U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
W. B. WILSON, Secretary

BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS
ETHELBERT STEWART, Commissioner

BULLETIN OF THE UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS . . . . No. 266

MISCELLANEOUS SERIES

PROCEEDINGS OF THE SEVENTH ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE ASSOCIATION OF GOVERNMENTAL LABOR OFFICIALS OF THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA

HELD AT SEATTLE, WASH.,
JULY 12–15, 1920

FEBRUARY, 1921

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OFFICERS, 1919–20.

President, Geo. P. Hambrecht, Madison, Wis.
First vice president, J. N. McLeod, Calgary, Alberta, Canada.
Second vice president, S. C. Groeschel, Columbia, S. C.
Third vice president, F. E. Wood, New Orleans, La.
Fourth vice president, Ethel Elliott, Tulsa, Okla.
Fifth vice president, R. J. Sommers, Juneau, Alaska.
Secretary-treasurer, Linna E. Bresette, Topeka, Kans.

CONSTITUTION.

Adopted at Nashville, Tenn., June 10, 1914; amended at Buffalo, N. Y., July 17, 1916.

ARTICLE I.—NAME.

This association shall be known as the Association of Governmental Labor Officials of the United States and Canada.

ARTICLE II.—OBJECTS.

The objects of this association shall be the promotion of the welfare of industrial workers, to secure uniform labor legislation, better laws for factory inspection, laws creating State employment bureaus and the governing of same, to promote industrial hygiene and accident prevention, and aid in every way possible to secure better provision for the industrial development and protection of the workers of the various States, Provinces, etc.

ARTICLE III.—MEMBERSHIP.

Section 1. The membership of this association shall consist of bona fide employees of Federal, State, provincial, county, or municipal departments having to do with the enforcement and supervision of labor laws.

Sec. 2. The term "department" shall be construed to mean a separate and distinct branch of Federal, State, provincial, county, or municipal government.

Sec. 3. In the election of officers, selection of place of meeting, and amending constitution and by-laws no department shall have more than five votes in the convention.

Sec. 4. No department in arrears for dues shall be permitted to participate in the deliberations of the convention.

ARTICLE IV.—OFFICERS.

Section 1. The administration of the general association shall devolve upon the officers of this association, who shall constitute the executive committee.

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Sec. 2. The officers of the general association shall be a president, first, second, third, fourth, and fifth vice presidents, and a secretary-treasurer.

Sec. 3. The duties of the president shall be to preside over all meetings of the association and of the executive committee and to appoint all committees. He shall hold office until his successor is elected and qualified, and when he is absent the vice presidents, in order named, shall act in his place and assume his duties.

Sec. 4. The secretary-treasurer shall keep a detailed record of the proceedings of the association and such transactions as shall be deemed necessary, and shall keep an itemized account of all moneys received and disbursed by him during the year, and shall present his report in writing during the convention, and for such services he shall receive fifty dollars ($50) per annum, payable after the publication and distribution of the annual report and transfer of all papers of the association. The secretary-treasurer shall also publish the proceedings of the convention within four months from the close of the last preceding convention, the issue to consist of such number of copies as the executive committee may direct.

Sec. 5. The secretary-treasurer shall pay out no moneys until he shall have made out vouchers therefor, which must also be signed by the president. The secretary-treasurer and president shall sign no vouchers for expenditures of money for other than incidental expenses and printing of report until authorized by the consent of a majority of the executive committee.

Sec. 6. The officers of this association shall be elected by ballot for one year, or until their successors are elected and duly qualified. The term of office shall begin with the adjournment of the annual convention at which the officers are elected, except that of the secretary-treasurer, which shall not expire until after the publication and distribution of the annual report, which must be done within a period not exceeding four months after the date of the convention.

ARTICLE V.—FINANCES.

The annual dues of departments shall be determined upon the following basis: When the department staff consists of one (1) to five (5) persons, ten dollars ($10); six (6) to twenty-five (25) persons, fifteen dollars ($15); twenty-six (26) to seventy-five (75) persons, twenty-five dollars ($25); and where the staff exceeds seventy-five (75) persons, fifty dollars ($50). The executive committee may order an assessment levied upon the affiliated departments not to exceed the sum of one year's dues.

ARTICLE VI.—MEETINGS.

The association shall meet annually. Such meetings shall be held in the place decided upon by the association at the last preceding convention, and at a time fixed by the executive committee.

ARTICLE VII.—RULES OF ORDER.

The deliberations of the convention shall be governed by Cushing's Manual.

ARTICLE VIII.—ORDER OF BUSINESS.

1. Roll call of members.
2. Appointment of special committees.
3. Reports of officers.
4. Reports of committees.

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5. Reports of States and Provinces on new legislation.
6. Unfinished business.
7. New business.
8. Selection of place of meeting.
9. Election of officers.
10. Adjournment.

ARTICLE IX.—AMENDMENTS.

Amendments to the constitution and by-laws of this association may be made by the presentation of the proposed amendment in writing at a regular session of any annual convention. A two-thirds vote of the duly accredited representatives, as provided for in section 3 of Article III shall be necessary for the adoption of the amendment.

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DEVELOPMENT OF THE ASSOCIATION OF GOVERNMENTAL LABOR OFFICIALS.

ASSOCIATION OF CHIEFS AND OFFICIALS OF BUREAUS OF LABOR.

No.	Date.	Convention held at—	President.	Secretary-Treasurer.
1	September, 1883	Columbus, Ohio	H. A. Newman	Henry Luskey.
2	June, 1884	St. Louis, Mo	do	Do.
3	June, 1885	Boston, Mass	Carroll D. Wright	John S. Lord.
4	June, 1886	Trenton, N. J	do	E. R. Hutchins.
5	June, 1887	Madison, Wis	do	Do.
6	May, 1888	Indianapolis, Ind	do	Do.
7	June, 1889	Hartford, Conn	do	
	1890	Des Moines, Iowa	No meeting	Do.
8	May, 1891	Philadelphia, Pa	Carroll D. Wright	Frank H. Betton.
9	May, 1892	Denver, Colo	Charles F. Peck	Do.
	1893	Albany, N. Y		
10	May, 1894	Washington, D. C	Carroll D. Wright	L. G. Powers.
11	September, 1895	Minneapolis, Minn	do	Do.
12	June, 1896	Albany, N. Y	do	Samuel B. Horne.
13	May, 1897	Nashville, Tenn	do	Do.
14	June, 1898	Detroit, Mich	do	Do.
15	July, 1899	Augusta, Me	do	Do.
16	July, 1900	Milwaukee, Wis	do	James M. Clark.
17	May, 1901	St. Louis, Mo	do	Do.
18	April, 1902	New Orleans, La	do	Do.
19	April, 1903	Washington, D. C	do	Do.
20	July, 1904	Concord, N. H	do	Do.
21	September, 1905	San Francisco, Calif	do	W. L. A. Johnson.
22	July, 1906	Boston, Mass	Charles P. Neill	Do.
23	July, 1907	Norfolk, Va	do	Do.
24	August, 1908	Detroit, Mich	do	Do.
25	June, 1909	Rochester, N. Y	do	Do.

INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF FACTORY INSPECTORS.

1	June, 1887	Philadelphia Pa	Rufus R. Wade	Henry Dorn.
2	August, 1888	Boston, Mass	do	Do.
3	August, 1889	Trenton, N. J	do	Do.
4	August, 1890	New York, N. Y		
5	August, 1891	Cleveland, Ohio		
6	September, 1892	Hartford, Conn		
7	September, 1893	Chicago, Ill	John Franey	Mary A. O'Reilly.
8	September, 1894	Philadelphia, Pa	do	Evan H. Davis.
9	September, 1895	Providence, R. I		
10	September, 1896	Toronto, Canada		
11	August and September, 1897.	Detroit, Mich	Rufus R. Wade	Alzina P. Stevens.
12	September, 1898	Boston, Mass	do	Joseph L. Cox.
13	August, 1889	Quebec, Canada		
14	October, 1900	Indianapolis, Ind		
15	September, 1901	Niagara Falls, N. Y		
16	December, 1902	Charleston, S. C		
17	August, 1903	Montreal, Canada	James Mitchell	David F. Spees.
18	September, 1904	St. Louis, Mo	Daniel H. McAbee	Do.
19	August, 1905	Detroit, Mich	Edgar T. Davies	C. V. Hartzell.
20	June, 1906	Columbus, Ohio	Malcolm J. McLead	Thos. Keity.
21	June, 1907	Hartford, Conn	John H. Morgan	Do.
22	June, 1908	Toronto, Canada	George L. McLean	Do.
23	June, 1909	Rochester, N. Y	James T. Burke	Do.

JOINT MEETINGS OF THE ASSOCIATION OF CHIEFS AND OFFICIALS OF BUREAUS OF LABOR AND INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF FACTORY INSPECTORS.

24	August, 1910	Hendersonville, N. C., and Columbia, S. C.	J. Ellery Hudson	E. J. Watson.
25	September, 1911	Lincoln, Nebr	Louis Guyon	W. W. Williams.
26	September, 1912	Washington, D. C	Edgar T. Davies	Do.
27	May, 1913	Chicago, Ill	A. L. Garrett	W. L. Mitchell.

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DEVELOPMENT OF THE ASSOCIATION OF GOVERNMENTAL LABOR OFFICIALS—Concluded.

ASSOCIATION OF GOVERNMENTAL LABOR OFFICIALS.

Resulting from the Amalgamation of the Association of Chiefs and Officials of Bureaus of Labor and the International Association of Factory Inspectors.

No.	Date.	Convention held at—	President.	Secretary-Treasurer.
1	June, 1914	Nashville, Tenn	Barney Cohen	W. L. Mitchell.
2	June-July, 1915	Detroit, Mich	do	John T. Fitzpatrick.
3	July, 1916	Buffalo, N. Y	James V. Cunningham	Do.
4	September, 1917	Asheville, N. C	Oscar Nelson	Do.
5	June, 1918	Des Moines, Iowa	Edwin Mulready	Linna E. Bresette.
6	June, 1919	Madison, Wis	C. H. Younger	Do.
7	July, 1920	Seattle, Wash	Geo. P. Hambrecht	Do.

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PROCEEDINGS OF THE SEVENTH ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE ASSOCIATION OF GOVERNMENTAL LABOR OFFICIALS OF THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA, SEATTLE, WASH., JULY 12–15, 1920.

MONDAY, JULY 12—EVENING SESSION.

GEORGE P. HAMBRECHT, PRESIDENT, PRESIDING.

The convention was formally opened by the president, Mr. George P. Hambrecht, at the hall of the chamber of commerce, at 8 p. m., Monday evening, July 12.

Invocation was given by Rev. E. W. Miles.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME.

By Hon. L. T. HART, governor of Washington.

I hardly know whether you would be interested or whether it might be deemed appropriate for me to take a few moments of your time to tell you of some of the wonders of our State, in which we are all so deeply interested and in which we take such great pride.

I presume all of you, coming from all sections of the continent, have heard of the wonderful timber in our great lumber region—our fir, spruce, cedar, and hemlock, unequaled elsewhere—where hundreds of mills are kept busily engaged, while thousands of men are engaged in felling the timber and getting it to the mills where it is prepared for the market; of our ores for the smelters; of our numerous mines where coal for fuel is mined. You who are engaged in the industrial life of the Nation know something of these things, and may I, therefore, just for a minute or two, tell you of some of the wonderful things we do out here? We raise wheat, 35,000,000 or 40,000,000 bushels of it, in the little section of our State on the other side of the Cascade Mountains. In one of the counties over in the central part of the State where 30 years ago nothing grew but sagebrush and jack rabbits, with the use of water we have marketed $42,000,000 worth of products, besides what we have saved for home consumption. Another little section less than 25 years ago lying a barren waste, with the use of water, produced $16,000,000 or $18,000,000 worth of market products. Our sheep industry, our wool production, almost equals that of any other State, and our hops are unexcelled in the United States, and this all in a State only a little over 30 years old—not yet 31 years since we were admitted into the Union. We have the finest schools and school buildings. We are a little slow in the pay of our teachers, I think, but we have under consideration now a plan, which we hope in the coming session of the legislature will be enacted into law, which will be something new to the people of the United States and will materially lessen the cost of operation of our schools and yet give us the money to increase the pay of the teachers 50, 75, or 100

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per cent. And we have churches, too, and good religious work in all its branches.

We have been very deeply interested in the industrial advancement of the country. Washington is one of the pioneers in industrial legislation. I do not say it is the first but it is among the first in advanced industrial legislation for the benefit of the laboring people. I will not dwell upon our industrial insurance act for I see that Mr. Hughes, of our own industrial insurance commission, is to address you. Suffice it to say that it is working quite well. It may possibly need some changes as we learn from experience—most legislation does—but our laws for the safety of employees, reasonable hours, good, sanitary working conditions, and all of those things are well up to those of the most advanced States in the Union, and I think nearly up to the best legislation of the Provinces.

I am not unmindful that in this afterwar period a condition exists throughout both countries not unlike the conditions following every other great struggle. After the greatest conflict the world has ever known, and even during the days when we were engaged in the world-wide war, when our people were all busily engaged in raising an army, sending it overseas, in providing the rations to support that army in the way of provisions, clothing, ammunition, arms, transportation, and matters of that kind—as well as in raising money, assisting in the sale of Government bonds, soliciting for the Red Cross, Young Men's Christian Association, and Salvation Army, which were of such great benefit—while we were thus busily engaged there came among us from foreign lands representatives of organizations preaching disloyalty, discontent, and sedition, and while many of us heard the ravings of these apostles, we passed them by because we were busily engaged in doing our bit in the endeavor to win the war, never thinking it was possible that these seeds of disloyalty could gain foothold and take root in the hearts of the people, so patriotic we believed them all to be, giving up all manner of business other than the things necessary to carry the war to a successful conclusion. But when the armistice had been signed, when the reorganization came, the spirit of discontent with conditions had been instilled in their hearts, and we found in our State here, as I have no doubt you have found in most of the States, that this teaching had taken root and was growing, and it was affecting not only those who had been trained under tyrannous conditions, but also those who had been blessed with the birthright of free America. Minds were being poisoned, and these people themselves were being led into an organization to curse the Constitution of the country and the laws of the land. Sometimes when they are brought up with a short halt they are ready at once to claim the protection of the Constitution, but I thank God that the fathers of the Nation in writing the Constitution extended it only to the people of the United States and to their posterity. All the rights that are guarded by the Constitution of the United States are for the protection of the people of the United States and not of the citizens of Russia or of Germany wherever they may sojourn.

We are endeavoring in our feeble way to show to our people that these teachings are not for the good of the Nation. This is the best Nation in the world, or, speaking with deference to those of you who

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pay homage to the King, second only to the mother nation, and there is no place on earth where a young man or woman with an honest heart and willing hand is offered better or greater opportunities of life than right here in the northwestern corner of the United States of America.

Here we invite industries which by reason of our location, our markets, our climatic conditions, and our raw materials, can produce and prepare products from their mills and their factories to enter the markets of the world at a reasonable profit, but that profit must be made only when labor has been well paid, under good sanitary conditions, and any industry which can not do that and compete with the markets of the world is not one desired in the State of Washington. The industry which attempts to manufacture a raw product and cut into the markets of the world only by coining the blood of labor into money is not one we want nor one we expect to tolerate, and the man who undertakes it is no better citizen than the laborer who throws a monkey wrench into the machinery or tries to get along with 60 per cent production and obtain 100 per cent pay. Neither is desired. May I express to you the hope not alone of the people of our State but of all States and all lands that by your work, your study, your conferences, and your cooperation, the day may not be very far distant when labor shall recognize the rights of the employer, and the employer shall recognize the employee as the same flesh and blood as himself and his children, and when men will be glad to cooperate for the greatest good to the greatest number of people, with reasonable hours, good pay, and good sanitary conditions, in turning the raw material into the finished product, that both employer and employee may have the greatest prosperity, the greatest degree of happiness, and their posterity shall grow and be trained in our educational institutions to become worthy citizens of this beautiful country.

In this hope I greet you, and trust that your sojourn here will be so pleasant that when you return to your homes and tell of the beauties of the State of Washington you will want to come back to us or send some of the good representatives of your own home people, and we will bid them the same hearty welcome we accord to you.

[A paper on "Labor and its relation to citizenship and production," by Frank L. Glynn, of Buffalo, N. Y., was read by Mr. Hambrecht. In this paper the need of a better educational system, so that children may be better prepared for industrial life, was stressed. The author mentioned the fact that in New York City out of 85,000 children who entered the second grade in the elementary schools only 43,000 finished the eighth grade and of the 21,000 who entered high school only 4,000 were graduated, which indicates the large proportion of children who enter industrial life unequipped with any special training and who, in consequence, are apt to become misfits or failures. He advocated a "commission of labor relations" in each labor bureau, which should strive to bring about sound industrial relations, and should plan and develop a system of training and promotion from the employment office of the factory to the superintendent's chair, thus providing a citizenship in production which would mean progress and promotion in place of the discontent and failure now so prevalent and productive of so great a part of the present industrial unrest.]

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TUESDAY, JULY 13—MORNING SESSION.

GEORGE P. HAMBRECHT, PRESIDENT, PRESIDING.

A roll call of States was asked for, to which 16 States, 2 Provinces, and the United States Government responded. [For list of States and Provinces, and delegates thereof, responding to the roll call see pp. 167 and 168.]

The CHAIRMAN. Owing to the fact that a few people who were to take part in our program are not able to be here at this time, we will have to change somewhat the order of the program, and I shall at this time call upon Mr. Stewart Scrimshaw, manager of the industrial relations department of Kearney & Trecker, Milwaukee, Wis., who will talk to you on "Industrial apprenticeship," a subject which I am sure will be of great interest to all of you.

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INDUSTRIAL APPRENTICESHIP.

By STEWART SCRIMSHAW, manager, industrial relations department of Kearney & Trecker, Milwaukee, Wis.

It has been said that apprenticeship is new, but it is obvious that it is nothing new, because all of you realize that in order to learn or accomplish anything in any line of work it is necessary to apprentice ourselves. In other words, apprenticeship is the real teacher. Apprenticeship was exercised in the days of Queen Elizabeth, but the practice was not so advanced in that early age. The contract was written in Greek. It is a strange thing to me that though this institution is so old it is so lightly looked upon when we find ourselves in a condition that is new. Yet we will admit that in this day and age we have an industrial system which, in comparison with the industrial revolutions of that time, is far in advance, and a very important thing. In the last generation or two we have tried to convince ourselves that we have a new order of things, that apprenticeship is a thing to be forgotten, and that there should be some new thing to take its place. Anybody who is doing work for the State knows that if you can go into a factory and find that the men who are being trained there in their work can appreciate the circumstances in which they are placed factory inspection will be an easy proposition.

Something was said about education last night, and I think we can not emphasize too strongly that to accomplish anything in any particular line we must begin with education. We must have intelligent men in our industries. We must know the proper method of getting intelligence in our industries.

As far as Wisconsin has any method, it is simply the supervision of employment. In the supervision of the juvenile we have to proceed step by step. You all realize that in order to train properly you must have definite experience yourself, and that after a certain course of study you can go right in and fit into the industry.

This subject of apprenticeship, also, is not one which can be looked upon from the standpoint of the employer alone. In order to get anywhere with a program there must be coordination of effort on both sides. Some contract has to be entered into and some educational work done.

The first law based on apprenticeship in Wisconsin was not a very successful law and was redrafted in 1915. A law may be on the books and yet not accomplish much. When we got our law on the books and it had received the support of the leaders of both sides, the next step was one of education. The proposition was to go through the State with an educational program and convince the employer of the necessity for the training of mechanics, and that it was necessary from the standpoint of the trade-unions to train the men in their occupations. Every employer knows that he is better off if he has well-trained men. Every union knows that if it has

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trained men in its organization it is going to accomplish more. Finally there developed educational trade-unions.

There were people in Wisconsin who thought apprenticeship useless. They do not think that way now. As long as there are good leaders in industry we will be able to get other people to follow their leadership. There are a good many things about apprenticeship which are not as simple as they appear. This is the day of specializing. We want to get men on special machines. Then what is the use of talking about apprenticeship? We can not do away with special operations in trade. We do not want to do away with it, but the big principle underlying this apprenticeship is this, that a boy in his teens is a youth, and until he is 21 he is in charge of the State. The State may allow that boy to stay on a specific operation. When he comes of age and is an individual citizen we can not direct his work. A boy 16 years of age can go into a factory and work on a piece of machinery and stay there right along and do nothing else. On the other hand, a boy who is an apprentice, serving a certain term as a machine hand, a planer, or on any other machinery, may, after that time is up, which may be two or three years, say to himself that he is going to specialize on the planer. Is not that the same thing which is done at an educational institution? When a boy attends high school and takes up certain lines of study before completion of his course of study he is specializing in something. It is a good proposition to turn out well-trained boys. The foundation of the social fabric is intelligent and trained workmen. The apprenticeship law in Wisconsin provides for the specification of definite things in the contract, such as the names of the parties who enter into the agreement, the length of time to be served, and the trade the boy is going to learn. The law provides there should be three copies of the contract, the boy to get one, the employer one, and the State the third. The blanks are arranged to suit any trade and can be secured by any industrial institution or individual who apprentices the boy. The purpose of the contract has become so well known that boys are prepared to make agreements at the proper time. We can not force a man to have an apprentice. Under our present legislative system we have to convince an employer that it is his duty. The main thing is to convince an employer or an employee that apprenticeship is the best thing.

Another interesting angle is that when a boy under agreement, in a printing trade, for instance, after being there two or three years, jumps his contract and works at some other job, it is a violation of the law and he is responsible to the law, but that law is not enforced. Jones may steal a boy from Smith, but when he is confronted with the problem he may say he did not know it. However, I think as a rule no employer will take a boy who is under contract with another firm. We have to exercise vigilance and watch where these boys go, and when they find they are being watched they go back. If there are enough supervisors on the job the boys are made to realize they have a record at the State capitol at Madison and that they are spoiling that record, and they soon do what is right.

When you enter into an agreement of this kind you are helping to lay the foundation of good citizenship. It is a good thing to understand a contract, because nearly every contract is based on integrity and faith.

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A good business man can take care of only two or three boys. He can not engage many boys and make the plan a success. There always has been and always will be a limitation of apprenticeship in trade, as there is a feeling that you must not get too many men in any particular line or you will flood the market. There was a limit of apprenticeship before trade-unions were ever heard of. If you want to train a worker properly you must have him in the proper environment, where he can learn. If I run an institution and have only one good workman and four or five apprentices, they can not properly learn the trade.

DISCUSSION.

DELEGATE. How does the percentage work out under the law, that is, percentage of apprentices? Does it compare with the percentage of trade-unions?

Mr. SCRIMSHAW. I have not the figures, but I know positively that it is not much more than 50 per cent of the number that they allow in almost any line, and in most lines very small, even with the educational propaganda. Take the city of Milwaukee, for instance. I think there are about 400 plumbing shops in Milwaukee. If every plumbing shop in Milwaukee would have an apprentice there would be 400 mechanics being trained, but if we could go through the plumbing shops of Milwaukee we would find that about 25 to 40 boys would be the limit in these 400 shops, and these boys could say they are all apprentices.

It is sometimes argued that the trade schools require that a boy be kept in clothing and boarded for a certain time before he gets his trade. In Milwaukee they changed the name of the trade school and called it the technical high school, because parents who had boys who could afford to learn a trade would not send their boys to a trade school, but were willing to send them to the technical high school. You can not have efficiency in the present day unless you combine theory with practice. Our school provides theoretical and practical courses.

DELEGATE. Do girls come under your law?

Mr. SCRIMSHAW. Yes; we have a few girls, not many at the present time. I thought the first thing was to get well established with the boys and some day we might pay attention to the training of girls. Some girls learn to be printers and some special operators, and we have two dressmakers and some in miscellaneous occupations.

DELEGATE. How about the girls who want to learn mechanical trades?

Mr. SCRIMSHAW. We do not have any except in the printing trade.

DELEGATE. How many registered apprenticeships have you in the State?

Mr. SCRIMSHAW. About 1,000. We give the boys a State diploma.

The CHAIRMAN. I have heard a great deal of criticism on the apprenticeship system. Now, I want to ask you a question. What are you doing in your State for the boy or girl who is equipped, schooled, and goes into industry? What have you better to offer as a substitute for what is being done in teaching a boy or girl a trade

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or doing the best that can be done, under the circumstances, to that end? If you have a better system or suggestion we would like to hear it, because we are here to exchange ideas. I do not want to leave the impression, however, that apprenticeship is a substitute for university training or a substitute for a trade or engineering school. Your chief concern and mine is the boy or girl who at 14 years of age has left school. With our complex system of production it is cheaper to specialize on one thing rather than to give that boy a broad training. It is cheaper to put him on one of those automatic, nerve-racking jobs of which he soon tires. Possibly we may relieve him of that situation. What have we to offer as a better solution for that boy or girl who is compelled through force of circumstances to become a wage earner in tender years? The world is never going to suffer on account of increased capacity of wage earners. That argument was made in the eighteenth century. The introduction of machinery has made it possible for you and me and all the community to enjoy things which were not dreamed of as possible 100 years ago. You can buy everything cheaper because machinery has increased production. Of course, there are problems of distribution, but there will be no problem of distribution if there is nothing to distribute. We need not fear overproduction in this country. The problem we are concerned with is perhaps that of equitable disposition. I do not like to feel that there are any of us who fear that production on a large scale is going to hurt this country or the world. It can not.

Another thing that I want to add in this connection is that modern industry might destroy the creative ability in man. I think if we have one desire greater than another, which is intuitive or born within us, it is the desire to create. Starting from the time we made mud pies and lasting until we lay down our working tools it is the desire to work up and contribute something. The worker now has become a part of a gigantic machine. If the creative opportunity is taken away from him he is going to become a dangerous man to himself and to society. If he can not add to the sum total of wealth he is going to want to do something—something that is tangible and the result of which he can see. I sat as a strike mediator a couple of years ago. The employer said I did not know the real desire of the men on strike. He said that all they wanted was the money and the job. I knew from the attitude of the workers that an increased wage would not settle the strike. The mill was locked up. I said I did not believe he knew what was in the workers' minds when he said that all they wanted was work and money. I said to him: Suppose I were the employer and you were the laborer, and I entertained your idea that all a man wants is work and money. You come to me for employment, and I have nothing constructive for you to do, but I do not think you should do nothing and be paid for it, so I tell you I have a pile of stones in my back yard that I want moved and you take the position and do the work. You wheel the stones over, and I give you your wages for the first day. The next day I set you to work to wheel the pile to the middle of the yard. You think it peculiar, but you need the money, so you do it. The next day you want to know whether I have any work for you, and you move the pile from the middle of the yard again. A man may repeat that three or four times, but he will then

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quit the job, and so would you and so would I. There must be a reason for it. I put this question to an association of employers in the East: How many men in your factory to-day are wheeling stones from the center of the yard to-day and back to-morrow? Is it any wonder those minds become incendiary? That is what I mean by increasing the creative spirit in man. I think employers are becoming interested in that question. A man should be so trained in the job that he will become interested in his work.

I would like to touch on another subject but our time is limited and I do not want to take the time myself; but I trust what I have said may be given some reflection, so far as a contribution to this complicated subject of industrial relations is concerned. What few remarks the chair has made will not be open to discussion.

We have with us a member of the United States Board of Mediation and Conciliation, Mr. Whitehead Kluttz, of Washington, D. C., who has consented to fill the vacancy on the program caused by the absence of Mrs. Mary O'Sullivan.

