to be kept in mind that up to the time these offices were opened there were in this State no trained workers in the public employment office field. All the persons appointed had studied the question and knew the theory, but practically none had had actual experience in the work. Yet up to August 1 all the offices had registered 39,313 applicants for work. In the same time they had calls for 14,753 workers and had referred 17,770 people to positions. These positions covered the whole range of occupations in the industrial field, from common labor up to professional people. About 60 per cent of all places filled have been in the skilled or semiskilled class. This does not take into consideration domestics, this class representing a little less than 17 per cent of the places filled.

Each office is divided into departments for men and women, and there is a further subdivision in these departments into skilled and unskilled. In some of the offices the skilled section is further divided into clerical and professional and the trades.

When these offices were first organized the budget allowed for the appointment of nine superintendents, at \$2,000 each. The next grade, for assistants to the superintendent, allowed by the budget called for \$900 places. On inquiry of the civil-service commission it was found that the only list (from which to select) they had to offer was the female stenographers' list. This meant that to open these offices, for both the male and female departments, only women could be employed. In consequence of this seven of the male superintendents and one woman superintendent were appointed, although only five offices have been opened. This enabled the bureau to employ some of the superintendents in a clerical capacity, so that they might become thoroughly familiar with all parts of the work. At the present time two superintendents are working in a clerical capacity in Brooklyn. They not only do clerical work but at times are allowed to assume the duties of the regular superintendent, so that they are getting a thorough training. These men will continue to work in this way until other offices are opened. They will then be placed in charge of the new offices as superintendents.

After repeated requests the civil-service commission allowed an examination for assistant superintendents specially fitted for public employment office work, and the examination was held on May 15. This examination was rather rigid. As the budget at that time had only a few unfilled places at \$600 and \$900, this examination, of necessity, called for an entrance salary of from \$600 to \$900. Many high-class persons were induced to take it, however, because of the

hope that while they might have to enter at \$900, their salaries would, within a reasonable time, be increased so as to justify them in taking up this work.

As soon as the civil-service commission announced the examination, it was possible to make provisional appointments, and in all of the offices there are now provisional appointees, who will hold their places until the list of assistant superintendents is certified by the civil-service commission, when permanent appointments may be made.

The administrative office at No. 381 Fourth Avenue, New York City, receives daily reports from the different branch offices. These are checked up and constant watch is kept to see that the different offices are filling the orders received, listing their orders correctly, and registering the people properly. In many other respects the main office maintains such check as will enable it to keep in constant touch with the work of each branch. It is hoped by this means eventually to be able to do accurate and intelligent shifting of labor from one section of the State to another as it is needed. From the daily reports statistics are prepared for the publication of a monthly bulletin concerning the work of the bureau. In addition to this, in connection with the bureau of statistics, a labor bulletin, covering the entire State, will soon be issued monthly. It will then be the duty of the administrative office to furnish figures concerning the work of the different branches for this labor bulletin. Further, all of the correspondence with outside parties is carried on from here. Daily correspondence is had with all the superintendents concerning methods and policies and decisions on the various questions which arise. The director of the bureau spends his time between his office and visiting the various branches throughout the State.

The subject of unemployment and public employment offices need not here have a full discussion, but I think it well to call attention to a few of the things which we are trying to do through these offices. The task of bringing the work and the worker quickly together is only a part of what the different offices are daily accomplishing. As the employees in each branch office become more trained these places will be bureaus of information for workers in every trade. In the juvenile departments, for instance, young people can be intelligently directed into trades and occupations for which they are fitted both by education and temperament, and advised against entering trades in which there is no future. But not only young people will get the benefit of this information, but also adults. The workers in public employment offices are very often surprised to find how little is known of the different opportunities in different branches of work, even by intelligent men and women who have been earning their own living for twenty years or more. These applicants have often

had pointed out to them occupations to which they are specially adapted and in which their earning capacity is much greater.

Private employment agencies, of which there are over 700 in New York City alone, try in many cases to place an applicant on their list in whatever position is open, regardless of whether or not the applicant is well fitted to the position. The private agency must do this, because its life depends on the fee it can get from the worker. It has been disclosed by our investigations that workers pay all the way from \$4 to \$10 in securing jobs paying from \$40 to \$60 a month. Stopping the exploitation of this class of people, who are ill fitted to pay such prices, is one of the indirect benefits of public employment offices.

It is beginning to be recognized that there should be some central point in every community where the employer can make known his wants and where the worker may apply to learn about the different openings in the labor market. This is a saving not only to the employer but to the employee. For instance, an employer has five positions open. He advertises: "Apply at the factory gate." It is often the case that 500 or more people will answer an advertisement of this kind. This means a loss to this body of workers, not counting any loss of time, of a total of from \$25 to \$50 in car fare, and the individual worker has had a chance at only one place of employment. This same number of workers applying at the public employment office will find posted up 40 or 50 positions, many of which may be in their line, and they have some opportunity of making a choice. By blindly going to one factory gate or one office door, they have lost most of that day and had only one slender opportunity of being hired. The same sort of thing happens to the man who wanders about looking for "Help wanted" signs. He can see only those in the limited area over which he can search, while all these jobs and many more can be learned about at the one central point of information.

The registrations of applicants for work in the public employment offices are kept up to date and the office endeavors to keep in touch with its more efficient applicants until it has placed them in the work best suited to their capabilities and needs. Many of the lists kept by large firms which have their own employment offices often get "stale" and are of little use to the firm or the workers. There are many companies in this State employing normally from 1,000 to 1,500 men who hire in the course of the year from 5,000 to 7,000 people to keep their normal force at work. While there are many causes for this, the main one is the haphazard way in which the employing is done. If several men are needed and advertised for, the foreman finds next morning a clamoring mob at the gates. Here is little opportunity to pick men properly fitted for the posi-

tions offered, and the foreman, in disgust, makes selections from those in the front ranks. All this immense turnover of labor is not only a great loss to the worker in the time spent in hunting a new job, but this shifting about is in the end a great loss to the employer in many ways. Public employment offices can to a great extent help to cure this by their more careful method of selection.

Under the law it is required that each branch office shall have an advisory committee composed of an equal number of representatives from employers and employees. The advisory committee for the New York City branch has been appointed, and names are being selected for the committees for the other offices in the State. These committees, being composed of business men and men thoroughly acquainted with industry, are able not only to give the offices wider publicity, but also to offer practical suggestions for their betterment. The committees meet monthly, hear the reports of the superintendents for the past month, and discuss the work which has been done. Through this method of supervision, they enter into the direct workings of the office and are enabled to point out ways in which the offices may be more widely useful.

As has been shown, the branch offices in New York State have, in their few months of existence, already had calls for 15,000 workers, most of which calls have been filled. Through the close communication held by the central office with all the branch offices, farm hands have been shifted from the more congested districts to others where they were needed, and in time the shifting of workers in many other industries will be just as effectively carried on.

EXPERIENCES IN EXTENDING AND IMPROVING THE WORK OF A PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICE.

W. F. HENNESSY, COMMISSIONER OF EMPLOYMENT, CLEVELAND.

The city of Cleveland, when it drew up its new charter, created in its department of public welfare a division of employment. For 15 years the State of Ohio had had an employment office in Cleveland, but this office had never contributed enough to the community life to make itself really felt. The result was that the city of Cleveland desired to open up a municipal employment bureau. When this was decided upon the question arose as to what would be the relationship between the Ohio office and the Cleveland office. After some time it was decided that the State and the city should work together to conduct an efficient employment office. The city of Cleveland at first was to furnish quarters, heat, light, and janitor service, while the State was to furnish the office employees. The superintendent of the State office was to be made commissioner of employ-

ment for the city of Cleveland and his salary was to be paid entirely by the State. As commissioner of employment he would have charge of three bureaus in the division of employment—the men's employment bureau, the girls' and women's employment bureau, and the immigration bureau.

On July 1, 1914, the superintendent, who was appointed under civil service, began his work as superintendent of the State-city free labor exchange and as commissioner of employment for the city of Cleveland. With three employees in the labor exchange, this force started out to revolutionize the employment-office work. The goal which the labor exchange set before itself was the centralization of the entire labor market of Cleveland. If ever the employment problem is to be solved, the first step must be made through a centralized labor market, where every person seeking employment and every employer seeking help will go. There reliable records can be kept, and the public can be kept informed as to the labor situation throughout the city.

Besides centralizing the labor market, the labor exchange adopted an efficiency system in which every effort was made to send only the best people to jobs. Unfortunately, the employment office had been catering to the "down and out," and with the adoption of a new ideal immediately trouble arose for the office. A storm of protest went from the army of inefficients who had been using the office for years to the newspapers and to high officials. Letter after letter was written condemning the office because of this refusal to give men who were worthless as workingmen employment. Finally, one of the newspapers took up the fight, and for a week the office was muckraked by these people. It was accused of unfairness to its applicants, of catering to inefficient workmen, of sending only ex-convicts to jobs, and of allowing politics to enter into the selection of people for jobs.

After this excitement had died down and the labor exchange began to run along in the normal way, the employees made every effort to broaden the scope of the work. They worked long hours and sacrificed almost everything for the success of the office. In a very short time the small quarters became overcrowded, and the city of Cleveland was compelled to tear out partition after partition in order to give room to the increased number of applicants that the labor exchange attracted. At the end of three months it was compelled to double its floor space.

While the new State-city free labor exchange was getting upon its feet the numerous private employment agencies in the city of Cleveland were doing business to suit themselves. Complaints of the alleged unfair treatment of applicants poured into the offices of different officials. So constant and serious were these complaints

that the superintendent, having power through the State, began an investigation of the agencies. This investigation finally resulted in the arrest of a number of the job agents and in two cases the agencies were compelled to surrender their licenses because of their dishonest dealings with applicants. In this investigation it was found that the Ohio law governing Ohio employment agencies permitted these agencies to do business in any way they desired. The law has been on the books for many years, and the situation at the present time is far different than when the law was passed. Under the home-rule provision the city of Cleveland is permitted to make its own laws to a certain extent, and under this provision a new ordinance for the better regulation of the private employment agencies was drawn up and submitted to the city council. Besides the fee and bond paid to the State of Ohio, the job agents of Cleveland were compelled to pay an additional bond and fee for the privilege of conducting an agency in Cleveland. The fee is intended to pay the salary of a regular inspector whose duty it will be to see to the enforcement of the new ordinance. Under the new ordinance the work of the agencies is so hedged in that it will be practically impossible for anyone to deal dishonestly with applicants and not be caught. Although the private agencies fought this ordinance, not only in the city council but in the courts, it was put in practice, and at the present time is working successfully.

While the fight for the adoption of the ordinance was on, the appropriation committee of the council of the city of Cleveland began holding its meetings. The superintendent of the labor exchange prepared a budget and requested money from the city for the labor exchange. The city at that time was over \$1,000,000 in debt, and the commissioner of employment asked for about \$2,000 for the labor exchange alone. A certain sum was also asked for the girls' bureau which was doing vocational guidance work and was then carried on with private funds. Although both these bureaus in the division of employment were recognized by the appropriation committee as worth while, this committee did not feel that it could afford at that time to grant money for the opening of a new work. The result was that the labor exchange faced a critical situation, because of its increased work and its lack of additional funds to take care of this increase.

While the appropriation committee was holding its meetings and deciding to whom it should grant money, the number of applicants coming to the labor exchange each day began to increase until the situation became serious. From 600 to 800 people a day would come begging for work when there was no work to be had. Business was at a low ebb in Cleveland. The commissioner of employment at-

tempted to bring the situation before the public in order that something might be done. Letters were written to the different newspapers, but the reply came back that it would not be good policy to recognize the fact that business was bad. Letters were also written to employers, speeches were made by the superintendent, but everybody seemed determined to ignore the serious unemployment situation which the city was facing in its labor exchange.

Finally, when other means had failed to bring the case before the public, a resolution was introduced in the city council calling on the commissioner of employment to investigate the unemployment situation throughout the city and report to the city council. One of the private philanthropic organizations agreed to assist in and finance this survey. The labor exchange, knowing how critical the situation was and how necessary it was that action be taken at once, conducted the unemployment survey for one week. Hundreds of folders were secured and the survey committee of the labor exchange began its investigation. The newspaper advertisements were gone over and it was shown there was a large decrease in the number of jobs and a large increase in the number of jobless. Lodging houses were investigated, industrial institutions were investigated and a large decrease in their working force was found. The hours worked in these same plants showed a tremendous decrease. Retail stores reported a tremendous increase in their credit accounts. Railroads maintaining shops in Cleveland had reduced their forces to one-third. Employment agencies showed an immense number seeking employment as compared with the same period a year before. Charitable organizations showed increase of about 67 per cent in the demands for help. A house-to-house canvass showed a great increase in unemployed over the police census of the previous March. In crime there was an increase, credited to the lack of work and the extreme destitution of the unemployed.

The labor exchange, through its volunteer workers, took a birds-eye view of the Cleveland shops at a certain hour on one morning and found that 2,800 men were applying for 60 jobs.

From these different lines of investigation which were made by the labor exchange there was estimated to be about 61,000 unemployed in the city of Cleveland, and an itemized report of the survey, combined with remedial suggestions, was submitted to the city council. One of the suggestions was that the mayor appoint a committee to do whatever it could to relieve the critical situation. The newspapers which before had refused to give publicity to the situation as it was now told the whole story. At the request of the council the mayor appointed his unemployment committee and the council also granted a special appropriation of \$800 in order to permit the labor exchange

to begin the "Give a job" campaign. The unemployment committee at its meeting asked the commissioner of employment in the labor exchange to find out how many of the hundreds who came to the office each day were destitute unemployed. To do this a special registration was made at the labor exchange, in order to find out how many men registered as destitute unemployed, willing to work at anything at any wage.

The people of Cleveland watched with interest the long string of men who came in to register. When the week was up it was found that 11,000 men had registered as destitute unemployed, willing to work at anything at any price. The mayor's committee, in conjunction with the Cleveland Foundation and with the labor exchange, then began the big "Give a job" campaign, the object being to stir up the entire community into planning work for the unemployed. Immediately the impetus given by this campaign increased the number of jobs the labor exchange was furnishing at that time from 42 positions a day to 198 a day, and in one month the exchange gave jobs to 5,160 people as compared with 1,095 given in the same month of the previous year.

But even these jobs, helpful as they were, did not begin to relieve the situation. After some time it was decided that a campaign for money must be made, and a "Give a day's wage" campaign was begun. A certain day was set aside in which the entire working community of Cleveland was encouraged to give one day's wage, which was to be expended for the unemployed. This was done and about \$82,000 was raised, this money being expended for work in the city parks. All men sent to these jobs were previously investigated in order to learn as to their actual destitution.

Shortly before this the commissioner of employment appeared before the appropriation committee of the city council and again requested money to conduct the labor exchange as it should be conducted. In the short time of the unemployment survey the labor exchange demonstrated to the people of Cleveland of what tremendous value it could be to the community, and when it made its second appeal the people stood behind this appeal, and the appropriation committee granted the money. Originally the commissioner asked for \$2,000, but in the second request over \$4,000 was asked for.

When the campaign was over and business again became normal in the labor exchange, the superintendent of the labor exchange was notified that the State legislature had cut the salaries in his office. Immediately a storm of protest arose in Cleveland against the injustice of such a step. The office had demonstrated to the public its efficiency. It had demonstrated that it had been working for the

good of the community, not for itself, and the people of Cleveland protested against any reduction in the salaries of those employed. So strong was this protest from the entire city that the legislature finally put the salaries back to their original amounts. While this fight was on, the labor exchange made an organized effort to secure additional funds from the State to increase its work through the girls' bureau. This bureau had come into the exchange, and although its employees were paid from private funds it submerged itself in the labor exchange in order to centralize the labor market, with the understanding that funds be secured for its assistance as soon as possible. The organizations throughout the city stood behind the exchange in its efforts to secure additional financial assistance, and finally the legislature granted sufficient money to carry on the work of the girls' bureau.

It was here that the labor exchange closed the chapter of the first year of its existence as the State-city free labor exchange. The vision that it had of a centralized labor market stands out as clear now as at the beginning. Although it has taken over four private employment agencies, making them a part of the exchange, it still has a long way to go before the problem of a centralized labor market is solved and its realization attained. The possibility of making the labor exchange a barometer of the industrial life of the city is no longer a dream but a certainty, for the exchange has proved to the public the value of having some agency in its life which will explain situations as it finds them without regard to the effect such explanation may have upon the life of the city.

The labor exchange has demonstrated above all things the value of its efficiency system. The fact that it picks the best man for every job makes it worth while not only to the employees but to the employer as well. In spite of the storm of protest which arose when that method was begun it is more firmly entrenched now than ever before, and in every office throughout the State you will find this same system being used with increased success.

And lastly, the vision of the greatness of its work that the labor exchange caught when it began its work a year ago stands out more clearly than ever before. The entire community of Cleveland has realized, in a small way, the tremendous possibilities in store for the labor exchange, and as it goes on demonstrating its practicability to the community, there is no doubt that the labor exchange will do more to solve the problem of unemployment which has worried the world for generations than any other existing organization.

DEVELOPING A FARM-HAND BUSINESS.

H. J. BECKERLE, SUPERINTENDENT MILWAUKEE PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICE.

The securing of efficient labor is a problem which confronts the farmer at all times of the year, but especially with the coming of spring. Throughout the State there are thousands of farmers who need men to work their farms.

The State free employment offices in Wisconsin have had a very busy season thus far, having sent out more farm hands to the present time than in all last year. This work promises to grow in proportion each year, and more service has been given the farmers in Wisconsin than ever before. Especial interest has been attracted to this service because of addresses delivered on the subject of farm laborers at a number of farm institutes last winter. This is the first time that speakers have gone out and explained the work of the State free employment offices, and because of this publicity there are many more inquiries this year than before.

The farm-help problem is as big a problem as ever. Experienced help is hard to get, although there are a great many men applying every day who come from foreign countries, who have had farming experience.

In January, 1915, the Industrial Commission decided that if more men were placed on farms it might alleviate the unemployment in the cities. They accordingly sent out three men to speak at the various farm institutes. I personally have spoken at 23 of them. The agricultural department of the University of Wisconsin, which conducts these institutes, reserved a place for us on the program and our talk took up about 15 minutes. We told the farmers what kind of help we could supply them with and, in fact, advocated the use of foreigners with old-country experience. The reason for this was due to the fact that a number of these men whom we had placed the year before had, we personally know, made good. Many of these men have been lured to the city by grand promises of light work and big wages. They are really not accustomed to the city life and will fare a great deal better when they can get back on the farm. We advised the farmers to have a little patience in teaching them our methods, and guaranteed them good results. In many places where six, eight, or possibly a dozen farm hands were needed, we suggested that they take them all of one nationality, though they could not speak the English language, and form a sort of colony, later on getting their families out on the same land, and so, in the course of time, build up practically a new community, which is an asset to the laboring man and an asset to the State, regardless of the financial return to the farmer. Questions were asked if this always turned out in that way. I decidedly answered in the negative. These men are not all

alike, and you will find some of them who always become disgusted if a rock or a stream of water lies in their path.

I have had reports from an editor of the Italian newspaper in the State of Wisconsin who has also tried out the plan of placing Italians on the farm, and in his letter to me of recent date he writes that he has had very good results.

Now let us get back to the city man on the farm. He is one who has been attracted by amusements of all kinds, and when the suggestion comes to him that he should spend 12 to 14 hours a day among a few people, he is inclined to shirk. You can not blame him for that directly, but it should be impressed upon him that the future is his zenith and not the present or past. We have found from actual experience that when we get these men out for a few months at a time they realize what it means to them.

This proposition and this line of talk was put to the farmers and the only question they put was, How do you know whether a man will make good or not? We explained to them our system of getting all the information possible from the applicant, the card-index system, and also the code. We impressed upon them very strongly the idea of cooperation, how, in letting us know what kind of man they had received and how he was doing, in case this person came to the office again, we could inform the next employer as to his worth.

After our addresses, it was a very important matter for us to mingle with the crowd in the hall or on the outside, and we were surprised to learn that few farmers knew what the State was trying to do for them, the majority of them having applied to private agencies for help, with serious results.

The Industrial Commission of Wisconsin has also been doing some advertising in various farm papers and bulletins with some success, but it is the same as selling goods from a catalogue, a personal interview is what takes the man. As the superintendent of these institutes, Mr. Norgord, stated in a personal letter to me, "You had a valuable, needed, and practical message, presented in a minimum of time with a maximum of effect. We shall be glad indeed to have you repeat the experience next year."

To explain to you more clearly the result of this work I will quote a few figures of this year compared with that of last. During the entire season of 1914 we had sent out 2,100 farm hands, actually placing 1,186. Up to the present time this year, which is not half over, we have sent out over 1,800 and have placed about 1,300. These positions filled are all bona fide, being verified by a signed card from the farmer. We have supplied 7 out of 12 of the speakers at the institutes, with very good results.

As to wages we find that farmers are not very anxious to do any cutting, but expect a better class of men.

The method of advancing transportation also came up before these meetings and was explained to them as follows: Men out of work a considerable length of time are without funds. They have baggage, but can not realize enough on it to pay their own fare. We therefore asked the farmer to advance the transportation, guaranteeing safe delivery of the man by checking his baggage and mailing the baggage check direct to the employer. We promised to look over the man's baggage to make sure that it contained clothes which were suitable to wear for that kind of work—good shoes, good pair of overalls, and some clean underwear, and of all the men sent out of the Milwaukee office, to my knowledge there was only one who failed to arrive at his destination.

We did not stop at the institute work, but went to the banks and got the cashiers interested, making them sort of subagents, people having confidence in them. They also helped this work along.

The cashier of the bank at Lancaster, Wis., who had never heard of the State free employment office before our visit, has sent us orders for 15 farm hands, all of whom were sent him. This is an extract of his letter mailed to the Milwaukee office a few days ago: "We like the kind of men you are sending out. They have all made good except one and I do not feel that he was to blame. If he had come to us after leaving his employer we could have gotten him a good job in a very few hours' time. He was willing to work and I feel the farmer was to blame in the way he handled the case."

This brings me back to the cooperation proposition, and, as this man stated, he feels that the farmer was to blame.

A peculiar incident came up at one of these institute meetings, a farmer popping up out of his seat saying that he had had at least six men from the State free employment office and none of them any good. A farmer sitting next to him jumped up and said, "All six were good men, and I can show you to-day where they are working and doing well." I was asked by another gentleman, "Who is to blame?" I could give only one answer, and that was, "The farmer." After the meeting the first farmer came to me, shook hands, and said, "I may have worked these men too long or handled them too rough. I think I was at fault. When you get back to the office send me a good farm hand. I will treat him right and see what I can do with him." I was informed recently that the man sent him is still on the job and doing well.

From actual experience I consider the placing of efficient farm help a far-reaching step toward the relief of unemployment, and because of the wonderful success achieved in Wisconsin, let me suggest that other labor or industrial commissions in the various States of this Union try the same method.

NATIONAL FARM LABOR EXCHANGE.

CHARLES M'CAFFREE, SOUTH DAKOTA, PRESIDENT OF THE EXCHANGE.

The National Farm Labor Exchange was organized to handle help necessary for the grain harvest in the Middle Western States, primarily, and to correct the apparent evils by a cooperation of officials and committees in the territory where the men are needed.

The plan of the organization provides, and this provision will be kept, that it may extend its operation through all the year if it shall seem desirable and if the work develops, but that remains for the future.

In a normal year some extra harvest help is needed in Texas, Oklahoma, Kansas, Missouri, Iowa, Nebraska, South Dakota, North Dakota, Montana, and Wyoming. Some of the States mentioned are not largely concerned, and the system of agriculture in some of the territory is changing so as to make necessary less extra harvest help. But all come in touch with the problem to a certain extent and with some it is of prime importance. Harvest begins more than two months earlier in the south end of the territory included than in the north end, so men may work in several States during the season.

The season of 1914 drew particular attention to the need of a different system. Due to the industrial depression, thousands more came into some of the sections than could be given work. Many of the best workers lost so much time that they finished the season with nothing to the good. Enforced idleness in the "jungles" is demoralizing to morals and character. It makes hobos and the "I won't work." We should improve the class of labor. The farmers will benefit under the proposed system by a greater assurance of getting the help they need, by getting better men, men who will not "burn out," who are used to labor in the sun and can give a day's work. The communities, and particularly some of the cities, will appreciate getting only the men needed. The railroads are greatly interested and the matter enters into the prosperity and comfort of many citizens.

The plans include getting the men from other sections of the United States, placing them where needed, moving them with the least loss of time, culling out the undesirables, making more satisfactory conditions for both the farmer and harvest help. In fact, the attempt is to handle effectively a situation which can not adjust itself.

The distribution within the State is looked after by the official of the State designated for that purpose. All farmers and civic and business organizations interested were invited to send representatives to the meeting for organization. The United States De-

partment of Labor, the United States Department of Agriculture, and the United States Congressional Committee on Industrial Relations were represented and assisted in the organization. As effected, the active organization consists of a representative from the United States Department of Labor, from the United States Department of Agriculture, and the labor officials of each State concerned, and they will do the actual work of handling this situation. There are associate members, representing the various civic organizations interested, and each representative has one vote at the annual meeting and any other meetings which may be called. Members of both classes elect the officers at the annual meeting, but only active members may serve in office. The dues are \$20 for each active member and \$1 for each associate member. No salaries are paid, as the officers are already officials who are concerned in this work, and the dues are merely for postage and small miscellaneous expenses. The United States Department of Labor has placed agents in strategic locations for distribution of harvest hands and is cooperating effectively. When this was written the season was just beginning, and there had not been sufficient "try out" to form satisfactory conclusions. Hon. W. G. Ashton, of Oklahoma, was elected secretary and is just now in the middle of his campaign, but seems to be pleased with the results thus far.

All hoped for, of course, can not be accomplished in one season, but experience may help to devise effective methods in what is certainly an important field for valuable work.

A SYSTEM OF RECORDS, REGISTRATION, AND FILING.—PRELIMINARY REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON STANDARDS.

Pursuant to a vote of our second annual convention held at Indianapolis, a committee was appointed to consider and report to this convention standard schedules or blanks for use in public employment bureaus in the United States and Canada.

Your committee offers the following report with recommendations:

The true function of the public employment bureau and certain fundamental principles should first be fully understood before we can intelligently discuss the matter of scientific schedules and of a system for the administration of these bureaus, or consider the standardization of schedules so as to secure uniformity of record keeping.

It is agreed that the true function of the public employment bureau is to act as the agent of both employer and employee in an endeavor to obtain competent, reliable, and temperate help for the employer and suitable employment for the employee. The institu-

tion should be accessibly located in suitably arranged, lighted, and well-ventilated quarters, preferably on the ground floor, with separate entrances for male and female help.

The number of branches and the number of departments for the segregation and handling of classified skilled and unskilled male and female help will largely depend upon the public convenience and the necessity of the community or territory to be served.

The superintendent and staff should be carefully selected from the classified civil service, and they should possess a knowledge of human nature, have a pleasing personality, initiative, sympathy, tact, and good judgment.

In all that is done it should be borne in mind that it is a placement and not a relief bureau.

Quality of service to the employing public is another one of the underlying principles; together they spell permanency and success.

It would be folly to establish a public employment bureau unless it could be maintained under proper auspices, with the foregoing principles in mind, and with a sufficient appropriation to meet legitimate requirements.

Without question, records should be kept by which to show to the proper authorities and to the public the justification for such an institution. Such records should be as simple as possible and yet comprehensive.

Some form of record must be kept of an employer's order for help, and we believe that it should contain the following information:

"Employer's registry card"—Name of individual, firm, or corporation; address, business, telephone number; nature or kind of work to be performed; hours per week; preference as to age, religion, and nationality, if any; terms and probable duration of employment; sex and number wanted; symbol of clerk and date received; also name and address of person to be seen. On this same card should be entered the name of the applicant and the date on which he is sent to such employer, and eventually the result—that is, whether or not he is hired. Certain symbols may be used in the result column to indicate whether or not the applicant called on the employer as agreed, or whether or not he reported for duty as agreed with the employer, or whether or not he is a desirable person to be sent elsewhere. It is generally agreed that a separate record or card should be kept of each class of help requisitioned by each employer. The size and shape of the card and whether it should be filed horizontally or perpendicularly are perhaps matters of individual choice. This blank can be used for any kind or class of help in any community. The "employer's registry cards" are filed in numerical order, and this keeps them in chronological order.

The matter of policy with regard to recording the number of persons called for by an employer is important and should be considered here. If an employer calls for 10 people, it should be ascertained just how many people he really requires. The actual number that he expects and requires should be the record. An excess number may be referred to him for selection. In taking orders for help, we believe in following this rule: "If, from anything that the bureau may say or do, the employer expects service from it, a record of the order should be made. If, from anything that has been said by the bureau, such employer does not expect service, then a memorandum will suffice, and no record need be made." This is a good rule to follow, as has been found from years of experience. At present some offices do not record an order unless they are able to send someone in response to the employer's request, and the order is then made out on the day the person is sent, which obviously is bad business. This is done presumably for the reason that the office desires to be able to show a large percentage of positions filled in proportion to the number called for. This is manifestly unfair and does not show a true record of the demands made upon the office for service.

A "ledger card" or office directory of employers is also important. If the "ledger card" is not used, the "employer's registry card" is filed alphabetically.

An "employee's registry slip" should be used by which to record applications for employment. This should be simple and comprehensive and a minimum number of questions asked, for the reason that the public refuses to be subjected to too much questioning. Great care must be exercised not to give the applicant for work an impression that he is being quizzed too much about personal matters, for if you do you will lose his patronage and that of others.

Certain pertinent information, from a placement bureau's standpoint, is absolutely necessary.

It is agreed that it is desirable to have the applicant sign his name on the blank as the first operation, for the reason that it implies an obligation to give truthful answers and enables the office to obtain a correct spelling of the name. A placement clerk should then fill out the rest of the blank in ink, obtaining the following information: Name, address, city or town, nearest telephone number, age, date of birth for juveniles, conjugality, religion, residing at home or boarding out, birthplace, alien or citizen, opportunity, kind of employment or work desired, experience in the opportunity desired, terms of employment, willingness to go out of town, trade-unionist, personality, education, language or languages spoken, color or race, number of years, months, weeks, and days' residence in country, State, and city; cause of unemployment (using United States Bureau of Labor Sta-

tistics standards), number of months unemployed preceding application, number of persons actually dependent upon the applicant for support, date of application, and symbol of clerk receiving same. References from two persons, preferably former employers, should be required. A record should be kept on this application of the name of the employer to whom the applicant is sent, the date, and the result—that is, whether or not he is employed. Certain symbols may be used in the result column if he has not complied with the rules of the office. This slip or card should also be kept as a continuous record, showing the applicant's transactions with the office. These cards may be filed alphabetically. An up-to-the-minute card may be used by the placement clerks on which to keep a record of names, by occupations, of certain classes of help for use when needed promptly. When an applicant is sent to an employer the "employer's registry card" and the "employee's registry slip" should be attached and so kept until within a reasonable length of time to learn whether the applicant has been engaged or not, after which they should be detached and filed as previously stated. Obviously they should not be the same shape and filed in the same way (perpendicular or horizontal) that "employer's registry cards" are filed. Perpendicular filing is best for "employer's registry cards," because less area is required.

A "card of introduction" is also required by which to give explicit directions to the applicant for work when sending him to a prospective employer. The form mostly used is post-card size, so that it may be signed by the employer and returned, indicating whether or not the applicant has been hired.

A "verification card," in the absence of the signed "introduction card," indicating that the applicant for employment has been hired, has been found to be necessary by which to certify that positions have been filled. In the absence of either this "verification card" or the signed "introduction card" the office is not in possession of written evidence and a complete record of the "number of positions reported filled."

There are a number of other blanks to be considered, but for our purpose we think it best to consider the five mentioned in this report, rather than to attempt to take up others at this time.

A position should not be counted as filled unless the office has the evidence to prove it—either the "introduction card" signed by the employer or a "verification card" made out at the office as a result of investigation.

About 64 per cent of the signed cards from employers who have hired persons are returned in the more highly organized offices.

With the public employment bureau the employer must receive first consideration. With the relief agency the applicant for em-

ployment of necessity is considered first. When an employer places an order for help, it is usually an indication that he needs some one at once, and every effort should be made to the end that prompt service will be given; all waste effort should be eliminated.

THE PLACING OF WOMEN BY PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES.

LOUISE C. ODENCRANTZ, SUPERINTENDENT WOMEN'S DEPARTMENT, STATE EMPLOYMENT BUREAU, BROOKLYN.

Some days ago a newspaper reporter who came into the women's department remarked with surprise on the class of applicants who were waiting their turn at the desks. "I had not expected to see so many really respectable looking women and nice young girls here," she said. "I thought that the only kind of people who would be willing to come to a place like this would be the very poor or the down and out, but some of them look really very good."

Unfortunately, this is the point of view of many people, and we have come to recognize it as one of the biggest obstacles to overcome in the development of a public employment bureau. Everybody knows that the bureau is for all the unemployed of Brooklyn, but few stop to realize that the unemployed are not alone the conspicuous down and outs who raid restaurants and churches and organize parades. These make the most noise, but they are only a fraction of the unemployed. In a city like Brooklyn, among the 170,000 women wage earners alone, there are hundreds every day who change their jobs even in normal times. Some leave of their own accord to advance or to get better work conditions; others are laid off because work is slack. This shifting is not limited to the poorest, the most unskilled, the inefficient, or the lowest grade of workers. Changes are occurring constantly all along the line, from the office cleaner to the office manager. The bureau should be designed to reach every grade of worker when in search of a new position, and not alone the submerged tenth, or the employables at the lowest rung of the ladder, or the unemployables. More often these should be the problem of relief agencies and not the employment bureau, which, at best, can get them only occasional temporary jobs. The big task of the bureau is to reach the efficient, the skilled, and the unskilled regular workers, and to prevent them from becoming unemployable.

This is the principle upon which we have been trying to develop the women's department in the Brooklyn office. In this city there are some 170,000 women who are trying to remain gainfully employed throughout the year. A fourth of them are engaged in manufacturing and mechanical pursuits, another fourth are in clerical occupations, saleswork, and telephone operating, slightly more than

a fourth are in domestic and personal service, while the remainder are in professional work. Our aim is not to limit the service of the bureau to the fourth who are in domestic and personal service, but to reach the women in all the other groups as well.

This office has been open since the 4th of January of this year. During the first five months of its existence 2,400 women applied for employment, employers applied for 1,300 women workers, nearly 1,800 women were referred to positions, and 715 positions were definitely reported filled, with many still to be heard from. The positions reported filled were distributed over the following occupations: Manufacturing and mechanical pursuits, 266, or 37 per cent; clerical, professional, wholesale, and retail trade, 61, or 9 per cent; domestic and personal service, 272, or 38 per cent; hotel and restaurant, 64, or 9 per cent; casual workers, 52, or 7 per cent.

These figures show that more than a third of the positions reported filled were in manufacturing and mechanical pursuits, over half in domestic, hotel, restaurant, and institution help, and 9 per cent in clerical and professional work and trade.

The women's department now has a staff of three women, a superintendent, an assistant superintendent, and a stenographer, whose work, however, is about the same as an assistant superintendent. The work is roughly subdivided into two departments. One side of the room is set aside for domestics, hotel, restaurant, and institution help, and dayworkers. The other side is for all other workers, such as factory and store workers, clerical and professional help. We had scarcely opened the bureau before this grouping was found necessary, as the types of workers are quite distinct. The law of the survival of the fittest was reversed. Only the unfit would have survived if this distinction had not been made.

An assistant is in charge of each department, not only registering and referring applicants to positions, but keeping in close touch with the employers, telephoning them about applicants sent, inquiring about openings for particularly likely applicants, as well as personally canvassing employers.

The woman in charge of the domestic department visits hotels, restaurants, and laundries, hospitals, and other institutions, and in the summer tries, by correspondence, to keep in close touch with summer hotels and boarding houses. The woman in charge of the other department visits factories, millinery and dressmaking establishments, stores, offices, publishers, insurance companies, and other likely places where large forces of clerical help are employed.

This canvassing of employers we have found to be a very important factor in the success of the bureau, if it is to handle other help than domestics and dayworkers. With the ever-present shortage of labor in domestic help, orders for this sort of work will largely come

unsolicited, especially as employers of domestic help are already accustomed to applying to agencies. But calls upon the women's department for other kinds of help usually represent actual effort on the part of the bureau to obtain them. To these employers the idea of securing help through an agency is new, and they must not only have the idea pointed out to them, but they must be converted to the advantage of this method over the time-honored one of hanging out a sign or advertising.

It is not enough to secure the good will and cooperation of an employer. The bureau must hold him by sending him the kind of applicant he wants. And there is no more effective or surer way of insuring this than by personal visits by the placement agents to the places of employment, so that they may see the kind of work done and the grade of worker wanted. Employers themselves realize this when they invite us to go through their plants so that we may understand their work. Even in such a visit a placement agent can get only a general idea of the demands and qualifications necessary in the thousands of different occupations and specialized processes of modern industry.

Such visiting also incidentally supplies us with information about conditions of employment in the places to which we are sending applicants. This is especially important in the placing of women. Not only is there a greater need of safeguarding them in their places of employment, but they know less than men about what conditions of employment they may expect. To some extent the employment bureau for women must take the place of labor organizations in standardizing wages and conditions. A public employment bureau which keeps in close cooperation with factory inspectors and other public officers is in a better position than almost any private or philanthropic employment bureau to know about conditions in establishments to which it may send its workers.

The workers themselves who are referred to different places of employment can also give much useful information about conditions of employment and can help the bureau in weeding out undesirable places to which to send workers, as, for instance, where wages are withheld or where legal requirements as to hours, sanitation, or fire protection are not observed.

In these first five months' work several problems stand out conspicuously as important and difficult to solve. Not one of the least is the question, What shall we do with the middle-aged woman, the widow, or married woman who has suddenly found it necessary to become a wage earner again, after a lapse of several years of home life, or the middle-aged woman who at 40 years of age is declared too "old" for her job in the factory, store, or office in which she has been employed? Usually these women have some home ties and

can not go into domestic service, where almost every woman can get a foothold. When they are asked what kind of work they want, it always is the same answer, "I'll do anything"; when pressed further, "day's work." They know of nothing else that they can do or where a middle-aged woman is wanted. To direct these women into other lines than this overcrowded occupation requires as much ingenuity and tact as vocational guidance for the 14 or 16 year old girl hunting her first job. Information about their occupations before their marriage is sometimes a guide for directing them into other work. An elderly woman who had been a dressmaker obtained a place at mending curtains in a hotel. An experienced foot-press operator was placed in her own trade, although she had applied for day's work. A number of other women were placed in metal factories at heavy presswork. An employer who had employed young girls for this work was induced to try some older women when it was pointed out that the constant shifting of the girls was perhaps due to the fact that their work was rather heavy for them. Other women who were good ironers were referred to garment factories where pressers were needed or to laundries as family ironers. Another outlet has been office and school buildings, hotels, and restaurants where regular cleaners are employed. In other cases employers of domestics have been induced to engage women who had to sleep at home. This suggestion was sometimes cordially welcomed by the employer, who was only too glad to save the rent of an extra room.

The reason why these women ask for day's work is because they do not know about any other opportunities. They have been out of touch with industry for years and they do not know to what they can turn. They do not realize that perhaps it is still worth while for them to learn a trade. We had a woman who came in regularly asking for day's work. At last we suggested that she try to learn some trade as day's work seemed so scarce. For three weeks we didn't see her. One day she came in with a beaming face and announced proudly that she had learned a trade. She had applied at a hospital laundry for permission to work there for a month or three weeks so that she could learn mangling. It was not much of a trade, to be sure, but the next day she secured a job in a hotel laundry at \$7 a week as an experienced mangler.