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ADDRESS OF WHITEHEAD KLUTTZ, ASSISTANT COMMISSIONER, UNITED STATES BOARD OF MEDIATION AND CONCILIATION.

While I am quite unprepared to make an address, I do appreciate the opportunity to talk to you informally in response to the very kind request of your president and secretary, for it was in order to meet and know this splendid body of men and women engaged in high social service that I have crossed this continent. With you I regret that Mrs. O'Sullivan is not able to be here.

I am enjoying greatly the addresses that are being made and the discussion following them. What your president so eloquently said last night about the golden rule being the ultimate key to the solution of every industrial controversy appealed to me very strongly. The industrial problem is a human problem and therefore in the deepest sense a moral problem, for out of the heart are all the great issues of man's life. The Carpenter uttered what seems to me the profoundest truth, the most luminous words that ever fell from any lips, when He said: "The kingdom of Heaven is within you." If that spirit of the kingdom, freighted with forbearance and service and love, could only fill the hearts of employer and employee, of man and man, what a wonderful difference it would make in life.

Your discussions here, your work at home, touch deeply a theme and a thing that lie very near my heart, the conservation of that greatest resource of the Nation and the world—the life of the child. More precious treasure lies hid in the heart and brain of a little child than in all the mines of the world. I believe in the divine right of every child to burgeon forth all that is in him, to be and to do all that it is possible for him to be and to do. The society which lets its industry sin against these little ones is grinding up the seed corn. It is bartering not only the birthright of the child but its own future as well.

I hold, too, and with deep conviction, that the most fateful factor in every child's life is his home; that there is no higher or more urgent need in this time than the need for parents whose hearts are filled with the passion of the divine fatherhood and the divine motherhood, and who will not cast upon society the duties which are theirs. I believe in the holy trinity of father, mother, and child. I like the spirit of Enoch Arden, poetic and practical:

> In Enoch woke, with his first babe's first cry,
> The noble wish to save all earnings to the uttermost
> And give his child a better bringing up
> Than his had been or hers.

This day's need of increased production has been emphasized. War's heavy hand has been laid upon the world, destroying millions of lives and billions of wealth. It is only by exerting our utmost efforts, in whatever field of life they may lie, to increasing production and decreasing waste, to rediscovering the lost virtues of thrift and economy by all the world's people, that the intolerably high cost of living may be beaten down and universal bankruptcy be avoided.

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When we speak of production our thoughts naturally turn to transportation, which assures distribution and opens markets for commodities, and without which any considerable production in field or mine or factory is impossible. In such a country as ours, with its immense distances, adequate and rapid transportation is peculiarly vital. When our experiment as a nation was beginning it was the confident prediction of European statesmen we could never hold together from Maine to Georgia. A little later Thomas H. Benton declared in the Senate that the United States could never hope to surmount the barrier of the Rocky Mountains. Although uninformed critics have called the great Missourian shortsighted, he was in advance of the opinion of his time, which could not conceive how the vast spaces of the West could ever be peopled and linked with the Union. These men spoke not unwisely in the light of the knowledge they had of the railroad, but with these long lines of steel spanning the prairies and deserts and overleaping the lofty passes the impossible became practical and dreams became realities.

Without the railroad and the railroad men this continent of interminable distances would never have been a nation, could never have become America. I do not believe that the brave armies of the North, even with other great advantages of wealth and numbers, could, without their incomparably better railroad facilities and communications, have overthrown the embattled chivalry of the South. I think the war between the States would never have occurred if that generation had known, as that which followed it did, the constant and rapid interchange of goods and ideas, of communication and understanding by rail, leaving out of account the subsequent great contributions made by the telegraph, the telephone, the motor, and the wireless.

Because without the continued and continuous functioning of our railways our life can not go on, because every interruption of transportation is a public misfortune, the National Government has created its agencies for the purpose of settling disputes between railroad employers and employees in order that the trains may be kept moving. You may be interested in a brief résumé of such agencies and laws. I am glad to see that there are some railroad men here, including Mr. Morrissey, who has had such an important part in the railroad world and in the settlement of railroad labor disputes. I have here some copies of a rather comprehensive report on the work of the United States Board of Mediation and Conciliation, and I hope you will avail yourselves of these and also ask me any questions you may wish.

In 1888 Congress passed the first act relating to the settlement of labor disputes in interstate transportation. This law proved not to be workable and was never invoked because of the fact that it contained a provision which involved compulsory investigation of such controversies. Ten years later, in 1898, following efforts of employers and employees in behalf of a practicable plan for Federal mediation and arbitration of these disputes, what came to be known as the Erdman Act was passed by Congress, superseding the former law. No compulsory features were included, and the law was limited to disputes involving employees directly connected with train movement. The Erdman Act is the basis of the act of June 15, 1913, known

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as the Newlands Act, the only radical change being in the creation of the Board of Mediation and Conciliation with a commissioner charged directly with the execution of the law. The text of all these acts is in the report I have here. Either party to the controversy may invoke the law whenever there is an actual or threatened interruption of transportation to the serious detriment of the public interest, or the board may proffer its services in serious cases if such action seems desirable. The board has settled about 150 cases, chiefly by mediation, besides ironing out many vexed and threatening situations which do not appear upon the record.

The thing that appeals most strongly to me in this work upon which I have just entered is the friendly and serviceable spirit of it. It seemed to me an opportunity for vital service. A wise man has said, in effect, that if you can only get people to meet each other, if you can bring them together around the table of common counsel and get them to talk things over, accommodations and settlements can almost invariably be made. We are all just human beings together, traveling the same highway between birth and death. I believe in a real brotherhood of men and deplore these artificial lines of separation and distinction which have been run through our human family. Burns sang the faith of democracy:

> For a' that and a' that,
> It's coming yet for a' that,
> That man to man the whole warld o'er
> Shall brothers be for a' that.

It is interesting to note, in connection with the passage by Congress of the Esch-Cummins, or Transportation, Act of 1920, in which the Railroad Labor Board is established, that there is no conflict between this law and the Newlands law nor between this board and the mediation board; but, on the contrary, there is every reason to anticipate that the two will work together in complete harmony. It was after the fullest consideration of the whole railroad problem that the two great committees of Congress came to the conclusion that the older law and the Board of Mediation and Conciliation should be preserved in the interest of the settlement of railroad labor disputes. Representative Esch himself has pointed out that under section 300 of the transportation act there is no Federal agency other than this board for the settlement of disputes arising on interstate electric railways, and that some of the most intensive strikes have occurred upon these lines.

The United States Board of Mediation and Conciliation remains unimpaired, and also without conflict with the Railroad Labor Board, its unique and exclusive functions of mediation and conciliation, of exercising its friendly offices as "go-between," clearly distinguished from the function of arbitration and decision exercised by the Railroad Labor Board. The mediation board makes and can make no decisions; its whole purpose is to get the parties to come together in voluntary agreement, the most satisfactory kind of settlement, wherever it is possible. Legally as well as logically the order is mediation first, and that failing, arbitration and award. Section 301 of the transportation act provides that carriers and employees "must exert every reasonable effort and adopt every available means" to avoid traffic interruption from labor disputes. The words "every reasonable effort" relate to direct negotiations be-

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tween the parties to the dispute; the words "every available means" refer to the employment of any and all agencies provided by law to aid in such settlements, the act of 1913 and the board created under it offering such available means through the friendly offices of mediation and conciliation. The first decision handed down by the Railroad Labor Board declined the applicant's petition for hearing on the ground that it did not show that the applicant had exerted such efforts and adopted such means as required by law.

Our discussions here are taking such a wide and inspiring range that I feel emboldened in these last words to try to express a very great truth and to illustrate it by a story. Like all great truths, it is old as the heart of man. I believe that every man and woman who works at any worthy thing needs to see that work in its relation to life, to look upon it neither as the sale of a commodity nor the manipulation of a machine, but as a service to mankind. To see and to feel that means not merely higher efficiency and increased production, but it puts a song in the heart, kindles the light of vision in dulled eyes, and lifts the soul to the hills where man walks with God.

As three men were cutting marble during the building of a great cathedral, a man passed by and spoke to each of the three workers in turn. To the first he said, "What are you doing here?" the man replied, "I am getting a pound a day." He passed on and addressed the next, "What are you doing here?" "I am cutting this marble." He went on to the third worker and asked again, "What are you doing here?" The man answered, "I am building this cathedral." He was the only one of the three who had any real conception of what he was doing. Labor and capital and all humanity need that spirit for the good of all.

Life is a mirror of king and slave,
'Tis just what we are and do;
Then give to the world the best you have
And the best will come back to you.

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TUESDAY, JULY 13—AFTERNOON SESSION.

FRANK E. HOFFMAN, ASSISTANT COMMISSIONER OF LABOR OF MINNESOTA, PRESIDING.

CHILD LABOR AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

[NOTE: Owing to a misunderstanding on the part of the reporter, the report of this session is incomplete.]

The CHAIRMAN. We have for discussion this afternoon a subject which is of vital interest to most of us. I hope that every delegate here present will contribute something. We should like to hear what your State is doing for the betterment of the children in the way of enforcing the child-labor law. Of course, we know that many of the States have child-labor laws, but are they enforced? That is the important thing. If they are not enforced, why not? Is it because of weakness in the law, or in its administration?

We had hoped that Miss Nila F. Allen, head of the Child Labor Tax Division, Washington, D. C., would be here to present to us the administration of the Federal child-labor law, but Miss Allen is not feeling well this morning and has asked to be excused. We trust that she will be able to appear on the program at a later time.

I have the great pleasure to introduce to you Miss Emma Duke, representative of the National Child Labor Committee, New York, who will talk to you on child-labor laws and their administration.

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ADMINISTRATION OF CHILD-LABOR LAWS.

By Miss EMMA DUKE, National Child Labor Committee, New York City.

A study of the administration of child-labor laws in the various States has not recently been one of my duties. I have, however, had an opportunity to observe in the past few months the administration of the California child-labor law.

I might say here that "child labor" is generally thought to be that type of child work which is done in a section remote from that in which we reside or in the kinds of industries in which we are not interested. For example, I have heard employers of children in cotton mills say that such work was done in a clean, well-ventilated place, was not laborious, and taught children habits of industry, but they sincerely deplored the fact that in the agricultural areas children were forced to toil in the broiling sun at the most strength-taxing jobs.

As you know, California is one of the richest and most important of our agricultural States, and the agricultural industry is carried on in that State on a big scale. Every variety of climate exists simultaneously within its borders; when ice is being cut in the northern part of the State, cotton is being picked in the southern part. Perhaps no county in any State produces more cotton than do the enormous ranches of the Imperial Valley.

Cotton in Imperial County is picked more or less intermittently from October to March. Hundreds of families come in and are brought in for this work.

Some of the largest cotton holdings are owned by British and American corporations, with offices and stockholders in other States. One of the important newspapers in the State also has large cotton holdings. On all of these large ranches children of school age are employed, in violation of the law, during days and hours when the schools are regularly in session.

Another important crop cultivated on a big scale is asparagus. The greatest asparagus area in the world is found in the islands of the Sacramento River. Asparagus is considered a 100-day crop, and families begin to come into the Sacramento Valley to work on these fields during the month of February. From one San Francisco school alone 150 children left early in the spring to work on this crop.

Hops and tomatoes also are raised on a big scale, and are cultivated and harvested by family labor (which means children) during the school session.

Berries, peas, currants, cherries, apricots, peaches, and prunes come along later, and the families who have taken their children out of school for one crop frequently follow along on other crops in the same county or in other counties.

The State of California in its statutes guarantees to every child from 8 to 16 years its "educational rights," and it has charged the local authorities with the duty of enforcing the law.

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The laws of California also guarantee to each child freedom from toil during the days and hours when school is in session, and the commissioner of labor statistics is charged with enforcement of the law. One of these laws supplements and strengthens the other, but if one, or neither, is enforced the child suffers. Inasmuch as thousands are working in the agricultural industry during the hours and on the days when school is in session, it is obvious that these laws are not administered.

School authorities in some counties have sought to administer the law by appointing an attendance officer. The State law requires each county to employ an attendance officer. The majority of the counties, however, have ignored this provision of the law. When the county school superintendent of one county pointed out to the school board that this law was mandatory, one member of the board said, "If we have an attendance officer, how can I get my prunes picked?" Where a county is largely rural, it is almost inevitable that some of the members of the school board will be ranchers, and it happens in some cases that some of these ranchers are themselves violating the child-labor law by employing children.

I have found an instance where a county school superintendent himself was a rancher illegally employing children. This man said he had sympathy for the working classes and would not be a party to stopping these children from working (during the hours and days when school is in session), "law or no law." He favors declaring school vacations whenever child labor can be profitably used in the agricultural industry. In some school districts in several States this is done. In the particular county referred to, the county superintendent deplored the fact that the teachers' association protested so that the school board was unable to put over the split vacations. The teachers claim that school vacations should be planned in the interests of education, and not according to the convenience of industry. The county superintendent said, "The teachers just want this continuous vacation so that they can go to summer school." It does not seem to be such a reprehensible thing to some of us that the teachers wish this opportunity to improve in their profession.

In many cases the superintendents, principals, and teachers show the greatest concern because of their inability to get the proper support of their school boards in enforcing the compulsory education law.

In the past year California, in common with other States, has suffered from a shortage in teachers and in school buildings. Some county superintendents, however, have called attention to the fact that a school in one district may have its full quota, or may be overcrowded, and a school in an adjoining or near-by district may have only 20, 15, 10, or even less pupils. In some counties this has been to some extent overcome by the rearrangement of school districts, and the installation of a system of school busses. The big auto busses sometimes make two trips before and after school to transport the children.

It is impossible, and undesirable, to enact a law prohibiting people from migrating if they wish to do so. When they come into such an overcrowded school district, violators of the child labor law point to the absurdity of enforcing the law when the school facilities are

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inadequate: "What would these children be doing if they were not picking cotton or cutting asparagus, or working in hops and tomatoes?"

Many of the school authorities, however, feel that if the children were not permitted to labor on these big agricultural projects, the ranchers would be required to employ adult labor, and if they employed adult labor only, then the inducement to parents to bring their children into these districts would disappear. With a vigorous, constant enforcement of the child labor law, one of the greatest obstacles in the way of the enforcement of the compulsory education law would disappear. For example, a prosperous shoemaker in San Francisco takes his children out of school in February, closes up his shop, and goes up to the islands of the Sacramento to work them. The migration occurs only because of the inducement to employ children. Family after family testify that they would not come into these child-employing areas excepting for the fact that their children can work.

Easterners can hardly realize what an enormous area California covers. Its area is greater than the combined areas of the New England States, New York, New Jersey, Delaware, and Ohio. Besides that, deserts and mountains make travel difficult. At present the appropriation of the bureau of labor statistics makes the adequate enforcement of this law practically impossible. The law makes no provision for child-labor inspectors. The solution of the child-labor problem in California can not be brought about unless provision is made for such inspectors, with an allowance for automobiles and other travel expenses.

Another remedy has been suggested by some Californians, and that is that State teachers be provided who might work on a sort of circuit; for example, 6, 10, or 20 (or whatever number might be required) teachers might be assigned to Imperial County from October to March. Then, as the families migrated to other places of importance, these teachers might be scattered to the principal points. It has been suggested that existing buildings be made available for them, or that temporary buildings be supplied. Many of the local school authorities, however, have felt that this would be unnecessary if the child-labor law were enforced, i. e., that if the inducement to migrate to these places were removed, the educational problem would be greatly lessened.

The fact remains, however, that, with the best intentions in the world, it is not possible for the commissioner of labor statistics to enforce the child-labor law with the inadequate means for so doing which have been placed at his disposal.

DISCUSSION.

The CHAIRMAN. We would like a free discussion of this talk, and I will ask Miss Louise Schutz, of Minnesota, to lead in the discussion.

Miss LOUISE SCHUTZ, superintendent, Bureau of Women and Children of Minnesota. Minnesota has good child-labor laws, but I am free to confess that they are not enforced as well as they ought to be. We do all in our power to curb child labor, but we have but four factory inspectors whose duty it is to enforce the laws for women in the State of Minnesota and the child-labor laws as well.

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I have given considerable thought to the rural school situation and the rural school problem, and have read a good deal along this line. We feel that we have a problem in the cities, but I feel more and more that children in the rural communities suffer from lack of education to a greater degree than do children in the urban communities. Usually, if children are not going to school, they are working either on their father's farm or on the farm of a neighbor. It is unfair to ask the county superintendent to enforce the compulsory school attendance law. It is of paramount importance to him, usually, that he retain his job at any cost. If he tries to enforce compulsory school attendance laws he is liable to jeopardize his interests with the voters. Since the ordinary county superintendent is dependent upon the voters for his election, we can not expect him to overlook his own interests in his attempt to enforce the school laws.

In our State the department of labor is supposed to assist in the enforcement of these laws. In going around the State we always offer our services to the different county superintendents, but are seldom called upon for aid. One county superintendent said that if his teachers reported truancy in their district they would be dismissed by the school board. In another county, where a 12-year-old girl was out of school working on the farm for her father, the county superintendent, a young woman, said that she did not want an order served on the farmer because she knew that if an order was served he would not obey and a prosecution would have to result. She did not want to antagonize the farmer by having him prosecuted.

Authorities who have given the subject of the rural child and his schooling considerable attention seem to think that one solution might be the selection of county truant officers. I suppose the idea is to have a truant officer selected by the county commissioners or possibly by the county school boards. It would be the duty of this person to see that all the children in his county were in school.

I might go a little further and suggest that a sum be set aside by the State to be used to assist those counties which live up to certain regulations in regard to school attendance set by the department of education. Inspectors might be sent out to the different counties to check up the records of the truant officer. Then if the inspector found that the county was living up to the requirements specified by the department of education the school fund would be forthcoming. If the county did not live up to the requirements as specified it would not receive the county fund.

As you see, I have not worked out the idea thoroughly, but it does seem to me that some such arrangement might be found much more effective than our present system. The law that we now try to enforce in Minnesota is inadequate. I would like to suggest as feasible the plan of having a county truant officer. I would like to hear from those present who have had actual experience with a county truant officer and from others who have made a study of this problem. Is there some other solution that might be offered?

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FUNCTIONS OF THE STATE OFFICIAL IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

By JOHN CALLAHAN, director of vocational education, Wisconsin.

Continuation schools and vocational guidance are two of the State's best means of making desirable citizens of the boys and girls who are obliged to leave school early in the grades. Efforts on the part of the State of Wisconsin to assist the boys and girls who leave school early in life were first made by the State in 1909, when the legislature authorized the appointment of a commission to investigate conditions. It was found that the extension department of the University of Wisconsin failed to meet the situation fully, as the pressing need was for assistance for those who had left school in the second, third, and fourth grades. This led to the establishment of the part-time and continuation schools. In 1909 I was sent to Europe to study methods and wrote a report for the 1911 legislature, which resulted in the enactment of laws which made possible the establishment of the present system.

Each city has a local board of industrial education appointed by the regular board of education. This board is composed of two employers, two employees, and the city superintendent of schools. The board has authority to assess a local tax, which goes into the municipal budget, and which amounts in Milwaukee to 1½ mills. The amount of money raised in Milwaukee for this work last year was close to $1,000,000. The State's first appropriation for the work in 1911 was $35,000, and last year the amount was $255,000.

The effort of the continuation and part-time schools has been not to draw pupils from the regular schools, but to send them back. Because of the recognized benefit of this work the age limit for the continuation and part-time schools has been raised from 16 to 17 years and the hours of the school work a week increased from four to eight. Last year the number of students in this school in Milwaukee was about 10,000 and the earnings were estimated at $4,500,000 a year, while they were attending school one day a week.

Employers are satisfied with the system, as out of a large number of questionnaires sent out to obtain the employers' viewpoint, practically all came back with a favorable expression. In many States the law makes the establishment of these schools mandatory, while in Washington it is merely permissive. In Massachusetts the law was made mandatory by a favorable vote of every city. Continuation schools will be opened in Seattle for the first time next fall, and prospects at present are very hopeful for a fine program and large attendance. All of this proves that the program for continuation schools is growing and the doctrine spreading.

[A paper on "The School Man's Viewpoint on Vocational Education," by R. B. Dudson, superintendent of schools, Madison, Wis., was read, but was not reported.]

(President Hambrecht then took the chair.)

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The CHAIRMAN. I had hoped this afternoon to complete our program on child welfare, but as yet we have not heard from Mr. Siemers, Mrs. Trumbull, or Miss Allen, and as the banquet has been arranged for to-night and the hour is growing late it seems necessary to carry over the rest of the program until morning. Before we adjourn I want to announce the following committees:

Resolutions committee.—Mrs. Luella Cox, Indiana; M. L. Shipman, North Carolina; J. N. McLeod, Calgary, Alberta, Canada.

Constitution committee.—Frank E. Hoffman, Minnesota; Alice McFarland, Kansas; William E. Duncan, Connecticut; Linna E. Bresette, Kansas.

Auditing committee.—J. D. Seaman, Iowa; Stella McLeod, Michigan; J. N. Hagan, North Dakota.

Credential committee.—W. L. Morrissey, Colorado; Louise Schutz, Minnesota; C. H. Younger, Washington.

I think it will be well for the committees to arrange their meetings as soon as possible. Remember that we have a very interesting program on "Women in industry" planned for to-morrow, and we would like to be able to start the program promptly at 9 o'clock.

Do not forget the banquet that has been arranged at the Washington Annex at 6 o'clock. We hope to have every member at the banquet. Mr. Charles E. Whelan, president of the Rotary Club of Madison and national lecturer for the Modern Woodmen of America, will address you on "Our Country," and I am sure his message will be a stirring and inspiring one.

[A banquet was held Tuesday evening, July 13, the speaker of the evening being Charles E. Whelan, Rotarian, his subject being "Our Country."]

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WEDNESDAY, JULY 14, MORNING SESSION.

GEORGE P. HAMBRECHT, PRESIDENT, PRESIDING.

CHILD LABOR AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

The CHAIRMAN. The meeting will please come to order. We have part of our program of yesterday still unfinished, and while I do not like to say that the discussion is to be limited beyond that which you would like to give to it, bear this thought in mind, both in asking questions and in answering them, that our program is full for to-day, independent of any discussion that we may have on vocational or industrial training. I would like to have everyone ask such questions as he may have in mind, but do not substitute an address for a question, or the same thing for an answer.

I have the pleasure of introducing at this time Mr. Siemers, who has had charge of a city vocational school, and he will discuss the problem of vocational school teachers from the viewpoint of actual demonstration with the boys and girls who come under his charge.

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PROBLEMS OF THE VOCATIONAL SCHOOL TEACHER.

By A. W. Siemers, of Madison, Wis.

In 1911 Wisconsin passed a vocational school law. In 1912 the University of Wisconsin offered a course primarily to help those who wanted to go into the vocational school field. I was in a class that summer, and I remember distinctly the man who was lecturing to us, a man who had not had any experience but who had vision and ideals, telling us what a wonderful opportunity we had, how we would go out into the field, and these boys and girls of 14 to 16, or 14 to 17 years, would come to us crying, just begging, for an education. Why, the only thing we had to do was to appear before the class, and we would be just simply swamped with questions. Well, we became very much enthused about the whole thing, although if we had stopped to think two minutes we would have known better. Still we went out only too anxious to begin work in that field.

That fall of 1912 I organized the first class in Madison, the first class of part-time pupils, and I remember very well the surprise I had. These people of 14 to 16 years of age, who were out in some wage-earning occupations, were coming to high school with very much the same feeling that they had attended school prior to the time that they were 14 years old. School was more or less of a prison to them. We found out very soon that it was not so much a question of what course or courses of study we had to offer, but it was a question of how closely we could get in touch with the boy.

The very first problem is to get the boy or the girl to have confidence in himself or herself. The boy has lost confidence in himself. Why? A record of that boy will possibly show something like this: He has changed schools two or three times during his school years; he has possibly battled in his own home with illness, and found it necessary to stay out of school, and thus lost a grade; the teachers in the new school possibly did not take quite the interest in him they should, and the boy started out discouraged. He may have been conditioned or have failed. He tried again the next year, but had grown up a little larger than the other boys in the class, and had come to the conclusion at last that he was absolutely no good for school work. If we were to take him in the vocational school or any other school system—it does not make any difference what it is—and immediately place before him problems and texts which are very similar to those that he has had prior to his leaving the regular public schools, there is one sure thing, we could never instill that confidence in him that we are hoping for. A vocational school-teacher must be a most exceptional and unusual person. He must be more than a teacher who has had just a training in a training school and is possibly fitted as far as teaching in a school is concerned, having a certificate or a degree. He must have a keen insight into the make-up of human beings and must understand boys and girls. And I may say here that when applicants come to me I

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ask them quite often: "Have you any brothers and sisters at home?" "Have you any younger brothers and sisters that you have helped take care of?" "What part or interest are you taking in the upkeep of the family?" My reason for asking those questions is to find out, if possible, just how well the applicant understands home conditions, home environment, and home life. We place before the boy a certain given task, a piece of work which we are confident that the boy can do. That may be in the shop or it may be in the regular schoolroom, but something we are sure that the boy can do. We do that for the first two or three days, and then I make it a point, if possible, to call that boy into my office and have a chat with him. I try to find out just what phase of school work has been discouraging to him. Sometimes I get inside information and very often I do not. The truth of the matter is that I have been hoping that the time will come soon when all boys and girls entering the public school will have a record kept not only of their work as it is now, but also of their peculiarities, their interests, and their hobbies. Now, that is a big piece of work, but after the boy gets to be 14 or 16, or at any time, information of that kind will be a guide to the teacher as to what avenue to follow to get in touch with that boy.

The next thing that we find that the boy lacks—and I think that is an outcome of his entire discouragement—is determination. We can not blame the boy very much for that. I think our problem is to educate the parent. We all realize that, but how are we going to do it? It is another problem for the vocational-school teacher. We feel that we who are connected with, possibly, the executive side should give our vocational-school teachers as much time as possible outside of the hours which are given to regular class work, when the vocational-school teacher can visit the parents in the home. We have asked teachers to go on certain afternoons of the week to such and such homes, and they come back with a very cut and dried report—the family is living in such and such a house; there are so many in the family; the amount of money that the wage earner is getting is about so much—and although that information is possibly of some help this is not just the kind of visiting we have in mind.

We had a woman with us last winter who asked and was given the opportunity practically of going whenever she might have time. Without leaving any word at the office she would go to parties or little entertainments. She was known as a good mixer, and she formed a little—not a class, not a club, but just a little gathering, without the women and the girls realizing it, out in certain districts and sections of the city. She gave luncheons to the parents and they entertained her. First of all, of course, she had in mind finding out something of the girls, the daughters of those people, who were attending our schools. But we also found out that the contact which this woman had with the women in the district—it happened to be in the Italian section—was far more than we had ever expected. It was very much that kind of work that Mr. Callahan spoke of yesterday afternoon when he said he believed the real citizenship could be put across by personal contact.

But how are we going to train our teachers? How are we going to have the teachers take that attitude? Well, it is just simply

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trying to find the party fitted for the place. Then if he has not had any training as a teacher, send him to a training school. The State of Wisconsin, and I imagine many other States, has made special provision for the training of teachers, and when we find the right person we ask the State board of vocational training to make arrangements with him for possibly a short training in the training school.