This work might be termed vocational guidance for the adult. The other problem is vocational guidance for the young girls who have just left school or who have had several unsatisfactory jobs. In New York it is becoming increasingly difficult to find openings for children under 16, owing to restrictions on their hours of work. One result is that more children are staying in school until their sixteenth birthday. But even when they leave at this age they still need guidance. In our cooperation with schools in Brooklyn we have found the

general verdict of principals and teachers to be that it is our job and not theirs to do this task. They feel that we are in a better position to know of industrial conditions, opportunities for advancement, and definite openings, and to judge of the child's fitness for the particular work. Such knowledge comes not only from visits to employers but from daily contact with older workers who have been through the mill. The best way of finding out what occupations are only blind alleys is to know how workers have fared who have been in them. Moreover, juvenile placement work must go hand in hand with adult placement work. Some of the best openings we have been able to secure for learners are in establishments where they are seldom taken, and where the openings have been made chiefly at our suggestion.

In New York City an experiment is being carried on in connection with the Manhattan Trade School by several employment bureaus, public and philanthropic, to test the ability of some of these young girls who have never been at work. For three weeks they attend a special class and are tested by expert trade teachers in hand sewing, sewing by machine, simple and special electric machine operating, pasting, etc., followed by an academic test and a physical examination. A report of the girl's work, general characteristics, and ability in the tests, together with recommendations as to the lines for which she seems to show special fitness, is mailed to the bureau which sent the girl to the school. With such a report as a basis, it is obvious that the placement agent is in a much better position to direct the girl into the right trade, and it is a clinching argument to an employer when he can be told that the applicants sent have shown some fitness for his particular kind of work.

We have also been able to direct girls, especially the more mature, into hospital work, especially into babies' hospitals, as there is a demand for trained infants' nurses, at good salaries.

The young clerical workers without any experience or training are a more hopeless proposition. Feeling themselves superior to factory work, and yet unprepared either in education or special training for any office work, they are almost impossible to place. Some few can, after much persuasion, be directed into the lighter kinds of factory work, but there is still a great oversupply of these clerical workers. Perhaps the schools are somewhat to blame for laying greater emphasis upon the dignity of mental labor than upon that of manual labor. Perhaps also some would be deflected from this overcrowded field if they knew more about the small chance ahead for the unskilled clerical worker, who can hardly expect a brighter future than the most unskilled factory worker.

Unfortunately, this oversupply is not limited alone to the unskilled clerical workers. especially at the rate at which business schools, high schools and evening schools are turning out stenogra-

phers in Brooklyn. If there were trade and manual schools which made as much effort to tempt the girls into them as the business schools do, things might be different. But Brooklyn has not a single trade school for girls and those who want to spend time in training turn to the inevitable stenography and typewriting. Another solution may come when factory trades are made more attractive, with better conditions of employment, pleasanter surroundings, shorter hours of labor, and steadier work.

The shifting of workers from one trade to another in slack seasons is also a difficult problem, but of great importance to every public employment bureau. Turning factory girls into summer hotel help, sales girls into domestics, and department store girls into cashiers in summer amusement places, is not an easy task and requires much ingenuity. But we feel that much can be accomplished in this direction. The bureau can be of special value in supplying to workers information about other trades that are busy, and trades in which their qualifications and experience might be useful. We must constantly keep our fingers on the pulse of industrial conditions and regulate our advice accordingly. As our knowledge of industries and seasons and of the qualifications necessary in the different occupations increases, the better able will we be to make these shifts from shop to shop and from trade to trade, and to dovetail occupations with the changing of the seasons.

In our relation to relief agencies we have found it somewhat perplexing to know how to handle the people they send. Relief agencies, like a great part of the public, have not yet absorbed the idea that the bureau refers applicants to positions primarily because they seem fitted for the particular job, and not because they are needy. An introduction card from a relief visitor often reads something like this: "Can you give Mrs. P. a job? Her husband left her several years ago, and she has six children. I do hope you can find something for her." In the first place, a widow who has six children to care for would seem to have a big enough job on her hands. In the second place, there is no hint as to her ability or the kind of work for which she might be fitted. In the women's department, however, we have not discouraged the sending of applicants, as we have felt that we were free to weed the good from the unfit, and at the same time we could centralize the placement work. Relief agencies have always done much canvassing for jobs among employers. The relief visitors agree with us that it is a better method to prevent duplication by our undertaking the employment-bureau work, leaving them the task of finding work for the handicapped and those whom we can not handle, at least for the present.

In the same way we feel that when temporary workrooms are opened, as was done this past winter in New York, they should be

operated in close cooperation with the employment bureaus, so that they may be temporary in the real sense for the unemployed until they can secure other work at reasonable wages. Every worker in such workrooms should be registered in an employment bureau, as such workrooms are primarily for regular workers who are temporarily out of work.

The hardest lesson that we have to learn is that we must not try to induce employers to become philanthropists by employing under-grade workers. "It spoils the job," as the saying is, for the efficient worker who could hold the job and earn a regular wage. It is not fair to the employer, who probably would prefer to select his own way of "doing charity." Nor is it fair to the worker who becomes discouraged in trying to do the work for which he is not fitted. We must convince the public that bringing the right worker and employer together does not constitute an act of charity. Nor should we identify ourselves as a relief department by sending out applicants for "charity."

THE IMMIGRANT WORKER AND THE PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAU.

ANNE ERICKSON, IMMIGRANT PROTECTIVE LEAGUE, CHICAGO.

The function of the public employment bureau is the organization of the labor market. Immigrant labor has always formed an important element of the American supply. The question for the public agency is, then, not the needs of the immigrant versus the needs of the native born, but, rather, what sort of service is necessary in order to care for the foreign-born laborer.

Attention should be called at the outset to the fact that, for the protection both of the American workman and the immigrant, the latter is not allowed to come to the United States under an agreement to work. This is done in order that he may not be brought here as a strike breaker, and because his ignorance of American standards puts him at too great a disadvantage in entering into any labor contract. Merely landing in the United States has not taught him the things he needs to know for his own protection as well as the protection of those whose competitor he becomes. The interest of both the American and the immigrant workman makes the advice and help of a disinterested public agency necessary.

Unless there is to be enormous waste through duplication the immigrant laborer should be placed by the same agency as the American laborer. The service which the agency should perform for the immigrant is so different from that given the native born as to require a special department of the labor bureau. That some special organization within the agency is necessary is obvious from the fact that none of the public agencies, as at present organized, have been

able to make any headway in the placement of the non-English-speaking immigrant. The immigrant comes to the United States with no knowledge of English, with no knowledge of American standards of wages or living. He comes with the inherited religious, racial, and political prejudices of Europe. The ordinary American unequipped with his language, ignorant of his racial psychology, will find it impossible intelligently to place the immigrant.

In all the classifications of labor, the unskilled workman is largely the immigrant. Therefore, this problem with which the public employment bureau will have to deal will particularly concern non-English-speaking unskilled laborers.

The total number admitted during the fiscal year of 1914 who were skilled workmen in Europe was 173,208 (which includes 7,770 mine workers). Of the 710,456 in miscellaneous occupations, 288,053 were classed as farm laborers, 14,442 as farmers—that is, owners of land—and 226,407 as laborers.¹ Of all these farmers, farm hands, and laborers, the greatest number begin as unskilled laborers here in America. To an unnecessary extent the artisans, too, enter this group and serve an apprenticeship in the unskilled ranks.

At the present time railroad construction offers the most conspicuous example of the need of the placement of immigrants by a public agency.

The railroad companies in Chicago reported to the mayor's commission on unemployment last winter that construction gangs were usually one-third "hoboes"—meaning Americans, Irish-Americans, and foreigners who have been here many years. The other two-thirds were classed as "foreigners"—that is, Slavs, Italians, Greeks, Mexicans, Bulgarians, and other recently arrived non-English-speaking immigrants.

In Chicago the fees paid private agents for this and other construction work range from \$2 to \$23. The length of time on the job varies from one-half day to the number of months necessary to complete the work. Many times men pay a large sum for a short-time job. Many times, too, men pay their fees, are promised jobs and never get them.

The company suffers from the resulting inefficiency of its force. Few hands remain for long periods of time and every new gang has to be broken in. Several railroad companies reported to the mayor's commission on unemployment (Chicago) that 10 to 20 men are shipped out to the same job in a season. Perhaps this is because conditions of work have not been properly explained, or it may be to enable the employment agent to collect more fees.

¹ Report of Commissioner General of Immigration, 1914, Table X—"Immigrant aliens admitted, fiscal year ending June 30, 1914, by occupations and races."

An explanation of why the railroads use this wasteful system of securing labor is hard to find, unless the division of fees between officials of the roads and the agents is general. Sometimes steamship companies are labor agents. One road recently frankly stated that they could not get their labor from a free employment agency because a certain steamship company was interested in a labor agency, and in order to keep the good will of that company and so receive arriving immigrants for travel upon their road, section hands and other laborers had to be hired through this agency.

Obviously there are serious difficulties which the public agency must overcome before it can enter this field, but that the public interest will be greatly served by doing it, there is no question. If such labor could be supplied through a properly managed public bureau, exploitation of the men and of the railroad companies would cease. It would form the opening wedge in the standardizing of living conditions in the camps. It would make possible the elimination of the "padrone," who is often the exploiter of both men and employer.

Because this work is very largely interstate in character, it belongs to a Federal agency rather than to a State or municipal one. On the other hand, the work of the local agencies in organizing the home market is completely demoralized by the unintelligent and wasteful way in which this very large group of casual laborers is handled at present. Their cooperation with the Federal agency is therefore necessary.

Of the laborers classed in "miscellaneous occupations" many are farmers. These men have until lately been entirely undirected and have swelled the numbers of unskilled laborers.

During the last season the Federal Bureau of Immigration has begun the placing of farm laborers. In a few seasons' time it is hoped this part of the labor market will be organized by this agency. Something further might be done, perhaps, in placement of peasant colonies on land. Mr. W. W. Husband, special immigration inspector, reports after a study of Russian immigration that, "If taken in time, Russian immigration can be directed to the land instead of to industrial centers. They are accustomed to agricultural work under adverse circumstances, which kind of labor would seem to be required in the development of much of the so-called waste land of the United States. * * * Taking fully into account the existing conditions in this regard, it is believed that the Russian peasant immigration, which seems almost sure to increase greatly in the near future, affords the best opportunity for developing a movement to the land since the Scandinavians so largely settled the North Central States a generation or more ago."¹

¹ Annual Report of the Commissioner General of Immigration, 1914, p. 401.

There are other needs demanding separate equipment for the distribution of foreign labor. In the first place, in order to get a correct record of the industrial history previous to immigration, the applicant must be interviewed by some one who speaks his language. This interviewer should, if possible, be of the same nationality as the applicant so that racial characteristics may be understood.

Then there is need of a careful survey of the industrial field to discover positions available for the skilled immigrant workman, in order to prevent the waste of such skill as far as possible. As an example of what should not happen, we found a Polish masseur with 17 years' experience in hospitals, fashionable sanitariums, and with private physicians who was working as a laborer in the metal room in the Deering plant in Chicago.

The immigrant laborer should be placed by an agency interested in his being paid the price unskilled work commands and with a view to the opportunities the industry offers for the advancement of its employees to jobs where they may learn the trades in that industry.

Among these newcomers there are a large number of youths and young women who are under twenty and are having their first industrial experience in the United States. Just as the native-born children need guidance, these children do. They must be kept out of "blind-alley" jobs, and from jobs for which they are unsuited. As well as native-born children, they must be put in touch with positions where advancement is possible. For example, it should be ascertained whether there is a chance of a molder's helper becoming a molder, or a yard laborer a molder's helper, before men with possibilities are placed at those jobs.

Just as the immigrant man often finds his first position in the field of unskilled labor, so the immigrant girl finds her first job in some sort of domestic service. She is in great demand not only for hotel and restaurant service, but for service in private households as well. There should be, then, an investigation of every household where a girl is sent just as there is one for every hotel and restaurant. Thus there may be a chance to standardize not only wages for household service but living conditions as well.

Because this is the girl's first job and she continues in one after another with no particular training or chance for change to another position, such housework is often nothing more than blind-alley work. When a girl has a hard place with low pay, she may be transferred to a job with higher pay and easier work as she becomes capable of filling a position with more responsibility, instead of going from one hard job to another as bad. And this sort of a change can only be made by an agency familiar with the households where its girls are sent.

With proper placement and supervision, the girl whose ability points to another field of industry will be discovered. For example, a Bohemian girl who had managed an orphan asylum in Brun came to Chicago and did housework in an American family. Through our keeping in touch with her and telling her of opportunities in other lines of work, she finally decided to take a playground course in order to become a playground director.

Besides the duty of sending the immigrant to his job, there is the need of a follow-up system. This system might be developed by visits to the home of the applicant, by letters, and by office appointments with him, or it might be carried out through the cooperation of volunteer organizations or groups of individuals. Such a scheme makes possible good preventive work. Through it an individual can be fitted into his job with some skill. If he fails in one place, another can be found for him. For through ill-suited placement he may become unemployable. This plan is necessary in all placement work, but it is peculiarly necessary with the immigrant who often can not describe or even understand what his difficulties are.

Through such service, the bureau can connect the applicant with the social agencies which will give him the protection and education he needs. Thus he can be sent to the evening classes in the public schools and settlements. The most important thing for the immigrant besides his job is that he learn English as soon as possible for he can not get ahead until he does. If the agency that gives him work tells him this, it is much better than any kind of advertising that can be done.

If the applicant for a certain kind of work can not be placed because he needs medical care, he can be advised to go to the dispensaries and hospitals. Perhaps, through the diagnosis and treatment so gained, it will be found that another kind of work is necessary for the well-being of the individual, or he may be found to be a subject for that department of the bureau or some existing private agency which finds employment for the handicapped.

A Hungarian-Jewish girl came to America all alone. She was 16½ years old. She worked in a factory and earned \$6 a week. She paid \$3 a week for her board. After eight months she was laid off. She came to the Immigrants' Protective League then for the first time. She had learned some sewing in the old country. We sent her to a dressmaker, but she was laid off here in a week. She developed a festered finger. We helped her get service from the dispensary. Then it became necessary to have her eyes examined. This was done and glasses prescribed. It did not seem wise to get her another dress-making job, so we placed her in a hospital where she would be a waitress and rest her eyes. She likes this work and is saving money because she gets her board and room besides her wages.

Indeed, all the resources of the city can be put at the disposal of the non-English-speaking workman through such a follow-up system, and the bureau will be more than a means of crude distribution of labor and will become, as every public agency with which the immigrant comes in contact should become, an agency for the Americanization of the immigrant along the best lines.

To summarize, in order to meet the peculiar needs of the immigrant laborers, who form such a large group in the labor market, some special service from the public employment bureau is necessary. This service can best be given through the organization of a separate department. At least some members of the staff of this department should speak the languages of the applicants. This department should undertake as its first work the organization of the unskilled labor market. It should inaugurate a follow-up system for both the artisan and the laborer so as to keep each individual at his proper job. By these services both the immigrant and the American will be benefited. Each one will be cared for by one agency and not by many private organizations competing with one another for the fees of members registered.

THE IMMIGRANT AND THE INDUSTRIAL WORLD.

W. F. HENNESSY, COMMISSIONER OF EMPLOYMENT, CLEVELAND.

Early last winter, when the unemployment situation in the cities was extremely critical, Cleveland made a survey in order to find out how many unemployed people there were. Besides finding out the number of persons who were out of work, it found another thing of interest—that from 70 to 75 per cent of those who were destitute unemployed were among those who had come to this country recently. During that time of greatest stress these foreigners would often come into the employment office, get down on their knees, and with tears in their eyes say, "Mister, please, a job—baby sick."

Some of the great industrial plants, where men had been employed for many, many years, found it necessary to drive the foreigners away with a hose in order to keep them from storming the gates. Day after day the more intelligent would come, bringing their citizenship papers with them, taking them out from their greasy wrappings and offering them as evidence of their right to work in place of seeking charity.

In one week at the office of the labor exchange 11,000 men registered as destitute unemployed, willing to work at anything at any price. The majority of these were found to be honest foreigners who had been pushed to the wall from lack of employment and for the first time were near the border line of poverty. Although the suffer-

ing was great during that time among the Americans, it was terrible among the foreigners. Far from home, with few friends to protect them, and unable to speak in our language, they suffered like dumb animals and begged for a chance to work.

This was the situation the immigrant found this past winter, when there was a period of industrial depression. What does the immigrant find when business is booming?

The immigrant, who has made possible to the United States an industrial development unequalled in the world's history, finds a disorganized labor market. Handicapped as he is by being unable to speak the English language and being untrained in an industrial way, he learns the one word "job" and with that begins his hunt for work. Not knowing what industries may be active, he wanders from place to place trying to peddle his labor. Usually, after he has found his own efforts to be almost worthless, he seeks some private employment agency that always holds out glowing promises of work to be secured in return for the payment of a fee. Sometimes he is successful and obtains a position from such an agency, but more often the newly arrived immigrant is the victim of unscrupulous employment agencies. Perhaps after he has secured a position he falls a victim to that practice of paying for the privilege of holding his job and turns over once a month a certain sum of money to the interpreter or to the foreman.

The labor market is also often overstocked. With the seasonal trades and activities of this country employers demand a surplus of labor at their gates to be ready at all times so that they may use them when needed. Handicapped as the country is by its inability to transport the immigrant to places where he can market his labor, an unfortunate situation is produced which often compels the immigrant to seek charity in one place when there is plenty of work in another.

Also the wages the immigrant receives are extremely low. The average yearly salary amounts to only about \$455. Of course this is far higher than what he receives in his own country, but it is much too low if we are to expect him to live as an American. With such a salary and with employment which is often uncertain throughout the year, we expect the immigrant to see in this country the land of promise. Working for such a wage naturally means a lower standard of living. It means poor housing; it means weakness both moral and physical, and although we may criticize and say the immigrant lives on a lower plane than the American we must remember that we first made possible this plane by paying him a wage so low.

The immigrant finds his labor monotonous. By the average employer of labor he is looked upon as a machine and little regard is paid to the fact that he has a soul and a body. Contributing,

as he does usually, only one operation toward the finished product while being employed, and spending all his spare hours in the dirty section of the town where he is compelled to live, this American life soon takes out of him practically all the heart that he has.

Then, the immigrant has the hatred of those Americans whom he has displaced. Brought in, as he is, in ignorance of American ways, he is placed in the factories, shops, or mines to do one special task. The fact that someone else has been doing this work before him troubles him not in the least until he begins to feel the hatred of the lower class of American labor. The immigrant is then looked upon as one to be shunned and hated by all Americans, and he need expect little sympathy and help from the average American workingman.

And, lastly, the immigrant is practically without any permanent interest in our American life. Here and there spasmodic efforts have been made to assimilate him, but as yet little has been accomplished toward this end. As he usually lives in a community which differs so from his home country, the American life and the American ideals are far away from him. His conversation and all his thoughts follow in the channels laid down in the old country, and he looks forward to the time when he may go back as a wealthy man to his own country.

It is this situation that the immigrant finds in the industrial life of this country, and it is with the industrial situation that the Americans must work if there is to be a solution of the problem of immigration. A great mass of humanity has poured into our country during the past few years—far faster than we have been able to absorb it. All this has meant a wonderful industrial development, but it has socially retarded American life. For the present, immigration has ceased and as the war will no doubt relieve the causes of immigration for many years to come, America faces an opportunity to establish a policy of dealing with the immigrant who is already here, and carrying that policy on to completion.

The problem of the immigrant is an industrial problem primarily and its solution must be sought in an industrial way. The immigrant has come to the United States for a job and that job should be given to him, not by some private employment agency which is run for profit alone, but through an employment bureau governed by either the State or the city authorities. In Cleveland the labor exchange has its immigration bureau to take care of its foreign laborer. This department is not only interested in his education, in seeing that he is directed aright and not exploited, but sees that he secures the right kind of a job in place of allowing him to be taken into labor camps where he is treated unfairly and where he is made to sleep in places unfit for human beings. Its efforts are directed to giving him the

best kind of a job for which he is fitted, and always with the understanding that as he becomes more Americanized the type of job and wages which he is capable of earning will eventually be higher.