Another problem that the teacher has—and this is common not alone to the vocational-school teacher, but to all—is the attitude which the boy takes toward his school work. Now, just to what extent should we blame the boy for that? If we could take the boy and give him a good sound thrashing for it, would that help the situation any? Isn't it true that if you go into the homes of those boys you will find that the mothers, primarily—very often the fathers, too—feel that the teacher in the school is not treating Johnnie just the right way, and if Johnnie is punished in any way in school and Johnnie comes home with that story they sympathize with him at home? The result is that we have, especially in the vocational school, a large class of boys and girls who lack determination, and because of that lack of determination their attitude toward school work is something which has got to be broken down entirely and then rebuilt.

One other phase of work with which the vocational-school teacher is concerned is the problem of the physical make-up of the boy or the girl. I believe that the time is coming very soon when we will have to exact from all boys and girls more of a class of work which was adopted in Wisconsin last year, and possibly is common to all, and that is living up to the standards of health. In very many cases we find that boys and girls simply can not do the work on account of some physical defect. Madison has appropriated $550,000 for a new vocational high school, a vocational school building. In that building we will house the dentist, the clinic, our own nurses, and also the attendance officer. It is our plan that all boys and girls coming to school are to be regularly taken care of. The feeding of them will be a problem of the nurse.

Another thing we intend to take care of in our new plant is the type of work which is known, possibly, as prevocational work. A variety of lines of work will be offered. The boy will be placed in a shop or at a certain piece of work for six weeks, a record kept of his work, and at the end of that time he will be assigned to another shop or to another classroom and careful analysis made of the work he accomplished during the school year. During the second year he will be directed to certain kinds of work. The work in the classrooms and in the shops will give us the opportunity of finding out, if there is such a thing as finding out, for just what the boy is fitted. During the first year we expect to give the average boy a short course in the shop—in woodworking, in jewelry work, in printing, in bookbinding, etc. The girl will be given work in telephone-exchange work, in textiles, in salesmanship, including bundle wrapping, in nursing, some work in weaving, in arts—that is, in home decoration—and so on. Just what the outcome will be I do not know, but, of course, we are all very expectant. We think we will gather information that will be of real help.

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DISCUSSION.

The CHAIRMAN. Mrs. Trumbull, will you lead the discussion on the question of vocational training?

Mrs. MILLIE TRUMBULL, secretary, Industrial Welfare Commission of Oregon. Speaking from the standpoint of 17 years' actual contact with the working boy and girl in the factories of Oregon, with the product of our public schools as they come to us in Oregon and from other States in the Union, I have yet to hear any talk on vocational education which convinces me that it is valuable, except as it stands as an arraignment of our present public-school system. To my mind, the idea of taking children under the age of 16, or 15, or 18, and devising special systems which will commercialize their childhood is to me the greatest arraignment against the intelligence of this country that was ever made. As long as we expect 14 and 15 and 16 year old boys and girls to support themselves and help support their families we are not teaching Americanism. One speaker yesterday said that civilization began when some particular group way back in the Dark Ages made more than was necessary to support themselves. Civilization did not begin then—exploitation began then. Where any of us make more out of our muscles and our brains, in their productions, and out of the work of others, than it takes to allow us to live comfortably, if we deprive those under us of living comfortably, we are not civilizing, we are exploiting. We have been talking about the "white collar" jobs, and how the boys and girls want to get "white collar" jobs. We have to have them, but we are making them more attractive than we should. We are not teaching democracy when we teach that the man who digs the sewer in the street is not entitled to exactly the same respect as the president of the company that hires him.. And if we teach in our public schools that the janitor of the building is just as important a factor in the educational system as the principal of the school or the superintendent of schools, even though he does not wear the same kind of a collar, we are then teaching democracy, and until we get over the idea that the most important individuals in our industrial system are those who earn the highest salaries we are not teaching American ideals. There is not one of us who in coming to this meeting rode in a Pullman who would not have gone straight to death if the trackwalker had not gone over that track to see that every bolt was tight. We are absolutely dependent upon the workers of this country and can not get along without any of them. Let us recognize the importance of all of them, and then we will teach our children, and the children in our public schools will be taught, that anybody, as long as he is a worker and not a leaner, is important in the world.

Now, I heard a good deal yesterday, and it was very interesting, to the effect that the children who go from the public schools into our vocational groups need to be taught habits of industry, habits of skill; they need to have their social and civic conscience stirred; and there are so many things that must be taken into consideration. When the United States Government went into the war it took every soldier alike; the millionaire's son and the hod carrier's son had to go through exactly the same physical examination, and had to be just as clean to get overseas. Now, what we need in our public schools

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is not the separation of the children of the poor, who must be workers with their hands, from the children of the rich, who can be taken out of such work. What we need in our public schools is, first of all, an examination of the children when they come into the school.

The next step we are planning in Oregon is a psychophysiological examination of every school child who comes into the schools—as to his mental status, as to his physical status, and all the other things, so as to prevent the social and industrial misfits of later life. The factory inspectors get the educators' failures, the children who are turned out of the public schools because the schools have not been fitted to all the boys and girls. The boys and girls have been expected to fit themselves into the schools. Now it is time to fit the schools to all the boys and girls, and not just simply the children who have to work for a living.

I never saw a part-time school yet which was not an attempt to commercialize the childhood of the children who must go to it. I would not have a night school, because there again you expect the boy and girl who has been working all day to come to the night school when he is so dead tired that he can not assimilate what he is taught. I never saw a child go to a part-time school—that is, put part of his time in the morning at his work, or part of the time in the afternoon—or to a continuation school, doing the same thing, who did not have his mind filled while he was in school with what he was going to do at his work, which has a money value. We are money worshippers in this country, and our children are also; we are training them to be so. The child who spends his time in the school in the morning, unless he has passed the days when his mental machinery has matured to the point of good judgment, is thinking, "How am I going to do my work this afternoon, because there I am going to get money for it?" The thing he is after is his work, for which he gets paid, and you are simply dividing his time.

We are wasting time by trying these subterfuges. I am delighted that at this meeting of factory people we are having educators with us. They look at the world from inside of the school building out through the window, and they have kept us on the outside looking in at what they are doing with our workers, in preparing our workers, and what can we see? The result is that we have had to take the results of their efforts and fit them to industry after we get them. Now, it is time to break down that wall. The educators must get out of the school into the field, and we must get out of the field into the school, on some common grounds, and I think this marks the beginning of a new era.

I do not want to take up all the time in discussing this subject.

The CHAIRMAN. We have a woman's program to-day, and we do not want to hold that up.

Mrs. TRUMBULL. That is exactly what I do not want to do. The gentleman who spoke before me says that the first thing they have got to do is break down the attitude of the child. Why, in heaven's name? You do not want to break down the attitude of the child; what you want to do is break down the everlasting ironclad attitude of the school.

Now, he says again that they begin in their prevocational work by taking the children and putting them through little dabs of this

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and that and everything, and then after a certain length of time they put them into something else, and then by and by they specialize them. Now, friends, I say that there was no teacher ever born who could determine what a boy or girl at 14 or 15 years was intended to be. Challenge that if you will, but I want to answer your challenge by pointing to the surveys that have been made over and over again in school systems for children of 14, 15, and 16. "What do you want to be when you are grown up?" Why, when I was 14 I wanted to be an actress. And one of the best librarians that we had in Oregon wanted to be a ballet dancer. I was talking with a young man down at Corvallis at our State school of agriculture—he was 23—and I asked him what he was going to be, and he said, "Well, I am just finding out what I want to be, and I am training now to be a chemical engineer. My parents thought when I was 14 or 15 that I had the making of a wonderful musician in me." He said, "I wasted all those years." We are wasting childhood's years in taking them before they have the judgment to know what they ought to be.

Now, you will want to ask for a substitute for all this. I will tell you what I think. Our schools should be so equipped that every faculty of the child should be so well trained that it does not make any difference where he finds his job, when he leaves school he is going to be an intelligent worker. His mind should be so trained that it is quick to respond. His ears should be so well trained that if he should happen to find a job down in some machine shop he would have such a keen sense of the right and wrong way, from the sounds coming from that machinery, that he could detect in a minute if there was trouble. His voice should be so well trained that if in his work he should find himself somewhere where he needs his voice he would know what to do with it. And then some of us would not be such wretched speakers when we are grown up and have to address an audience. His finger tips and his muscles should be so well trained that they respond immediately to the message that comes from the brain. If his work is such that he needs in his lower limbs strength and endurance for use in his or her practical work—there is no sex in this problem—they should be so well trained that they never tire.

Now, we are talking about preparing children for their life's work through a training in trades and all the rest of this. I do not believe that we should train them toward that until after the child is at least 18. Now, I will tell you why. You can take the Ladies' Home Journal, and on one of the back pages you can see any number of advertisements of plans for bungalows. You can get the nicest kind of a bungalow plan for a dollar. Where, then, is your training for architectural work? You can buy the plans for a dollar, and they will come to you numbered. I can take those plans down to a factory in North Portland, and it will cut every timber, it will fit every window, it will give me my house in sections, with every piece numbered with reference to that plan. All I need to put that house together is a man skilled with hammer and nails, who will follow plans and numbers. When I get ready to move in I can hire every blessed bit of the work done—not hire the work done, I can buy the things to do it with. I do not have to have a plasterer—a skilled man—I can buy wall board. My husband, who is skillful and

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who has acquired his skill since he has been a grown man, can do all the electric wiring, because he can buy the things made with machinery. He can go to the plumbing shop and can buy and put in every bit of plumbing, because it has been made by machinery. Why, even to the housewarming—I can go out and buy the food, most of it made by machinery, simply put in boxes with human hands.

The age of machinery and invention is wiping out the need for the skilled workman. Now, that is what we must face, we educators—and I think in our factory work we are educators. We do not pretend to iron shirts by hand; it is done by machinery. Only those who have well-paid positions pretend to hire dressmakers; our clothes are cut in stacks that high [indicating with his hand] with an electric cutter. We do not need a skilled dressmaker any more, except for the luxuries of life. When we make our streets we no longer need to have a man skilled in mixing the material; the whole business is put in a great big machine and turned round and round and dumped by common labor.

We talk about training telephone operators; it will be only a few years before the automatic has the entire field. We will not need the human thing of whom we have been demanding copper nerves when she has human nerves. What we need to train our boys and girls for is intelligent workers and tenders of machines. If this young Seattle man who has evolved something—I do not know what it is—which will do away with gas-engine motors in automobiles, if that is a success, what are we going to do with the thousands of boys we are training in gas-engine work? When they will have finished their training there will be no gas engines.

Now, that is the problem as it presents itself to me. I may be wrong, but I have seen it in early days in my inspection work. In one of the places I visited it required, as I recall it now, from 8 to 10 men and women. About three months ago I went through that same mill, and there is a machine extending from one end of the room to the other doing the whole work, attended to by one man. All he had to do was to see that this machine was properly oiled and that it was functioning properly. That is what we are up against, and why are we wasting time and why are we wasting childhood in fitting children for a system which is out of date? Why, it is just exactly as plain as the fight that our street railroads are going through. Why are they fighting for the overhead trolley and a track on the street when the automobile is here, and it is just a matter of some day pulling out those tracks and taking away the trolley and putting in the automobile—and taxing us in the meantime.

They tell me I am fanatical on the subject of child labor. My friends, when you are engaged in work with children, if you are not a fanatic, you do not protect the children. What is there that is bigger and more important than a child's life? And when we get to the point where we say, until this child is old enough, is mature enough, to go into industry, none of your plans to deprive him of his childhood and put him into industry can get by the child workers, then we will have civilization. When we can keep our children in their rightful heritage and not take them out and commercialize them, then we will have fulfilled our mission.

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We talk about the sacredness of childhood and then we go out and devise plans and pass legislation which says that no child under the age of 14, unless he is needed by his family, shall be given a permit to go to work. Now, I do not want ever to see Oregon put that into its child-labor law; it now says that no child under 16 shall leave school until he is graduated from grammar school, even if his family needs him. That child's need comes first and industry can not have him, not so long as I have my grip on him.

The CHAIRMAN. Mrs. Trumbull and I had an extended talk on that question this morning before she gave her address, and we went over practically the same ground, and I do not think there is a fundamental difference in our positions, certainly no fundamental difference in our goal. There is no question about that. It is all a question of what is best to do for the child.

Mrs. TRUMBULL. Oh, I did not finish my speech. Mr. Hambrecht says and you are all saying, I know, "What are you going to do about the present situation?" Get just as far away as we can from all of these plans of continuing the present system as far as our children are concerned, adopt the most revolutionary program you can possibly adopt for the children, and then when they are grown up and they have the judgment, they can decide.

Mrs. SAMUEL SEMPLE, industrial board, Department of Labor and Industry of Pennsylvania. May I ask Mrs. Trumbull a question? I can not agree with the statement that we have the same goal in view. I have been tremendously interested in Mrs. Trumbull's statement of the situation as she sees it, and perhaps my own point of view is just a little bit influenced by the fact that I have boys of my own, and I have found in the training of those boys in their youth that work was really one of the most valuable contributions to character that they could possibly have. I do not want to be understood in any way as holding a brief for child labor, because I am not. I am entirely opposed to it in commercial operations—the exploitation of childhood—but I wondered how Mrs. Trumbull would hope to supply the character-building influence of work with children in general if they were kept out of all employment until at quite an advanced age. I am speaking of it generally, rather than as a child-labor proposition pure and simple.

Mrs. TRUMBULL. I am very glad that question has been asked, because it brings us right up against the question which we have got to discuss in any real working out of plans. I would not have spent $550,000 in Milwaukee for just a vocational high school. I would use all schools for that kind of work. You will never get character building by sending your boy or girl into employment under somebody you would not invite to your own house. I have known many, many children whose mothers and fathers have said, "I am going to teach my boy to take care of himself," and the minute one of those boys got his permit and crossed the threshold of the factory he was not the boy of that father and mother any longer; he belonged to the employer, who likely was a man who drank. So if you want your character building through work, reorganize the public-school system and put the work in there.

The CHAIRMAN. I do not like to limit discussion, but I think we all know that it is absolutely necessary. I would just like to finish

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what I started to say, and I will guarantee that it will not extend beyond three minutes. I do not want to leave the discussion in just the position in which it now is, and I will try to sum up this question as I see it.

I admire the position that the last speaker has taken with reference to children. We are facing conditions which must be met. There is a generation right now in your State and my State that is being permitted to go out of the schools at 14 into work. Now, what are we doing with these boys and girls who are at work? If we can help them some to continue the education they are getting, so that the school man may see from practical demonstration—and he is never going to see it any other way—what you can do with a boy once out of school, translate that over into the school and raise your age limit for entering industry, it is going to work out. That is why I say we are working toward the same end. Far be it from commercializing, in the narrow sense, the children of the country. None of us want to do that. On the other hand, we must not close to the childhood of this country the open doors of opportunity during the impressionable age of the child. Now, that is true of schools, that is true of the factories, and that is true of the stores and the home. There is no one factor which can solve that; it is a complicated question. Let us all do our small part.

But there is one thing on which I wish to take issue, and that is all, and then I am through, and that is the question——

Mrs. TRUMBULL. And I can not reply?

The CHAIRMAN. Yes; provided you will not take any more time than I take. And that is, what we need to do is to train intelligent tenders of machines. I can not agree with that proposition. What we need to-day is the broad vision back of the machine, and not the trained operative. Now, I can not agree with that proposition. I know there are those who believe in training which will make an expert punch-press operator for the factory, so the employee can excel his predecessor in the output, but he becomes an automaton in which we have killed the creative spirit. I do not think that is what we want to train, and I just want to take issue with you on that. You may answer that proposition.

Mrs. TRUMBULL. It will take me only half a minute. The speaker says we must face conditions. I am asking you to face conditions, as invention is coming to us every week. We are crowding out of our creative fields, because the creative fields are being put into those things which are machines, and we must recognize the situation, and then I am with him absolutely on that. Now, the question has come up with reference to those children who are 14 and 15, and whose families have need for their support. I say support the family if necessary from public funds. The child is more important than all the rest.

Mrs. W. H. UDALL, secretary, Industrial Welfare Commission of Washington. I asked a question yesterday morning which has not yet been answered. I heard nothing about the Smith-Hughes law.

The CHAIRMAN. I am awfully sorry, and I am to blame for not permitting the answer at that time. Now, it lies with this association as to whether we will take any further time on this question.

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Mrs. UDALL. I wish to withdraw my question until women's day.

The CHAIRMAN. I was going to say that you can see the embarrassing situation in which we are placed. It was not contemplated that this program would extend as long as it has, but to-morrow I think we will have more time, and perhaps we can revert to what I consider a very interesting feature of our work. I am glad that labor officials, school men, and vocational school men may meet and match minds on a question that is right before us, and which we have got to help solve, and this is the first time, so far as I know, where school men, vocational school men, and labor people have met together to get each other's viewpoint. I will have to close arbitrarily the discussion now and surrender the administration of the balance of the program to Miss Anderson.

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WOMEN IN INDUSTRY.

MISS MARY ANDERSON, DIRECTOR, WOMEN'S BUREAU, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, PRESIDING.

The CHAIRMAN. We have a very full program before us to-day, and therefore I am going to forego saying very much in the beginning of the discussion, because we want every man and woman here who is a delegate to this convention to participate in the discussion. We are not going to have any set speeches, so that every one of you will be able to participate, I hope, to the very fullest extent. This question of women in industry is a question which is just as closely allied to the previous question which was discussed this morning as it can possibly be. We can not discuss one without discussing the other, and therefore it seems to me that it was really a part of this program when we discussed vocational education this morning.

The reason, I believe, that we are discussing women in industry separate from the other, although it is not quite separate, is that women have to be a little more protected than the men in industry because they are the mothers of the race, and we have 12,000,000 women—approximately 12,000,000 women—in gainful occupations in the United States. I believe that when we get the census figures in the fall we will find that one-third of our working population is women. Therefore it is a real problem, and it ought to be solved as that problem.

The Women's Bureau undertook to set standards, but we felt all through the war, and have ever since, that it was not a question of excluding women from industry. We have felt that there must be the freest possible entrance of women into industry, and the greatest care must be taken as to the conditions under which they work. We feel that the fullest equality, both as to wages and as to the job, ought to be given to the women, where the job is no more hazardous, or has been proven to be no more hazardous, to women than it is to men. Therefore we set up certain standards. I know that you have all had those standards, and I want to say that on individual application 100,000 copies of those standards have been distributed all through the United States. So that we have reason to believe that they have been some small guide in forming the conditions under which women work.

I am not going to take any more of your time by talking, I am just going to run through the program to show you what we have before us to-day, so that you can guide your discussions accordingly. First, we are to take up the 8-hour day; then the Wisconsin method of prosecuting employers for violating the law limiting the hours of employment for women and children; then the question as to the kind of employment to be covered by legislation; the question as to the class of workers to be included; then we go to the wages. We want to hear something from Michigan on its law of equality as to wages. Then the discussion of the discrimination against women. Then we want to take up the working conditions—extra work, comfort and sanitation, posture at work, industrial lighting, operation

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of mechanical devices requiring undue strength, home work, women's part in the formation of policies for the employment of women and the administration of labor laws, and the minimum wage.

Now, you see we have a very full program before us, and without saying anything more I am going to call on Miss Pidgeon, of Washington, to start the discussion of the functioning of the 8-hour law. Is Miss Pidgeon here?

Mr. C. H. YOUNGER, commissioner, Bureau of Labor of Washington. Miss Pidgeon is not able to be here this morning.

The CHAIRMAN. Will you start the discussion, Mr. Younger?

Mr. YOUNGER. I am not familiar with just what you want in that matter.

The CHAIRMAN. We want to know how your law is functioning.

Mr. YOUNGER. The 8-hour law?

The CHAIRMAN. Yes; the 8-hour law.

Mr. YOUNGER. I will say in regard to the 8-hour law that we have had very little trouble with it. Our trouble has been with getting the information before the employees. We get a good many anonymous letters stating that some women are employed more than eight hours in a cannery, when the law does not prohibit longer hours in a cannery, with the exception of labeling and lacquering of cans. Now, we are unable to answer those letters, and therefore some one thinks that we are "laying down on the job," as they say. Now, we have had very few prosecutions under the 8-hour law, and I think the law is generally observed throughout the State. Occasionally, of course, as in other States, the law is violated but if we get a complaint or information that any party is working girls more than eight hours we investigate it, and if we can get the evidence we file a complaint, and we have lost very few cases. We have had several complaints lately. Where you go to the prosecuting attorney without corroborative evidence he refuses to file a complaint, as the employer would, of course, say that he did not employ the women, and it would be one person's word against the other. There is the difficulty—the getting of women to testify in a case of that kind. We have known of cases here where women have been discharged for testifying, and naturally a woman who wants to hold her position will refuse to testify. I do not know that I can say anything more and I hope what I have said will start the discussion. I am willing to answer any questions.

Mrs. TRUMBULL. Does your law require time clocks?

Mr. YOUNGER. No; we sometimes take the time checks as evidence.

Mrs. TRUMBULL. I have heard of cases where women, who are holding positions that men formerly held, have worked more than eight hours.

Mr. YOUNGER. I might say that the 8-hour law applies only to mechanical and mercantile establishments, laundries, hotels, and restaurants, in which a woman may not be employed more than 8 hours during the 24. She can be employed at any time during the 24 hours so long as she is not employed more than 8 hours during the 24. The law does not apply to offices and banks. The Attorney General ruled at one time that women employed in roundhouses in this State—that a roundhouse is not a mechanical establishment.

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Mr. H. C. MILES, deputy commissioner, Bureau of Labor of Washington. That is under the Federal Government.

Mr. YOUNGER. In roundhouses the locomotives go in and out with their own power, and naturally I supposed it was a mechanical establishment.

Miss JEAN STOVALL (of Washington). I would like to ask a question. It is not permissible, then, to have a girl work six hours to-day and nine hours to-morrow?

Mr. YOUNGER. No; not under the law—that is, if the law applies to that industry. They can not break the hours. We get requests for that but we never grant any request. We have no right to grant such requests.

Miss ETHEL M. JOHNSON, assistant commissioner, Department of Labor and Industry of Massachusetts. I would like to ask this gentleman if the law covers clerical workers in manufacturing establishments; for instance, bookkeepers and stenographers in factories, are they brought under the provisions of your 8-hour law?

Mr. YOUNGER. If the office is within the building in which they work—that is, in the factory proper; but if it is outside of the factory the law would not apply.

Mrs. LUELLA COX, director, Department of Women and Children of Indiana. The people in this part of the room are unable to hear the questions; therefore, the answers are not of any particular value to us.

The CHAIRMAN. I hope everyone will talk very loud, not only for the convenience of the delegates assembled, but also for the benefit of the reporter here.

Mr. MILES. I want to bring up two subjects.

Mr. YOUNGER. Are you going to take the floor?

Mr. MILES. One is my experience in this State with people coming from other States that have a 9-hour day, or a 48-hour week. We have an 8-hour day here, and I have found a great deal of complaint from the worker because he could not work 48 hours a week; that is, he gets Saturday afternoon off, and he is very much peeved when he finds in this State that he has to work Saturday afternoons, especially if he comes from Oregon or some of those other States. I would like to hear from people whether they think the 48-hour week or the 8-hour day is the best for the worker.

Also, speaking about the case of women working in roundhouses here. The railroads come under the Federal jurisdiction, and while the law in this State prohibits women from working more than 8 hours, the Government worked the women over 8 hours in the roundhouses.

Mr. YOUNGER. I would say that the Government had nothing to do with the roundhouses. While it did control the roundhouses, they were under the provisions of the State law.

Miss EMMA DUKE. When you have the 8-hour day and not the 48-hour week, as a matter of actual practice, in industries which are organized, have the people secured the half-day on Saturday, even though they did not work over 8 hours, or do they all have to work the whole day on Saturday in this State, the women employees?

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Mr. YOUNGER. As a rule, they work the 48 hours, but quite a few of the industries have started to have Saturday afternoons off.

Miss DUKE. Are those the organized industries?

Mr. YOUNGER. I believe they are, generally.

Miss ALICE LORD, of Washington. I am opposed to the 48-hour week, and I believe in the 8-hour day, straight 8 hours out of 24. At the next session of the legislature in Washington it is our aim to get an 8-hour day for every woman in the State of Washington, whether engaged in clerical work or anything else. An 8-hour day is what we want. I am opposed to the 48-hour week, and as far as these people who come from other States being peeved because they can not do this and that, let them go back to that country then, and they will not be peeved.

Mrs. SEMPLE. May I ask the lady, who has evidently a very practical point of view, what is her objection to the 48-hour week? In Pennsylvania we are trying to protect the worker so that she will get the whole Saturday off, two days off in a week, which, of course, necessitates from the point of view of the industry a longer day on the other five days of the week. May I ask what the lady's objection is?

Miss LORD. I will tell you; it is the physical condition of some women. I am trying to protect the woman who is not able to work 10 or 12 hours on one day and 3 hours the next. Her physical condition will not allow her to do that. In some cases, perhaps, a woman's physical condition will permit her to do that. But where there is one in that situation, there are probably 50 or a hundred others whose condition will not permit them to work more than 8 hours in any one day.

Mrs. SEMPLE. Thank you. May I ask another question? Would the lady still object if, for instance, it was a 9-hour day?

Miss LORD. Yes, madam; I certainly would. I certainly would; and I am in favor of a 4-hour day.

Mr. YOUNGER. Are there any other questions of me?

The CHAIRMAN. Are there any further questions? I would like to hear something from Mr. Morrissey, of Colorado.

Mr. W. L. MORRISSEY, deputy labor commissioner of Colorado. I judge from the Washington 8-hour law—and I presume this discussion is confined to the women's 8-hour law——

The CHAIRMAN. Yes.

Mr. MORRISSEY. I noticed the program says, "The functioning of the 8-hour law." Well, of course, in Colorado we have a men's 8-hour law also, as well as a women's 8-hour law. But I will say that the women's 8-hour law is patterned after, or probably preceded, that of the State of Washington. The previous speaker said that it was limited to mercantile and mechanical establishments, hotels and restaurants. Now, I would like to find out if it does not include manufacturing institutions also, like Colorado? In Colorado our law has that limitation. It reads that it applies to hotels and restaurants, and manufacturing, mercantile, and mechanical establishments. Now, of course, that covers a pretty broad field, but I notice the program later on takes in the discussion as to whether other occupations

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should be included. I have my own ideas about that, but that is to be left to the women, I presume, who have made a special study in governmental and State surveys for years.

Of course, in Colorado we have not as many woman workers as in other States. I found nearly four years ago, when I became labor commissioner, that for six years prior thereto the law had not been enforced, so we had to start what was really a campaign of education. It was astonishing the number of employers who were not acquainted with the provisions of the women's 8-hour law, as well as the men's 8-hour law and the child-labor law, and consequently we had to start in with them, and adopt a policy taking into account that fact. When the inspector got a complaint about a women's 8-hour law violation, I sent her around to the plant to talk to the employer, and she usually handed him a copy of the law and warned him that a repetition of the offense would bring about a complaint to the district attorney without any further notice. Now, at the beginning of my term a lot of employers thought I was joking with them—they had not been used to that kind of a deal—but we soon began to convince them that the women's 8-hour law in Colorado meant just exactly what it said; that the present labor commissioner had graduated into the job from that of a newspaper man, and that he had a standing offer to go back into the newspaper business, and if anybody thought he got the job because he would not enforce the women's 8-hour law he was wrong. So, in the course of 12 months' time we had convinced the employers of Colorado, especially the laundries, hotels, and restaurants, which had been running wild without any semblance of enforcement or adherence to the law, that we meant business. Now, after three and one-half years of effort of that kind, we are on a pretty good basis in Colorado.

Naturally, we get complaints of violations; we are bound to. We have had a lot of small towns way off in the interior of the State where the law is violated. We have four inspectors, and I think I told you something yesterday about the magnificent wages they receive and the tremendous traveling expenses allowed them, and consequently they can not get around very much. Those cases in the interior of the State we handle by letter. We send those people a copy of the law when we get a complaint from an outside source or through the medium of an inspector, and of course they are a little bit reluctant at the time, because they are not used to observing the law. But we do not have much trouble when we write the second letter. We always make it a personal letter. We haven't any regular form, but we try to put a punch into that letter, and make them believe that we mean business. Consequently, I will say that the women's situation, as far as the 8-hour law is concerned, in Colorado is as good as any place in the country.

Mrs. TRUMBULL. What expression do you use in your letter?

Mr. MORRISSEY. When I get back I will send you several copies of letters that I have written to the employers

Mrs. TRUMBULL. That is not intended as a joke. I think we are really serious, and I think that information will be valuable to us.

Mr. MORRISSEY. We have what we call the follow-up system of letters. We write them a nice, mild, ladylike letter first, and say that we are inclosing a copy of the law, and ask for their cooperation and

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assistance. Then if there is a second violation and we see they are going to ignore our first letter, then we send them one that has what we call a punch, a kick, to it. Then if we get another complaint we turn it over to the district attorney, we get our evidence and turn it over to the district attorney without any further notice.

DELEGATE. What is your evidence, may I ask? Must the girl testify—be the complainant?

Mr. MORRISSEY. Well, the law does not say so. When we get an aggravated case and we think we are going into court, we always insist, in the case of the women's 8-hour law, if a person comes to the office with a complaint, upon the name and the address of the person who makes the complaint being given. Then if we are going into court we send the inspector around to check up on those particular establishments and talk to the girls who are employed in the place, and we always aim to get two or three who have the exact facts and who will be in a position to testify, if necessary. But when the employer finds out that we are going that far he is glad to quit, as a rule.

DELEGATE. And you haven't had any cases for some time?

Mr. MORRISSEY. We haven't had any cases for a long time. The last aggravated case that we almost had was the Western Union Telegraph Co. They have several hundred woman employees in Denver, and they never did observe the 8-hour law; they didn't know what it was; they paid no attention to it. As a matter of fact, they took the position that we had no jurisdiction over them at all; that it was a Federal proposition entirely, and consequently we did not have any authority over them. About a year and a half ago it came to a point where, after a series of conferences and stress, I served a written notice on the Western Union Telegraph Co. officials that if they did not put their woman employees on an 8-hour basis I would swear out a warrant for them and have them arrested in 10 days' time, just as I had two of the officers arrested under the provisions of another law. The result was that in the multiplex department, where they had girls working 14 to 16 hours per day—some of them actually fainting on the job—they are now on an 8-hour basis for the first time in the history of Colorado.

But before we did that, to answer your question further, we had the evidence of half a dozen girls, some who were so tired of their jobs that they were willing to come in and testify, knowing full well that they would lose their jobs. That is the point I want to bring out; through our employment system, if we get into a pinch like that, we try to make provision for it. I am well acquainted in Colorado, having been in the newspaper business for a long time, and we take care of the girls if we find we have to go into court, and we look for jobs for them, in case they lose their jobs, which will be either as good as the jobs they have or that are better.

Mrs. TRUMBULL. Do you pay any attention to anonymous complaints, when the parties refuse to give the name?

Mr. MORRISSEY. Yes; we do. We discussed that a great many times, whether or not we should do it. Sometimes we find that anonymous communications, either by telephone or letter, are based on a grudge. Sometimes we find that they are based on real grievances, and that

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the law is being violated. We sort of balance one against the other, and we have taken that stand.

Mrs. TRUMBULL. That would come up, then, under your uniform adjustment?

Mr. MORRISSEY. Yes; but on the theory that there might be some real bad case that should be investigated and it would not be just because the complaint is anonymous. We take them all.

Mrs. SEMPLE. May I ask whether they dismissed their women in general?

Mr. MORRISSEY. No; they did not dismiss any in that particular case.

Mrs. SEMPLE. Then it did not operate against the employment of women in that particular capacity?

Mr. MORRISSEY. Not at all. Of course, the trouble we find in Colorado is the lack of cooperation on the part of the women. In other words, we have only four inspectors, and one is assigned to the Pueblo district and one to the western slope. The law requires one woman inspector, and she is largely kept busy in Denver, on child labor and 8-hour law complaints and factory inspection. We have one man in Denver who sort of specializes in factory inspection, and I have to send him out on complaints where school buildings are being used, and matters of that kind. Of course, our factory inspectors' duties are many and varied in Colorado. There are two factory inspectors who take care of these women's 8-hour law complaints and child-labor complaints, and so on, down the line. We find there are too many institutions in Colorado, especially the smaller ones, where women work 10, 11, and 12 hours a day until we get around to those places, and the women never complain. They will not report to the labor commissioner or labor department about the long hours or hard work until they get fired or until they quit, for some reason of their own. Then they always come around, and it makes it embarrassing, and it is not fair to the labor department. Of course, we are glad to find out, but we frequently have to use a little bit of harsh language with those people, and we do not hesitate to do it. But the Western Union case, of course, was an aggravated example in our State.

One of the last complaints we had before I left for this convention was against the Y. W. C. A. They conduct a cafeteria in Denver, and it was the second complaint. Last summer we had a similar complaint, and I sent the woman inspector around to take it up, and I did not think I would ever hear from them again. But this last week or so we had, as I say, the second complaint, and then I proceeded to call the manager and one or two of the members of the board of directors of this Y. W. C. A. up to my office, and I read them the riot act in the first place and then made them go away feeling kindly toward me.

Miss HAZEL FARKASCH, secretary, Minimum Wage Department of North Dakota. Does the 8-hour law include telephone exchanges?

Mr. MORRISSEY. Yes.

Miss FARKASCH. All the small exchanges, too?

Mr. MORRISSEY. Yes. They wished to work their women 12 or 14 hours a day in some of their branch stations in Denver—I think we

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have 10 or 14—but it is now like the receiving stations for laundries there; they are all on the 8-hour basis for the first time.

Miss FARKASCH. How do they operate the rural exchanges, where there are only very small towns; are they on an 8-hour basis?

Mr. MORRISSEY. They are supposed to be; and if we get any complaints, we take it up with the telephone company, and I will say for them that they do not pursue the policy of the Western Union Telegraph Co. and have not at any stage of the game. In fact, the average working hours of the girls in the Denver telephone exchanges—and they have a large number of them—is seven and one-half hours.

Miss JOHNSON. Does your law have any provision for posting a schedule of the hours which women are required to work, so that your inspectors, for instance, if they find women working at other than the schedule hours, can know that there is a violation, or do you depend entirely upon the statements of the woman workers or the people who observed the workers?

Mr. MORRISSEY. There is no provision in our law to cover that. We have to depend on the inspection of our representatives or complaints from outside sources. But in Colorado we are up against the problem of political changes in our women's 8-hour law. At the next session of the legislature in January we expect to be forced to defend our women's 8-hour law. There are a lot of employers there who are not in favor of my policy of at least a reasonably strict enforcement, and they are going to try to change it. In other words, they say that the women's 8-hour law, providing, as it does, that you should not work eight hours in any one calendar day—that is just exactly the same as the Washington law—does not leave any leeway for nine hours to-day, and a few more hours the next day. They say that the women's 8-hour law should be more elastic; they want discretion lodged in the commissioner to handle each individual case. Now, of course, I am going to oppose that, because I know that the parties who are behind that movement have in mind a brighter and better day for them when they can control the labor commissioner.

DELEGATE. Is that going to affect the women's law and not the men's 8-hour law?

Mr. MORRISSEY. Yes. The men's 8-hour law in Colorado is limited to mines and mills and smelters and open-cut workings and places of that kind underground and where there are chemical gases and other substances which injure the health of the worker.

Mrs. TRUMBULL. What is the maximum?

Mr. MORRISSEY. We haven't any; it is a straight eight hours.

When I went into office one of the interesting things I met was an effort on the part of people who put this law into effect in Colorado to have me abrogate the provision of the law as to Saturday afternoon. For example, the garment workers' union asked me to change the hours so that they could get Saturday afternoons off. I told them that I had nothing to do with the making of the law, and whether or not I believed in that sort of course, I was not going to follow the course of my predecessor and issue a permit of any kind at any time or at any place to violate the provisions of the women's 8-hour law.

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Miss DUKE. When the garment workers wanted to get the half day on Saturday, did they make any effort through their organization to get a 44-hour week and have an 8-hour day with 4 hours on Saturday?

Mr. MORRISSEY. No; they did not.

Miss DUKE. Have any of the industries in the State secured that?

Mr. MORRISSEY. No.

Miss DUKE. Have any of the different unions secured the 44-hour week?

Mr. MORRISSEY. Not in Colorado, because I discouraged them all I could; as I say, the law was not framed for that. While it is not as broad in scope as I think it should be, it is a dangerous practice in a State like Colorado, where the political sides keep wavering all the time, to try to change it. We might get something a lot worse than we have now.

Mr. MILES. A 44-hour week would not violate the law, it would be within the law?

Mr. MORRISSEY. No; that would be different.

Mr. MILES. Did I understand that you have no provision for a six-day week; may it be eight hours every day of the seven?

Mr. MORRISSEY. There is no provision for a six-day week.

Mr. MILES. That would be 56 hours a week for Colorado and Washington; that is the reason I brought it up. I know of women who are working seven days a week in this State.

Mr. MORRISSEY. We have a law in Colorado, one of the old blue laws, which says that any unnecessary work on Sunday shall be prohibited, but it is not necessary to enforce that because the employers in Colorado, as a rule, do not violate that law, and we seldom have to revert to it. In fact, I did not know it was on the books until I got hold of this job several years ago.

Mr. MILES. Your hotels run seven days a week there, don't they?

Mr. MORRISSEY. Well, they are considered to come in the necessary class, necessary occupation, and as a rule they let their women off on one day of the week.

The CHAIRMAN. I think we really ought to take the next two questions in one; that is, the discussion of the 48-hour week and the 9-hour day, limited by law, and I am going to ask Miss Johnson, of Massachusetts, to discuss that question now. Massachusetts has the 48-hour week.

REPORT OF MASSACHUSETTS ON NEW LEGISLATION.

Miss JOHNSON. The Massachusetts law limiting the hours of women and minors to a maximum 9-hour day and 48-hour week in the major industries in which such workers are employed, went into effect July 18, 1919. It has therefore been in operation for a little over one year. Although this period is perhaps inadequate to warrant a final statement as to the result of the law, it does permit some general observations as to how it is working out.

Before taking up this question, however, let me first, for the benefit of those who may not be familiar with the provisions of the act.

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explain its essential features, and the changes it has effected in the earlier legislation on this subject. The act provides that no woman and no young person under 18 years of age shall be employed in laboring in any factory, workshop, mercantile, manufacturing, or mechanical establishment, or for an express or transportation company, or in a public telephone or telegraph exchange for more than 9 hours in any one day, nor more than 48 hours in any one week, except that in occupations which are seasonal, and the department shall determine what occupations are seasonal, the hours may exceed 48 a week, but not 52, provided the average of the number of hours worked during the year does not exceed 48.

The only changes made from the former law are the reduction of the number of hours that may be worked in a week from 54 to 48; the number of hours in one day from 10 to 9; and of the maximum weekly hours for seasonal employments from 58 to 52. The 48-hour act does not of itself add any new occupations to the list covered by the 54-hour law. A measure passed in 1918, however, automatically adds woman elevator operators, since it states that they shall come within the provisions of the 54-hour law and of any amendments thereto.

How has the 48-hour law worked in practice? Has it, as proclaimed by opponents, thrown women out of employment, or resulted in the substitution of men for women, and has it caused a reduction in wages? The department of labor and industries has made no detailed investigation to ascertain the effect of the act. The regular inspection work of the department, however, and the complaints which are received, furnish a pretty good indication of the result. Where violations were found they were practically always due to ignorance rather than to any intentional violation of the law. They occurred mainly in small concerns and point to the need of a definite policy of educational work by the department in explaining the labor laws. With the great number of employers the adjustment has been made apparently without any confusion of especial difficulty.

In many cases the change to the shorter schedule was made considerably in advance of the time required. In some of the large textile centers the adjustment was effected several months before the law went into operation. Practically everywhere, where workers were employed by the piece, the change was accompanied by an advance in piece rates, usually the approximate amount to prevent any loss of wages on the part of the workers. In some instances, however, the increase was substantially more than this, so that the employees gained both in reduction of hours and in increase of wages.

I think it is safe to say the reduction in hours has not resulted in the discharge of woman workers, or of the substitution of men for women, or the reduction of wages, for if anything of this sort had taken place it would pretty certainly have come to the attention of the department through complaints, and the only instances which were reported were those of three or four woman telegraph operators. An opinion of the attorney general, recently given, holds that such operatives, when engaged in interstate commerce, do not come within the provisions of the State law, and these women are now asking that their former positions be restored.

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A study of some of the effects of the Massachusetts law is being made by the Women's Bureau at Washington, and in this connection some data which the department collected for the bureau is of interest. As a means of definitely checking up some of the effects of the law, we selected the textile industry as the largest woman-employing industry in the State. A number of representative factories in the different centers were taken, where it was known mills were operating on more than a 48-hour basis the first of the year. The number and proportion of man and woman workers were taken in January, the month before the change was made by the majority of the mills, and again in October following the date the law became effective. This shows substantially no change either in the number of woman workers or in the proportion they represent of the entire number of operatives.

The situation here may, I think, be taken as typical of that in the principal woman-employing industries in the State. In short, women have not been thrown out of employment and wages have not been reduced. In this connection we should remember that the period under consideration is one affected by labor shortage and by rising wages, so that, from the standpoint of the proponents of the law, it has been an especially favorable period to apply it. At the same time, I think that the result is a natural one, for the trend in industry, independent of legislative action, has been toward a shorter working-day. Progressive employers, recognizing the advantage as a business proposition, have voluntarily adopted a shorter working schedule; and a number of such employers in Massachusetts and elsewhere are on record in favor of the 48-hour week as a means of increasing production. Some employers have gone even further and are operating on a 44 or 45 hour schedule. A number of the large retail stores in Boston voluntarily adopted a 7½-hour day this year, starting work at 9 in the morning instead of 8.30 as formerly.

A significant statement concerning the effect of the 48-hour law on production was made by one of the largest employers of women in Massachusetts in an advertisement which appeared after the law had been in operation for six months. In this reference was made incidentally to the shorter hours and the increased output during the period.

The 48-hour limit for the working week is an accomplished fact in this State. The law was passed in response to strong popular demand. While there was some vigorous objection to its enactment, it went into effect without any apparent friction, and to date, I think, its operation has been highly successful.

There are certain features in the Massachusetts law which are sometimes called in question. These are the inclusion of the words "in laboring" to qualify the kind of employment covered by the law, the provision for exemptions for seasonal employment, and the provision for a 9-hour day. With respect to the last-mentioned provision, it should be borne in mind that the 9-hour day is limited by a 48-hour week, also that it applies to women only and young persons 16 to 18 years of age, minors under 16 being restricted to an 8-hour day. This provision gives an amount of elasticity to the law and makes it possible to adapt it to suit individual needs. It enables employers to make adjustments to meet emergencies. It secures for

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employees a Saturday half holiday. It sometimes operates to insure a shorter working week than would otherwise be possible.

The provision for seasonal exemption has less to commend it. An exemption when granted applies not merely to the establishment requesting it, but to the entire occupation; not to a special group of workers, but to all women and minors 16 to 18 years of age alike. In only two occupations has such exemption been granted, the straw-hat industry and tobacco-packing industry; a third case, that of the fresh fish canning industry,[1] is now pending.

The addition of the words "in laboring"—"No child under 18 years of age and no woman shall be employed in laboring in any factory or workshop, or in any manufacturing, mercantile, mechanical establishment," etc.—gives a certain ambiguity to the law and makes possible conflicting interpretations.

Opinions of the different attorney generals and the department counsel have varied some as to its meaning. The question has not reached the supreme judicial court. According to a recent opinion of the counsel, the words "in laboring" restrict the application of the act to women employed in industrial as distinguished from clerical employment. Thus it applies to the factory operative but not to the factory stenographer.

An amendment offered this year, which would have raised the question again, proposed to add to the groups now covered by the law women employed in hotels, as ushers in theaters, in motion-picture houses, in manicuring and hairdressing establishments, in hand laundries, in private telephone exchanges, on all elevators, and in banks. It was probably the inclusion of women in banks that resulted in the defeat of the measure.

This raises a problem which must be met by those who believe in protective legislation for women; that is, how women may be safeguarded from injurious conditions in industry without restricting their opportunity. The answer, so far as there can be a definite answer, lies, I think, in dividing the groups which need protection and are least able to protect themselves from those who, by reason of their training, education, or position, possess effective bargaining power and are able to determine the conditions under which they work.

Mrs. TRUMBULL. I want to ask Miss Johnson if the Massachusetts law allows time and a half for overtime, as the Oregon law does?

Miss JOHNSON. There is no provision in the law regarding the wage to be paid for overtime. As a matter of fact, the majority of employers do pay a higher amount for the overtime.

Mrs. TRUMBULL. But they are not required to?

Miss JOHNSON. No; they are not required to.

Miss LORD. I would like to ask Miss Johnson, did I understand you to say that your exemption for seasonal work, as you call it, extended to the straw-hat industry?

Miss JOHNSON. The straw-hat manufacturing industry is one of two occupations that to-day have been declared seasonal.

Miss LORD. And they are exempt from your law?

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[1] The application has since been denied.

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Miss JOHNSON. That is, they are restricted to 52 hours, but they must not work more than an average of 48 hours during the year.

Miss LORD. Does your State think the straw hat is a necessity?

Miss JOHNSON. I think it is seasonal from the point of view of operation, for a limited time during the year. There are only a few months when the straw-hat factories are in operation, and the wages are pretty high in that occupation, so that there is an attempt on the part of the employees as well as the employer to have the employees work overtime. The work is piecework very largely, and the rates are high. We found upon inspection last year workers who were earning from $70 to $90 a week.

Miss LORD. I was not really interested in asking that question in regard to the seasonal occupation. I just wanted to be sure that in your State you thought the straw-hat industry was a necessity and seasonal.

Miss JOHNSON. That was the decision of the former board.

Miss LORD. Now, science teaches us that it is not a necessity, and that if we went without hats at all in the summer time we would not have gray hair.

Mrs. HELEN GREGORY MCGILL, Minimum Wage Board of British Columbia. I would like to ask a question of Miss Johnson. She says that in the law they have not fixed anything for their overtime. In British Columbia, where we have been able to fix the time at 48 hours or whatever it may be, the minimum wage board, which is like your industrial welfare commission, has also fixed time and a half for those extra hours. Now, in the State of Massachusetts has the industrial welfare commission fixed the overtime pay when it goes over the 48 hours? I know it would not be in the law, and it would not be in our law if we had one, but it would be in our minimum wage order.

Miss JOHNSON. No; there is no provision in the law for any arrangement regarding the overtime payment. As a matter of fact, when the request for seasonal exemption comes up, that question is usually asked, as to what the pay will be for overtime, but there is no requirement in the law that it shall be more than the regular amount.

Mrs. MCGILL. I take it the 48 hours is by statute?

Miss JOHNSON. Yes.

Mrs. MCGILL. And the amount to be paid is in your minimum wage order? Do you order it in your minimum wage order?

Miss JOHNSON. No. Under our law we do not have a provision for making such an arrangement. The minimum wage law in Massachusetts is made by the commission, based on the determinations of the wage board for the specific occupation. Now, the wage board is required by law to consider certain specific things, the need of the woman workers, the financial condition of the industry, and then the suitable minimum wage for the average worker of ordinary ability, and for minors and apprentices—learners—apprentices and minors under the age of 18. There is no provision for any overtime.

Mrs. MCGILL. In British Columbia we have no provision, just as Miss Johnson says, and I think that is a very vital point. We

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have no provision for an overtime rate. Our recommendations are made, as they are here in the State of Washington, by conference recommending a minimum wage, the living wage for a woman, but our conferees have been able to take this view of the matter: that if this is a minimum wage for 48 hours and there is an emergency which calls for a longer time, then that worker is not able to do some of those things necessary for her own health and comfort, which are absolutely necessary, and which she might be able to do if she were working the 48 hours. That is the way we have got around that particular difficulty. Of course if such a sum is a minimum wage, then time and a half might be held to be more than the minimum wage, but it is not if the worker can not do certain things for herself or her health suffers to a certain extent.

Miss LINNA E. BRESETTE, secretary, Industrial Welfare Commission of Kansas. I merely wanted to say in answer to some of the questions that have been asked here that I am sure you will probably watch with considerable interest the result of the Kansas order, the order of the Industrial Commission of Kansas, which has been carried to the courts, and which, I think, will be very interesting. We do not boast of the order that we have made. It establishes only an $11 minimum wage, but we have established an 8-hour day. That is an order of the commission which is statutory in effect, but it has been carried into the court. The commission established an 8-hour day, with time and a half for overtime in cases of emergency, the limit to be 55 hours in a week, inclusive of the overtime. The attorney general has ruled that the business of the industrial commission is to establish a maximum-hour day and a minimum wage, and that its business ends there; it has not the privilege of establishing an overtime rate or overtime clause. So it will probably be interesting to watch the result of that. Our court is on vacation at the present time.

Mrs. UDALL. Assuming that the minimum wage in Massachusetts is a wage rate, you spoke of a factory where women are employed 9 hours a day, 5 days a week—is it paying the full wage per week or is it paying at the rate of the wage per week?

Miss JOHNSON. It pays on the basis of full time. These shops that are running on that basis are, I believe, unionized, and it was at the request of the employees that the arrangement was made. The wages in those shops are union wages, so they would not be affected by the minimum wage, although in that particular instance they come under it.

Mrs. UDALL. We find in our State that in several cases—many cases—the factories work them until Saturday noon and pay at whatever rate the wage is, so that the girl does not get the full week's wage, as the law requires, for her support. That is the reason I asked the question.

The CHAIRMAN. It seems to me we might bring out here the question of overtime. During the war there was a great cry for overtime work, and it was paid at the rate of time, time and a half, double time. and all kinds of time. I think that where overtime can be paid it defeats the purpose of the laws. The purpose of the law is to help the preservation of the health of the workers, and if we estab-

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lish rates for overtime we get the workers, together with the manufacturer, clamoring for overtime, and we will really defeat the purpose of the law if we do that. I think we want to be very careful in making rulings on overtime work. There was a great deal of trouble after the war was over when overtime work was taken away. A great many workers went on strike for overtime, and I know personally that the unions had a very hard time with their own members because of that fact, and they were very much concerned, and there was a meeting at the A. F. of L. headquarters in Washington, where that question was very thoroughly discussed, very seriously discussed. I believe that where the commissions have a right to establish overtime they should look at that question very seriously and very severely before they do it.

Mrs. TRUMBULL. Could I talk just a minute on Oregon's experience with overtime?

The CHAIRMAN. Yes.

Mrs. TRUMBULL. We have the trouble in our law, and that is probably where Miss Bresette's law is lacking, on the establishment of emergency overtime. We did not have a great deal of trouble during the war, because our commission established a rule that the emergency overtime permit could be granted only when the consumer would suffer through the lack of overtime work. Now, we are not nearly so afraid of overtime in our State, because we find the employer dislikes very much that time and a half requirement. It is going to reduce his profits when you compel him to pay time and a half on the basis of the worker's wage—not the minimum wage, but the wage each worker is getting. So we are not so afraid of that, if you have a very strict rule and we interpret that rule very strictly. As an illustration, I want to cite that during the flu we had one small town where all the families were affected. The women did not do their washing, and we received a request for an overtime permit from the laundries stating that if there were no clean clothes for the sick people there would be suffering. We granted the overtime but announced that we would keep in touch with the situation to see that it was not exceeded.

Now, we are having another experiment there which indicates that the employers have about made up their minds that the shorter working week is coming. There are two industries which I have in mind now that have established a 6-hour day, with two shifts. We have the provision that no worker can work more than 9 hours in one day or 48 hours in a week. So these particular industries start one shift early in the morning, and that shift works 6 hours, and, without stopping the machinery or anything else, the new shift comes on, and the overhead is increased so slightly that there is a positive increase in that man's profits and in production. They can not work the same woman twice in one day; she can not do over 9 hours' work. So she gets 6 hours of work. That experiment is teaching the employer that he can get out of his mechanical equipment a double amount of production and yet give his human equipment a shorter working day.

The CHAIRMAN. That would be in emergency cases. I was speaking of States where they have established a minimum wage and then

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established so much for overtime, regardless of emergency cases or any other cases.

Mrs. TRUMBULL. It seems to me that flexibility is one of the things which is desirable in the law affecting grown-ups and inflexibility in laws affecting minors. I think we create less dissension and arouse less antagonism if we have an adaptable system.

Miss BRESETTE. It seems to me that a great deal of trouble lies in the word "emergency." What is an emergency—what constitutes an emergency? Perhaps a circus is not an event to you, but it is in a good many of our towns. When a circus comes to town everyone wants to declare an emergency. The laundries want to wash all the "one-only shirts" that the men who come in with the circus possess. The restaurants want to keep the girls long hours. Each one has his own version of what is an emergency. We have had so much trouble over the word "emergency" that it seems to me that any law which says, "except in case of an emergency" is very weak and will be a dead letter on the statutes.

The CHAIRMAN. If there are no further questions, we will go to the next subject, which is the prohibition of night work. Mrs. Semple, of Pennsylvania, will lead the discussion on that subject.

Mrs. SEMPLE. In Pennsylvania we have a law which is so much better than anything we have had before that we are still rather proud of it, in spite of the fact that we recognize its very distinct deficiencies. and also in spite of the fact that during the war period we were obliged still more to face its deficiencies, some of which we had not foreseen until they were forced upon us by the emergency conditions that then arose. The law provides that no woman is allowed to work in a manufacturing establishment before 6 o'clock a. m. or after 10 o'clock p. m., except as manager or superintendent, or if doing clerical or stenographic work. The weak point of that law is that it says "in a manufacturing establishment." Up to the war period it was generally interpreted and applied as a general provision, but in the shortage of labor then we were brought face to face with the fact that the law actually reads "in manufacturing establishments," and we were brought up rather short in its administration on that basis. The law also provides that no woman under 21 years of age, except a telephone operator over 18 years of age, is allowed to work before 6 o'clock a. m. or after 9 o'clock. That is in the women's law. The child-labor law provides that no girl under 16 years of age shall be allowed to work before 6 o'clock a. m., or after 8 o'clock p. m. Therefore there are three gradations, as you see, in the restriction of night work for women. But I do want to say that the fact that we had a restriction at all was our salvation during the war period. We were face to face with pressure from manufacturing interests which desired to enter the State and which alleged that they were being kept out of the State because of the operation of this law. The industrial board suffered a very great pressure at that time. We were told that we were a most unpatriotic body. We were told that we did not have the interests of the country at heart, we did not have the interest of Pennsylvania at heart, its business interests, because we would not take the risk of setting aside the law. And people who had assisted the industrial board to make the regulations insisted that

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the industrial board had the power then to set aside the statutory law if it chose. The industrial board did not choose to do so, and held on with both hands during that war period, and the result was that we did keep certain industries out of the State. Perhaps this might not be a very proper thing to say, but I think we did keep out of the State some industries which would not have been good for the future welfare of the State—the future employment of women, at any rate, in the State.

The CHAIRMAN. I am going to ask Mr. Hambrecht to discuss this question.