Then again we must pay him wages that will enable him and his family to live as Americans. Work should also be assured him for the entire year. The uncertainty of his labor produces a dread of American life.

The city, State, or Federal Government should so arrange its work that employment could be guaranteed to any man during slack seasons when it is impossible to secure other work.

An efficient labor exchange should work with all agencies in the solution of the immigration problem, not only by giving the immigrant the right kind of a job and seeing that he secures wages that are right and work for the entire year, but it should centralize the opportunities for labor so that the immigrant may go to one place where, without paying a fee, he can feel sure of finding employment, if there is any to be had.

A definite policy must be established for the citizenship and education of the immigrant. We encourage him now to become a citizen of our country and yet his citizenship often means little or nothing to him. Through its classes in English and its citizenship classes each community must make every effort to interest the immigrant in American life. It should so hold up the ideals of citizenship before the foreigner that each one will strive and work to attain that goal. Through the high schools and the public schools an effort should be made to educate in an industrial way not only the children of the immigrant but the ambitious immigrant as well. Then an effort should be made to establish some permanent, binding interest between the immigrant and our country, whether this is in enabling him to purchase a home at reasonable rates or by guaranteeing him a position for a certain term of years whereby he may feel sure that he can pay for such a home, or through making the community life of the immigrant so attractive in this country that the visions of the old-country life may fade away and he may see in America the land of happiness.

And lastly, and perhaps the most important, the American must be educated to the immigrant problem. So far he has neglected it and has always refused to believe that the immigrant is a problem, but now public sentiment must be so molded that every community may awaken to the opportunity which it now has to solve the problem of the immigrant.

Through the newspapers, the magazines, and every other agency that is possible in the molding of public opinion, those interested in the immigrant must strive to present to the American public the industrial as well as the humane side of this great problem; and if the

American people once grasp the fact that the great mass of immigrants have made possible to this country the most wonderful industrial development that the world has yet known, we may rest assured that the immigration problem will be with us no more.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES.

HILDA MUEHLHAUSER, GIRLS' AND WOMEN'S BUREAU, CLEVELAND.

England and Germany have for years considered it a part of the duty of the Government to provide juvenile labor exchanges under Government control, and America is slowly awakening to the fact that if we are adequately to provide for the youth who are pouring into modern industry, our Government must bear its responsibility in guiding these young people. The Federal authorities in this country have not yet considered following the example set by England and Germany and so successfully tried by them, but the States of the Union are gradually assuming more responsibility toward their labor exchanges. Ohio is the first State that has gone so far as to recognize the value of vocational guidance and to try a plan of combining the State-city labor exchange of Cleveland with the vocational guidance bureau operating under the commissioner of labor and the industrial commission.

It was interesting to note when we were campaigning to have this epoch-making legislation put through the Ohio legislature that all the agencies in the city, settlements, institutions, charitable organizations, the retail merchants' board, the chamber of commerce, and leading citizens all favored State control of all employment work to be undertaken in Cleveland and vigorously backed our effort. It was also interesting to hear the members of the house and senate give the one reason of the many I presented why they agreed to take over an organization which our own city council had refused to handle. The State officials believed that as a "Give a job" movement we were not warranted at that time in asking for funds, but that as a "Know a job" movement we had a right to be considered. They paused, and after due deliberation decided that it was just as important to give a girl the right job as to give a job at all, and that, knowing industrial conditions and having studied the girl and the opportunities open to her for the past six years, we were of value to the State. They realized that our survey of Cleveland industries, carefully and thoroughly made, gave us first-hand information imperative for intelligent placing; that our visitors' committee, composed of trained workers who are continually following up placements and are visiting the girls in their homes, lent the personal

touch which is so important in dealing with young girls; that the surveys we had made for the National Child Labor Committee giving the minimum wage of Cleveland working girls, the surveys of the industrial histories of the feeble-minded, used to help secure funds for a new institution to care for them, all our many surveys and publications showed the possibility of correlating facts of value to the State in the future.

Moreover, we had proven by actual experiment of three months that the combination could be successful and that we "uplifters," as the city council scornfully termed us, could give satisfactory results to the State, the city, and the girl. I should modify that last remark, for you who have for years been dealing with the girl problem realize that for the juvenile there seldom can be satisfactory results, especially when related to modern industry. Knowing local conditions, knowing the girl, what "satisfactory results" have ever been obtained when placing her in a position for which she is best fitted at the early age of 14 to 16 years? We use the term "for which she is best fitted" when in reality we know she is not fitted for any position that will give her a vocation in the future. "The startling results of the investigation undertaken in Massachusetts showed how casual and demoralizing the first few years of factory life become to thousands of unprepared boys and girls. At the end of their second year of employment many of them are less capable than when they left school and actually receiving less wages. The report of the commission made clear that while the 2 years between 14 and 16 were most valuable for educational purposes they were almost useless for industrial purposes."

Some educators are making a plea for vocational education in the schools, others for continuation schools, and still others for vocational guidance as part of the public-school system. The school, which has been so far from meeting the needs of the child in the past, is now the one organization to which all turn for the adjustment of the juvenile-employment problem. Why not turn to the State and in time to the Federal Government, presuming, of course, that close cooperation exists between State and school. I am confident that the Cleveland experiment will be one which shall set an example that other States can follow, so that in time the responsibility for juvenile employment shall be fixed with the Government.

The reason given by many vocational guidance experts for not seeking to have such bureaus taken under the wing of the State has been that under State control the high ideals for which these bureaus stand under private supervision may be corrupted, and that under State control they would be subject to some of the unreliable influences governing State régime. Some of our own workers

accepted the idea of the new combination with some misgivings. I believe that there are three distinct advantages gained by having the vocational guidance bureau a part of the State-city labor exchange. First, that a vast number of girls who hesitate to make use of a charitable organization, as most bureaus maintained by private funds are, come freely to a bureau under municipal and State control because they feel they have a right to come. Second, it is convenient for the employer. He does not have to call the schools if he needs a young girl and the city bureau if he seeks an older girl. It becomes habit for him to call upon the State-city labor exchange for all his help, young men and women, boys and girls. Third, the oft-told advantage of having a vocational guidance bureau located in the schools, because of the close cooperation thus stimulated, may be obtained when the bureau is located in the city hall. We secured the cooperation of the principals, who sent to us those children intending to leave school. The truant officer promised to send girls to us before he gave them working papers, and the principal of the commercial high school, who was at the head of a committee that conducted an employment department for the graduates of that school, expressed his willingness to turn over this work to us. In this way the close cooperation of the schools so important to the success of any juvenile bureau may be established.

The fact is that in these three experimental months we have more than doubled our usefulness. Twice as many employers have called us and more than twice as many girls have sought us as we had ever had in the six years we had been in operation as a private bureau. Our permanent placements rose from 45 to 75 per cent of the number of applicants. Not only was the use of the bureau thus increased, but girls of a type who had never before thought of using an employment bureau, the high-school and college graduates, talented young women, came in very large numbers to secure advice and employment. We were made the subject of the address of the sweet girl graduate as well as of the prominent educator. The newspapers kept us constantly before the public by printing excellent articles bearing upon our work. We had to enlarge our quarters and move from the small basement of the city hall to a spacious room, light and airy, on the main floor. Here we placed library books, magazines, newspapers, exhibits pertaining to health and hygiene, bulletins, and plants which added to the attractiveness of the quarters, as well as to the comfort of the girls. The women's department of the State joined us and we became one department under a director responsible to the commissioner of labor. Thus we divided the labor exchange into two departments, not according to age but according to sex. The women who had been crowded in with the men's department became part of a girls' and women's bureau, where in true democratic spirit

the laundress or the scrubwoman sat in the same room with the young woman who had had greater opportunities. The fact that we thought her intelligent enough to read a paper or magazine in her own language at once added to her self-respect and she no longer felt herself ranked lowest in the scale of wage earners. Counter interviews were supplemented by office interviews, providing a privacy which was her right. Thus the ideals of the vocational guidance bureau as to dealing with applicants are being instilled into the workings of the State department, resulting in greater efficiency in the girls' and women's department.

Is there any wonder that we are so optimistic as to the possibilities of developing our bureau so that in time all employers instead of maintaining their own employment departments will make use of one central labor bureau which shall appeal to them as well as to the employable, because, with that high-minded spirit which produced the successful private vocational bureaus of the past there shall be linked the vast public service which is possible only through cooperation of the parents, the schools, the employers and employees, the city, the State, and the Nation.

APPENDIX A.

RESOLUTIONS ADOPTED AT CHICAGO MEETING, DECEMBER 19, 1912.

(1) Whereas the National Commission on Industrial Relations is about to begin its study of labor conditions and remedies; and whereas employment offices are recognized by all authorities as the first step in any plan of dealing with unemployment:

Resolved, That we respectfully suggest to the Commission on Industrial Relations that they make a study of public and private employment offices and work out a plan of National and State cooperation, if they deem it advisable, for distributing labor throughout the country.

(2) Whereas this meeting has shown that there is such great disparity in methods used in the various public employment offices that their work can not be compared and cooperation in distributing labor is almost impossible: Therefore be it

Resolved, That the executive committee be instructed to make a study of the methods used in public employment offices throughout the world, and to work out a set of forms to be submitted to the next meeting of this association for discussion and approval.

(3) Whereas the cooperation and the confidence of both capital and labor are essential in conducting successful public employment offices: Therefore be it

Resolved, That this association recommends to all the offices that advisory committees consisting of an equal number of representatives of employers and wage earners should be correlated with each public employment office, in order that strict impartiality may be secured.

RESOLUTIONS ADOPTED AT INDIANAPOLIS MEETING, SEPTEMBER 25, 1914.

(1) Whereas the State free employment offices must necessarily devote their main efforts to distribution of labor within the States; and whereas the interstate distribution of labor is most important in reducing unemployment: Therefore be it

Resolved by this convention, That we call upon the Federal Government to establish agencies for distributing labor among the States and for cooperating with the State offices in such distribution.

Resolved, That we do not approve the establishment of local employment offices by the Federal Government.

(2) *Resolved*, That this association go on record as favoring the elimination, as soon as possible, of all private employment agencies operating for a profit within the United States, and that it recommends to the consideration of the United States Commission on Industrial Relations and Congress and the various State legislatures legislation having this end in view.

(3) Whereas the conditions of employment as reported by the various representatives of the public employment agencies, particularly that employment pertaining to domestic service and agricultural pursuits, are to the effect that employes of that class of labor are poorly paid; and

Whereas the employers of this class of labor are continually expressing themselves as dissatisfied and are experiencing trouble in procuring competent, capable help; and

Whereas the conditions that exist and the position of the employers in this regard, in relation thereto, are such as to discourage this class of labor from continuing in these occupations: Therefore be it

Resolved by this association of public employment officials in convention assembled, That we deplore these conditions, the causes, and general results of same; and be it further

Resolved, That the attention of employers of this class of labor be directed to this condition and their connection thereto; and be it further

Resolved, That this association recommend to all such employers the necessity and need, and as a duty owed by these employers, to offer and pay more wages and afford better conditions to this class of labor in an effort to ameliorate and alleviate these conditions and to prevent the disastrous results from such conditions, which reflects on all classes of labor and on the general conditions of employment.

RESOLUTIONS ADOPTED AT DETROIT MEETING, JULY 2, 1915.

(1) Whereas the enactment of different laws in different cities and States results in disorganized and unsystematic administration and inharmonious operation of these bureaus in the matters of appointment of superintendents and clerks, selection of suitably arranged locations, sufficient appropriations, and proper or scientific record keeping by which studies of the question of unemployment may be made: Therefore be it

Resolved by the American Association of Public Employment Offices in convention assembled, That we strongly favor the enactment of uniform legislation to the end that administrative officers may be empowered to select suitable locations, to be provided with sufficient funds with which to operate these bureaus, and the adoption of uniform schedules or forms and system, and a provision by which a practical civil-service examination may be held (written and oral) for the purpose of testing applicants for appointment to the service and also provide for a larger cooperation with all reliable nonfee placement bureaus; and be it further

Resolved, That the executive committee is hereby instructed to work toward the accomplishment of these ends.

(2) Whereas it is a well-known fact that the use of the titles free State, city, or municipal employment agency, exchange, or labor bureau is objectionable and has a tendency among uninformed persons to place such institutions in the category of the charity and relief agencies and thereby brings these bureaus into disrepute: Therefore be it

Resolved, That the American Association of Public Employment Offices in convention assembled are of the unanimous opinion that the word "free" should be eliminated and that the title public employment bureau or office should, in so far as it is possible in existing offices and in all new ones, be adopted, and that we strongly favor such title.

(3) Whereas the opportunity for rendering eminent service to the patrons of the public employment bureau is seriously handicapped by not being able to utilize the Federal postal facilities to the fullest extent in the posting of bulletins and sending official mail matter free, privileges which are now fully enjoyed by the Federal employment bureaus: Therefore be it

Resolved, That the American Association of Public Employment Offices in convention assembled are strongly of the opinion that such uses of the postal

service is highly desirable to the successful operation of these bureaus; and be it further

Resolved, That a larger measure of cooperation between these bureaus and the Federal Government be urged in a communication to be sent by our secretary to the proper Federal authorities.

(4) Whereas it is fully recognized that the dignity, reputation, and success of these bureaus is impaired to a great extent by the fact that proper and uniform schedules or forms and records are not kept by a very large number of existing offices; and

Whereas these offices in different States are not run in accordance with uniform rules and system; and

Whereas the statistical information is not collected or kept in a systematic or uniform manner for the purposes of comparison with other offices: Therefore be it

Resolved, That the American Association of Public Employment Offices in convention assembled strongly favor greater uniformity of record keeping and system, and we urgently request that the proper officials be solicited to the end that greater uniformity prevail in existing and future offices.

(5) Whereas it is highly desirable and important that we be provided with a printed report of the proceedings of this and the preceding conventions of our association; and

Whereas there are no funds in our treasury with which to pay for the cost of the same: Therefore be it

Resolved, That we recommend the publication of such a report; and the secretary is hereby requested to make an arrangement with the United States Department of Labor to publish the proceedings, if that is possible.

APPENDIX B.

FEDERAL, STATE, AND MUNICIPAL EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS IN THE UNITED STATES.¹

Public employment offices have already been established or provided for in this country by 25 States (including Idaho, Iowa, and New Jersey, where the necessary legislation has been enacted but the organization has not been completed), such State employment offices having been established to the number of 77 in 76 cities. Municipal public employment offices have been established in 28 cities in 16 States, the number of such offices being 30. Federal employment offices have been established in connection with the Division of Information of the Department of Labor in 30 States, the number of such offices being 77. The location and character of these offices, that is, whether State, Federal, or municipal, are shown in the following table:

Federal, State, and municipal employment bureaus in the United States.

State.	Character of bureau and location.		
	Federal.	State.	Municipal.
Alabama.....	Birmingham.....
Arizona.....	Mobile.....	Phoenix.
	Douglas.....
	Naco.....
	Nogales.....
	Phoenix.....
	Tucson.....
	Yuma.....
California.....	Bakersfield.....	Los Angeles ²	Berkeley.
	Calxico.....	Oakland ²	Los Angeles.
	Eureka.....	Sacramento ²	Sacramento.
	Fresno.....	San Francisco ²
	Indio.....	Berkeley.....
	Los Angeles ²
	Monterey.....
	Sacramento.....
	San Bernardino.....
	San Diego.....
	San Francisco.....
	San Luis Obispo.....
	Santa Ana.....
	Santa Barbara.....
Colorado.....	Denver ²	Colorado Springs.....	Denver.
	Denver (2).....
	Pueblo.....
Connecticut.....	Bridgeport.....
	Hartford.....
	New Haven.....
	Norwich.....
	Waterbury.....
Florida.....	Jacksonville ²
Georgia.....	Savannah.....
Idaho.....	Moscow.....	(³).....
Illinois.....	Chicago ²	Chicago.....	Chicago.
	East St. Louis.....
	Peoria.....
	Rockford.....
	Rock Island.....
	Springfield.....
Indiana.....	Indianapolis.....	Evansville.....
	Fort Wayne.....
	Indianapolis.....
	South Bend.....
	Terre Haute.....
	(³).....
Iowa.....	Topeka.....
Kansas.....	Louisville ⁴	Louisville.
Kentucky.....
Louisiana.....	New Orleans ²
Maryland.....	Baltimore ²	Baltimore.....
Massachusetts.....	Boston ²	Boston.....
	Fall River.....
	Springfield.....
	Worcester.....
Michigan.....	Detroit ²	Battle Creek.....
	Bay City.....
	Detroit.....
	Flint.....
	Grand Rapids.....
	Jackson.....
	Kalamazoo.....
	Lansing.....

¹ Prepared in the Bureau of Labor Statistics and submitted by the Commissioner of Labor Statistics in connection with hearings before the House Committee on Labor, Feb. 4, 10, and 17, 1916, on a bill for the establishment of a national employment bureau. (Washington, 1916. pp. 43, 49.)

² Provided for by 1915 act. ³ Headquarters of Federal bureaus. ⁴ Not specially authorized by law.

Federal, State, and municipal employment bureaus in the United States—Con.

State.	Character of bureau and location.		
	Federal.	State.	Municipal.
Michigan.....	Sault Ste. Marie.....	Muskegon.....	
Minnesota.....	Minneapolis ¹	Saginaw.....	
		Duluth.....	
		Minneapolis.....	
Mississippi.....	Gulfport.....	St. Paul.....	
Missouri.....	Kansas City.....	Kansas City.....	Kansas City.
	St. Louis ¹	St. Joseph.....	(²)
		St. Louis.....	
Montana.....	Helena ¹		Bozeman.
			Butte.
			Great Falls.
			Livingston.
			Missoula.
Nebraska.....		Lincoln.....	
New Jersey.....	Matawan.....	(³).....	Newark.
New Mexico.....	Albuquerque.....		
	Deming.....		
	Tucumcari.....		
New York.....	Buffalo.....	Albany.....	Jamestown.
	New York City ¹	Buffalo.....	New York City (3).
		New York City (Brooklyn).	
		Rochester.....	
		Syracuse.....	
North Dakota.....			Fargo.
Ohio.....	Cleveland.....	Akron.....	Cleveland.
		Cincinnati.....	
		Cleveland.....	
		Columbus.....	
		Dayton.....	
		Toledo.....	
		Youngstown.....	
Oklahoma.....		Enid.....	
		Muskogee.....	
		Oklahoma City.....	
		Tulsa.....	
Oregon.....	Astoria.....		Portland.
	Portland ¹		
Pennsylvania.....	Philadelphia ¹	Erie (proposed).....	Erie.
	Pittsburgh.....	Johnstown.....	
		Philadelphia.....	
		Pittsburgh.....	
		Scranton.....	
Rhode Island.....	Providence.....	Providence.....	
South Carolina.....	Charleston.....	Columbia.....	
South Dakota.....		Pierre.....	
Tennessee.....	Memphis.....		
Texas.....	Amarillo.....		Dallas.
	Big Spring.....		Fort Worth.
	Brownsville.....		
	Del Rio.....		
	Eagle Pass.....		
	El Paso.....		
	Galveston ¹		
	Laredo.....		
	San Angelo.....		
	San Antonio.....		
Utah.....	Salt Lake City.....		
Virginia.....	Norfolk ¹		Richmond.
Washington.....	Aberdeen.....		Bellingham.
	Bellingham.....		Everett.
	Custer.....		Seattle.
	Everett.....		Spokane.
	Friday Harbor.....		Tacoma.
	Nooksack.....		
	North Yakima.....		
	Port Angeles.....		
	Port Townsend.....		
	Seattle ¹		
	Spokane.....		
	Tacoma.....		
	Walla Walla.....		
West Virginia.....		Wheeling.....	
Wisconsin.....		La Crosse.....	
		Milwaukee.....	
		Oshkosh.....	
		Superior.....	