Mr. HAMBRECHT. I am very much interested in Mrs. Semple's problem in Pennsylvania during the war period. Of course, all of the States were confronted with practically the same problem, where the administrative boards had it in their power to modify standards. But in the statute where that power is given it is always given in cases where the health and welfare of the women will be better conserved, and that is what the legislature had in mind when they passed that standard. I presume it is the same in Pennsylvania.

Mrs. SEMPLE. No, Mr. Hambrecht, we are not so empowered.

Mr. HAMBRECHT. Some of the boards are. The Industrial Commission of Wisconsin is so empowered—the standard may be changed when the health of the women or children demands it.

Now, of course, these periods of stress, and what might be termed, perhaps, " hysteria," were passed through by all the labor departments of the country, and it did take a great deal of intelligent effort on the part of labor officials to keep the country, so far as the labor situation was concerned, on an even keel. If it would be of any use or of any benefit to the association I might briefly outline what we did during that period.

Just as the country was entering into the war in 1917, or just before it entered into the war, we made a survey of the effect of night work on women. The statute did not prohibit night work, but there was a statutory limitation on the number of hours that might be worked by women if engaged in night work—not more than 8 hours per night or 48 hours per week. And that law, by the way, was not in the alternative so that if a woman worked 48 hours per week, and put it all in in three days, it would comply with the statute. It had a double aspect; that in no event should any woman work more than 8 hours on any day or night, and that in no event should she work more than 48 hours per week, so we were not confronted with that other proposition of doubling up on time.

The survey was started along in the fall of 1916 and extensive investigation was made and many public hearings were held on the effect of night work on women, and, of course, anyone who has given that subject any thought could reach but one conclusion. The conclusion of the commission was logical, that night work for women should be prohibited in manufacturing establishments and laundries. Now, there are other types of work where the work is more diversified, as we have not yet got to the point where all night activities, such as restaurants and telephones and other services the people demand, have ceased. But those questions were left out. The question of night work for women in manufacturing plants and laundries

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covers the great commercial body of women and those who are doing the routine work. We reached that conclusion, as I say, after this country entered into the war, though, of course, after the declaration of war a new pressure was brought to bear: "Why administer your function with reference to this provision now? Why not wait until the crisis is passed?" We thought that we could handle the labor problem, as far as the needs of the employer were concerned, without the necessity of women working nights in manufacturing establishments and laundries, and the order was made, to take effect on the 1st of July, 1917. That stopped the night work before the excessive demand came, although a labor shortage was anticipated. Night was defined as being any time after 6.30 p. m. and before 6 a. m., which took in the entire evening and night periods. Night work in some States starts at 9 o'clock, in some at 8 o'clock, and in some at 10. In Wisconsin night was held to start at 6.30 p. m., which cut out all work after supper in manufactories and laundries. That was not modified in any particular during the entire period of the war in any instance, although there were a great many requests to have it done. Of course, the argument was made on behalf of those that wanted to modify it, as Mrs. Semple has said, that it was for patriotic reasons. I very truthfully and honestly confess absolute ignorance of the workings of the War Department. I honestly did not know what their demand was, although I did my best to keep in touch with the war situation, as we all did. I said, "Until you get a certificate from the War Department and from the Labor Department at Washington that you have this necessity, there is no need of me going into it." Perhaps that was an easy way—at least it struck me as the logical way—to handle it, and in two instances employers went to Washington, and I went with them. I was not exactly "passing the buck," but I wanted to be present when the arguments were made, and in that way I gradually informed myself of the situation. Those having charge of war labor policies at Washington, the War Labor Policies Board, took a very correct stand with reference to the situation, and in the two situations which were appealed to the Federal authorities the employers were unable to make out their case of a war necessity.

This was the ruling that was laid down; perhaps it is familiar to you, because it has been made in other States under similar circumstances: It is not a question whether the work is a war necessity, but a question whether, for example, the powder mill in Wisconsin is such a necessity as to warrant breaking down the labor law. And the two instances in Wisconsin were not considered such a necessity as to necessitate breaking down the labor law. So far as I know, that rule was not set aside in a single instance during the entire war period, and no exception has been made up to the present time. Women are not working at night in the manufactories and laundries of Wisconsin, and I think the employers feel all right about it. When I say the employers, I mean the employers who are working with the commission and trying to get better conditions. Of course, we have the exception of those who never will be in harmony with a situation which in any way affects their business. But in a large way, when I say employers I mean the State employers' association and its officials and the Milwaukee Association of Commerce and its

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officials are working with us in that and, I think, approve of the stand which we have taken.

Now, we were confronted with one other very serious situation with reference to a war problem which affected the hours of labor for women, and that was as to the pea canners. And, by the way, in the order which was given, pea canners were excepted. They had been excepted ever since Wisconsin began to be a pea-canning State.

I attended the pea-canners' convention in Boston, and I learned there from discussion on the floor of the convention that Wisconsin cans 40 per cent of all of the peas canned in the United States, which rather emphasizes in your mind the acute problem that we have. Those who know the problem of pea canning, which is different from any other vegetable-canning proposition, realize the amount of business that may be crowding a cannery even under the best condition, and that there is a very limited time in which to get it out because of the danger of mold after the peas reach the cannery. That condition does not apply to other vegetables. The peas will immediately begin to mold if they are not taken care of. So for a great many years in Wisconsin, long before I became a member of the commission, the canners were allowed in cases of emergency to work 14 hours a day. That is one of the questions of emergency which our secretary has mentioned, and an emergency within an emergency, as you see.

In the first place, the pea canners' problem was a straight emergency such as to require a change of standard; if in their canning business there was an emergency, they might work 14 hours a day. This is the way it worked out and the way I found the situation when I came on the commission. The pea canners believed that they had a 14-hour day, and they planned to work a 14-hour day during the three weeks. The canneries are usually in the small towns, and it is usually the housewives and the schoolgirls who go into the industry for that length of time. They are not the factory girls who work the year around. I think my predecessor felt that that was the situation, and that was an emergency which would last only three weeks and was over after that time. But the peculiar thing about the word "emergency" is that at the factory they took that as their standard working-day in the beginning, and then where there was created an emergency condition or they broke down they had to work 16, 17, or 18 hours a day, and that is a deplorable situation.

So we grappled with that situation along about the same time that we had the night work of women up, and we decided at the beginning that that was an emergency problem. And every State which has had that situation on an extensive scale knows what I mean without going into details. It is an emergency proposition in the commercial world. We decided we ought not to have 14 hours anyway, that 12 hours ought to take care of emergency propositions, and then our orders were worded differently. This was just at the war period, you will bear in mind. We said that only such pea canners as satisfy the commission with a statement of their schedule of work so that we are satisfied that they are working on a basis within the statute, a 10-hour day—Wisconsin has a 10-hour statute, 55 hours per week for day work, and I am not defending that one way or the other, but that is the law—those that had established their working-

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days on a 10-hour basis might in case of emergency for two days in the week, any two days the emergency might arise, work not to exceed 12 hours. That was rather a radical change from what we had at the beginning of the proposition.

Then the war period came and the pea-canning convention was held the following year. You will remember the drive, you saw the signs everywhere, "Food will win the war," and if there was any drive that was more necessary than any other with reference to the war-winning proposition, it was the conservation of food. And one of the things with which we were confronted directly was the question of peas, because peas can be carried farther into the trenches without spoiling, and in more compact form, than any other one product. And peas were practically the entire product the Wisconsin factories produced to ship into the trenches in France. So we were confronted with a pretty serious problem, and the pea canners were urged to buy more acreage and can more peas than had ever been canned before in Wisconsin. And the pea canners said, "We must have a modification of that law, and at least go back to the old standard that we had during times of peace," and that was the 14 hours. That was the situation and I told them I realized it was serious, and I said, "I am going down to your convention with you; I want to hear the discussion of the problems you are up against, so I can get first-hand information." I had a pleasant trip; they had a pea canners' special that left Chicago with all of the canners from the West, 13 or 14 coaches. About one-third of that number was from Wisconsin.

We went to Boston, and they had a very interesting convention. Mr. Hoover's department had a representative there who urged upon them the necessity of canning more peas, and doing all they could to help win the war. The War Department had a representative there to show the patriotic enterprise in which the pea canners, and canners generally, were engaged. And the Navy Department and the Ordnance Department had representatives there, but there was not a single representative of the Federal Department of Labor. The meetings of our Wisconsin contingency of pea canners—and they are splendid fellows, too, the finest employers in the State are the pea canners of Wisconsin, big men—were held in a room perhaps this size. We can 40 per cent of the peas and we had quite a number of the pea canners there. I said I would like to have a talk with them. I said, "Unfortunately everything has been presented in this problem except the labor trouble, and that is a thing that we have got to thrash out when we go back." They said, "You see what we are up against?" and I said, "Yes; you are up against a mighty stiff proposition, and there is no question about that. You have got to have help. I do not know now just what I am going to do, but I am going to stop in Washington on my way back."

So on my return trip I did not go back with them, but went to Washington, ostensibly to have a conference with Mr. Hoover. And if no one here has had any experience in getting a conference with Mr. Hoover, I want to say it is easier to get a conference with President Wilson than it was one with Mr. Hoover, and you may know how difficult that is. Mr. Hoover's department there covered over an acre of ground, and there were thousands of employees in

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that department. When you went there on a proposition you were referred to some of the departments, but I wanted to see Mr. Hoover. I was very well acquainted with a Wisconsin man who was working very close to him, and I told him it was necessary for me to have a conference with Mr. Hoover. He said, "Mr. Hoover does not have conferences on those subjects. He is handling this in a large way and can not be bothered with details." But I told him that this was a large problem, and the result of it was that I had a 10 minutes' conference with Mr. Hoover after waiting three days for my appointment. I put this up to Mr. Hoover something like this: That I had attended the pea canners' convention in Boston, the canners' convention rather—the pea canners had a section in Boston—and I had listened very interestedly to the talk that his representative, naming him, had given with reference to the necessity for peas and other canned products in order to win the war, and I realized that we were confronted with a serious situation. I told him that the Labor Department was not represented at that convention to urge the relation of human affairs in reference to the problem. I said to Mr. Hoover, "I am candidly very much perplexed about this proposition. I want to say that the women of Wisconsin are patriotic and willing to sacrifice their lives if necessary to win the war, but we do not want any unnecessary sacrifices. But if necessary they are willing to undermine their health in order to help win the war, if the necessity is there. Now, I want to know from you whether the necessity is there. We will go the limit when we know what the actual necessity is. I do not know and you do, and that is why I am here." Then he wanted to know what our labor laws were, and I said, "Well, heretofore they have had 14 hours a day in emergencies, but starting this year we cut it down to not to exceed 12 hours 2 days a week, and I think we are going to get along. My own judgment is that we will get by provided the industry comes through in its employment offices, and the public employment bureaus, of which we have 32 in number; and we will do everything we can to get labor for them, get volunteer help, get women who never worked for their living in their life to go out and work a few days or a couple of weeks in the pea-canning industry to help out on this emergency, and I think we will get by. What I want to know is, is it necessary for those women to undermine their health, and I am here to say that if they work more than our order allows, I am satisfied it will hurt them." This shows the bigness of Mr. Hoover; he said, "I do not know anything about the labor laws, nor the administrative part of them, except I will say this, if I were charged with the responsibility I would not permit any woman to work beyond 12 hours a day, peas or no peas." I said, "I am very glad to hear you say that, because I think we can do it. Now, I want to know whether I can quote you to that extent?" He said, "Absolutely." I said, "All right, thanks," and I departed. The conference between myself and Mr. Hoover lasted about 10 minutes.

We had scheduled a pea canners' conference in Madison, and they filled a room twice as large as this to ask for the old orders. They thought that was a very reasonable thing to ask. Here for years during pea times they had 14 hours a day, and they wanted us just to give them the old orders during this stress. And that was a pretty hard thing to get by. Then I told them of the talk that I had had

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with Mr. Hoover, that I realized we wanted to help during the war, and that the women would sacrifice their lives if necessary, but whether that was necessary was something that we had to consider. I told them that I did not know whether the necessity existed when I went with them to Boston, and that is why I went to Washington to find out about this necessity business. I outlined to them what Mr. Hoover said, that he would not work women 14 hours a day, peas or no peas, and I said, "What have you to say in reference to this situation?" The reaction was rather deadening so far as enlivening discussion was concerned, and there was very little response. I said, "There must be some remarks on this proposition." Of course, the thing was rounding out into a discussion of the 12 hours two days a week proposition; that is, the modification from the 14 to 12. I remember one of the pea canners said, "I want to ask you a question. That is all well enough, but we are practical business men; we have to do what we said we were going to do, and I can not see my way out. I am going to ask you a question. I want to know what you are going to say about this situation: We are working 10 hours a day, and then an emergency comes and we work 12 hours on that day. Perhaps we have a breakdown where the women have not been working, but you require us to pay them if they are on the premises, which we do from the time they check in until they check out. You require us to pay them, and we may have had a three or four hour breakdown. If we work two hours longer on that day, we may save 100 cases of peas, which may save the life of some one in the trenches. What am I going to do as a pea canner?" I said, "I do not know; that is for you to say. You will save 100 cases of peas, perhaps, by doing it. On the one hand you will be complying with this law and you may waste the peas, and on the other hand you face criminal prosecution. It is up to you to decide." He said, "This means business?" I said, "Absolutely, this means business. I do not think you are going to go up against that emergency, because we will do everything we can to help you with the labor situation, and we will expect you to keep within the hours of labor laid down in these orders."

That seemed to take all right, except they were wondering where the labor would come from, but we were there to help them. It is one thing to tell a person that he can not do a thing when faced with a business proposition and when he is sometimes bewildered—the employer is confused at times with reference to the application of the labor law, and it is not enough to say, "We will send you over the road," unless you can help him. We did help the pea canners, and I might have brought with me some letters of congratulation and thanks from the pea canners of Wisconsin who came down from the 14 to the 12 hours and lived within it with the help we gave them. And there were very few peas spoiled, and there were fewer violations during that period than in any year since I have been on the commission.

It all comes from this: It is the clear understanding of what you are going to do, what they expect you are going to do, and the handling of it as a reasonable proposition. If it was put over simply as an arbitrary proposition that we were going to have a 12-hour day because we said so, and because we had the power, we would never

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have gotten away with it, and properly so. It has been found that the 12-hour day was right, and I think we are going lower than that, and that is a question I want to touch on very briefly. That was a big step in advance, from the 14 to the 12, and then only in the case of emergency, and I think in a very short time the pea-canning arrangement in Wisconsin will be such that it will not be a real problem to reorganize the working period. There is another phase that I would like to touch upon, but I do not want to monopolize the time.

The CHAIRMAN. Are there any questions?

Mrs. SEMPLE. In the general hearings on the question of night work where was the emphasis placed, on the health evil or the social evil?

Mr. HAMBRECHT. The health evil more than the social evil. We had overwhelming testimony on the health question. Night work is not healthful for man or woman, and if that is true, if one is to be saved, it should be the woman. We were created to work during the daytime, but, as has been emphasized a good many times during this conference, the complexity of our industrial life has become such that we are not able to avoid some night work. The people demand services at night; we all do. We go to the theater, and that means night work, and after that we go to a restaurant, and we have all sorts of things that demand it. We can not be unreasonable on the proposition, but as a general proposition I do not think there is a question but what night work is not as healthful for the worker as day work. The night was made to sleep in and the day to work. To answer that further, a thing that we did develop where there was night work was to have the quitting hours in the telephone exchanges and restaurants within a reasonable time, so that the workers would be safe in going either from or to their work.

Mrs. UDALL. You said you made a survey on the night work. Do you have that in printed form?

Mr. HAMBRECHT. We have a bulletin on it, giving the result of it; but the evidence would not go on this table here; it was voluminous. It was all taken in shorthand and reduced to a record. The way we held the hearings, we issued tentative orders, for instance, that night work in certain occupations would be prohibited. "What have you to say about it?" We would go to the different cities and have public hearings with the labor people and employers and those interested in economic subjects, and they would tell their stories. And then we requested doctors and those who had made a study of the health situation to appear and make a statement for us and give the results of their experience. You may think that we have overdone the Wisconsin propositions, but it shows our enthusiasm in trying to get Wisconsin people interested in this subject. Dr. Olson, who is a Federal representative working in Wisconsin, I consider one of the best men in the country on the question of what is and what is not healthful for the worker. I do not know of any man who has made a more intensive survey than Dr. Olson. He is working in the department of health in Wisconsin, and he was of great help in giving us the benefit of his researches. I asked Dr. Olson to appear on this program so that he might give you his views, and it would have been

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valuable because of the angle he would take as a physician and the result of his survey in finding out the effects of work on women and children particularly, but the Surgeon General said that he did not feel—his reason was that this was an international association and it was against the policy of the United States Government to mix in international affairs. I wrote back and told him that while it had the title of an international association that we did not discuss international affairs and that there is a difference between attending a convention in which international affairs and subjects are discussed and a simple convention of delegates who are discussing purely local affairs. He said that, anyway, the appropriation was so low that it could not be done. I hope whoever has charge of the program next year will bear Dr. Olson in mind. He has been assigned to Wisconsin and has made a three-year survey there, and, of course, Wisconsin women are the same as others.

Mrs. UDALL. What is the address?

Mr. HAMBRECHT. He is representing the Federal Government, working with the State public health service, but specializes on sanitation. When he was making this survey it was in regard to hours of labor for women and children, but now he is engaged in a different line of work.

Mrs. UDALL. We can get that printed matter from your department?

Mr. HAMBRECHT. Yes; I will be glad to send you a copy. It will simply give you the results.

The CHAIRMAN. I was going to ask Mr. Ainslee or Mr. Duncan, from Connecticut, to tell us just in a very brief way what their night-work law that has just been passed included. Are they in the room?

Mr. W. E. DUNCAN, factory inspector of Connecticut. In Connecticut we have a law that says no women shall work over 10 hours in one day or 55 hours in a week; also, that they shall not work between the hours of 10 o'clock p. m. and 6 o'clock a. m. That is prohibited night work. That law has been in effect about two years and it has been very well observed, except in restaurants, and we have had quite a number of prosecutions in the restaurants. That was the only place.

The CHAIRMAN. It covers all industries?

Mr. DUNCAN. No; not telegraph or telephone companies, but all other industries. The restaurants are the only places that we have had any violations of any kind. I just prosecuted one manager for it. He had a double shift on and was working them nights, and he pleaded guilty and was fined. I think he was fined $50 and costs.

We have a form on which the hours must be posted, and if the women are not working within the hours that are posted on this form it is a violation, and we have generally got our own evidence. I have one of those forms here with me, if you would like to see it.

The CHAIRMAN. I was going to ask Mrs. Trumbull to discuss this question, but we are going along so very slowly that at this rate we will not be half through our program when the day is over. I wonder if Mrs. Trumbull would discuss it very briefly.

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Mrs. TRUMBULL. There is very little to discuss in regard to night work, as far as Oregon is concerned. We have a regulation that women shall not work after 8.30 in laundries and manufacturing establishments, but we take off the limit for public hospitals and office workers and telephone workers. The commission has been so anxious to protect the health of its women that it has not stood for any extension of the time. For those interested in this matter of night work for women, the case against night work in the New York court decision gives everything that is desirable. Oregon is against night work for women, as it is against night work for men.

Then, we have employers who say that we must allow the manufacturers to determine their own time of work. That is a strong opinion in various quarters among the employers. But if the woman is going to work out her own salvation she must choose her own time. There is absolutely nothing else to say. Night work is bad for all of us. The pressure has come from the woman who does her own housework in the daytime and then wants to work at night. In our orders on minors no girl under 18 can work after 6 o'clock, but that is as far as we have gone. We have, unfortunately, no morning limits. We say they can not work after 8.30 o'clock at night, but they can go to work at 1 o'clock in the morning. That is where we are very lax, and that is to be corrected, we hope, at the next conference. I am sure there is no question about it—night work is bad.

The CHAIRMAN. I agree with that. I am going to ask Mr. Hambrecht to discuss for a few moments the Wisconsin method of prosecuting employers for violations of the law.

Mr. HAMBRECHT. I know that sometimes we check our work by the number of prosecutions we have had, and consider ourselves efficient because we have so many prosecutions as against another State that has had so many. When I come before conventions of this kind and talk about our prosecutions I feel that we have fallen down somewhere along the line. If I were looking for an easy way to handle my job I want to say that it would be through prosecutions. That is the easiest way a labor commissioner can handle his work—as soon as there is a violation report it to the prosecuting attorney, and then he is through; he need not think about it again, but can go to the next case. That is easy. When we say we have no prosecutions, that there are very few prosecutions, I want you to know what we do in place of them. I do not mean that the fellows who are violating the law are getting off quite as easy as that. There is not a week goes by—and I say that advisedly—not a single week but what there are from one to three employers in the State of Wisconsin on the carpet before the industrial commissioner, attended usually by their attorneys. They do not have to reckon with the court unless we can not handle them. Once in a while we can not. That is why I say we fall down; if we can not handle them we go to court. What we have in mind is to administer the law and stop violations, and I think we are doing it. I think we have just as many violations as any other State.

When these violations come to our attention, as they do to your attention, the question is what to do. We are willing to stop them, and we do not forgive and forget after the session we have with the employer and his attorneys. We have a very decided working under-

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standing with reference to that establishment, and in almost every case that man leaves our office a friend of the industrial commissioner. We not only talk about this law which somebody has passed, and say because it is there of course all you have to do is obey it and you must do this, but we go into the subject as to why that law is there. We get right together with those employers the same as we are getting together with each other here, and we discuss the background of that law and why it is there, and why he is a stumbling block and why he is there. As I say, in most cases when we get to that employer at least to that extent, we have it over with. Then his case is held in abeyance, and we say to him, "You have violated the law in reference to this, and we have no desire to cause you any unnecessary embarrassment, but we do want to make it plain that you are not to violate the law in the State of Wisconsin again; that has got to stop. This case is held in abeyance, and if another violation occurs you know now what this law is and what will be the result. We have heard all of the excuses that you did not know about it, that it was inadvertent, that it was somebody else's business to attend to that, that it did not come to your attention, but you are going to know this now, because you are going to make it part of your business to know it just as much as you do knowing how much income you have. If you violate this law again in your factory you will be directly to blame and without excuse, and there will be a prosecution then, because we can not do anything with you." I do not put it just in that language, because we want to have friendly relations, friendly working relations. I do not think it can be truthfully said that any employer who faces the industrial commissioner thinks that we are easy. We do not like to prosecute in the sense of reporting it to the attorney general as soon as we know of a violation; we want to get to the employer. Those are the extreme cases that come before the industrial commissioner.

We have meetings of our deputies once a month. We have perhaps 25, and others are in the field, but in the office force about 25, about one-third of whom are women. We go over the policies and talk about them, and the deputies talk to us. It is a regular round-table discussion, and we exchange ideas and get the reaction in the field to the commission. The commission tries to get its ideas there, and the deputy goes out there as a commissioner and not simply as a policeman. Before he leaves an employer he wants to convince him that he had better not have that go to Madison that way. He says: "You have violated the law, and it is up to you to square yourself with the commission. I understand this, but it has got to be reported that you violated this law, and the commission does not like to have reports of violations and nothing done. The commission wants to know what you are going to do about it." I wish you could see the files of letters. Once in a while an employer gets ugly and will not do it, and then we write him a letter something to this effect, that we are very much surprised that our deputy had to call upon him, and that we have not heard from him. We say: "We will decide what to do with your case next Tuesday"—and Tuesday, by the way, is commission day meeting. "On Tuesday we will decide what to do with your case, as to whether or not it will be reported to the attorney general for prosecution. If you have anything to say in the defense of your position, it will be heard before the commission."

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That is the time he comes in with his attorneys, and then we go through the whole source of the grievance, clear back for five years, and find out all the troubles he has had and tell him what we are trying to do. After a while he says: "If I had known this in the first place, I would not be here. If it is that way, it is all right." But if the employer wants to find out what his rights are and how far we will go, he can find out. It has seldom been necessary, however, to go beyond that point, and such cases are almost negligible.

Miss AGNES L. PETERSON, industrial director, Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor. I think most of the States have that same system, but there is one thing you have in Wisconsin that the other States do not have; you handle your cases in the civil courts.

Mr. HAMBRECHT. They are reported to the attorney general.

Miss PETERSON. They are not the regular sort of prosecutions that they have in the other States.

Mr. HAMBRECHT. The attorney general draws the complaint, and it is a forfeiture action in the circuit court of Dane County.

Miss PETERSON. In some States you can not bring a case into the civil court unless your complaint involves $500, and I understand your limit in Wisconsin is $100 or $200.

Mr. HAMBRECHT. Two hundred dollars for the justice court, but we do not go into the justice court. It is not a misdemeanor action, it is a forfeiture action, which I think is a good thing; you get away from a jury trial.

I want to say this, since I have been on the commission—for five years—we have never had a lawsuit. That might strike you as funny, but we have never gone to trial. After the case gets to a court proposition we are through with it, and the employers come and say, "How are we going to settle this?" Then we get together with them, and they settle it by paying a fine they will remember, but not a punitive fine in the nature of punishment. If they come to fight it out, of course they can get a very large fine imposed upon them. We had a case the other day. We only aid the prosecution in preparing cases. The employer did not appear, and that was the reason it was prosecuted. The employers usually appear when we ask them to show cause, but this one simply did not show up, and, of course, having said we would consider what we would do, we reported it. But he came in then and wanted to get out, and he will, as far as that is concerned, by paying a fine. I said, "You have now got to a stage you might have avoided, but it is in the hands of the attorney general and you have got to pay enough so that it will be a substantial fine," and that was all right. As long as I have been on the commission there has been no trial. I have never seen one go clear through.

Mrs. SEMPLE. Does your department prosecute directly?

Mr. HAMBRECHT. It is reported to the attorney general.

Mrs. SEMPLE. You have no action?

Mr. HAMBRECHT. No; I say that is why it is easy.

Mr. F. E. HOFFMAN, assistant labor commissioner, Department of Labor and Industry of Minnesota. Does the commission or the attorney general fix the penalty?

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Mr. HAMBRECHT. We have a conference with the attorney general on that. We submit what the circumstances are and all the details of the grievance. We usually state that the employer wants to have the matter dropped so that he may be given a chance to show the commission what he really can do now that he understands the law, and we say that under the circumstances perhaps a $200 fine will be sufficient.

Mr. HOFFMAN. There is really no actual minimum fixed by statute?

Mr. HAMBRECHT. There is a maximum set by statute—not to exceed $50 a day for every day that the child is illegally employed, and such as that.

Mrs. COX. I would like to ask Mr. Hambrecht how the law is written? We are having this same difficulty in the State of Indiana, and we find that the attorney general will not handle any of the cases. Does your law specifically state that these complaints are to be filed with the attorney general?

Mr. HAMBRECHT. No.

Mrs. COX. What is the basis, then, on which you get it before the attorney general?

Mr. HAMBRECHT. When the industrial commission complains to the attorney general that one of its orders has been violated, it then becomes the duty of the attorney general to draw a complaint.

Mrs. COX. Does the law specify that?

Mr. HAMBRECHT. Yes; it does. I can not give the phraseology, and I would not attempt to quote the statute, but I can give you that. There is a lot of cumbersome material in our child-labor statute. The penalty is as I have stated, but it ought to be rewritten, and the revisory board is now working on it. But that is the substance of it, the attorney general must draw a complaint for a violation that has been reported to him by the industrial commissioner. That saves, of course, as you see, the necessity of a girl or child or woman going into the justice court and filing a complaint against her employer. We seldom, if ever, use any of the evidence gathered. We get complaints, but our complaint is made by the deputy. If we have a complaint of a certain employer in Eau Claire, we send our deputy to make a thorough survey of that factory, and she may find that, and half a dozen others, and with that evidence at hand, our deputy appears to push the case instead of the employee.