¹ Headquarters of Federal bureaus.

² Municipal bureau provided for in St. Louis by newly adopted city charter.

³ Provided for by 1915 act.

APPENDIX C.

PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES IN GREAT BRITAIN AND GERMANY.¹

INTRODUCTION.

As industrial conditions grow more complicated the difficulty of guiding the movement of labor becomes greater. Fluctuations in industry, seasonal rise and fall in the demand for commodities, a certain constant irregularity of employment, whether inevitable or not, concern the worker more seriously, perhaps, than even low wages or long hours. All these conditions become more acute and accentuated during times of general industrial depression. But, as has been remarked by W. H. Beveridge, an English authority on unemployment problems: "A rising demand for labor will be no cure for unemployment." What is meant by that statement is that there is always a certain amount of unemployment not due at all to an oversupply of labor, but due rather to gradual changes in industrial methods and organization, new trades displacing old occupations and throwing men out of employment, requiring them to develop new aptitudes to fill new places; also there are the seasonal fluctuations of rush and slack seasons, through which many trades pass each year, fluctuations which cause maladjustments in the labor market; and, finally, there is that periodical unemployment which may be caused even in times of prosperity, due to the fact that many trades require a reserve supply of labor to meet their demands. "The men forming these reserves are constantly passing into and out of employment. They tend, moreover, to be always more numerous than can find employment together at any one time. This tendency springs directly from one of the fundamental facts of industry—the dissipation of the demand for labor in each trade between many separate employers and centers of employment. Its result may be described as the normal glutting of the labor market. The counterpart of such glutting is the idleness at every moment of some or others of those engaged."

The situation has been very comprehensively and adequately presented by the British Poor-Law Commission of 1909, from which the following words from its final conclusions on the subject of unemployment and labor exchanges has been extracted (Rept., p. 359):

"Changes in methods of production follow one another more rapidly than heretofore, and, as specialization becomes more marked and definite, those habituated and trained to the processes that are superseded find it more and more difficult to obtain occupation elsewhere. Trade-unions and employers' organizations have, in response, as it were, to one another, succeeded, the one in raising the standard of wages, the other the standard of industrial efficiency. Those who are not in the prime of life nor in positions of adequate physical strength or competency are apt to fall out of an industrial system which is beyond their level. There is also a large amount of work which partakes more of the character of personal service than of industrial production, such as that of errand boys, newspaper boys, telegraph boys, street sellers—occupations which, though remunerative for the time being to those engaged in them, have a tendency to cease at adolescence. A considerable proportion of those so occupied early in life become subsequently either unemployed or underemployed and swell the ranks of casualty. Casual and other occupations giving intermittent employment engage a large proportion of the wage-earning class—possibly a larger proportion than heretofore—and the ranks of those seeking this form of maintenance are periodically swollen by those who have lost or prove their unfitness for a regular or skilled occupation. These are modifications and developments in our industrial system which can not be ignored, and their products and wreckage, when either out of employment or in distress, require a treatment more elastic and more varied than the simple method which, 80

¹ Prepared in the Bureau of Labor Statistics and submitted by the Commissioner of Labor Statistics in connection with hearings before the House Committee on Labor, Feb. 4, 10, and 17, 1916, on a bill for the establishment of a national employment bureau. (Washington, 1916. pp. 65-81.)

² "Unemployment, a Problem of Industry," by W. H. Beveridge. 3d ed., London, 1912, p. 13.

years ago, was sufficient to cope with able-bodied pauperism in agricultural districts."

As the modern factory system developed during the latter half of the nineteenth century no systematic effort was made to adjust the supply of labor to the demand. The workman was left to his own devices to find a vacant situation, and the employer was forced to pick his labor supply from an indiscriminate number of workmen who applied at his establishment. The early trade guilds, however, registered for their members the opportunities for work, and endeavored to place them; the employer organized his own agency; trade-unions attempted to look after their members as time went on; and serving all interests for a profit, the commercial employment agency gradually developed. Lastly, there came the employment bureaus conducted by philanthropic and welfare societies. And it is interesting in this connection to note that those welfare societies which became interested in the problems surrounding the employment of labor first directed their efforts toward organizing agencies for securing work, recognizing that after all the real labor problem is perhaps that of securing permanent employment for the worker.

When private agencies had practically admitted their failure in relieving the more or less normal amount of unemployment, or rather facilitating the natural shifting of labor from place to place, it was felt that recourse must be had to public agencies. And it can not be emphasized too strongly that the creation of public employment offices was the result of the growing problem of unemployment and immobility of labor, in spite of the fact, as is pointed out by the British Poor-Law Commission of 1909, that means of communication kept constantly improving through the railroad, telephone, and telegraph. It was felt that these improved means of communication were not being properly employed in facilitating the adjustment of supply and demand for labor.

No definite statistics were found available to measure the exact amount of unemployment; at the most such statistics were guesses at the truth. All countries in Europe, however, did make and still continue to make some public efforts to ascertain the extent and intensity of unemployment. Thus practically all European countries periodically compile data on the subject, such as may be ascertained from: (1) Monthly and annual reports of both public and private employment offices; (2) monthly reports on schedules by leading employers or manufacturing concerns; (3) reports from sick-benefit and unemployment insurance funds as to amount of unemployment among their membership; (4) monthly reports from trade-unions as to the number of their membership and the amount of unemployment therein; (5) general population censuses and occasional special unemployment censuses, both national and municipal.

That the problem of unemployment in Europe was a pressing one, and still continues to be so, is indicated by the fact that an international conference was held on the subject of unemployment in connection with the Milan exposition in October, 1906, and in 1910 the International Association on Unemployment was organized at Paris as a result of the efforts of students of unemployment problems and public authorities and others interested in the application of methods of combating unemployment.

The international association had succeeded before the war in bringing about a considerable degree of cooperation between persons interested in the problem in different European countries, and had collected and published through a quarterly bulletin public documents and articles which showed the extent and nature of the work done toward combating unemployment.

The means most generally adopted, it appears, have been (1) the development and organization of public employment offices, national in scope as far as possible; (2) the organization of some system of unemployment insurance.

A national system of public employment offices, besides those in Great Britain and Germany under discussion, was organized in Norway in 1906, in Sweden in 1906, and in Denmark in 1913. An association of the various types of employment offices has been in existence in Switzerland for some years, and in Austria a similar organization has been in existence since 1906, and in the Netherlands since 1905. During 1915 this Austrian federation suggested an official organization and centralization on a national scale. Furthermore, the principal Provinces of Austria have their separate central organizations of local exchanges.

Elsewhere there is presented a tabular statement as to the extent of unemployment insurance in the principal European countries, which statement analyzes the principal features of the laws on the subject and classifies them according to certain well-marked types.

What has been done by public employment exchanges in European countries is shown in the following table compiled by the German Imperial Statistical Office on the basis of information collected by the International Association on Unemployment. This statement shows the number of situations filled for three principal occupation groups by the free employment offices, both public and private, and both combined, for 15 European countries, and for a limited number of public exchanges in the United States. The table is by no means complete and can be said to be only a rough indication of the extent of this particular kind of work. It is probably much more nearly accurate as a statement of the work of the public employment offices than it is of the private free employment bureaus. This table does not include exchanges conducted for profit.

International statistics of free employment offices for the year 1912.

[Source: Statistisches Jahrbuch für das Deutsche Reich, 1915, Berlin, 1915. p. 78.]

Country.	Number of employment offices included.	Situations filled for--			Total situations filled.
		Agriculture.	Industry, commerce, and transportation.	Domestic services.	
Germany:					
Public employment offices.....	781	215,872	888,408	367,767	1,677,660
Other free employment offices.....	1,443	17,676	1,627,484	3,808	1,747,139
Total.....	2,224	233,548	2,515,892	371,575	3,424,799
Austria:					
Public employment offices.....	374				460,146
Other free employment offices.....	144				94,707
Total.....	518	74,980	307,169	172,704	554,853
Hungary:					
Public employment offices.....	5		61,250		61,250
Other free employment offices.....	31				146,162
Total.....	36				207,412
Belgium:					
Public employment offices.....		228	24,349	4,898	29,475
Other free employment offices.....		54	3,343	699	4,296
Total.....		282	27,892	5,597	33,771
Denmark:¹					
Public employment offices.....	1	1,586	10,703	15,909	28,198
Other free employment offices.....	19				
Total.....	20	1,586	10,703	15,909	28,198
United States:²					
Public employment offices.....	65				362,067
Other free employment offices.....					
Total.....	65				362,067
France:					
Public employment offices.....	229	1,059	52,921	61,835	³ 115,815
Other free employment offices.....	525	7,987	672,680	16,885	697,052
Total.....	754	9,046	725,601	78,220	812,867
Great Britain:					
Public employment offices.....	404	17,059	521,911	54,769	593,739
Other free employment offices.....					
Total.....	404	17,059	521,911	54,769	593,739
South Australia:					
Public employment offices.....	125	110	5,040		5,150
Other free employment offices.....					
Total.....	125	110	5,040		5,150
Western Australia:					
Public employment offices.....	17	2,629	3,754	1,280	7,663
Other free employment offices.....					
Total.....	17	2,629	3,754	1,280	7,663

¹ Data are not available for 17 employment offices; ² employment offices maintained by employers filled 490 permanent and 2,620 temporary situations.

³ Data relate to the year 1910.

³ According to later corrections.

International statistics of free employment offices for the year 1912—Concluded.

Country.	Number of employment offices included.	Situations filled for—			Total situations filled.
		Agriculture.	Industry, commerce, and transportation.	Domestic service.	
Italy:					
Public employment offices.....	17				14,149
Other free employment offices.....	17				8,480
Total.....	34				22,579
Luxemburg:					
Public employment offices.....	2	372	2,337	3,523	6,232
Other free employment offices.....					
Total.....	2	372	2,337	3,523	6,232
Norway:					
Public employment offices.....	86	1,883	30,455	26,679	60,413
Other free employment offices.....	6		1,138		1,172
Total.....	92	1,883	31,593	26,679	61,585
Netherlands:					
Public employment offices.....	22	189	24,673	17,594	43,909
Other free employment offices.....	21	1	117	50	2,950
Total.....	43	190	24,790	17,644	46,859
Finland:					
Public employment offices.....	16	1,255			11,521
Other free employment offices.....					
Total.....	16	1,255			11,521
Sweden:					
Public employment offices.....	32	20,749	34,731	29,322	84,802
Other free employment offices.....					
Total.....	32	20,749	34,731	29,322	84,802
Switzerland:					
Public employment offices.....	40	2,732	37,042	15,789	60,755
Other free employment offices.....	45		11,852	5,051	16,930
Total.....	85	2,732	48,894	20,840	77,685

LABOR EXCHANGES IN GREAT BRITAIN—EARLY HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT.

The development of public employment exchanges in Great Britain was somewhat slow. It was first taken up by the Government in 1893 when unemployment grew particularly acute during the industrial depression of that and preceding years. In 1893 appeared a report by the Board of Trade on "agencies and methods for dealing with the unemployed." At that time there were enumerated 25 public employment offices conducted by municipalities, and of these 15 were temporary, leaving only 10 to be regarded as more or less permanent bureaus. Practically all the employment bureaus of that time were private commercial ones, to which must be added the few charitable or philanthropic bodies which organized employment offices; and principally there should be noted what was accomplished by the trade-unions, formally through their labor registries and informally through their secretaries and other officials.

In 1902 a so-called labor bureau act was passed, authorizing the establishment of public employment bureaus or employment exchanges by municipal authorities. These, however, it is reported, accomplished only meager results, explained as due to the fact that their status, legal or otherwise, was not clearly defined, and also because action on the part of the municipalities was entirely voluntary.

The first organized system of public labor exchanges in Great Britain was probably that created under the unemployed workman's act of 1905. This act provided for the establishment, by order of the local government board, of local distress committees in London, and in each municipality with a population of

50,000 and over. In London the local distress committees were organized under the general supervision of the central unemployed body for London. Each local distress committee acted as a sort of employment exchange as well as in the nature of a poor relief committee. That this was looked upon as a temporary method of dealing with the problem of unemployment is shown by the fact that the act was to remain in force for only three years. The work of the distress committees under this act was not comprehensive and reached only a limited class of workmen, described as just able to keep themselves out of those conditions of living which would have brought them within the scope of the relief of the poor law. The committees dealt with the problem of unemployment as practically a poor relief problem and were designed to aid "the normally self-supporting workman in temporary distress." Thus these committees did not include within their scope of relief, as a rule, trade-unionists or skilled workmen.

The poor-law commission of 1909 notes that these distress committees were not solving the problem of relieving distress from unemployment, as had been expected. The theory of the law was that this distress was temporary; it assumed that persons were thrown out of work only in bad years and upon the occurrence of special calamities. Able-bodied men in the prime of life appeared before the committees for aid. These were the casual workers, the seasonal workers, and the unemployables who were apparently a constant product of industry in ordinary times.

The work of the distress committees, as outlined under the law of 1905, did not prove more effective than the work of the labor bureaus which had existed prior thereto, in the judgment of the poor-law commission, which summarizes the situation with the sweeping statement that "there has probably not been a single labor exchange in England which has been an important or indispensable industrial institution." This was said in 1909.

LABOR EXCHANGE ACT, 1909.

Following the organization under the unemployed workmen act of 1905, the next step in the development of labor exchanges in Great Britain was the passage of the labor-exchanges act of 1909. This act and the system of exchanges organized under it was really based on the recommendations of both the majority and minority reports of the poor-law commission of 1909.

In recommending a national system of labor exchanges the majority report of the poor-law commission used the following language: "If a national system of labor exchanges, working automatically all over the country, could be established, it should tend to insure that the supply of labor available in all parts of the country would be, in a measure, gauged and recorded. It might be hoped that demand and supply would be brought generally and locally in touch with each other, and that the overstocking of certain trades and the difficulty of getting labor in other industries would be diminished. The present system of engaging workpeople, whether through advertisement or by taking them on at the gate, is often wasteful and ineffective. By using the exchange as a center, the employer would obtain the men he wanted, and the men would know where they were wanted, instead of having to endure, as at present, the misery of tramping after problematical work. To this extent the exchanges would replace haphazard methods by a comprehensive system based on industrial supply and demand."

It was also felt that the need for labor in country districts could possibly be met by placing out men from the towns who had an aptitude for agricultural work and that the labor exchanges might help to check rural depopulation by diffusing accurate information as to the actual conditions of living in large towns. "It is hoped that the labor exchanges would also (1) make it easier for men permanently displaced by industrial changes to pass to a new occupation; (2) facilitate the use of subsidiary trades by seasonal workers; (3) substitute for artificial tests and inquiries the beneficial and natural test of a situation through the exchange."

The commission closed its discussion of the problems of labor exchanges with the following recommendation:

"We recommend, then, that there should be established under the Board of Trade a general system of labor exchanges throughout the United Kingdom; that these exchanges should be managed by officers of the Board of Trade, with the help of an advisory committee of employers, workmen, and members of local authorities; that there be no compulsion to make use of these institutions, but that it should be the object of the Board of Trade and the

advisory committee, by propaganda and otherwise, to popularize them in every way. The exchanges should be granted free postal and telephone facilities by the State, and arrangements should be made whereby they might grant passes entitling workmen traveling to a situation to specially cheap fares from the railway companies. In suitable cases, the cost of such passes might be defrayed by the labor exchange and afterwards recovered from the workmen."

The labor-exchanges act of 1909 created a unified and coherent system of employment offices, or labor exchanges, as they are termed in the act. Central control is lodged in the Board of Trade Labor Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance Department. The country is divided into eight districts with a division head, and within these districts are the local agencies. The act provides for the taking over of all existing private and public exchanges consenting thereto. The system is, therefore, a national one; it is also unconnected in any way with the poor-relief system; its services are free of charge, voluntary, and nonpartisan. Employees are assisted by securing an advance of their necessary fare to a place of work.

Besides its general function of collecting and distributing information from employers and employees as to vacancies and applications for work, the national exchange may establish in England and Wales special local advisory committees for the purpose of vocational guidance of children. These committees are to consist of experts on education and on other matters affecting young persons and of representatives of employers and employees, together with a chairman, all of whom are appointed by the Board of Trade. These committees act in close cooperation with the labor exchange offices and school inspectors.

In Scotland the provisions for vocational guidance are somewhat different, the work being left to the board of education.

For purposes of operation two kinds of employment registers are kept by the different exchanges—(1) a general register and (2) a casual-employment register. On the casual register are recorded the number of employments of a peculiarly casual nature, dock laborers, bill distributors, and charwomen. The general register since September, 1911, has been subdivided into 22 different sections, according to different occupational groups.

Applications at the exchanges are good only for seven days, but are renewable for a similar period as long as desired.

The attitude of the exchanges as to strikes is one of neutrality. Both the employer and the employee may file a statement as to the existence of a strike or lockout, and the workman exercises his own judgment in the matter of accepting a situation at such place. But no raffroad fares are advanced to workmen going to fill vacancies caused by trade disputes.

OPERATIONS OF THE EMPLOYMENT OFFICES IN GREAT BRITAIN.

The national system of labor exchanges in Great Britain came into operation in February, 1910, with 82 local exchanges. The total number open on January 15, 1915, was 401, or 22 less than on January 16, 1914. The number open on January 14, 1916, was 390.

The number of individuals that registered at some time or other during the business year 1915 was 2,345,816.

The number of vacancies filled by the exchanges during the year 1915 was 1,308,187, and, in addition, 53,286 jobs of a more or less casual nature were found for dock laborers, cloth porters, and cotton porters. The number of individuals given work was 1,067,698. In addition to the above figures there were 37,325 cases in which men were given employment through the clearing-house system for dock laborers at Liverpool.

In 1911 the exchanges gave positions to 469,210 individuals, which was 78 per cent of the number of vacancies notified to the exchanges in the course of that year. Comparing the number of persons for whom work was found with the total number of registrations or applications for work, it appears that the exchanges have, on the average, given positions to practically one-third of all applicants. The proportion was 31 per cent in 1910, 35 in both 1912 and 1913, 38 in 1914, and 35 in 1915.

The tables which follow show the operation of the exchanges for each of the years 1911 to 1915. The exchanges began operation, it is noted, in 1910.

The following table shows the operations of the Board of Trade Labor Exchanges as shown by the general register:

Registrations, individuals registered, vacancies reported and filled, and number of individuals for whom positions were secured, 1910 to Dec. 10, 1915.

Year.	Number of registrations.	Individuals registered.	Vacancies notified.	Vacancies filled.	Individuals given employment.
1910 ¹	(²)	1,127,447	458,943	374,313	(²)
1911.....	2,040,447	1,513,369	788,609	621,410	469,210
1912.....	2,465,304	1,643,587	1,062,574	828,230	573,709
1913.....	2,965,893	1,871,671	1,222,828	921,858	652,306
1914.....	3,442,452	2,164,023	1,479,024	1,116,909	814,071
1915.....	3,186,137	2,326,803	1,797,646	1,308,137	1,053,336

¹ Eleven months: February to December (fourteenth Abstract of Labor Statistics, London, p. 22).

² Not reported.

The data given above relates to the general register only. In addition, a considerable number of applications are carried on the casual register. This includes dock laborers, cloth porters and cotton porters, etc. The following statement is prepared to show the use made of the labor exchanges by this class of labor in securing employment:

Year.	Number of individuals applying.	Number of individuals given work.	Number of jobs given.
1911.....	(¹)	(¹)	125,304
1912.....	27,787	12,767	266,622
1913.....	7,286	5,510	204,629
1914.....	7,222	5,730	154,967
1915.....	19,013	9,401	233,286

¹ Not reported.

² In addition 37,325 jobs filled through clearing-house system at Liverpool.

The following statement shows the results of the work of the labor exchanges in per cent of individuals registered for whom work was found:

Per cent of individuals registered for whom work was secured.