Miss BRESETTE. I am not sure that what I have to say is just in line with this, but I was very glad to hear what Mr. Hambrecht had to say. He repeated the speaker of yesterday who said that they were selling their ideas—selling education. I know something about what the different departments in the country are doing, and I know that there are departments of labor and other departments of labor; I know that there are industrial commissioners and industrial commissioners, and factory inspectors and factory inspectors, and I wonder if, after all, in the matter of the enforcement of law the personnel of the department does not have a great deal to do with it. I wondered how far Mr. Hambrecht would have gotten with the pea canners in Wisconsin if when he made his inspection he said, as I

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have heard inspectors say, "Well, I do not care much about this law either, but then it is my job." I also wondered if this would not be a good place to really debate the proper selection of people for the departments and for the make-up of commissions, etc. I hope it will get some thought before the convention is over, because unless people who are trying to enforce the law are in sympathy with the thing they are doing the law enforcement is liable to be very poor. I believe that it is only possible to enforce the law as far as the sentiment of the community goes, and that the sentiment of the community must be educated, and I know of none who are in a better position to do that than the people who make up the personnel of the departments. I would say that the people who are in the department have to be educated, and if they are not educated in line with their business they ought not to be in the department.

The CHAIRMAN. The hour for adjournment has arrived, and I have no doubt that some of you have appointments. We are going to meet here again at promptly 2 o'clock this afternoon. We have a very heavy program before us, and I hope everyone will be here at 2 o'clock.

(Whereupon the convention adjourned until 2 o'clock p. m.)

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WEDNESDAY, JULY 14—AFTERNOON SESSION.

MISS MARY ANDERSON, DIRECTOR OF THE WOMEN'S BUREAU, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, PRESIDING.

WOMEN IN INDUSTRY.

The CHAIRMAN. The meeting will please come to order. This is an announcement. The resolutions committee is to meet immediately after the adjournment of this session. The members of the resolution committee are Mr. Cox, of Indiana, chairman; Miss Johnson, of Massachusetts; Mr. Shipman, of North Carolina; and Mr. McLeod, of Alberta. You will meet immediately after the adjournment of this session this afternoon.

The committee on constitution will meet here to-morrow morning at 8.30. The members are Mr. Hoffman, chairman; Miss McFarland, and Mr. Duncan.

Miss BRESETTE. There are two other committees, and maybe some of them will answer.

The CHAIRMAN. There was a credentials committee appointed, with Mr. Morrissey as chairman, Miss Schutz, and Mr. Younger. The auditing committee consists of Mr. Seaman, of Iowa; Miss McLeod, of Michigan; and Mr. Hagan, of North Dakota.

The meeting is now open to continue the discussion on the different questions of women in industry.

Miss ALICE K. MCFARLAND, woman factory inspector of Kansas. It seems to me that before our program continues this afternoon we should make some definite limitation upon the length of the discussion or the length of the speeches. There are many vital questions that are to be taken up this afternoon, and there are women here from all over the United States and from Canada who are anxious to hear their particular problems discussed. It seems to me that if we spend too much time on any one problem some of the questions will be neglected. I would like to move this, that the discussions or the speeches be limited to five minutes.

(Motion seconded.)

The CHAIRMAN. You have heard the motion that a limit of five minutes each be put on the speeches and discussions. Are you ready for the question?

(Motion carried.)

The CHAIRMAN. The next question to be taken up is working conditions. The first branch of that is comfort and sanitation, how to word a good sanitary code, and discussion of the New York law. We haven't anyone from New York, I believe, and we have asked Mr. Hoffman, of Minnesota, to discuss this, but Mr. Hoffman has asked me to call on Miss Schutz, from Minnesota, to discuss this question.

Miss SCHUTZ. I am not informed on that subject.

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The CHAIRMAN. Well, suppose we ask some one else that wants to discuss that question—comfort and sanitation and working conditions.

DELEGATE. Let us hear from Mrs. Udall.

The CHAIRMAN. Mrs. Udall, of Washington, will you discuss this question?

Mrs. UDALL. I do not believe I am quite as well informed to discuss it as some of the other ladies here. We have no real sanitary code in our State. I would rather hear from some State where they have a real sanitary code.

Miss SCHUTZ. Do you mean the New York code?

The CHAIRMAN. We did mean the New York code, but there is no one here from New York.

Miss SCHUTZ. I might speak of our own code. We have a new sanitary code, passed at the last session of the legislature, that has some provisions in it that are rather new.

In regard to ventilation, it provides that there should be proper and sufficient means of ventilation and that the limit of people in the room should be one to 250 cubic feet of air by special consent of the commissioner of labor, otherwise 400 cubic feet of air to each person, and, of course, it is very seldom that any request comes in for any less than 400 feet. We have found occasionally that there are more people in a room than is permitted by law, and that has to be regulated.

In regard to toilet facilities, according to our laws, there shall be one toilet to every 20 persons employed, and the ratio increases as the number of employees increases in the establishment. Then we demand that the toilet shall be either independently sealed over or that the partitions of the toilet shall be extended to the ceiling, and that the toilet shall be adequately ventilated to the outside air. We have been working on that particular phase of our law especially, and have had issued a great many orders asking employers to ventilate toilets properly. We have had considerable difficulty in persuading them that this is a proper course to pursue. We have been able to enforce the law without prosecution, but sometimes it takes considerable persuasion to do so.

I think that is one very important thing, and we find it especially as we go throughout the State in the smaller towns. We find that the toilets are not adequately ventilated to the outside air, and we suggest that if the toilet has not outside ventilation that a duct be exended from the toilet to the chimney or outside partition or some such arrangement be made in order that the toilet may be ventilated in that way.

Mrs. TRUMBULL. Before you leave the question of toilets, how about the doors?

Miss SCHUTZ. Of course, if the toilet is inside the dressing room, then the door does not need to extend to the floor, but it must be properly guarded to insure privacy at all times. And if in passing the dressing room it is so that one can look into the toilet, then there must be a door on the toilet, properly protected at top and bottom to insure privacy.

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I know in one of our finest and largest factories in Minneapolis there was a large dressing room but no doors on the toilets at all, and we had considerable difficulty in persuading the people in charge of that factory—a very large factory—that they must provide doors for the toilets. They could not see why it was necessary.

There must be adequate facilities for washing the hands, not necessarily hot water, but there should be plenty of water and soap, and we are asking for individual towels. We have difficulty about that, trying to get people to install individual towels, and we are not recommending any particular towel—the paper towel, if they see fit, or else an individual cotton or linen towel. We are suggesting that the employees be given a towel on Monday morning, and that the towel be taken away from them when it is soiled and a clean one supplied. A good many of the employers are putting in the paper towels because they think it is cheaper. The objection is that if the work being done by the employees is very dirty and they have to do something else besides dip their hands in the water, it is not always easy to wipe the hands on the paper towel. Of course, the paper towel is sometimes mussy—they do not always have a container provided—and the dressing room becomes very much cluttered, because there is not a proper disposal made of the paper towels. Individual towels ought to be provided in all employments, and that is an educational program that we are trying to follow out. We are telling employers that they must provide towels, but they are not always willing to do so.

We are trying to persuade employers that they should provide a place that will be separate from the workroom where the employees may eat, and that comes in on the lunch-period proposition. We have in our law a provision that an hour must be given for a lunch period, and half an hour by consent of the commissioner of labor. Our law does not say that a lunch room must be provided, but we are trying to persuade employers that a lunch room should be provided where a shorter period than an hour is permitted. And either hot coffee should be supplied or else the employees should be permitted to make coffee themselves.

Of course, we ask that in factories the walls and ceilings and the toilet fixtures should be kept clean, and that the windows should be kept clean, because clean windows, of course, help the efficiency of the employees, and a lighter workroom also helps the efficiency of employees. That is an educational program, too, and we have to do a great deal of talking in order to accomplish that.

We have no provision in our law for the locker system. Some of the other States have provision for a locker system and require that lockers should be provided.

The CHAIRMAN. Does anyone else wish to discuss that question? Otherwise we will go on to the next question, which is posture at work.

Mr. J. D. SEAMAN, deputy commissioner, Bureau of Labor Statistics of Iowa. In regard to standing on cement floors all day, has any State legislated in regard to that?

Miss SCHUTZ. In some kitchens in restaurants they have been taken up, but in our stores, groceries, and meat markets they are still working on cement floors.

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The CHAIRMAN. I have no doubt that is done a great deal.

Miss BRESETTE. We have large packing houses in our State, particularly in Kansas City, Kans., and we find the Government has ordered cement floors in the places where the women work, so that our State legislation would not be effective there, I am sure.

Mrs. TRUMBULL. I think the Government would allow you to order wooden platforms, for the girls to stand on, for those floors.

Miss BRESETTE. We have done that, but we find in a great many places that the girls have to be educated to use those things—we found in many cases that the girls would shove them aside. In a number of cases we have not yet been able to educate the girls to use those wooden stands.

While I am on my feet I wish to call to mind that nobody has told us yet how to word a good sanitary code, and I wish that somebody from some State could discuss that. Some codes are beautifully written, in fact are almost classics, but they are not workable.

Miss SCHUTZ. I think our code is a very well written code, and a good working code.

Miss BRESETTE. Yes; other States think so, too. I want to know of some sanitary code that really can be enforced, where you can go into the shop of the man who really has not very much money and yet is able to live up to decent conditions, and say that this thing must be done. We go into places in our State, and I frankly confess to you that I do not know what to do. We would have to turn the lock in the front door of some of the business houses and shut them down altogether. You talk about outside ventilation; what do you do when you go into a place and find that the toilet was built in 30 years ago, and it is right in the middle of the room and far away from any outside wall? Put in a ventilation pipe? We do; but I have not found that those ventilating ducts amount to very much. They stick in a little 6-inch pipe and shoot it out through the ceiling, and the place is still unsanitary. I would like a little light on the subject. I do not know what to do, I frankly confess to you. If we could tell them just to shut their doors and build a new establishment, I think that we could arrive at something, but is it proper or feasible to do that, or is it a matter of education, and do we not have to wait until the new establishments are built and then see that conditions are made right at the start? Isn't it true with fire escapes and everything of that kind?

Mrs. TRUMBULL. May I answer one of the questions that was asked? I do not know, of course, anything about Kansas or its regulations, but my instructions from my commission have been that in all health matters, sanitary conditions, I must first look up the city ordinances on the subject. If it is a matter of fire escapes, I must report it to the fire inspector and then it is his responsibility. And if it is a matter of toilets there are very—in Portland we do things, we are up to date in our health department, so we promptly turn to our health ordinances and we require them to live up to them.

Miss BRESETTE. May I reply to that, Madam Chairman?

The CHAIRMAN. Yes.

Miss BRESETTE. I found a condition that I thought should be reported to the city board of health in our university town, and I did

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that, and they said: "Don't you know that the city health officer only gets $50 a month, and that he can't make himself unpopular with his patients and the people who patronize him and he can not enforce that?"

Mrs. Cox. Then, my instructions are to go ahead and bring them into court.

Miss BRESETTE. That is something we can not do under our regulations, but the city health officer is supposed to do it. It is in the law that he can do it, but he said he had to earn his living and by enforcing that he would not have any practice on the outside.

Mrs. Cox. May I ask Miss Bresette whether she can bring them into court? Do I understand that you can not?

Miss BRESETTE. We can bring them into court but our cases are taken care of by the county attorney, and the county attorney depends upon votes to get the place which he holds, and oftentimes he does not want to enforce the law for fear of ruining his chances for reelection.

Miss SCHUTZ. I think, no matter how good the vote is, you have got to depend upon the personality of the people who are enforcing the code, and if an inspector is conscientious and enforces the code the matter could be handled all right. And, then, of course, the inspector would have to be on the job every minute to see that conditions were lived up to and he would have to have a large force to do that. You can not expect to make ideal conditions in building laws.

The CHAIRMAN. The next question is the proper position at work and the adjustment of the seats to the height of the worktables and of the workers. This discussion is going to be led by Miss Johnson, of Massachusetts.

Miss JOHNSON. I can only tell you about the provisions of the Massachusetts law regarding the proper seating for women workers, and then, perhaps, the members from other States can tell us something more about the conditions in their States. I think I will not take more than five minutes. The Massachusetts law requires that employers in manufacturing and mercantile and mechanical establishments shall provide suitable seats for their women employees and shall permit them to be used during the time when they are at work, provided their work permits them to be seated. There is no requirement as to the number of seats per number of employees, and no requirement as to the type of seats. There is only the general requirements that suitable seats shall be provided. Of course, that does not definitely make provision for the posture of the employee at work, but under that general provision there is an opportunity to require that the seats shall be such that they shall enable the workers to sit at their work comfortably.

The department has the authority to say to employers who are simply providing boxes for their employees to sit on that those are not suitable seats and that they must provide chairs. The inspector also has the power to point out to employers, when he goes through an establishment and finds that the chairs provided are of such a nature that the operatives sitting on them can not touch their feet to the floor, that those are not suitable seats, and can suggest that chairs of a better type be provided. That, of course, is largely educational

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work, as much of the inspection work has to be educational. There has been no special study made by the department on the question of posture at work. Some private agencies in Massachusetts have been very much interested in this subject and are making a study of it. I think perhaps in some of the other States more work may have been done on this subject, and I will leave the discussion for others to take up.

The CHAIRMAN. Does anyone else wish to discuss this subject?

Mrs. COX. The nature of the work often requires that the chair be where the operative can not touch her feet to the floor. I would like to hear an expression of opinion as to whether, when that is the case, it is better for the footrest to be on the chair or attached to the table.

The CHAIRMAN. Is there anyone who can answer that question?

Mrs. TRUMBULL. It depends entirely on what is under the table. We require them, if the chair is high, to put something besides just a little rod for the foot to rest on. We ask them to put a piece of board tilted at the right angle, and then, of course, there is the rung on the chair.

But there is one matter which I wish somebody would discuss, and that is the type of chair, the rigidness of the seat of the chair and the backs. In almost every place where I ask them to put backs on the chairs they say that the girls do not want them, and when I put my hand across a girl's back and she leans back against my hand I know that she does want it, because there is a relief there. And then when you ask them if they wouldn't like to have something there to lean back against, about 3 o'clock in the afternoon, they usually say yes.

Mr. SEAMAN. In view of the fact that no State seems to have legislated on this question of the posture at work, I would like to move that we endeavor in legislation to avoid the use of the word "proper," because the question then arises as to what is proper. Our law is the same as that in Massachusetts. If the foreman says it does not interfere with the work the women may use the chairs. In a place where the women work eight hours and stand on a cement floor they have chairs in that department, but they are not allowed to use them, because it is claimed they interfere with their work. Those women are waiting on the trade in groceries and in our department stores, where they are selling canned goods and things of that kind, and they walk about from one place to another filling orders. I would like to move that we try and legislate that the employers supply the necessary chairs.

The CHAIRMAN. Use the word "supply" instead of asking for proper chairs? I think that ought to be referred to the resolutions committee to pass a resolution along those lines. Will the resolutions committee take that up without a motion, or will you put that motion, if that is desirable? I think if the resolution is prepared and submitted to the resolutions committee it will have attention.

Mrs. SEMPLE. Our Pennsylvania law simply requires that seats shall be provided, at least one seat for each three women, conveniently accessible to the workers' work, and that their reasonable use shall be permitted. Of course, the weak point of that is the reasonable use.

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In Pennsylvania the industrial board, in addition to that ruling, has ruled that wherever possible seats shall be provided for elevator operators. That phrasing is quite necessary in our State on account of the old type of buildings, and the ruling is that wherever possible they shall be provided, because there are some elevators so small that when there are passengers in the elevator it is impossible to seat the operator at all times.

In addition to that we have put out in Pennsylvania a little pamphlet of information for those interested in the employment of women. It is as near a code, or as near the production of a code, on the employment of women as we have been able to come to at the present time. We have gathered up the provisions concerning women from all the labor laws of the State and included them in this pamphlet. In addition to the provisions of the law we have added some introductory matter, and we have indicated there the good effect that may be secured by adjusting seats to the height of machines or work tables, so that the workers may with equal facility sit or stand at their work. I think we have taken that partly from California and partly from the Federal standards.

Then in still another section of this little pamphlet on information for women we add this by way of education: That it has been found that any possible position, whether standing or sitting, which must be continuously maintained for any length of time is injurious, and therefore employers are urged to consider the value of rest periods of at least 10 minutes each before and after lunch as a means of combating fatigue, to which women are more susceptible than men. When we had our safety conference we had presented the subject of needed rest periods for women and the question of sitting or standing for a long period.

The CHAIRMAN. The next question is industrial lighting. Mrs. Semple, of Pennsylvania, is to discuss this question.

Mrs. SEMPLE. We have in Pennsylvania a code issued by the industrial board on the question of industrial lighting. The code was prepared by experts upon the subject of lighting, and it is criticized by a great many manufacturers of the State on the ground that it is too technical and too little adapted to the practical use of the establishment. I think that is, in a great many cases at any rate, not a well-founded criticism. It is largely made in the interest of getting away from it. One of the things that the manufacturers criticize very decidedly is the double system of lighting. It is provided in the code that there shall be a double system of lighting for the workroom and the exit. The manufacturers at every conference which we have bring up the objection to the double system of lighting and ask how it can be accomplished under certain circumstances, and what good it does, and also what would be interpreted as a double system of lighting, electric-light service, etc. There are endless objections which they discuss.

An endeavor has been made to educate the inspection force as to what constitutes proper distribution of light, the proper amount of light, and very delicate scientific instruments are furnished, in the use of which the inspectors have been instructed and which they may take out with them and determine the actual amount of light from a scientific standpoint on any given piece of work or in any

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workroom. I think the education has been a valuable thing in bringing about the cooperation of the plant owners, plant operators, and that they understand that we are not trying to put over something really arbitrary on them, but something that they can do.

Miss JOHNSON. I would like to ask Mrs. Semple if the employers objected to the intensity requirement of the code, and whether the minimum requirement under the intensity provision in the code was higher than the actual practice in a good many plants.

Mrs. SEMPLE. I think not. I am not personally aware of as many objections to the intensity required as to the double lighting system for exits. The opinion very frequently seems to be that the intensity is greater in practice, and there is a great disadvantage to the operative in the strain on the eyes from overlighting.

Miss JOHNSON. I am very much interested in that because Massachusetts has under consideration at the present time a lighting code for industrial establishments. There has been a committee appointed to study the subject of rules and regulations for lighting industrial establishments. In fact, that was started by the former board and is being carried on by the present board. We found that there was considerable objection on the part of the employer's representatives on the committee. The committee which is studying the code is made up of representatives of employers and employees, and of experts on the subject of effectual lighting. There is a great deal of objection to the subject of intensity required. In fact, we secured practically complete agreement on the part of the committee members to most of the other provisions of the code, such as safeguarding glare and regarding the proper adjustment of lights. The two questions which have stood out as the major ones were the one which Mrs. Semple referred to, the question of emergency lights, separate circuits for the entrance and the hallway lighting, and the question of intensity. On the question of emergency lighting the difficulty there was how far back it would be necessary to go for a separate connection.

Mrs. SEMPLE. May I ask Miss Johnson if the question was as to intensity or distribution?

Miss JOHNSON. Intensity rather than distribution.

The CHAIRMAN. Does anyone else wish to discuss this question?

Mrs. TRUMBULL. I would like to ask a question. It has nothing to do directly with the lighting, but with the reflection of the light. I have found in my inspections that where there were highly polished surfaces and a lot of nickel and glass, if the lights are not perfectly placed those reflections go into the eyes of the workers. I wonder if anybody else has had any experience along that line? Wherever we can, we get the sympathy of the employer.

Miss JOHNSON. Most of the lighting codes make provision for that very situation to which Mrs. Trumbull has referred. Under the section regarding the protecting of the eyes of the worker from glare, it is not only from the glare of the lights but the glare from reflecting surfaces.

The CHAIRMAN. We will go to the next question, which is conditions in need of correction. Constant standing or other posture

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causing physical strain; repeated lifting of heavy weights or other abnormal fatiguing motions. Miss Lewis, of Alberta, is going to discuss that question.

Mrs. MARGARET LEWIS, inspector of factories and shops, Alberta, Canada. I did not quite understand that I was to discuss those particular points, but rather the disability accruing to women through their condition of health. I will take it from that angle.

Any woman who is doing constant inspection work among women workers can not but be aware of the fact that every occupation brings with it particular disabilities, some of them latent until some years after the period at which the inspection has been made. Just as surely as one can predict how many suicides will take place next year, so a practical inspector could predict what the number of diseases that girls are suffering from would be in any particular occupation. I have in mind one particular aspect of the question, and that is the employment of children under 18 in laundries. I have found that children in large steam laundries, girls under the age of 18, suffer very extreme nervousness. On being addressed in the quietest manner by the inspector they burst into tears. That is an injurious condition, and girls especially should not be employed in large factories where there is excessive noise and heat and steam, because of the nervous condition that it engenders among them. I did not find that the nervousness was apparent among girls over 18.

Now, we will assume, then, that every occupation brings with it its particular disability accruing through that particular employment, and we must see what we can do to remedy this matter. I have studied that carefully in my own district and I have reached this conclusion. I do not know whether conditions in other States are the same as in my own Province, but we have a complete and thorough inspection of children at school until the leaving age of 15. Our leaving age is 15, and no child may be employed before that age. Then comes the period when the worker enters into industrial life. Although we have a public health service, that is not of any use to the woman until she has reached that health period. We therefore have an industrial period of employment when no medical inspection or advice or assistance is given, and I would like to see the medical inspection of school children extended into the industrial life and industrial occupation. I do not know whether that could come under factory acts, or what. I should say it would be under public health. I would like also to have every worker in any kind of work inspected at certain times. The average worker in a factory does not understand the first principles of sanitary conditions under which they should work. Factory inspectors know perfectly well that sometimes they go in and open the windows and then after they leave the workers will shut the windows again. If we can have them instructed so as to recognize sanitary conditions, I think it would go a long way toward benefiting their health.

I do not know as I have any other suggestions to offer on the subject just now. I have come here to listen and to learn. I have not the opportunity some of you women have of meeting and exchanging ideas with others in the same line of work. I am the only woman in my Province doing this work, and I want to say that I have been

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helped greatly by discovering that all of your problems are my problems in my own Province. We do need industrial legislation for Canada, and I have been very greatly helped by the discussions I have listened to this afternoon.

The CHAIRMAN. Does anyone wish to discuss that question further, or the question of the lifting of heavy weights?

Miss JOHNSON. I would like to ask Mrs. Lewis, have you any inspection for the school children as they are leaving school and entering industry?

Mrs. LEWIS. That was the point that I meant to make and forgot. I would like to have every school child inspected before leaving school. We have no leaving inspection. What I also meant to say was that we need medical inspection not only in the schools but also in any place where we can have it at no expense to the parents; whatever operation or treatment that child needs should be given. If that could be extended into industrial life, if we could have that medical inspection, think how much it would mean to the life and safety of the worker.

Mr. J. D. SEAMAN, deputy commissioner, Bureau of Labor Statistics of Iowa. I would like to know whether or not any of the States or Provinces have legislation fixing the amount of weight a female employee may lift in her occupation. It seems to me it might be material to know. I do not know whether any of the States have any such legislation.

The CHAIRMAN. Can anyone answer that question?

Mrs. SEMPLE. During the war period, in Pennsylvania, some of us tried hard to have our department work out some sort of a standard on that proposition. We have a regulation that a woman may not lift a core weighing more than 15 pounds. During the war we did our best to have the cooperation of the Federal Government, the Federal Labor Department and the Federal Health Department, to try to work out a standard for weights for women, and after a good bit of work they said it was impossible to do it. It just happened to be a general proposition, and in the little pamphlet of information to those interested in employment of women we discussed the subject of weights that a woman should be allowed to lift, and the statement is made that the work should be divided into very light, light, heavy, and very heavy. The suggestion was made that women should be limited to the light and very light occupations, and that where great weights were to be lifted by women, that they should be divided into very small units for lifting and that all possible mechanical contrivances should be placed in establishments for their convenience.

Miss SCHUTZ. In Minnesota we have a law by which women are not allowed to lift a weight of more than 25 pounds in foundries.

Mrs. TRUMBULL. How often a day does she lift that?

Miss JOHNSON. Massachusetts has a regulation for the employment of women in foundries which has the same requirement that was stated from Minnesota. Women may not lift a core of a combined weight of more than 25 pounds, and may not be employed on any core which weighs more than 60 pounds.

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Mrs. TRUMBULL. I would like to ask the use of such a requirement as that. If the core in the mold weighs 25 pounds, if she lifts that 50 times a day it is just as hard as it she lifted 60 pounds once a day. I wish some one would move that the Women's Bureau of the Department of Labor be instructed by this conference to bring that matter to the attention of the department.

The CHAIRMAN. I think I will have to speak in self-defense. During the war when we went to Niagara Falls to try to find the condition under which women were to be employed in the mechanical industries at Niagara Falls we found that very heavy work was required, wheelbarrow work and all those things were being done by women. We tried to come to some conclusion as to what would be a proper weight. We tried it over and over and over again, and it is impossible to come to any conclusion, because it depends entirely upon how you do the work. You might put 200 pounds on a wheelbarrow and it will depend upon how you load that wheelbarrow where the weight falls. It also depends upon whether you lift from a table up, or whether you lift from the ground up, and all those things come into it and make it practically impossible to come to any conclusion. The most proper way, of course, for the manufacturers to handle it is to use conveyances. There is no reason in the world why we should have the men lifting and working hard so that when they become old they are cripples, crippled from rheumatism, crippled and stooped, and all that sort of thing. Men ought not to lift those heavy weights either. It is a question of not particularly the possible weight, 25 pounds, or 50 pounds, or 20 pounds, it is the condition of work for men and women, and that laborious work can be done away with if the manufacturers will install conveyors and lifting devices in the factories, as a great many of them have already done.

Is there any further discussion on this subject? If not we will go to the next subject, which is the women's part in the formation of policies for the employment of women, and the administration of labor laws. Mrs. Semple of Pennsylvania is to start this discussion also.

Mrs. SEMPLE. I can only say what we do in Pennsylvania, the organization as I understand it. I was asked simply to state the organization in Pennsylvania. The Pennsylvania department of labor includes the industrial board, and by law one member of that industrial board must be a woman. That recognizes women at the top of the system. Pennsylvania is fortunate enough, in contrast to Colorado, to have an inspection force of 100 inspectors for the State. That includes 30 people who are assigned to office positions, as well as the actual inspectorial force in the field. Of those who are rated as inspectors of that inspection force of 100, about one-tenth are women. That varies sometimes, but at the present time I think we have actually 11 women who are rated as inspectors, 9 of them, I believe, in the field, and those women are confined chiefly to inspection work where women are employed. That is not always the case, however. For instance, a certain proportion of those women are assigned to bakeshop work in the State, under the inherited impression, I suppose, that women have something to do with baking. As a matter of fact, those women inspect fewer women than men under

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the conditions of labor in that industry. But the other women are chiefly employed in mercantile inspections and inspections of toilet facilities, dressing-room arrangements, etc., in large establishments where women are employed. The whole force of woman inspectors may be diverted, as it has been at times diverted, from what might be called their routine line of employment to some special investigation concerning women in certain employments in the State. The theory is that women are particularly interested and particularly qualified to inspect work in which women are employed. Pennsylvania is not fortunate enough to have the establishment by law of a woman's bureau or woman's division in its inspection service. During the war period, and, in fact, reaching back before the war period, we have organized by grace under two successive commissioners of labor a division of women's and children's activities. That is a very different thing from one established by statute, and we know from the changes which have been necessary from time to time in the department that a women's division by grace is not a lasting arrangement and not really a good arrangement, and I have very strongly in my own mind the impression that in every State there should be an effort to establish by law a division of woman and child labor within the department of labor. I found that when I speak of the department of labor I speak of it in terms applicable only to Pennsylvania, as I found that these terms are not applicable at all to quite a number of the other States. But in Pennsylvania we have largely the commission form of government, and the department of labor is one of those commissions. There are a great many activities which are separate commissions in other States which are lodged within that one commission, in separate bureaus, in Pennsylvania. It seems to me that if such a bureau is to be tied up with any other bureau within the inspection bureau, it should be as a distinct division of women and children in industry. Preferably, I think, it might be a separate bureau altogether, though I recognize its dependence upon inspection and the connection of such affairs with the general inspection force of the State, because women are not always segregated. Inspection in a great many aspects must cover both women and children as well as men, and recognizing that connection with the general inspection work of the State, it seems to me that there might well be a separate bureau of inspection or division of the bureau of inspection devoted to the interests of women and children.