Year.	Men.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
1911.....	27.5	31.7	46.7	42.9	31.0
1912.....	32.8	32.9	48.2	43.4	34.9
1913.....	30.8	37.9	54.1	47.1	34.9
1914.....	36.7	35.6	54.2	41.3	37.6
1915.....	53.8	33.3	59.9	46.2	33.2

¹ Not given in the original.

The per cent of vacancies filled to vacancies notified is as follows:

1911.....	78.0
1912.....	77.9
1913.....	75.4
1914.....	73.5
1915.....	72.8

PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES IN GERMANY—EARLY HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT.

Although unemployment has not been as acute in Germany as in some other European countries, yet the subject has several times been investigated. It was made part of a general census in 1895, and numerous cities have from time to time taken special unemployment censuses. A special inquiry of the imperial statistical office on existing systems of unemployment insurance in Germany and in foreign countries, published in 1906, concluded that, as far as Germany was concerned, unemployment was largely due to seasonal conditions prevailing in certain trades, that it was apt to become accentuated in times of industrial depression, but that it was in general a problem of considerable importance.

As early as 1894 the Prussian minister of commerce instanced the growing extent of temporary unemployment, especially in the winter months. His purpose in calling attention to the existence of a large degree of unemployment was to emphasize the need and develop means to combat it; and as one of those means he urged the establishment of employment offices on a larger and more systematic scale than hitherto. The words of the decree (July 31, 1894) outlining the purposes to be attained were as follows:

"In the instances of temporary unemployment which in late years have occurred to a greater or less extent, especially in the winter months, it has become evident that so far sufficient attention has not been given to institutions and measures adapted to relieve unemployment. Past experiences have particularly shown the need of developing employment offices in a more extensive and systematic manner than has been done up to date. With the exception of public-welfare societies which have made the procuring of employment their object, and of private employment offices operated for gain, employers' associations on the one hand and workmen's organizations on the other have entirely assumed the organization of employment offices. The efficiency of institutions of the two last-named kinds, which by their nature are limited to the sphere of individual trades or industries, is also lessened by the fact that the contrast between employers and employees is carried into them. The use of private employment offices, which are entirely unadapted for combating of unemployment on a large scale, forces persons in search of work to pay extortionate fees, and the activity of public-welfare societies as a rule is limited to very moderate results because these organizations command only limited means and must compete with other employment bureaus. Under these circumstances it must be considered significant of progress if of late a growing number have become interested in a plan to make the procuring of employment a public activity. If all the larger cities and towns should succeed in establishing communal employment offices which could be used by the interested parties free or upon payment of a nominal fee, and if these employment offices should gain the confidence of both employers and employees, their local importance would become much greater than that of the existing employment offices.

"The communal employment offices could further increase their efficiency by joint organization among themselves which would enable them to act as clearing houses for the demand and supply of labor in the various localities and districts. Later on they could also put themselves in communication with the existing rural societies and with the employment offices which the agricultural chambers (*Landwirtschaftskammern*) are expected to organize in order to procure employment in the country for the unemployed in cities if work in the cities can not be obtained for them. Communal employment offices could also put their services at the disposition of the various branches of the army and aid each year in the fall in placing the soldiers discharged from the army. In order to fit the communal employment offices to accomplish the various far-reaching tasks mentioned here, it will be necessary that they be managed by a superintendent appointed by the commune who should be neither an employer of labor nor a worker. In large cities the superintendents could be appointed from among the presidents of the industrial courts and where this is not possible the communal authorities could make some other suitable choice. It seems desirable that communal employment offices be at least established in all cities with a population in excess of 10,000 inhabitants. * * *

In Germany employment bureaus are of many kinds, and include those conducted by guild organizations, trade-unions, public bodies (States or municipalities), equipartisan bureaus of employers and employees, commercial agencies, employers' agencies, and agricultural chambers.

As known in Germany, the public employment bureau means a bureau for finding work for men and women in any department of trade or occupation, usually without charge, or at the most for a nominal fee. The bureau is maintained by some public organization or committee and usually and increasingly maintained, or at least subsidized, by the municipality, the county, or the State. The bureaus are therefore not all municipal, though in most instances even when not municipal, they are so largely subsidized and strictly controlled by the municipality that the difference becomes small.

The municipal bureaus are more prevalent in southern Germany. Berlin's public bureau is maintained by a voluntary association, but receives a large subsidy from the city and is largely under municipal supervision. Some of the bureaus are controlled by associations composed of employers and employees equally, but are wholly supported and subsidized by the municipal authorities.

The history of the development of these bureaus is of great interest. The first employment bureau of the kind was begun in Stuttgart in 1865 by a workmen's improvement society. Meeting with success, other societies of various natures joined with the workmen's society and the bureau was maintained and managed by a committee of these societies. Still growing and succeeding, in 1895 it became the Stuttgart municipal employment bureau. It is still considered by many, at least in proportion to the size of the city, the best organized and most efficient public employment bureau in Germany. The example of Stuttgart was followed in Cologne by the establishment of a similar employment bureau in 1874, which in 1894 became the Cologne municipal employment bureau. Berlin moved in this direction in 1883, Hanover in 1889, Düsseldorf in 1890, Karlsruhe in 1891, and Freiburg in 1892. All these commenced in various ways as public bureaus, but almost all of them later became municipal bureaus. Five such public or municipal bureaus were established in 1893, 8 in 1894, 23 in 1895, 12 in 1896, 8 in 1897, 9 in 1898, 9 in 1899, 11 in 1900, 5 in 1901, and 2 in 1902. By 1904 there were 136 such bureaus and in 1907 the number was reported as 400 in Germany. Not all of these, however, are active; only some 150 are of large importance. The number in 1915 was 702, of which 381 were communal offices, 87 district offices and offices maintained by Government establishments, 234 public-welfare societies and other employment offices of a public character.

In 1898 a voluntary association of such bureaus (*Verband Deutscher Arbeitsnachweis*) was established for the Empire. There are also subsidiary but even more important associations for northern, middle, and southern Germany. These associations maintain a monthly publication, called the Labor Market (*Der Arbeitsmarkt*). This organ serves to unite the different bureaus into one working system. It reports successful developments by one bureau which may be copied by others, and also the general condition of the labor market and the opportunities for employment to be found in different sections or portions of the Empire, and, to an extent, of Europe.

This reporting of opportunities for employment is, however, much more efficiently carried out by the subsidiary associations; the bureaus are closely knit together by telephones and other means of communication, so that each bureau receives information, usually daily, stating the needs for labor from all bureaus of the section, while the facts are posted in each local bureau. One of the most effective of these sectional unions is the *Mitteldeutsche Arbeitsnachweis Verband*, with headquarters in Frankfurt on the Main.

Bavaria has what is in many ways the best organized system of the Empire, because there is here a single organization covering the whole Kingdom, not merely, as elsewhere, federations of separate bureaus.

To Wurttemberg belongs the honor of organizing the first State system of employment bureaus. September 15, 1895, a decree of the ministry of the interior ordered the 16 public employment bureaus then organized in Wurttemberg to be connected in one system with Stuttgart as the central station, and to report in a uniform manner twice a week all opportunities for employment which they were not able to fill. The list of these opportunities is then prepared and sent the same night to every place in Wurttemberg of over 2,000 inhabitants, to be there posted by the authorities. The expenses, amounting to about \$2,500 per year, are met by the State treasury. The State railways grant to all workmen seeking work a 50 per cent reduction on third-class fare, provided that orders for this are given the workmen by the employment bureaus. The results have been most satisfactory.

The municipal employment exchanges of Prussia, which may be taken as typical, are of two kinds: (1) Strictly municipal offices, supported and managed by the city. (2) Municipal subsidized offices managed by private public-

welfare societies. These in turn may be classified according to the character of their management, whether by equipartisan boards representing employers and employees or by a Government bureau quite independent of the interested parties. The latter form of management seems to prevail more generally in Prussia.

In their attitude toward strikes German labor exchanges generally take the view that they should merely notify the workmen of the existence of a strike at any place where men are wanted and where he may desire to go, leaving it to his decision as to whether he will accept the position or not. As a general rule German labor exchanges likewise do not concern themselves with sifting applicants or in any way determining their qualifications for the proper job desired. W. H. Beveridge, in the *British Economic Journal*, of March, 1908, thus describes one phase of the work of the municipal labor exchange of Munich, Bavaria, which is one of the largest and best managed exchanges in Germany:

"The labor office appears to concern itself very little with inquiries as to the character of applicants for employment. They are not even always asked to produce their infirmity-insurance cards. Efforts are, of course, made to send the sort of man asked for by the employer, but in the unskilled section, at least, the attitude is taken that it is ultimately the employer's business to satisfy himself as to the capacity of the men he engages. The labor office is essentially a means of communication. It does no doubt in the long run give the employer a better workman than he would get by chance from the streets; the superintendent has almost always a certain choice in the waiting room, and can pick the abler or the better-known man. This, however, is only an indirect service. The direct utility of the labor office—as it presents itself unmistakably to anyone spending a morning in any one of its rooms—is to prevent economic waste by reducing to a minimum the period during which employers are seeking for men or men for employers. In the unskilled section, with men always in the waiting room and applications from employers arriving in an almost continuous stream, business has to be conducted at lightning speed."

RECENT LEGISLATION.

The Imperial Government of Germany did not concern itself very greatly with the establishment of labor exchanges, but left the matter wholly to the State authorities. In 1910, however, an imperial law was enacted primarily for the purpose of regulating private employment agencies. It is of interest in this connection, because through one of its provisions it aims to protect the monopoly, if it may be so called, of the various local free public employment exchanges by directing that no private exchange shall be established in those localities which are considered to be adequately served by existing public exchanges.

Under this law the Federal council may issue very general orders which might amount to a very considerable reorganization of free employment offices. Thus directly the Government recognized the nation-wide importance of free employment offices as early as 1910. Indirectly the Government may be said to have become interested in an extension of the sphere of usefulness of employment offices. Shortly after the organization in 1910 of the International Association of Unemployment a committee was appointed to formulate plans and principles for public employment offices and their statistical reports, and the work connected therewith and the report on the subject was committed very largely to representatives of the labor division of the imperial statistical office of Germany and the German section of the international association. Furthermore, the plan of reorganization of the employment exchanges of the country had been discussed and formulated at a national conference in Hamburg in 1912 of the federation of German employment offices. Thus the work was in shape and, it might be said, ready for adoption by the Government before the war broke out. That it had not been sooner adopted by the Imperial Government may also be explained by the fact that most of the separate German States, Württemberg being the first in 1895, had systems coordinating the work of their labor exchanges. Also the federation of the German employment offices had perfected a system of cooperating exchanges for almost the whole of Germany, particularly throughout Prussia and northern Germany, and including all existing free employment offices, such as municipal offices and those conducted by trade-unions or employers or public-welfare societies. Thus, it is quite clear that the outbreak of the war merely hastened imperial action.

On August 6, 1914, there was established by imperial decree an Imperial Central Labor Exchange (Reichszentrale der Arbeitsnachweise). This central exchange is to serve as a clearing house for the existing employment exchanges during the war and immediately following its termination, in order to take care of the large amount of placement work which will undoubtedly be called for upon the return of the soldiery to its civil pursuits. The central exchange, under the direction of the Imperial Ministry of the Interior, opened its doors on August 9, 1914.

One of the first services rendered by this exchange was the organizing of the labor force to harvest the domestic grain crop. It has helped materially in shifting the industrial labor supply from place to place, according to the supply and demand, at a time when great confusion existed upon the declaration of war. During the course of the war, also, it has assisted in placing prisoners of war in profitable employment for the State.

To make more effective the work of this Central Imperial Exchange, the imperial statistical office began on August 14, 1914, the publication of a periodical (Arbeitsmarkt-Anzeiger), which appears twice weekly and summarizes for the Empire, in statistical form, the supply and demand of labor. It reports for each employment exchange separately the number of applications for work, calls for help, and indicates an excess or deficit in the supply or demand for any particular community from time to time.

COMPULSORY REPORTING BY EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGES IN GERMANY.

At first reports were transmitted voluntarily from about 300 exchanges; but by a recent resolution of the Federal council (Bundesrat) it has been made obligatory for all free employment offices to make reports of their activities to the imperial statistical office.¹ It is left to the several Federal governments to execute this resolution and to make it effective by proper decrees on the authority of the law of June 2, 1910, regulating the procuring of employment. So far the following States of the Empire have issued during 1915 the necessary decree: Prussia, May 26; Bavaria, June 8; Grand Duchy of Hesse, May 22; Duchy of Anhalt, May 21; Principality of Schwarzburg-Sondershausen, June 2; city of Bremen, June 2; and Alsace-Lorraine, May 29.

The essential contents of these decrees are the following:

(a) Not later than July 1, 1915, each individual employment office must furnish to the imperial statistical office, division of labor statistics, the following information: (1) Name of the employment office; (2) name of the persons or corporations maintaining the employment office; (3) place of business (street and number); (4) name of manager; (5) telephone number; and (6) office hours.

Any change in the above data, as well as the opening of new free employment offices, must likewise be reported within three days. Blanks for this information are not furnished by the imperial statistical office.

(b) All free employment offices, with the exception of those for mercantile, technical, and clerical help must on two fixed days of each week report on a card furnished by the imperial statistical office the number of those applications and vacancies which up to the time of the report could not be disposed of and probably can not be disposed of up to the time of issuing the Labor Market Bulletin (Arbeitsmarkt-Anzeiger). These cards must be mailed in due time so that they may reach the imperial statistical office, division of labor statistics, with the first mail on each Monday and Thursday.

From this obligation to report there may be exempted those employment offices which are already required to report to a local public employment office or to some other agency collecting the above data, provided that they report to the imperial statistical office the number of undisposed of applications and vacancies. Employment offices which presumably do not fill more than 200 vacancies in a year may also be exempted. In Prussia applications for exemption from the obligation to report must be addressed to the Government presidents of police, in the Grand Duchy of Hesse through the district offices to the minister of the interior, in the Duchy of Anhalt to the ducal government department of the interior, and in Bremen to the police committee of the senate.

Each free employment office must appoint a business manager who shall be responsible for compliance with the above provisions. Noncompliance with

¹ Reichs-Arbeitsblatt hrsg. vom. K. Statistischen Amte. Abteilung für Arbeiterstatistik, Berlin, June, 1915.

these provisions is punishable with a fine of up to 150 marks (\$35.70) or with imprisonment.

LOCAL INFORMATION OFFICES.

Just as a larger imperial clearing house was found necessary for the different public employment exchanges, so also was it found necessary to establish local clearing houses so as to effect closer cooperation between the local public employment exchanges and the other types of labor offices, particularly those conducted by employers or employees separately or by equipartisan boards. These local clearing houses were established on April 30, 1915, and are reported by an official memorandum on the subject recently transmitted to the Reichstag as having been of great value.

OPERATIONS OF THE PUBLIC EXCHANGES IN GERMANY.

A group of tables follows showing the work done by public employment exchanges in Germany, as compared with the other types of exchanges which are also in existence there.

It is noted that in 1912 the public exchanges placed 1,592,300 workmen, in round numbers, 1,642,600 in 1913, and 2,115,200 in 1914, and during the first 10 months of 1915, 1,596,800. The data show that the public exchanges have been the most successful during the course of the war, that the exchanges conducted by employers and employees have suffered serious setbacks during the war, and that the guild exchanges have barely held their own.

In the following table is shown the development of free employment offices, both public and private, and the number of situations filled by them for the years 1904, 1912, and 1915, based on official investigations. The data for 1904 and 1912 are not quite comparable, because of differences in the method of enumeration in the two investigations. The discrepancy is particularly apparent in the offices conducted by the guilds.

In 1912 the municipal, district, etc., employment offices filled 1,299,000 situations, as compared with 550,000 in 1904, leading all others in that respect.

Development of German free employment offices and number of situations filled by them, 1904, 1912, and 1915.

[Source: Reichstag, 13. Legislatur Periode, II. Session, 1914-15, Drucksache No. 151, p. 2.]

Type.	1904 (Source: Memorandum of 1906.)		1912 (Investigation at the end of 1912.)			1915 ¹ (After introduction of compulsory reports.) Number of employment offices.
	Number of employment offices.	Situations filled.	Number of employment offices.	Situations filled—		
				By the following number of offices.	Number.	
Communal, district, etc., offices.....	* 400	550,000	* 383	321	1,298,977	* 702
Lodging houses for journeymen and relief stations for itinerant workmen.....	11	50,000	226	184	112,243	141
Agricultural chambers', etc., offices.....	2,400	213,000	* 97	71	98,569	48
Guilds' offices.....	30	230,000	572	517	162,579	304
Employers' offices.....	* 60	* 25,000	112	103	1,203,613	205
Salared employees' offices.....	* 60	* 25,000	90	79	47,053	* 273
Workmen's offices.....	* 1,000	* 120,000	547	521	353,309	861
Equipartisan (paritätische) offices (managed jointly by employers and employees).....	60	51,000	119	116	* 152,028	73
Not specified.....			78	73	106,331	210
Total.....			2,224	1,985	* 3,594,502	2,817

¹ Preliminary figures.

* Inclusive of employment offices subsidized by communes and of those maintained by public-welfare societies.

* 301 communal employment offices, 22 district employment offices, 2 of public corporations, 12 of lodging houses for journeymen, 37 of public-welfare societies, and 9 others of public character.

* 381 communal offices, 87 district offices and offices maintained by government establishments, 234 of public-welfare societies and other employment offices of a public character.

* 82 offices of agricultural chambers and 15 other agricultural employment offices.

* Only commercial employment offices.

* Inclusive of a number of branch offices.

* Status of 1901 and 1902, respectively.

* Exclusive of 1,435 situations filled by the office of the board on collective agreements in the printing trades.

The continued development since 1912 of the different types of employment exchanges and the effect of the measures taken by the authorities during the war is indicated in the table which follows. The reports from the public employment offices are probably the most nearly correct, as reports from other offices are voluntary and are not likely to be complete. In 1912 the monthly average of situations filled by the public exchanges was approximately 133,000; it was 137,000 in 1913; 176,000 in 1914; and during 1915 the number actually filled had varied from approximately 142,000, in October, to 186,000, in March of that year.

Number of free employment offices reporting to the Imperial Statistical Office and situations filled by them, by types of employment offices, 1912-1915.

[Source: Reichstag, 13. Legislatur Periode, II. Session, 1914-15; Drucksache No. 151, p. 4.]

Year and month.	Communal employment offices and those subsidized by public authorities.			Other free employment offices.			Equipartisan employment offices.			Employment offices of employers' organizations.		
	Average number reporting.	Situations filled.		Average number reporting.	Situations filled.		Average number reporting.	Situations filled.		Average number reporting.	Situations filled.	
		Total.	Female.		Total.	Female.		Total.	Female.		Total.	Female.
Year	265	1,592,300	505,000	64	117,600	34,800	29	63,800	5,100	80	964,600	37,000
Monthly average		132,700	42,000		9,800	2,900		5,300	400		80,400	3,100
Year	299	1,642,600	555,800	69	63,600	25,800	33	54,500	6,700	66	865,700	29,000
Monthly average		136,900	46,300		5,300	2,100		4,500	600		72,100	2,400
Year	384	2,115,200	669,900	72	56,800	30,500	35	51,700	4,400	70	613,000	26,600
Monthly average		176,300	55,800		4,700	2,500		4,300	400		51,100	2,200
1915.¹												
January.....	398	175,900	52,800	60	3,600	1,500	36	2,900	200	63	30,800	1,600
February.....	428	164,500	50,600	71	4,200	2,000	36	3,200	200	71	32,700	2,100
March.....	412	186,300	64,300	70	4,000	2,000	35	3,900	200	67	29,800	2,300
April.....	407	162,600	56,800	73	3,400	1,600	35	3,500	200	72	36,100	2,700
May.....	415	156,700	57,800	70	3,300	1,700	34	3,400	200	68	35,100	2,300
June.....	417	158,300	59,300	72	3,200	1,600	43	3,500	200	71	38,300	3,800
July.....	412	155,300	57,900	69	3,300	1,600	42	3,600	300	70	35,600	3,400
August.....	412	147,400	53,800	65	3,100	1,600	39	5,700	400	66	34,100	2,900
September.....	419	145,100	61,700	67	3,300	1,800	40	5,100	200	81	38,600	3,900
October.....	398	141,700	61,000	63	2,900	1,500	48	4,300	100	80	36,400	3,900
November.....	396	131,322	55,333	63	2,433	1,189	48	7,019	785	89	34,191	4,318
December.....	423	117,258	50,814	70	2,414	992	48	6,312	685	76	23,386	2,233
Year	411	*1,845,245	*687,552	68	*39,143	*19,066	41	*52,302	*3,522	72	*405,118	*35,473
Monthly average		153,770	57,296		3,262	1,589		4,358	293		33,760	2,956

¹ On account of the war a number of reports were either not received or were delayed.

* Not the true addition of the various amounts, because prior to November, 1915, round numbers are used.

*Number of free employment offices reporting to the Imperial Statistical Office and situations filled by them, by types of employment offices, 1912-1915—
Concluded.*

Year and month.	Employment offices of workmen's organizations.			Employment offices of guilds.			Total.		
	Average number reporting.	Situations filled.		Average number reporting.	Situations filled.		Average number reporting.	Situations filled.	
		Total.	Female.		Total.	Female.		Total.	Female.
Year 1912.	157	298,000	9,200	140	131,600	6,300	735	3,167,800	597,400
Monthly average		24,800	800		11,000	500		264,000	49,800
Year 1913.	167	290,900	10,600	151	133,900	6,100	785	3,051,200	634,100
Monthly average		24,200	900		11,200	500		254,300	52,800
Year 1914. ¹	166	246,700	10,900	149	132,100	5,100	879	3,215,500	747,400
Monthly average		20,600	900		11,000	400		268,000	62,300
Year 1915. ¹	176	15,400	900	133	7,700	300	866	236,200	57,300
January.....	171	15,000	1,000	132	6,200	400	909	225,900	56,200
February.....	168	15,800	1,100	143	7,000	400	898	246,400	70,300
March.....	164	14,000	1,100	136	6,500	400	890	226,000	62,800
April.....	172	15,800	1,400	137	6,600	400	896	221,000	63,700
May.....	172	13,000	1,200	149	6,400	500	924	222,700	66,600
June.....	176	12,100	1,100	136	6,600	500	905	216,500	61,800
July.....	185	13,200	1,300	141	6,500	500	908	210,000	65,400
August.....	177	12,900	1,300	140	6,600	400	924	214,600	69,200
September.....	177	11,100	1,700	134	6,000	500	900	202,300	67,800
October.....	178	9,239	730	131	5,135	442	896	189,349	63,297
November.....	168	6,783	494	135	4,360	271	920	160,513	55,519
December.....									
Year	174	² 154,177	² 12,357	137	² 75,535	² 4,981	903	² 2,571,520	² 762,951
Monthly average		12,845	1,030		6,295	415		214,293	63,579

¹ On account of the war a number of reports were either not received or were delayed.

² Not the true addition of the various amounts, because prior to November, 1915, round numbers are used.

How the situations filled by communal and subsidized employment offices were distributed among the various occupations is illustrated in the following table:

Results of the activity of communal employment offices and of employment offices subsidized with public funds, 1912-1915.

[Source: Reichstag, 13. Legislatur Periode, II. Session, 1914-15, Drucksache No. 151, p. 9.]

Occupational groups.	Number of situations filled.					
	1912		1913		1914	
	Total.	Female.	Total.	Female.	Total.	Female.
Agriculture, gardening, etc.....	83,900	5,300	97,100	5,300	159,000	21,300
Mining, smelting, etc.....	5,900	9,400	14,900
Stones and earths.....	6,600	7,100	6,500
Metal working, machinery, etc.....	109,600	4,700	97,400	3,300	116,100	4,000
Chemicals and forest by-products...	2,800	1,000	3,200	1,000	4,800	1,300
Textiles.....	10,500	4,200	8,700	4,200	13,800	7,700
Paper.....	15,800	9,200	15,200	9,600	16,000	9,500
Leather, etc.....	15,300	600	14,200	500	16,600	1,500
Woodworking.....	24,700	500	65,100	400	60,800	500
Food products.....	37,100	4,200	37,700	4,100	43,800	5,900
Clothing and cleaning.....	43,800	12,200	50,100	13,300	117,500	72,800
Building trades.....	84,000	100	76,900	97,000	100
Printing, etc.....	4,700	4,200	4,500	3,800	4,300	3,300
Artistic trades.....	200	200	200
Factory workers (not specified), engineers, firemen.....	67,500	13,800	72,200	14,500	86,200	20,100
Commerce.....	6,200	2,400	7,100	3,100	11,600	4,500
Hotels, saloons, restaurants.....	191,400	86,400	201,700	96,500	198,000	86,900
Other labor and domestic service.....	798,200	353,700	854,100	393,100	1,123,000	425,700
Professional occupations.....	5,500	700	4,900	1,100	8,300	1,400
Apprentices of all occupations.....	8,500	1,500	10,600	2,200	13,300	3,100
Not specified.....	5,300	100	5,100	3,600	400
Total.....	1,592,300	505,000	1,642,600	555,800	2,115,200	669,900

Occupational groups.	Number of situations filled.					
	1915					
	First quarter.		Second quarter.		Third quarter.	
Total.	Female.	Total.	Female.	Total.	Female.	
Agriculture, gardening, etc.....	22,100	3,200	25,700	5,500	25,700	6,700
Mining, smelting, etc.....	4,000	2,100	1,700
Stones and earths.....	700	1,000	700
Metal working, machinery, etc.....	31,900	2,500	24,600	1,800	24,300	1,800
Chemicals and forest by-products...	2,800	400	1,900	600	1,800	500
Textiles.....	6,900	4,800	3,700	2,400	3,400	2,400
Paper.....	5,400	3,000	5,400	2,700	5,800	3,300
Leather, etc.....	4,200	1,700	3,200	1,200	3,000	900
Woodworking.....	12,800	100	11,200	100	8,600	100
Food products.....	9,200	2,600	10,200	3,100	7,200	2,700
Clothing and cleaning.....	38,100	30,500	28,300	21,900	28,300	22,100
Building trades.....	14,500	17,700	15,800
Printing, etc.....	1,100	800	1,000	700	1,200	1,000
Artistic trades.....	100	100	100
Factory workers (not specified), engineers, firemen.....	39,700	8,800	37,600	10,600	39,400	12,300
Commerce.....	4,900	1,900	3,600	1,800	3,900	2,400
Hotels, saloons, restaurants.....	33,800	14,200	53,300	24,500	46,700	25,100
Other labor and domestic service.....	310,100	94,800	251,800	99,200	229,400	95,700
Professional occupations.....	2,700	500	1,900	500	1,800	400
Apprentices of all occupations.....	4,500	1,100	3,300	900	3,300	1,000
Not specified.....	600	100	400	100	300	200
Total.....	550,100	171,000	488,200	177,600	452,500	178,600

The preceding table shows that even in war times the communal and subsidized employment offices were able to place a very large number of unskilled workers, a class of workers which always forms a large percentage of the total

number of unemployed. In the table the results for this class are given under "other labor and domestic service," where it is shown that the number of situations filled increased from 854,100 in 1913 to 1,123,000 in 1914. Large increases for 1914 are also shown for agricultural labor, metal workers, and workers employed in the clothing and cleaning trades.

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APPENDIX D.

THE PRESENT STATUS OF UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE ON THE BASIS OF OFFICIAL SOURCES AND OF REPORTS PREPARED FOR THE GENERAL CONVENTION AT GHENT OF THE INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION ON UNEMPLOYMENT.

[Special supplement to Reichs-Arbeitsblatt, No. 12, December, 1913. Prepared by the German Imperial Statistical Bureau, Division of Labor Statistics, Berlin. Translated by the statistical bureau, Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., for the American Association for Labor Legislation, 131 East Twenty-third Street, New York City. Revised by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for this bulletin.]

Cf. previous memoir, Die bestehenden Einrichtungen zur Versicherung gegen die Folgen der Arbeitslosigkeit in Deutschland und im Deutschen Reich, Berlin, 1906; as also, in connection with legislation discussed below, for Denmark: Dr. Zacher, Die Arbeiterversicherung im Ausland, No. Ia, p. 30; No. Ib, pp. 49, 47*, 69* ff.; Reichs-Arbeitsblatt, 1911, p. 182; 1912, p. 190 ff.; 1913, p. 590. For Norway, cf. Zacher, *ibid.*, No. III b, pp. 43, 19*, 23* ff.; and Reichs-Arbeitsblatt, 1911, p. 276 ff. For Great Britain, cf. Zacher, *ibid.*, No. Va, p. 51; No. Vb, pp. 6, 84, 91 ff., and Reichs-Arbeitsblatt, 1909, p. 830; 1910, p. 357; 1911, pp. 448, 560, 702, 860; 1912, pp. 55, 140, 160.

EXPLANATORY NOTE.

A number of reports of progress in the field of unemployment insurance have been published in the German Reichs-Arbeitsblatt.¹ The reports prepared for the General Convention at Ghent of the International Association on Unemployment, in September, 1913, furnish a new occasion to issue a statement with regard to the present status of unemployment insurance. In order to facilitate a summary view of the situation an attempt has been made to arrange the most important information in the comparative tables, which follow, on the basis of the résumés of social insurance in Europe.² Use has been made of official publications, as well as of the reports prepared for the meeting at Ghent.³

Attention has been paid solely to the arrangements made by public bodies (States, Provinces, communes), leaving out of consideration measures for self-help on the part of workmen. The latter will be treated in detail for Germany and briefly for other countries in Special No. 8 of the Reichs-Arbeitsblatt.⁴ This will appear shortly, and will be devoted to the status of unions of employers, salaried employees, and workmen in 1912. Moreover we have left out of consideration the philanthropic work of employers, as well as that of funds and societies having no governmental aid.

In the arrangement of the tables Germany has been placed at the end of the series.

Interpreting the term "insurance" in its broadest sense, the systems of unemployment insurance through public bodies which have thus far found application are three in number, as follows:

I. *The system of subsidies paid by public bodies to the unemployment insurance funds of trade-unions.*—This is usually called the "Ghent system," after the city in which it was first applied. It has been introduced more generally than any other. In this connection it is important to determine whether the payment of subsidies is left entirely to the communes or other public bodies, or whether additional sums are given by the State, and in the latter

¹ Cf. Supplement to No. 4, April, 1913 (Index for 1903-1912), p. 10.

² Supplement to No. 12, December, 1912, of the Reichs-Arbeitsblatt.

³ For Germany, cf. Der gegenwärtige Stand der Arbeitslosenfürsorge und-Versicherung in Deutschland, publications of the German Association on Unemployment, No. 2, prepared by Dr. E. Bernhard. The reports for other countries are at hand in the form of publications of the conference; they will appear in the Bulletin Trimestriel de l'Association Internationale pour la Lutte contre le Chômage.

⁴ Cf. Statistisches Material zur Frage, der Arbeitslosigkeit, prepared by the Imperial Ministry of the Interior (Nov., 1913), p. 52 ff. For foreign countries, cf. Statistisches Jahrbuch für das Deutsche Reich, 1913, p. 16* f.

case, whether these sums are dependent upon the budget or are determined by law.

The system of subsidization is left entirely to the communes (or Provinces) in Germany, in Belgium (where its development is oldest and greatest), in Holland, in France (where, besides a number of communes and departments, the State has set aside the sum of 100,000 francs in its budget, which amount has never been fully utilized, as the slight importance of the trade-union benefit system in that country does not seem to have been influenced by subsidization), in Luxemburg, and in a number of cantons of Switzerland (in the form of cantonal subsidies).

Legal regulation for the whole country has been instituted in Norway, in Denmark, in Great Britain (besides the compulsory insurance which has been introduced into some industries), and, if we take the Swiss Cantons into consideration, in Geneva and in the city of Basel (besides the voluntary unemployment insurance fund). It is noteworthy that in Norway, Denmark, and Great Britain the system of labor exchanges has been regulated by law, and in hand with insurance. (Cf. the Norwegian law of June 12, 1906, the English law of Sept. 20, 1909, the Danish law of Apr. 29, 1913, and the international report to the Ghent conference, September, 1913, printed in the *Reichs-Arbeitsblatt*, 1913, p. 761 ff.)

The results of the Ghent system must, in general, be designated as slight. Its purpose, "training in self-help," has been fulfilled almost nowhere, either in the sense that the trade-unions have received a greater influx of members because of the subsidies, or in the sense that they have introduced or further developed unemployment benefit. Only this has been attained—the benefits given by the unions have been increased. However, those who have received them constitute a comparatively small portion of the total number of unemployed, even where, as in Denmark, the organization of workmen was far advanced before the introduction of the subsidy system. In Belgium, moreover—in the mother country of the system—comparatively few workmen reap its benefits. It is true that the organization movement has forged ahead in Germany much farther than in Belgium or in France, and that unemployment benefit has attained a much greater development there than in other countries. (Cf. Special No. 8, *Reichs-Arbeitsblatt*.) Yet it has thus far been impossible to determine the existence of any influence upon the strength of the organization and development of unemployment insurance, in the cities which have introduced the Ghent system. Furthermore, it can not be denied that conditions are less favorable to success in Germany than anywhere else. While in other countries trade-unions are preponderantly organized on a local basis, the German bodies are invariably strongly centralized. Moreover, their benefit system is, in general, unified and adapted to the entire Empire.

The slight financial burdens which, according to the tables, are necessitated by the Ghent system (in 9 German cities for which we know at least the amount of the annual grants, they add up to only a little more than 40,000 marks) have aided its adoption greatly, but have at the same time shown its insignificance in the campaign against the consequences of unemployment. Hence its ardent champions have become convinced that at least a partially compulsory insurance system should be instituted.

The subsidization of trade-unions is frequently, as in Ghent, associated with the subsidization of savings societies or of individual savers, which, however, has almost universally turned out to be a failure. We have still to consider the payment of subsidies to voluntary unemployment funds.

II. *The system of State or communal voluntary unemployment funds.*—The best-known funds of this class are those of the city of Berne, of the Canton of Basel, and of the city of Cologne (formerly a free society with a considerable municipal subsidy). Recently, on the basis of the model regulations drafted by the Bavarian Government, the cities of Kaiserslautern, Bavaria, and Schwabian Gmünd, Wurttemberg, have associated with the subsidy system the institution of voluntary unemployment insurance funds. However, we have no reports as yet concerning their experience.

In general, the voluntary unemployment funds are hampered by the fact that only a comparatively small number of workingmen join them. In the case of almost all of these the danger of unemployment is especially great, or lack of work is a regularly recurring phenomenon, especially true of the building trades. The greatest number of voluntary insured belonged to the Cologne fund in its earlier form. Since its modern reconstruction, with increased dues, it has been able to obtain but few members.

Greater success has been experienced by the Cologne fund in its new activity, the reinsurance of trade-unions. This is akin to the Ghent system, but is distinguished from it by requiring payment from the unions in return for subsidization. Furthermore, from the viewpoint of advancing self-help, Cologne has obtained better results than other cities by means of the Ghent system. It has been able to win over four trade-unions to the introduction of unemployment benefit on the basis of reinsurance. It is true that the unions in the building trades, upon whom the greatest reliance had been placed, have thus far declined to participate—the free trade-unions for the reason that they are militant organizations and not mutual benefit associations, and the Christian unions because they feel no need.

III. *The system of compulsory insurance.*—Aside from the unfortunate and rapidly abandoned experiment of 1894, in the city of St. Gall, there has never, as yet, been a system of compulsory insurance for all workmen, nor was there such an institution for particular industries until the enactment of the English national insurance act of 1911. So short a time has elapsed since the enactment of this law, which extends compulsory insurance to about 2,500,000 workmen, and its enforcement was begun in a period so favorable from a commercial point of view, that no final judgment can be given. This fact has been recognized by the convention at Ghent of the International Association on Unemployment, in agreement with the report of the English section.

The plan for compulsory insurance of workers in the watch and clock industry in the Swiss Canton of Neuchatel is still in the preliminary stage.

* * * * *

Tables I, II, and III refer to arrangements outside the German Empire. The first treats of the three countries which have legal regulation. The second table contains the data for those countries in which State subsidies are provided for in the budget, and for those in which there is no State subsidy (or, in Switzerland, no Federal subsidy). The third is devoted to the two voluntary unemployment insurance funds of Switzerland.

The tables for Germany are so arranged that Table IV concerns subsidies to trade-unions; Table V, subsidies to savers and to savings societies; and Table VI, public voluntary unemployment insurance funds. Thus some cities occur in two tables; they are those which associate subsidies to trade-unions with similar payments to individual savers or to voluntary unemployment funds (Berlin-Schöneberg, Stuttgart, Feuerbach, Freiburg i. B., Kaiserslautern, Schwabian Gmünd). Those cities are not included which give free unemployment benefit, which differs from poor relief only in the fact that it has been regulated by special legislation, the local ordinances declaring that it is not to be considered as such relief. Where benefits are paid to those who are not included in the subsidy system (particularly the unorganized), this has been especially indicated (Berlin-Schöneberg, where meal tickets are given, Erlangen, Mannheim).

A. UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE

I. COUNTRIES WITH

	Nature.	Scope.	Form.
Great Britain.	(a) Compulsory insurance. (Law of Dec. 16, 1911, in force beginning July 15, 1912.)	All wageworkers (above age 16) in: Building trades. Machine manufacturing. Shipbuilding and wagon building. Iron molding. Sawmill industry.	National unemployment fund, with national system of labor exchanges (Law of Oct. 20, 1909): 1,066 agents. 430 local labor bureaus (2,500 officials). 8 district bureaus (749 officials). 1 central bureau (287 officials).
	(b) Voluntary insurance (article 106). Statistics of compulsory insurance ¹ (July 12, 1912).	All industrial societies the statutes of which call for unemployment benefit. 45,200,000 inhabitants; 14,000,000 wageworkers.	July 12, 1913: 275 societies with 1,100,000 members (including 500,000 subject to compulsory insurance). 2,500,000 compulsorily insured (63 per cent skilled laborers), as opposed to about 500,000 formerly voluntarily insured. Unemployment fund: £1,600,000.
Norway.	Voluntary insurance for (Laws of June 12, 1906-Dec. 31, 1911, and Aug. 15, 1911-Dec. 31, 1914.) Statistics (1912).....	All industrial societies the statutes of which call for unemployment benefit. 2,400,000 inhabitants; 400,000 wageworkers.	"Recognized unemployment funds" in connection with public labor exchanges (Law of June 12, 1906). Requirements for State recognition: 1. Administration of fund independently of trade society. 2. At least half of income of fund must consist of members' dues. 3. Benefits must be so regulated by statute that: (a) No benefit is paid in case of unemployment when there is information of suitable work or through the fault of the insured (including strikes and lockouts); no double insurance or insurance for the first three days of unemployment is permitted; (b) Benefit is not paid until the insured has been a contributing member for 6 months, the maximum being half of the normal daily wage in his occupation, and the maximum period being 90 days per annum; and (c) There will be a special assessment, or reduction in the rates of benefit, in case of insufficient resources. 19 funds (17 workmen's funds, 2 employees' funds), with 27,000 members (about 50% of the organized workmen).

¹ Under article 105 of the law, trade-unions may take over payment instead of the labor bureaus, receiving from the unemployment fund a maximum of three-quarters of their expenditures. (One hundred and five organizations, with 539,775 members, have thus far availed themselves of this clause, including 21 societies, with about 86,000 members—most of them in the building trades—which formerly paid no unemployment benefit.)

OUTSIDE OF GERMANY.

LEGAL REGULATION.