Miss SCHUTZ. We have in Minnesota a bureau of women and children in the State labor department, under the direction of the commissioner of labor. We have the first bureau that was established in the United States, established, I think, in 1907. An investigation was made of the conditions under which women and children were working, and as a result of the investigation it was recommended to the legislature that a bureau be established with a superintendent at the head and four women inspectors. Last year, through the action of the legislature, they made a large enough appropriation for the department of labor and four inspectors were added to our department. At present we have a superintendent of the bureau and four inspectors.

I would like to tell you how we operate, because we are quite independent, in some respects, from the commissioner of labor. Of

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course, we are under his direction and in case of difficulty or if we want advice we feel free to go to him, but otherwise we work quite separately almost all the time. We divide the State up among the four inspectors, and they go out and make inspections through the State without consulting the commissioner of labor at all. We make our own plans in our own bureau. Our office is separate from that of the commissioner of labor, and in making our inspections we do it without consulting the commissioner of labor. We have our expenses paid, of course, and are permitted to travel throughout the State wherever it is necessary. In addition to traveling throughout the State we are often called upon to give talks in different parts of the State, and we are free at any time to go out and give talks along our line of work.

Our work is to enforce the laws pertaining to women and children, although we do have some help from our men inspectors in regard to the law pertaining to children. I think we are peculiarly fortunate in that we have four woman inspectors; we are more fortunate than some of the other States. We hold our own conferences in our own bureau and plan our work and talk over our problems, and then whenever we wish to prosecute, before the employer goes to the commissioner of labor to see whether or not the complaint might be withdrawn, we always talk with the commissioner and get his permission, because we want him to know what we are doing But if we happen to be somewhere out in the State and it is rather impracticable to get in touch with the commissioner of labor, and we feel that a prosecution is necessary, we are at perfect liberty to prosecute at any time. But whenever we can do so we always talk it over with the commissioner of labor first, but it is not necessary that we do so.

Mrs. SEMPLE. May I ask if those women inspect the conditions of safety in regard to machinery?

Miss SCHUTZ. We do not do much of that. The men do that.

Mrs. TRUMBULL. I would like to ask the speaker whether they have this board in addition to their minimum-wage board?

Miss SCHUTZ. We have a minimum-wage commission separate from the department of labor, but the commissioner of labor is also the head of that board. We have a secretary of the minimum-wage commission to enforce the minimum wage.

Miss LORD. I would like to ask how they are appointed, whether they are appointed or elected.

Miss SCHUTZ. We have civil service in Minnesota, and they must pass a civil-service examination, and then they are appointed from the eligible register.

Miss LORD. It is not left up to one man?

Miss SCHUTZ. Well, there is a board of three who appoint them.

Mrs. TRUMBULL. I would like to take issue with Minnesota. Oregon started its bureau in 1903.

Miss BRESETTE. I would like to know a little more about the status of the Minnesota bureau. I would like to know, as Mrs. Semple said, whether it is "by grace or by law." You say that you feel free to go to the commissioner of labor, but it is not necessary that

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you do so. Is that because of the extreme harmony in the bureau, or because your labor commissioner is interested in the working of the women in industry and has tried to pick people whom he thinks he can trust the work to, and has said, "Here, you are capable and efficient and I will let you do this work, and you need not bother me with the details, I will hold you responsible," or does the law permit you to direct the woman's work?

Miss SCHUTZ. No; there is nothing in the law about it. Our commissioner is very much interested in our work, but he has so many other things to look after that he does not like to bother with it. But we can always receive his advice, and he is always very much interested.

Miss BRESETTE. Then your department is responsible to your labor commissioner?

Miss SCHUTZ. Yes; we are under the labor commissioner.

Mrs. COX. The industrial affairs in the State of Indiana since 1915 have been under an industrial board. Previous to that time there were three separate bureaus—the factory inspector bureau, the mine inspection bureau, and the boiler inspection bureau. In 1915 the workmen's compensation law in the State of Indiana went into effect, and it provided for an industrial board, and at that time it took over all of these other bureaus. For 15 years the trades-union women and also the Federation of Women's Clubs, etc., in the State of Indiana, have tried to get some sort of representation in the labor department with a woman executive as the head, and they have failed for those 15 years.

During the war the governor of Indiana placed a special industrial investigator on the industrial board, who had the peculiar province of investigating matters affecting women and children, because of the large number who were entering industry. At the last legislature, the legislature of 1919, we had a rather difficult industrial program for the State of Indiana, which has not had any legislation particularly since 1899, and very few amendments to the law that was passed at that time. We had an 8-hour law and a bill creating a woman's bureau, a bureau of women and children, and they all failed of passage, but at the last moment, realizing that perhaps they had made a little bit of a mistake, especially since women were soon to have the vote, they tacked on the appropriation bill a clause which said that this appropriation of so many thousand dollars is available for the industrial board, provided that it establish a department of women and children, with a director, who shall be a woman, and a sufficient number of assistants.

Now, that is the present status of the bureau of women and children, the department of women and children, in the industrial board of Indiana. We are not under the inspection department, and for reasons which I think are obvious I think that is a good plan. I think it should be a coordinate department, as it is at the present time in the State of Indiana, coordinate with the inspection department. We have a director of that department, and two field representatives at the present time. The director of the department receives the same salary as the chief factory inspector and the chief boiler inspector, etc., and the field representatives receive the same

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salary as the factory inspectors, and the boiler inspectors, etc., $125 a month, with actual traveling expenses, whatever they may be. We are answerable directly to the industrial board, and it is not necessary to go up through the factory inspector in order to reach the board.

The bill which was drawn very clearly defined the functions and the duties of the bureau of women and children, but that bill failed, and this was just a little clause tacked on the appropriation bill. Our duties were not defined. The industrial board, however, when the law became effective, did define the duties of this bureau of women and children, and, briefly, they are as follows: The inspection of all places employing women and children, looking to the enforcement of those portions of the law affecting women and children; then the educational part of our work, which is not only that of educating the public but also that of educating the employer to the needs of advanced standards. The industrial board also conceived the idea that we should confer with the employers on new and changing conditions, to which no present standards apply. I wish to state for the employers of our State that they have come to us, and perhaps three-quarters of our time since the establishment of the bureau has been devoted to conferences with employers. at the request of the employers, looking to a bettering of the conditions and a raising of the standard of the employment of women and children.

The industrial board also conceived that the bureau of women and children in its relation to the board proper should be this, that we should really be an outpost of observation throughout the State for the new and changing conditions, industrial conditions, and therefore be in a position to advise the board of these new and changing conditions, to which no present standards apply, looking also toward the writing of additional legislation to raise the standard. I think that is all.

Mrs. SEMPLE. I would like to ask both the previous speakers what attitude the women's bureau takes on the question of strikes where women are involved, where women are on strike?

Mrs. COX. We have had some rather interesting experiences with trade-unions in the State. We do not mediate; we are not mediators in any sense of the word. We have had some instances in the last 18 months where the labor unions did not report certain violations, that is, they did not report the violations of the night-work law for woman or child labor violations until the strike occurred, and then they immediately became aware that we had a women and children's bureau and that they should immediately report such violations to us. The industrial board has been forced to make this general ruling, that where labor unions have failed to notify the industrial board of violations of the law pertaining to women or children during peace times that they must not come to the board and expect the board to go out immediately and enter the situation after a strike has been called, and that has been the standpoint of the board on the matter of strikes.

Mrs. SEMPLE. Then you take no attitude by investigating the strike where it is just women?

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Mrs. Cox. We have never had a strike in the State of Indiana since I have been with the department. The women's bureau has only been in operation since last October. There has never been a strike of women in the State, excepting one telephone strike down in the coal district, and at that time the governor appointed a commission to handle the strike situation and there were no women appointed on that commission. That is the only instance. I do not know what the attitude would be.

The CHAIRMAN. I am going to ask Mr. Hagan, of North Dakota, to speak on this subject.

DELEGATE. Mr. Hagan is not here.

The CHAIRMAN. I see that Mrs. McGill has just come in. She was to discuss this proposition. Mrs. McGill, we are discussing the formation of policies for the employment of women and children in connection with labor laws.

Mrs. McGILL. I have only one idea on that subject.

The CHAIRMAN. That is all right.

Mrs. McGILL. It will not take me very long to state it. I think in the administration of laws for women that woman administrative officers ought to have a free hand. That is to say, I think that there should not be necessarily a women's department, if you like to call it that, but that all those matters concerning women should be under an official who is just as free as she would be in handling the affairs under the women's department. I do not think it is possible for a women's department always to work under men as their heads, however sympathetic those men may be, any more than I think that it is always possible for a father to manage the daughters without the mother being the head of that part of the family. I think the situation is very much the same, and I think that the sweetest relation in life is the relation set up between men and women when they are establishing a family; and while we hear a great deal of talk occasionally about divided heads, I do not think there is any division of authority, but there is a division of administrative work. I think that the only solution of this is that the women should be at the head of their own administrative department. I think that is the only successful way, and I honestly think that if it was once started the men would welcome it. Men's questions and women's problems are not quite the same; women's problems are much more difficult. To men such problems are often very troublesome, and often very trivial and very frivolous, and they do not want to deal with them; they do not care about it, and they are very impatient over it, and I think they themselves, if they once tried it, would like the system of allowing women to handle their own affairs. I think they would find that they had lost more than half of their troubles, and things would work much more smoothly.

DELEGATE. That includes domestic troubles?

Mrs. McGILL. Yes; all troubles that could be settled by men and women acting together, not one for the other.

Mrs. Cox. Might not this ideal condition referred to be effected by having a department of women and children in the labor department, the director of which department should be a member of the in-

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dustrial board, or the industrial commission? It looks to me that in that way you would get a better situation.

Mrs. McGILL. I would have a woman labor commissioner.

The CHAIRMAN. That is the ideal situation?

Mrs. McGILL. We have seen women gradually taking other positions, and I think the men admit themselves that they like it better after they get them. It is very hard in the beginning, just as though they were giving up something, but I think where women have taken those positions, I think it has been a great saving of trouble, and I think that the men themselves are the first to realize it and welcome it under those conditions.

Miss PETERSON. I think where there is only one commissioner, the commissioner will have to be a man. Where they have more than one commissioner, perhaps there may be a woman commissioner.

Mrs. McGILL. Why not have two commissioners—what is the objection to having two commissioners? They are not going to cross over. Where they are competent men and women I think they will consult together like reasonable people. Where the man commissioner was dealing with the problem of men he would do so without consulting the woman commissioner, and the woman commissioner would act the same way in regard to the affairs of women, and I do not think there would be any conflict. They could consult together on their problems just as occurs in any well-established family.

Mrs. TRUMBULL. It seems to me that there is one phase of the question that we have not considered, and that is that women's and children's problems are not primarily industrial problems. They are welfare problems, and we can not talk about women lifting weights or working at night, or a woman standing on her feet, unless we consider first and last and all the time the maternity problem. That is where we must establish our standard. Children come next, and I defy any man to know all about those things, and it seems to me if we want to get that idea into our legislatures and into the mind of the public in general we will have to start a department of women and children. Now, in our State we have it, practically. Our commissioner of labor has to see that the laws affecting women and children are enforced. We have an industrial welfare commission which has everything to do with wages, hours, and conditions of work of women and minors, and the two bureaus, the child labor board and the industrial welfare commission are in the same office, and it seems to us to be an almost ideal condition. The problem is a welfare problem, it seems to me, and that is where our sentiment lies.

The CHAIRMAN. Does anyone else wish to discuss this question?

Mr. HAMBRECHT. I would like to say just one word about it, as this appeals to me. I never concern myself so much whether the commissioner is a woman or a man, whether the commission is made up of three or five members, so long as the individual or individuals that occupy the positions are temperamentally fitted for the job. There are a lot of women that I would not want to see acting as labor commissioner, and there are a lot of men I would not like to see acting as labor commissioner either. It depends more on temperament than it does on sex. I want to say that the man or woman who occupies the position of labor commissioner or industrial commis-

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sioner has one of the most responsible positions in the government service, and such a person must thoroughly appreciate the fullness of that responsibility in order to carry it to its full fruition.

As has been aptly said, the problem of women in industry and child labor is a welfare proposition. That is true, but while they are in industry, or tied so closely to the industrial situation that you can not very well tear any of those things out, you can not look at them as one apart from the other. It is like a flower, when you pull it up and look at the roots the flower dies. You have to take the thing in all its environment, as a complication of the industrial problem.

I thoroughly believe in a commission of more than one person—three and perhaps five; perhaps three women and two men, or two women and three men, or one woman and two men, or two women and one man, depending upon the capability of the members and the capability of the State to produce the right persons to occupy the job. It might be three men, or sometimes it might be three women. I do not care about that, but I hope the time will not come that woman as such, simply because she is a woman, is therefore entitled to be at the head of so complex a situation as the labor situation, or because a man is a man that for that reason he shall be commissioner. I would like to see something beyond the sex problem in connection with the administration of this work. I say that with absolute fairness to the woman workers. There are some women that I would like to have on my board as coworkers to share the responsibility, and the time may come—my term will expire some day—that I will give way to a woman, and if she is the right kind I will give way gracefully. But I would not like to have it done simply because some woman's organization, for instance, decided that it wanted to place a woman in my position with the single idea that she was to do welfare work and then her job was done. A woman will have an awful lot more to do in a commission of that kind than just welfare work. She has to share the full responsibility of what the administration does, and there are women that can do it just as well as men, there is no question about that.

Miss DUKE. I got the impression that it was not that a woman should have the job simply because she was a woman, but that she should not be barred from the job because she was a woman. Mr. Wood tells me that women are barred from occupying any kind of a salaried position in the State of Louisiana; that their State constitution prohibits it.

Mr. HAMBRECHT. I think that is unfortunate.

Miss DUKE. Some States have laws to the effect that women can be clerks to men, but they can not get much further.

Mr. HAMBRECHT. I think that is unfortunate. I happened to be in the Wisconsin Legislature in 1909 when a rather unique question, as we look at it now, came up for discussion, as to whether women should be represented on the board of regents for the administration of the affairs of the University of Wisconsin. The law was worded so that it barred them, and this new law was rather crude in that it violated the thing I am saying, although it was the only way to get that principle over. On the board of regents now there must be

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three women, and it has worked out that the women who have been on that board have fully accepted all of their responsibilities, not only as to women's problems but as to administrative problems.

I want to say another word with reference to my conception—and you can take it for what it is worth—of how this department should work out. Most States have had these sporadic attempts to fix the administration of this problem, but the legislatures have felt that if it was left to everybody to attend to, it would be a dead letter and would not receive the attention it should. Take particularly the New England States. There grew up half a dozen, and sometimes more, boards to administer the industrial questions, the minimum-wage board, the safety board, the workmen's compensation board, and the industrial accident board, and then the labor commission, which was probably older than any of those, had already much business, and many times there was rivalry. Human nature is human nature, and many times jealousies creep out when the jurisdictions overlap, and particularly when we get a difficult question and there is overlapping jurisdiction it is very easy to pass the buck to the next one, and that is not good administration. I think the best thought on that question is toward consolidation. I have in my hand here an outline of the Wisconsin commission as we administer the labor laws there, drawn up in blue-print form, and I would be glad to send it to anybody in a State where they are contemplating changing the law. Not that this is a model, but it contains the germ of an idea. All the industrial laws, everything pertaining to the industrial laws on the statute books, are administered by the industrial commission of Wisconsin, and there is no bar to a woman being a member of that board if the governor wishes to appoint her. It is simply a question of discretion. That may come to pass when my term has expired. But viewing and realizing the problem as I do, I hope the time will not come when any organization will have direct representation on such a board. I know some States are doing that, and they think they are on the right track, but I doubt it. In such a case as that a labor organization would have a representative on the board and the employers' organization would have a representative on the board, and both of those members would naturally advocate the cause which they represent. Now, as I view an industrial commission, I view it with about the same degree of importance that I would view a court. I do not think our judges should ever be elected to represent any class of society. Once they hold a position like that, they represent, and should represent and be able to see, the viewpoint of every contending and class element that comes under their jurisdiction. A person who is not big enough to see matters in that light I do not believe ought to hold the job. If he is there primarily to keep before his eye the people who sent him there, so that he can go back with a clean report, he loses the judicial turn of mind necessary to solve those questions and sit impartially on the many perplexing questions that he is asked to pass on judicially. So what I would like to see in connection with a board of that kind would be the biggest men and women the State can produce named on the board, men of broad vision and sympathy, people who can see both sides of controverted questions that come up.

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The way we have organized our board in Wisconsin is as follows: It is called the industrial commission, and is composed of three commissioners, one being appointed every two years, and the term being six years. The work is departmentized very much as Mrs. McGill described so that there will be uniform responsibility. We have a woman in the child-labor department. I think Miss Copp told you when we met in Madison—she was the head of that department—that for good organization and in order that these many things which I suggested may be correlated and under a single proposition it is necessary to have them all headed up somewhere, and in heading up the success of the commission will depend upon the ability and originality and executive force and power of those heads of departments. I would not want in charge of our women's department a woman who felt subservient to the commission. I want to go to that woman for suggestions, and I want to be able thoroughly to understand the women's problems so that when she consults with the commission she brings to the commission the women's problems, and the other heads of departments bring to us their problems, and then having it all in mind we must shape policies and we do it by consultation. I do not think there is a single employee on our commission who feels subservient, and I do not want them to feel that way; I want them to feel that they are a part of the commission. They are each doing the work they seem to be best fitted for. We have a women's and child-labor department, and we have eight deputies, one chief deputy, and seven field deputies in that department, and a sufficient office force to carry it out fairly efficiently. That does not mean that everything has worked smoothly in that department. At least it is a pretty good office force. Miss Swett, who succeeded Miss Copp and who was her understudy, has charge of that department, and she takes all the initiative. She is not restricted in any way and she is not told not to do anything. The thing she is charged with is the administration of the woman and child labor laws. If she has problems I want to know them, and she wants me to know them, and she wants my colleagues to know them, so every week Miss Swett is at Madison with the commission and brings her problems, and we talk them over, and it is through the exchange of ideas that we help each other solve them. That is not being subservient, but it heads the matters up somewhere, so that the women's department is part of the industrial situation. Having everything fully in mind, I think about the same as Mrs. Trumbull does, that it is largely a welfare proposition. I think that is true, and Miss Swett looks upon it from a welfare viewpoint, but it ties into this industrial question.

Another department is safety and sanitation, and another is workmen's compensation—passing on injured workmen; another is the administration of public employment bureaus; another that of apprenticeship; and another is mediation and arbitration, and that last is of such a delicate character that the commissioners feel that either one or the other ought to give it their personal attention, such as in strikes and labor difficulties. Since I have been chairman of the commission I have given this question more thought than any other department. If there are any of you interested in the organization of the Wisconsin commission I would be glad to send you one of these blue-print outlines.

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Mrs. McGILL. I do not for one moment mean that a woman should be appointed simply because she is a woman, but we have had those appointments entirely on a sex base, and I am not as pessimistic as Mr. Hambrecht; I think, taken all together, the women have not done badly, and I am not willing to believe that, taking it all together, the women would do badly even if all the labor commissioners were women and all the men working under them. I believe the women would call the men in and would consult with them.

Mr. HAMBRECHT. I think so, too.

Mrs. McGILL. I think these positions should be given according to ability.

Now, we know that such positions have been given because some organization recommended it. We have, I presume, all of us lived a good many years in this world, and we know that sometimes they have been given on the recommendation of political organizations. I do not know why the recommendation of a women's organization should not be just as good as that of a man's organization.

Mr. HAMBRECHT. I hope that I was not misunderstood, and if I was I want to correct the impression, although I do not want to correct what I said with reference to an organization having representation as such on a judicial body. I do not think it spells good organization, and those organizations are good organizations. I do not want to have it misunderstood to that extent that I have any objection to all the good work that a labor organization is doing, and all the splendid work of the employers' associations, or the good work that woman welfare organizations are doing for their membership, but those are propaganda organizations, and when you get to the commission you want fair play.

Mrs. COX. May I ask Mr. Hambrecht a question?

The CHAIRMAN. Yes.

Mrs. COX. I just happen to know that what Mr. Hambrecht has said in regard to the department of women and children in the Wisconsin commission is absolutely true, and I do know that Miss Copp had just the relation to the commission that he suggests, but the question I want to ask is this: Is the women's and children's bureau of the Wisconsin commission arranged for by statute or is it an arrangement in the organization effected by the commission?

Mr. HAMBRECHT. It is arranged for by statute, and the section number is on the margin of that brief. It is a bureau of the commission—no, it is not; I think perhaps that might be misleading; the industrial commission is charged with the responsibility, and that means three men, but as far as the statute is concerned it does not recognize anything but the three people. The commission is departmentized to work in that way.

Mrs. COX. If I may ask one further question, wouldn't it be possible under your organization, having a commission of three men, two of whom were not advanced in their thinking along the lines affecting women and children, that this bureau in Wisconsin could be abolished?

Mr. HAMBRECHT. As I said, this is not a perfect system.

Mrs. COX. Isn't it possible that could happen if you had two commissioners not sympathetic—that the bureau could be abolished?

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Mr. HAMBRECHT. Yes; it could, except in doing that they are shirking their own responsibility, and that is to administer the woman and child labor law.

Mrs. COX. They might conclude that it would be better administered in some other way?

Mr. HAMBRECHT. Perhaps that is a danger that ought to be guarded against by proper legislation.

Mrs. COX. I think it is.

Miss DUKE. I do not know whether this is a diversion from the subject, but Mr. Hambrecht said that no organization should be especially represented in a labor bureau. My understanding was that bureaus of labor were created, that the United States Bureau of Labor was created, the United States Department of Labor was created, and State bureaus of labor were created to represent labor; that labor did not have representation. And if those bureaus are supposed to represent labor, they should not have a labor commissioner who constantly thinks that he must placate the employers—stand in with the employers. I know absolutely that Mr. Hambrecht's industrial commission does not feel that way, but there are labor bureaus that do. I do not see why labor organizations should not have a representative upon the bureau of labor.

Mr. HAMBRECHT. I do not want to leave it just here. Our industrial commission is bigger than you think it is. We have, I think it is safe to say, working with us at least 125 of the best minds in the State in every one of these departments that we have. We have lay advisory committees—organizations interested in welfare work, labor organizations, employers' organizations, and men technically trained are represented on the advisory committees. I think we have at least 125 men. Before we crystallize anything into an order, those advisory committees are consulted, and we hold many sessions with them. So we have kind of a cosmopolitan commission after all. But the final responsibility must head up somewhere, it seems to me, to keep the organization. If it is everybody's business there is very apt to be a lot of talk, and then, after that is over, who is going to do it? Where it heads up into an impartial board with these advisory committees I think it is a good scheme. Now, I know that is controverted, and there are those who believe it is better to have representation direct. In Wisconsin we have it indirectly through an advisory committee.

Miss BRESETTE. I do not feel that the labor departments necessarily represent labor alone. I do not know whether or not I can make myself clear. I believe that the labor department should represent the State. The legislature has passed certain labor legislation, and the departments of labor, as I view them, have been established to enforce that labor legislation, and I believe the sooner the departments cease thinking of themselves as merely representatives of labor the more quickly they are going to be able to do really constructive work.

I recall that in our own legislature there was some legislation passed abolishing what we called our State society of labor and industry, and making the labor commissioner an official appointed by the government, and etsablishing a bureau of labor and industry.

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Our State society of labor and industry was made up of the labor organizations in the State, and the labor organizations elected the labor commissioner. Now, that meant that the largest organization in the State elected the labor commissioner, and we were in labor politics just as much as we were in anything else. I think that even the labor organizations in our State have looked upon it as a very desirable change, that not only the labor organizations and the unorganized workers but also the employers could come to the labor department looking for the enforcement of the law, and I think we are trying to look upon our labor department as something that has been established for employers and employees. I believe that we are able to do more constructive work looking upon it from that point of view. I do not know whether you will agree with me or not, but it has certainly been a desirable change in our State. We found that under the old system, when it was under the control merely of labor organizations, that if some one from unorganized labor made an appeal to the department it got no attention. I am speaking of times, of course, when some one was biased, when we were in labor politics. It was just exactly the same as any other kind of politics at that time, and I believe the larger view of it will bring about the most constructive work in the labor department.

Mrs. TRUMBULL. I would like to indorse what Miss Bresette has said, and it seems to me that we must look upon ourselves as soldiers in the field doing the work of our Saviour. In my department I have been instructed to confer with the employer as well as to protect the employee, and I want to say that there are a lot of employers that need protection against their employees. I have found that out. Now, take for instance the operation of our child labor tax commission. I make it my particular business to see that our employers are not subject to that income tax. I should feel disgraced in our State if our employers, a large part of them, found tacked on to their income tax that 10 per cent because they violated the child-labor law. It is my business to keep them informed, and we have a regular system of reporting by blanks, so that the employers refer to us for the ages of children who come to them to go to work.

When the internal revenue men came out there this spring they came to our office, and they very frankly told us that they wanted to find employers who were violating the law, because they said, "We need the money." I said, "You are not going to get Oregon money if we can help it." We must protect the employer; we must help the employer just as well as protect the employee, and I thoroughly indorse what Miss Bresette has said.

Mr. MORRISSEY. Following along the line of what Miss Bresette has said, and what the more recent speaker, Mrs. Trumbull, has said, I would like to state what I have found to be the situation in Colorado.

The situation in Colorado is rather interesting from that standpoint. When I was appointed labor commissioner I belonged to the Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen. I was a labor organization man, but known to be a conservative. Now, I had been in Colorado for a good many years and I knew the labor movement—I knew the men and women who were active in the labor movement in Colorado, especially organized labor—so when it came time for me to recom-

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mend the kind of people I wanted to assist me to make a real department of labor in Colorado it so happened that the people who I felt were capable of enforcing those laws and yet, it seemed to me, would be fair to the employer were people who had been active in labor unions—both men and women. Consequently, I recommended the appointment of six of the leading labor people in Colorado to assist me in my department. Now, that does not mean that when a question came up involving the rights of the employer that they were going to take the side of the employee. On the contrary, they were men and women of experience and broad views and some vision in this movement, and they readily came into line with my views, which were absolute fairness to both sides. At the end of our first two-year period with these six appointees whom I recommended personally, others were appointed in my department because they were politicians, and we are doing their work. They are drawing their pay, but we are doing the work. At the end of the period we found that the public and the employers had learned that the labor department was created for the employer as well as the employee. While these laws are passed primarily for the benefit of the working people, they can be enforced, and should be enforced, in a manner in which no damage or any hard feelings on the part of the employer would be engendered.