Dues.	Benefits.	Appeal.
<p>Regular weekly dues, 5 pence (2½ pence paid by employer, 2½ pence by employee). Furthermore, there is a State subsidy amounting to one-third of the annual receipts from dues.</p> <p>State subsidy by repayment to the society of a maximum of one-sixth of the annual expenditure for weekly benefit, not in excess of 12 shillings. (The budget of 1913-14 provides for an expenditure of £70,000.)</p> <p>Annual dues, £1,700,000. State subsidy, £600,000. Total income, £2,300,000.</p>	<p>7 shillings per week (through the labor bureau¹), from the second to the fifteenth week of unemployment in each year, provided that—</p> <p>(a) The insured has worked at least 26 weeks in the year, for the last 5 years, in an occupation subject to compulsory insurance;</p> <p>(b) He has not become unemployed through strike or through his own fault; and</p> <p>(c) He has not been directed by the labor bureau to work of equal value. (Persons aged 17-18 receive half benefit; persons below age 17 receive none.)</p> <p>Expenditures: 236,458 pounds for about 400,000 cases (an average per case of about 10 shillings for 10 days, with 16 days of unemployment, as almost one-third of the cases were disposed of during the waiting period of one week).</p> <p>Average rate of unemployment: 3.5 per cent (building trades, 5.0 per cent; shipbuilding, 3.1 per cent).</p>	<p>Appeal may be made, without expense, to:</p> <p>(a) Insurance official;</p> <p>(b) Court of arbitration; and</p> <p>(c) Nonpartisan arbitrator.</p> <p>Of 420,802 applications, 37,424 (8.9%) were referred to (a); 2,907 (8.0% of the previous number) to (b); and 49 cases to (c).</p>
<p>Dues vary according to the statutes of the fund.</p> <p>According to section 6 of the law, the unemployment fund must admit unorganized members of the occupation (without the necessity of giving them the right to vote); however, their dues may be increased by 10%-15% in consideration of the administrative expenses borne by the trade society.</p> <p>State subsidy amounting, under the amendment of July 25, 1908, to one-third (previously one-fourth) of the annual expenditures for benefit, with an assessment of two-thirds of this subsidy paid by the community in which the insured resides.</p> <p>No dues are paid by employers, as they are called upon to aid in the support of accident and sickness insurance.</p> <p>Members' dues, crowns 186,252 Subsidy from State and communities, crowns 36,309 Total income, crowns ... 222,561 Total capital, crowns 387,545</p>	<p>Benefit varies according to the statutes of the fund. However, it is limited by law to Norwegian citizens and to persons who have been resident in Norway for 5 years (Cf. column 3).</p> <p>Expenditures: 144,781 crowns to unemployed.</p>	<p>Appeal may be made, without expense, to:</p> <p>(a) Executive of fund; and</p> <p>(b) Ministry.</p>

Great Britain.

Norway.

* The statistics cover only the first half-year of 1913, as benefit has been paid only since January 15, 1913. It is particularly unjustified to draw general conclusions from the figures for this short period, because economic conditions were extraordinarily satisfactory. (The unemployment rate of the trades-unions was only 2.1 per cent in 1913, as opposed to an average of 4.9 per cent for the last ten years.)

A. UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE

I. COUNTRIES WITH

	Nature.	Scope.	Form.
Denmark.	Voluntary insurance (Law of April 9, 1907, in force beginning August 1, 1907).	Workmen's industrial societies the statutes of which call for unemployment benefit.	<p>"Recognized unemployment funds" in connection with public labor exchanges (Law of April 29, 1913).</p> <p>Requirements for State recognition:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Administration of fund independently of industrial society. 2. Occupational or local limitation of fund. 3. At least 50 members; none below age 18 or above age 60. 4. Benefits must be regulated by statute so that: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (a) No benefit is paid in case of unemployment when there is information of suitable work, or through the fault of the insured (including strikes and lockouts); no double insurance or insurance for the first three days of unemployment is permitted; (b) Benefit is not paid until the insured has been a contributing member for one year, the maximum being two-thirds of the normal daily wage in the occupation or locality. However, this must not be less than $\frac{1}{2}$ crown or more than 2 crowns, and must be paid for at least 70 days in the year; and (c) There must be extra dues in case of insufficient funds.
	Statistics (1912).....	2,800,000 inhabitants; 500,000 wageworkers.	53 funds, with 111,187 members (60% of those capable of being insured).

II. VOLUNTARY UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE BY WORKMEN'S

	Scope.	Societies.	Membership.	Dues.	Benefits.	Persons unemployed.
Luxemburg.	260,000 inhabitants; 55,000 workmen (1909).	8	800	2,400 fr.	1,800 fr.
France.	40,000,000 inhabitants; 10,000,000 workmen.	114	49,595	209,564 fr.	8,429
	(a) State (1912).....	114 } 209	48,069	(193,578 fr.) ¹	8,609
	(b) State (1911).....			224,159 fr.	
	(c) 12 departments (1911) (d) 51 cities ² (1911).....			
Total, (b)-(d).....	
Holland.	5,900,000 inhabitants; 1,500,000 workmen (1912).	281	29,313	50,191 florins (92,261 florins, including sub- sidy).

¹ Not including cantonal legislation.² Benefits toward which subsidy was paid.

OUTSIDE OF GERMANY—Continued.

LEGAL REGULATION—Continued.

Dues.	Benefits.	Appeal.	
Dues vary according to the statutes of the fund. (In 1912 they varied between 4.80 and 26 crowns for the year, the average being 12 crowns.) State subsidy (compulsory): One-third of dues. Community subsidy (voluntary): Up to a maximum of one-sixth of dues.	Benefits vary according to the statutes of the fund. (Daily benefit of 1-2 crowns for 70-100 days, according to duration of membership.)	Appeal may be made, without expense, to: (a) Executive of fund; (b) Committee; and (c) Minister.	Denmark.
Dues, crowns..... 1,300,000 State subsidy, crowns..... 800,000 Community subsidy, crowns 400,000 Total income, crowns. 2,500,000 Reserve fund, crowns..... 2,400,000 Total income, 1907-1912: 9,600,000 crowns (54% dues, 32% State subsidy, and 14% community subsidy).	Compensation: 1,700,000 crowns. (Average unemployment, 26 days, for about half of which compensation was paid.) Total compensation, 6,500,000 crowns.		

SOCIETIES WITH PUBLIC SUBSIDY, BUT WITHOUT LEGAL REGULATION.¹

Subsidies.		Days of unemployment (with compensation).	Expenses of administration.	Remarks.	
Community.	State.				
	Credit of 1,500 fr. each.	The subsidies are apportioned according to membership, dues, and benefits on the basis of $\frac{1}{3}$ of benefits paid.	Luxembourg.
	47,542 fr.	102,795	Since the enactment of the finance law of April 22, 1905, the State has granted an annual credit of 100,000 fr. Maximum State subsidy (for benefit up to 2 fr. and 60 days), 20 per cent of benefit for local funds and 30 per cent for federation funds.	France.
	50,726 fr.	116,373		
	18,550 fr.		
	112,423		
Total, 181,699.					
42,070 fl.	See footnote 4.	Subsidy of 50-60 cents toward benefit for 50 to 60 days. Also voluntary fund in Dordrecht, as yet without members, not mentioned in Table III, below.	Holland.

¹ Including 21 cities which have passed general legislation with regard to subsidies.⁴ Bill of August 9, 1907, providing for a State subsidy has not yet been enacted.

A. UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE

II. VOLUNTARY UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE BY WORKMEN'S SOCIETIES

	Scope.	Societies.	Membership.	Dues.	Benefits.	Persons unemployed.
Belgium.	7,400,000 inhabitants; 2,100,000 workmen: (1,000,000 industrial workers) (1912).....	Societies supported by communities and other organizations. 401 } 103,537 in 370 societies rendering report. 31 } See footnote 2. 7 savings so- cieties.				
	(a) State.....					
	(b) 5 Provinces.....					
	(c) 61 communities.....					
	(d) 31 communities.....					
	(e) communities (9).....					
	(f) communities.....					
Total (a)-(f).....	439				290,187 fr.	29,203 (27,081) ¹ 1,509 (1,509) ¹ 22 40
Switzerland.	3,800,000 inhabitants; 800,000 workmen: Canton of St. Gall (law of May 19, 1894).....	8				
	(1913).....	4				
	(1911).....					
	Canton of Geneva (law of Nov. 6, 1909).....	12				
	(1911).....	10				
	(1910).....					
	Canton of Basel City (law of Dec. 16, 1909).....	5				
(1912).....	3					
Canton of Appenzell.....						
Canton of Appenzell (1912).	3					
Italy.	34,700,000 inhabitants; 10,500,000 workmen: (a) 2 cities.....	Savings fund.	795 savers.	About 12,000 lire.		542
(b) 1 city (1910).....						

III. PUBLIC VOLUNTARY

	Scope.	Societies.	Membership.	Dues.	Benefits.	No. of un- employed.
Switzerland.	Canton of Basel City (law of Dec. 16, 1909) (1912).	Unemploy- ment fund.	1,214	9,434 fr.	34,512 fr. ³	605
	City of Bern (1912).....	Unemploy- ment fund.	636	8,773 fr.	19,130 fr.	(563) ⁴ 321
	Canton of Bern.....	Unemployment fund for the watch and clock industry in Bern Jura (founda- tion which has not yet begun activity).				

¹ Number of unemployed, and number of days of unemployment, for which communal subsidy was paid.² Individual savers.

OUTSIDE OF GERMANY—Concluded.

WITH PUBLIC SUBSIDY, BUT WITHOUT LEGAL REGULATION—Concluded.

Subsidies.		Days of un-employment (with compensation).	Expenses of administration.	Remarks.	
Community.	State.				
	24,911 fr. 49,830 fr.			State and Provinces subsidize some of the communal unemployment funds. Besides the five Provinces under (b), another Province voted a credit of 2,500 francs, but did not pay it.	Belgium.
134,157 fr.		229,089 (208,890) ¹		Under (c) subsidies are paid to those receiving aid from industrial unions.	
12,546 fr.		11,797 (9,145) ¹		Under (d) subsidies are paid directly to the industrial unions.	
289 fr. 393 fr.		481 522	19,448 fr.	Headings (e) and (f) do not include communities giving subsidies to individual savers and savings organizations, which come under (c) and (d).	
147,385 fr.	74,741 fr.			These figures account for about 252,000 workmen organized in industrial unions.	
Total, 222,126 fr.					
	2,669 fr. 475 fr.			Besides the Cantons specified in the first column, Zürich and Thurgau granted small subsidies to an industrial union fund in 1911.	Switzerland.
	1,953 fr. 2,343 fr.	(For 2,584 days of un-employment.)		Subsidy of 50 per cent of benefit.	
	3,412 fr. Credit: 2,000 fr. 1,601 fr.			Subsidy of 60 per cent of benefit.	
				Subsidy of 40 to 50 per cent of benefit.	
				Subsidy of 50 per cent of benefit.	
Interest on 300,000 lire.		5,977 (1909)		Subsidies are also paid under the Ghent system by a private foundation in Milan (Societa Umanitaria).	Italy.

UNEMPLOYMENT FUNDS.

Subsidies.		Days of un-employment (compensated).	Expenses of administration.	Remarks.	
Community.	State.				
12,000 fr.	27,000 fr.				Switzerland.
	Lottery granted; subsidy of 5,000 fr. under consideration.				

² Also subsidies from a voluntary aid fund: 420 fr.

⁴ Persons receiving per diem benefits for 15,407.5 days.

B. COMMUNAL UNEMPLOYMENT

IV. SUBSIDIES TO

	City and year of installation of system.	Year of report.	Requirements for payment of subsidy.			Amount and duration of subsidy.		
			Classes of workmen excluded.	Period of residence required.	Waiting period.	In proportion to society benefit.	Maximum per day.	Maximum duration per year.
Prussia.	Berlin-Schöneberg, 1910.	1912	1 year.	Maximum, 7 days.	50%	1 mark.	60 days.
Bavaria.	Erlangen, 1909.....	1912	Unskilled.	3 years.	7 days.	50%	0.60 m.	6 weeks.
	Kaiserslautern, 1913.....		To be determined monthly.	0.60 m.	60 days.
Württemberg.	Stuttgart, 1912.....	6 months, Oct. 1, 1912, to Mar. 31, 1913.	1 year.	As in industrial society.	50%; with children, 5%-25% more.	1 m.; with children, 1.50 m.	As in industrial society.
	Feuerbach, 1913.....		1 year.	As in industrial society.	As in Stuttgart.	As in Stuttgart.	As in industrial society.
	Schwabian Gmünd, 1911 (entered into force Apr. 1, 1913).		Occupationally and physically suited for employment on public works.	2 years.	Unmarried: 0.40 m. Married: 0.50-0.60 m. Maximum 50%	6 weeks.
	Esslingen, 1913 (entered into force Oct. 15, 1913).		1 year.	As in industrial society.	50%	1 m.	As in industrial society.
Baden.	Freiburg i. B., 1910.....	1912	Occupationally and physically suited for employment on public works.	1 year.	5 days.	50%	1 m.	40 days.
	Mannheim, 1913 (entered into force July 1, 1913).		1 year.	As in industrial society.	0.70 m.; for each child, 0.10 m. more.	1 m.	60 days.
Hesse.	Offenbach a. M., 1913.....		1 year.	5 days.	Unmarried: 0.50 m. Married: 0.70 m. For each child, 0.15 m. more.	1.30 m.	78 days.

INSURANCE IN THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

INDUSTRIAL SOCIETIES.

Industrial societies affected.		Benefits paid.			Community subsidy, in marks.	Remarks.	
Number of societies (local administrations).	Membership.	Number of unemployed receiving benefit.	Number of days for which compensation was paid.	Amount of benefit, in marks.			
59	620	15,770	12,631	Subsidies are also paid to individual savers; cf. V. Noncontributory benefit to uninsured unemployed in form of meal tickets.	Prussia.
18	73	1,797	1,033 5,000 (also subsidy for insurance fund).	As regards Kaiserslautern insurance fund, cf. VI.	Bavaria.
44	776	36,568 (incl. savers).	66,022 (incl. withdrawals by savers).	Annual grant, 10,000; 9,746 paid out (incl. payments to savers). Annual grant, 1,000 (incl. subsidy to savers). Annual grant, 1,000 (incl. insurance fund).	Stuttgart and Feuerbach: Mutual agreement. For subsidies to savers, cf. V. Schwabian Gmünd: As regards insurance fund, cf. VI.	Wurttemberg.
10	1,892 (9 societies).	518	7,227	10,291	1,861	Freiburg: For subsidies to savers, cf. V. Mannheim: Noncontributory benefit to unemployed not members of societies.	Baden.
						For subsidies to savers, cf. V.	Hesse.

B. COMMUNAL UNEMPLOYMENT

IV. SUBSIDIES TO

	City and year of installation of system.	Year of report.	Requirements for payment of subsidy.			Amount and duration of subsidy.		
			Classes of working-men excluded.	Period of residence required.	Waiting period.	In proportion to society benefit.	Maximum per day.	Maximum duration per year.
Alsace-Lorraine.	Strassburg, 1907.....	1911-12	1 year.	As in industrial society.	50%	1 m.	As in industrial society.
	Illkirch - Grafenstaden, 1910.	1912	As in Strassburg.					
	Schiltigheim.....							
	Bischheim.....							
	Mülhausen, 1909.....	1911	1 year.	As in industrial society.	70%; families, 80%.	1 m.	As in industrial society.
Amendments, 1913.....		1 year.	As in industrial society.	0.80 m.; families, 1 m.	1 m.	As in industrial society.	

¹ Number of cases. The number of individuals receiving benefit was 288.
² Only days for which communal subsidy was paid.

V. SUBSIDIES TO SAVINGS

	City and year of installation of system.	Year of report.	Requirements for payment of subsidy.			Amount and duration of subsidy.		
			Classes of working-men excluded.	Period of residence required.	Waiting period.	In proportion to deposit withdrawn.	Maximum per day.	Maximum per year.
Prussia.	Berlin-Schöneberg, 1910.	1912.	Females.	1 year.	Maximum, 1 week.	50%	1 m.	60 days.
Württemberg.	Stuttgart, 1912.....	6 months, Oct. 1, 1912, to Mar. 31, 1913.	Irregular workers and married female workers.	1 year.	6 days.	50%; with children, 5% to 25% more.	1 m.; with children, 1.50 marks.	50 days. ¹
	Feuerbach, 1913.....							
Baden.	Freiburg i. B., 1910...	1912.	50%	1 m.	See footnote 2.

¹ Maximum deposit 100 marks.

INSURANCE IN THE GERMAN EMPIRE—Continued.

INDUSTRIAL SOCIETIES—Continued.

Industrial societies affected.		Benefits paid.			Community subsidy, in marks.	Remarks.
Number of societies (local administrations).	Membership.	Number of unemployed receiving benefit.	Number of days for which compensation was paid.	Amount of benefit, in marks.		
36	7,444	627 ¹	7,499 ²	19,951	6,086	Mutual agreement between Strassburg, Illkirch - Grafenstaden, Schiltigheim and Bischheim.
.....	1	36	7.50	
.....	
20	194 ³	2,460 ⁴	2,316
.....	

Alsace-Lorraine.

³ 93 of this number received aid from the city.

⁴ Only days for which communal benefit was paid.

SOCIETIES AND INDIVIDUALS.

Recipients of subsidy.			Deposits.		Withdrawals.		Number of days for which compensation was paid.	Community subsidy in marks.	Remarks.
Individual savers.	Savings societies.	Membership.	Number of depositors.	Amount, in marks.	Number of payees.	Amount, in marks.			
172	172	56	987	987	Cf. IV.
22	2	22	See Table IV.		Cf. IV.
.....
.....	8	133	66.50

Prussia.

Wurtemberg.

Baden.

¹ Maximum deposit 40 marks.

B. COMMUNAL UNEMPLOYMENT

VI. PUBLIC VOLUNTARY

	City and year of installation of system.	Year of report.	Requirements for payment of subsidy.				Membership (risk) classes.	Weekly dues, in pennings.	
			Classes of workmen excluded.	Period of residence required.	Waiting period before right to obtain benefit.	Waiting period after beginning of unemployment.		Insured.	Reinsured.
Prussia.	Cologne, 1896, entirely transformed in 1911.	July 1, 1912, to June 30, 1913.	Workmen with maximum average daily wage of 2.50 m.; home workers.	Insured, 13 weeks; reinsured, 1 year.	52 weekly payments.	6 days.	3 (I-III).	Schedule A B I 15 20 II 20 30 III 45 60 Higher rates for members above age 60.	4 10 30
Bavaria.	Kaiserslautern, 1912 (entered into force April 1, 1913).	Married females.	52 weekly payments.	7 days.	4 (I-IV).	Un-married. ried. I 20 30 II 32 48 III 48 72 IV 60 90 Initiation fee, 50 pf.	
Wurtemberg.	Schwabian Gmünd, 1911 (entered into force April 1, 1912).	Persons occupationally and physically suited for employment on public works; married females.	1 year.	52 weekly payments.	7 days.	2 (I-II).	Un-married. ried. I 20 30 II 35 52 Initiation fee, 50 pf.	

INSURANCE IN THE GERMAN EMPIRE—Concluded.

UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE FUNDS.

Amount and duration of subsidy.		Number of insured.			Dues in marks.		Benefits in marks.			Remarks.	
Amount per day in marks.	Maximum duration per year.	Individually insured.	Reinsured societies.	Membership.	Individually insured.	Societies.	Individually insured.	Societies.	Community subsidy, in marks.		
Insured: First 20 days Next 40 days A 1.5 0.75 B 2. 0.01.00 Reinsured: 0.75 to 1.50, according to number of weekly payments made; maximum, 60 times these rates.		Maximum 189; 38 dropped because of non-payment; remainder 151.	25	11,105	5,124	19,170	6,002	23,798	60,377	Benefit paid to 14 individually insured, 2,121 reinsured. Compensation paid for 472 days of unemployment to individually insured; for 31,731 days to reinsured.	Prussia.
Unmarried, 0.80; married, 1.20.	60 days	See Table IV.	For subsidies to industrial societies, cf. IV.	Bavaria.
Unmarried, 0.50; married, 0.75.	6 weeks.	See Table IV.	For subsidies to industrial societies, cf. IV.	Wurttemberg.