Another view of that question is that 90 per cent of the working people of Colorado who come to my office for assistance are not organized. We found in handling this problem that the organizations in most trades are able to take care of themselves. They deal with the employer through their committees and labor unions, and therefore the charge that a labor department is partial to labor unions because the men and women engaged in it happen to belong to organizations can not be sustained. As I say, we have checked up on that carefully, and 90 per cent of those who come to us for assistance do not belong to labor organizations.

We have a wage claim department, for example, and we have very few cases involving the labor unions, or anybody who belongs to one of the labor unions, in that department. The members of the labor unions usually go to their grievance committees, who take it up with the employers and settle their difficulties before they get to us. That is just a little different view than some folks have had about labor organizations.

Miss STELLA F. MCLEOD, special agent of the Department of Labor of Michigan. I wish to disagree with the lady from Oregon. I wish that we would have a 20 per cent tax instead of a 10 per cent tax for violations of the child-labor law.

The CHAIRMAN. I think you misunderstood the lady from Oregon.

Miss MCLEOD. She said she was glad they did not have to pay a tax, and I am glad that they do have to pay a tax.

Mrs. TRUMBULL. I said I would feel disgraced if Oregon manufacturers were taxed. You did not get my point. Every time a man is taxed it means that he has a child employed under the age of 16 who is working more than 8 hours a day.

Miss MCLEOD. I understand that.

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Mrs. TRUMBULL. Now, then, I do not want any of our Oregon men to violate the law.

Miss MCLEOD. But don't they violate it?

Mrs. TRUMBULL. They do; but it is part of my business to educate them so that they will not violate it.

Miss MCLEOD. We have many factories in Detroit employing men, women, and children. We have a good child-labor law; I think it is about as good as any I have heard you talk about. We do not permit any children to go to work until they are 15, except during the vacation period, when they are allowed to go at 14. The 8-hour law for children has been in effect for a number of years. We do not permit them to work on dangerous machines under 18, and I am here to tell you that when we find child-labor violations we take them into court and get a $25 fine and we think it is a very fine thing for us. Then we report it to the Internal Revenue Department and they get a 10 per cent tax. That has occurred to a number of employers who employ children, and now they do not work them over hours.

We have recently had some dealings with a large bakery where they employed children 13 years of age. Now, those children were going to school, and they went to work in those bakeries, wrapping bread, at 3 o'clock in the afternoon. It is very light work, as far as that is concerned, and sanitary. The children are paid $20 a week and they are going to school all that the State will allow them to go, which is half a day. At first the employer thought nothing of that little $25 fine, and the next day he did it over again, but he does not think it is quite so nice now, because he is reported to the Internal Revenue Department, and this particular man whom I have reference to is now moving heaven and earth to have that tax taken off, but he will not have it taken off with our consent. We have found that even in the telephone companies, even though they know the tax does not affect them, it seems to have some effect in deterring them from working children under age or for longer hours.

I have listened to all of the arguments, and I think we all have the same problems, but I think that Federal law is a good thing, and I think it should be enforced. I do not know whether there is a representative of the department here or not, but I will say that I got a letter back asking me why I reported a child working in a printing establishment. I thought a printing establishment was a manufacturing establishment. I was expecting to see Miss Allen here and be corrected. I have written to Washington, but have not received a reply as yet. I found a child working in a printing establishment and I reported the matter, and they said that the child is working in a printing establishment. If that is anything else but a manufacturing establishment, I would like to know what it is. I am here for information and I wonder if anybody else has had that problem.

Mrs. COX. I might say that the rulings of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue are printed in pamphlet form for distribution, and that classifies a printing establishment as a manufacturing establishment.

Miss MCLEOD. That is just exactly what I got back from Washington.

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Mrs. Cox. I would like to ask the representative from Michigan how many firms in Detroit were compelled to pay the 10 per cent for the year 1919?

Miss McLeod. I think I reported seven.

Mrs. Cox. Was the tax collected?

Miss McLeod. No; it was not. I am sorry to say it was not collected.

Mrs. Cox. Why not?

Miss McLeod. Well, that is one of the reasons. I got back just that answer, stating that this child was employed in a printing establishment, and therefore was not in a manufacturing establishment. I have that correspondence on file.

Mrs. Cox. Do you know who sent the letter?

Miss McLeod. I could not say who signed the letter. I have the letter on file in my office.

Mrs. Cox. Have you the rulings of the commissioner?

Miss McLeod. I think we have.

The Chairman. We have gotten away from our subject entirely, although we are very glad to have this question brought up. But we are not talking on children this afternoon; we are talking on women's representation in the labor department.

Mrs. Trumbull. I just want half a minute to disabuse that lady's mind; I want to say that we are very grateful for and we do approve of this tax law.

The Chairman. Yes; we certainly do. We worked hard enough to get it on the statute book. I think we should go on to the next question. It is a very big question, and I think it ought to be discussed very fully.

Mrs. Semple. Before we pass on to that may we ask the resolutions committee to take into consideration the formulation of a resolution looking toward the establishment of a policy concerning what we have been discussing; that is, the representation of women's interests in State departments of labor through the establishment of a women's bureau, or in whatever way the resolutions committee feels like recommending? I move that the resolutions committee be asked to do that—to bring in a resolution.

The Chairman. Is there a second to that motion?

Delegate. I second the motion.

The Chairman. You have heard the motion, are you ready for a discussion of that motion?

Mrs. Cox. I would like to have the functions of the resolutions committee defined. Are we to write resolutions, or entertain and consider resolutions presented to us by the delegates?

The Chairman. I think the resolutions committee, when there is a motion from the floor, should present the resolution. Is there any further discussion of this motion?

Mrs. Trumbull. We did not hear the motion.

The Chairman. The motion was that the resolutions committee be instructed to bring in a resolution in reference to women being represented in executive positions in the labor departments of the

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States. That is not exactly the motion that was made, but that is as near as I got the motion.

(Motion passed unanimously.)

The CHAIRMAN. The next question before us is the question of the minimum wage, and the first part of it is the securing of greater uniformity in minimum-wage rates. The discussion is to be opened by Miss Johnson, of Massachusetts.

Miss JOHNSON. Do you wish me to speak on the Massachusetts law?

The CHAIRMAN. Yes.

Miss JOHNSON. I would like to mention how the Massachusetts commission is functioning under the reorganization. As many of you know there was an act passed in Massachusetts last year reorganizing the various boards, commissions, and departments of the Commonwealth into 20 administrative divisions. The functions of the minimum wage commission under this act were taken over by the newly created department of labor and industry, the specific work of the commission being transferred to the three associate commissioners of the department, who also took over the work of the board of conciliation and arbitration. A separate division has been formed to carry on the work of the former minimum wage commission, so that the transition has been less marked than might appear from the wording of the statute.

I think I shall have to omit the working of the Massachusetts law, on which I have been expecting to speak.

One subject in connection with the minimum wage which I am particularly interested in is the possibility of securing greater uniformity in minimum wage rates. Probably you representatives from other commissions have met the same problem which we have encountered in Massachusetts, that of wage boards in session at practically the same time bringing in recommendations widely at variance, finding different amounts as to the cost of living, making different provisions as to the apprenticeship period for workers, and different recommendations as to the minimum wage, even when they are working for industries which are practically of the same type with regard to scale, and which are employing the same character of workers, workers whose age requirements would be substantially the same. I have in mind the case of two boards which were in session last year, both for factory employees, one finding the cost of living to be $13 and the other board establishing a minimum wage of $15, based also on the cost of living as found by the board. I appreciate very much the value of wage-board work. I think it would be unfortunate to try to substitute any other method for the method of separate boards for different industries. At the same time I feel very strongly that there should be some provision for securing greater uniformity in rates, in the interest of justice to the employees, to the employers, and to the commissioners. It is unfair to the employees where one worker receives a low minimum and another worker receives a much higher minimum, the cost of living for the two being substantially the same. I can not see any argument for establishing separate rates—different rates for different workers—where the minimum rate is being considered, since the minimum wage applies very largely to the unskilled occupations, or

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the unskilled and semiskilled, at the most, and the cost of living, the minimum cost of living, at any given time does not vary greatly with the different occupations. It varies more from one section of the community to the other than it does from one occupation to the other, and while in some States there is provision for separate rates for different localities, in Massachusetts we have no such provision. The rate is fixed for the occupation throughout the State, but the rate is separate for each occupation, based on the determination of the wage board for that occupation. There is a disadvantage to the employer where several rates having different provisions apply to the same establishment, and where a number of decrees have been entered there is naturally a good deal of overlapping of that sort. I recall one establishment which now comes under three decrees, and it might very readily, if we enter decrees for certain other occupations, come under the provisions of five decrees. That arrangement—where there are different wage rates and different provisions—is very unsatisfactory to the employer, and, of course, it complicates very much the work of the commission.

I do not know whether it is feasible, but it seems to me there ought to be some provision in the law authorizing the commission to revise rates for the purpose of securing uniformity. It need not take away from the wage boards their function of acting for the separate occupations. I think that is exceedingly important and the enforcement of the decree, particularly in a State like Massachusetts where it is recommendatory and not mandatory, depends very much on the wage board, on having separate wage boards for the different manufacturers, on having the members of the wage board feel that the decree is their recommendation, and on having the employers in that occupation feel that they are bound to accept that decree because their representatives on the board concurred in a unanimous report. Practically all of the reports that the commissioner has received within the last two years have been unanimous. There is only one decree within that time that has not had all the members concurring, and in that case there was only one member that declined to sign and there was a minority report. The arrangement for giving the commission power, as I suggested, need not take away the other powers of the wage board. I think if there was legislation enacted authorizing the commission to revise decrees, revise the recommendations of the boards, for instance, for the purpose of securing uniformity, that very provision would enable the commission through its boards to secure greater uniformity in reports. If the wage boards knew that the commission could change their recommendations, could modify them, so that the result would be more in harmony with those of other boards, then the boards themselves would take more interest to secure that result and we should have more systematic, more thorough, work on the part of the boards.

Mrs. UDALL. Our board is called the welfare commission and not a wage commission. We have a board just as they have in Massachusetts, and I just want to say here that I know something of the conditions Miss Johnson spoke of with regard to enforcing the law in Massachusetts. I read that one of the principal objectors to the Massachusetts law has said that it was perniciously effective, so perhaps it is just as effective as some of ours.

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The question of getting a uniform wage was discussed at a conference in Portland, Oreg., last summer, and I think there it was the consensus of opinion that the wage should be uniform, and we should do everything we could to secure a uniform wage system. The State of Washington started out to consider industry by industry on the basis of the wages in the different industries, and they were practically all different. I think there was a feeling among the girls that this was unfair. I think the girls themselves felt that the wage should be the same, that it really cost about the same for their living. The factory people claimed in the conference that they did not need quite so much for clothing, that they could wear old clothes during the working period and change to better clothes for the street, and the office girl and saleslady must dress better all the time, where they are meeting the customers, outside people. The difference was made on that basis and not on the cost of board and room. It was on the principle of clothing. Now, war conditions came and we found ourselves confronted with the fact that we did not have funds to call conferences, and we were also confronted with the fact that we must do something. So one of the ladies, advising us, said, "When you find you can not do something, then do it anyway." So we did it anyway, and we called this war emergency conference, and grouped the industries, taking them all, one wage covering all industries, and in doing that we also had general recommendations on conditions. Now, we found that "conditions of labor" covers a multitude of sins. We have not yet had anyone define for us what the condition of labor is. In fact, I said to our attorney general just the other day, "I wish you would tell me just what is condition of labor," and he just smiled. So we did not get to know just what the condition of labor is, but we have tried to put everything in that order and tried to cover conditions under which women work which affect their health and morals. So that our basis for our recommendations on conditions was quite general and not specific enough to satisfy most of us. But we worked under that law until recently, and we have recently tried to get a new wording for the law and secure a higher rate. But I believe there was more satisfaction at that time under that than there had been previously with different wages in the different industries, and I think we can work out something, whether it be an amendment to the law or not. We can possibly get an amendment to the law which will provide for the one wage and then have the wage boards consider conditions in the different industries. Conditions are quite different, and if they have only that to consider they can do it in a brief time such as our law provides for. When we call a conference the law does not say how long that conference board shall sit. Under our rules and regulations we have set it at not less than two weeks, and then we present all the information we have been able to secure, and then in brief three days while they sit they discuss and decide upon the wage and all those conditions. It would give more time to consider the conditions if the wage could be arranged beforehand, giving the commissioner power to accept or reject the recommendations. The commission, of course, is on the job all the time, and has information at hand, and I believe it would be in a better position to decide upon the wage than the conference. I suppose that is the only point that you want me to consider.

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The CHAIRMAN. I am going to ask Mrs. Trumbull, from Oregon, to speak on this question.

Mrs. TRUMBULL. I think the whole basis of our minimum wage is wrong, for one thing. We have gone to work and found out by a series of investigations just exactly the smallest amount which will keep a woman alive. The average business man does not run his business that way; he establishes a rate which is a standard. The laws of a State establish an interest rate which is the standard. In every activity of life we have standards, but when it comes to the amount of money, the least amount of money, upon which a woman can live and work, we have set to work to find out the very lowest amount which will keep her alive, and it seems to me that if we could get a standard all the way through—it does not make any difference, she gets just as hungry, she needs clothes, and a place to live, and as a grown person she needs just as much recreation—what we need to establish is a normal, standard wage, one which will allow her some interest on her investment.

Now, that is not what the question is, but it seems to me that when we talk about uniform rates, uniform wage, minimum wage, let us consider the things that the woman who puts in her life must have besides the bare living. She must have an interest on her investment which she can lay away for a rainy day. If she wants to be economical she can lay more away. Every man who runs a business has his overhead and he has in his general expenses a percentage which he can put away. Why shouldn't we allow it to our women who work?

I am greatly in favor of a uniform rate, a uniform wage, a minimum wage for all the industries, because I think it is the only way we can get at a good, reasonable, and just standard.

Mrs. MCGILL. A uniform wage and a uniform standard might not be at all the same thing. A uniform wage which might be quite sufficient in the State of Washington might not be at all adequate in the State of New York, for example. But if there was a standard—so many dresses and so many other things of that sort—and then an ascertaining of what the cost of that standard equipment would be, including also board and room and all that, and the minimum wage fixed on that, we might get a standard, but when you say that a wage should be the same all over, it seems to me you would not have any more uniformity than we have now.

I am one of the minimum wage commissioners myself, and I should hate to take the responsibility—although I am not afraid of taking responsibilities, I assure you—of revising the recommendations made by the conferees. I can conceive that the employers would be lined up to ask us to revise down and the employees would be lined up to ask us only to revise up, and I think we would spend the rest of our lives trying to satisfy them both. I think we have to take the recommendations of the board, of the conferees, though I think that the wage is a difficult matter. But after all, it is perhaps because all of this is more or less a new kind of legislation, and we are trying to carry public opinion along with us and get them step by step to the point where they will see that there must be a living wage, though I do not think the minimum wage should be so high that it will be at any time the maximum wage.

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Mrs. TRUMBULL. May I correct the lady from British Columbia? I do not mean a standard wage for all over the United States, but I mean in States, as we have it on the coast.

Mr. HAMBRECHT. At the risk of getting too argumentative, I want to take issue with my good friend from Oregon, and in doing so I know that there is going to be a decided difference of opinion. Nevertheless, I am entitled to my viewpoint as I see it.

Three or four hundred years ago, as we look back upon the statutes of England, we find that everything was regulated—the number of buttons that one could have on his coat, the length of the suits that were worn, the quality of the cloth, the price of a loaf of bread, the price of wheat, the price of commodities, the amount of wages—and experience showed that was bad legislation, and it was discarded. The only place you will find it now is in the ancient law books and old statutes of England. Recently we have come against a condition which we find upon investigation to be a rather startling situation—that women are employed at wages that are too low to support them. That is a bad situation. That gave rise to an agitation that any industry should at least pay a self-supporting wage. That is a self-evident proposition. Now, I believe the duty of the State, looking at it from the viewpoint of either labor or capital—the duty of the State is to see that conditions like that can not prevail, and I think we should find the least amount necessary for the self-support of the workers and fix that amount, below which it is dangerous to employ women, and beyond which the wages of most women should go. I believe in high wages. I believe that this distribution principle of industry needs a great deal of revision, but I do not think it is going to come about by legislation. I think the farmer should get a good price for his wheat, but I do not think Congress should set that price, because it no sooner sets the price than it bumps up against a lot of other economic conditions and the wheat will either not be sold or it is an extortion. Just as soon as you fix any standard you have other standards that interfere with the equality of the proposition. I think it should be a fair and square proposition as to what is the least on which a woman can decently support herself. That does not mean in the greatest luxury; it means just what it says, the least at which a woman might work which is wholesome, and below which it is dangerous, below which the State suffers, because of the fact that its citizens, by its industrial situation, are not self-supporting. That is my view.

Now, of course, you find among those interested in the minimum wage laws those who desire the State to fix very high standards; in other words, a desirable wage. Those are economic questions, and I believe there should be freedom of contract between employer and employee, particularly since we have a growing tendency, and probably a permanent tendency, in industry toward collective bargaining, by which the best bargain may be gained for large numbers of individuals and wage contracts can be entered into that are desirable. I know that is controverted, and I am not opening it up for general discussion, except that I do not believe the viewpoint of the administrator should be that of fixing desirable contracts for its citizenship but that of fixing a point below which it is dangerous for people to work.

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Miss BRESETTE. I am very much interested in this subject of the minimum wage, but I do not feel that a minimum wage should be confused with a desirable wage. I do agree, however, with Miss Johnson that there should be some uniformity in arriving at what is a minimum wage. We will take for granted that a minimum wage is a living wage, but who is going to decide what a living wage is? In one State they want to allow the girls sufficient money to eat and a place to sleep; some place else they allow her 10 pocket handkerchiefs a year, 1 coat, 2 hats a year, we will say, 1 umbrella for three years. I am not very keen about arriving at a living wage in just that way. I do think that it is something that needs some attention. Take a group of business men in the community and let them go through the town and canvass the public boarding houses and find out how much it actually costs to live at a respectable boarding house in the community. I would rather select the boarding houses and say, "How much do you charge for board here a week?" I would rather get the prices from the cafés and restaurants in the town. I would rather advertise for rooms or hunt them—hunt the rooms myself and see what I could find—and how much I would have to pay for a respectable lodging, including in that, perhaps, accommodations which most of us like—that is, good ventilation, a good clean room to live in, a bath, and washing facilities. I think those are the things to be taken into consideration, and I do think that it is a waste of time to figure out how many pocket handkerchiefs you are going to allow a girl. I know that if you gave me only 10 pocket handkerchiefs they would be lost before the end of the month, because that is one thing that I am very careless and reckless with. I think that we will have to have a standardized budget to help us in arriving at what is a living wage and then not confuse that with a desirable wage.

Mrs. TRUMBULL. I may have been stupid in putting over my thought, but I am sure that I did not use the word "desirable"; I used the word "standard."

Miss STOVALL. Although not a delegate, I am very much interested in the minimum-wage question for our State, and I heartily agree with Mr. Hambrecht in regard to the standardization in arriving at the needs of a girl. It seems to me we are wrong when we take an arbitrary sum of money and say that it shall be sufficient for a girl. We must find out not only the right environment and living conditions for the girl but also what the girl needs to live well and to dress properly. I have found in our conferences that some men think that if a woman has a hat, coat, and pair of shoes she has all that is necessary for her to get along with. I think that we must establish a standpoint from which we must decide what it is going to cost a girl to live, and we can do so only by finding out what is necessary, what her needs are as a woman. I have found out in investigating that women's needs are greater than men's needs, and that women's incidentals cost more than those of men.

I have also found in our investigations that most girls are in debt. That was an interesting part of the last investigation, to find out what the average indebtedness of the girls was. I think we have got to decide whether the girl shall be allowed in a minimum wage an amount for doctor's bills, or dentist's bills, or druggist's bills.

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We found that some of our conferees decided it was not necessary to allow that in the minimum wage. It seems to me that those things ought to be taken into consideration and that we should base the minimum wage on the needs of the girl that go with the cost of living.

Miss FARKASCH. After hearing this discussion about having one wage for all occupations, I do not think the scale of wages in North Dakota will meet with the approval here which it has in our State, but we have taken into consideration in establishing our wage that a certain amount of experience is required to be really efficient in any occupation. The conferences conducted have established a higher wage in order to allow for a period of apprenticeship, so to speak, that will give the girls an opportunity to attain more efficiency in their work. It may be for that reason that we have our wages varying from $16.50 for laundries and manufacturing establishments to $20 for our offices. The conferences have also taken into consideration this other phase: While $20 a week may seem rather high for a girl who works in an office, the members of the conference decided unanimously that it takes more education on the part of the girl, more expenditure of money, before she can go into the office and earn money, and that, therefore, she should be allowed a greater remuneration. Of course they also took into consideration the fact that there is a greater expense to girls working in offices, from the point of view of clothing and other necessities, than there is for girls who wear aprons, and that is the reason why they established a certain wage for certain occupations. When we called our conference in Fargo, we called first the hotel and restaurant men in the public housekeeping employment, and they stated what was the lowest they could possibly feed their employees for, and that established a basis which was used in the conference, because the employers in other conferences did not feel themselves capable of estimating differently from those people who were experienced in that line. So although the wages vary, the opinions of the conferees do not vary in regard to the cost of living. They merely varied in regard to the experience that was required in those occupations, and our apprenticeship periods vary from four months to a year.

The CHAIRMAN. We have with us this afternoon one of the employers, Mr. Bush, of Rhodes Bros.' department store, and I wonder if we could not hear from Mr. Bush that side of the story, if there is any other side of the story.

Mr. CARL BUSH. I had not expected to be called upon, but I make it a business never to sit still and let my name be called without answering. There isn't any other side to this problem, it is all one-sided. It is just one problem, and if we could get that viewpoint and stick to it we would get along a whole lot better in these various conferences.

There is one thing I should like to bring out, that it seems to me has only been slightly touched upon so far in the conference, so far as I have heard it, and that is that we must arrive at a standard. Now, I do not like the way the speakers who have preceded me on this particular subject have shied away from interstate uniformity in wages. I think that interstate uniformity in many cases and in many ways is far more important than intrastate; that is, as between differ-

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ent classes of business in a State. There is a greater difficulty in fixing wages in the same occupation as between States than there is between different occupations in the same State, for the simple reason that it is a State problem. As I say, this is only one problem, there is only one side to it. It is not a labor problem, nor is it an employers' problem, because the employer and the employee are merely servants of the State, that is all; and if they are not good servants of the State, the State throws them out sooner or later just as sure as anything can be, so that it is one problem. The problem is one of State against State, naturally. If the Oregon law sets for a certain occupation a minimum that is a great deal higher than that set by the Washington law, or vice versa, then there are unfair conditions created in that occupation between those two States.

The condition is getting to be just exactly like the conditions Mr. Hambrecht spoke of a moment ago in reference to England two or three hundred years ago. There was a political economy worked out to its fullest and highest ideal. Now, we are tending to go back to that same condition. We are dealing with an unnatural condition. It is an unnatural condition which brings us all here, and that condition is that it is unnatural for women to work for wages, and just so long as that condition continues that it is unnatural for women to work for wages, just so long will we have to try to fix this unnatural condition, and then because of what we have done we will have to set out and fix some other unnatural condition, and so on. Uniformity is one of the first things to be arrived at. I do not like to disagree with a lady, but if the young lady will tell me how she is going to figure what it costs anybody to live without arriving at a reasonable estimate of how many handkerchiefs the average person needs, then I would like to know her method. She starts out and says that she wants a room, with perhaps a bath and wash towel in connection with it, or something of that sort, and she sets that as a standard. Now, some girls can get along without those things—they do get along without them—and yet she wants it as a standard in spite of that fact. So that we have to arrive then at what is the reasonable standard as to the room. Then, of course, she could live at some boarding house that some other girls would not live at, and she would not live at, yet somewhere we must set a standard as to that. Now, she may wear two dresses a year, or three or four dozen, whatever that may be, and another girl may wear half as many. But we must arrive at a standard there as to what are reasonable and fair amounts. It is only by itemizing the reasonable expenditures that we can ever arrive at a standard. If we can arrive at it, if this body, for instance, were to assemble and get down and conscientiously arrive at the necessary expenditures in order to support the average woman in health and reasonable comfort, and then tabulate those items and pass them out all over the United States, and let the wage-fixing boards fix the average cost of those commodities and necessaries, whatever they may be, you would have a much better minimum wage the country over than you can ever have by negotiation.

I do not like this idea of wage conferences at all in the sense that you people seem to talk about them. They are purely negotiations between employer and employee, with the State standing by as a sort

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of friendly adviser—at least that is my experience with them—and it seems to me they are not conferences in the true sense of the term at all. And the fact of the matter is that as far as I have any knowledge of these conferences they rarely use any information whatsoever as to what is the cost of living or what is the proper number of articles or proper items of the budget of expenditure for women. The fact of the matter is that the employer says, "We will pay $10," and the employee says, "We want $20," and whichever crowd can get the public body, if there is a public body involved, to decide with them usually wins the day. And it usually ends in a compromise somewhere between the lines of those figures, which is not what we are trying to get at at all.

I would just like to support Mr. Hambrecht's statement with reference to the lady from Oregon. Either I misunderstood her very much or she is talking about a merely maximum wage and not a minimum wage at all. She is not discussing minimum wage. The idea, I take it, of the minimum wage is this, that in times gone by and to-day we presume it is human nature to some, at least, to believe that women as well as men would be employed for less than a living wage if they were not prevented in some way from being so employed. Consequently we say there must be a minimum fixed which will prevent women from working below the minimum. You must all understand that women would work below the minimum if the employers would employ them. That is something that you must not lose sight of. So to guard against the unscrupulous woman who will work for less than the minimum wage or whose living costs her very much less than the average woman, and the unscrupulous employer, who will take all the chances there are, those two people must be looked out for, must be guarded against, and to fix a reasonable living wage is all that it takes to look out for those two people. Whenever you begin to fix the maximum—that is, the compensation for comfortable living conditions instead of the minimum living conditions—then you are going further than merely to prevent a wrong. You are attempting to set a standard then, a standard of efficiency, and if you are going to set one standard you must set two. If you are going to set a standard of comfortable living, a living which enables one to lay aside for the future and all the various things which come along with that, then you must also in conference set a standard of efficiency, and that is something we have not stopped to think about. Here is the point; isn't it a fact that we must keep fairly in our minds at all times that the minimum wage of necessity pays some people, depending on the size of the minimum wage, more than they actually earn, and also under normal conditions pays some people less than they actually earn? Now, if you grant the first thought, that it is a fact that with the high minimum many women will get more than they actually earn—I do not mean according to any standard or anything of that sort, I mean actual earning capacity—if you grant that under a high minimum wage some people will get more than they actually earn, then it also follows as a matter of course that other people are going to get less than they actually earn, because the public pays them both and the public is only going to pay what the thing costs in the long run.

I am very much in favor of getting at some method, some standardized method, of fixing the minimum wage, and I have not heard

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anything said yet which indicates to me even a reasonably sensible method of going at such a thing. What few occasions I am familiar with where the figures have been carefully tabulated, and all the various items which it was thought a woman should have have been appraised, and all that sort of thing, those figures have been quietly shoved aside in order to allow the employee and employer to negotiate, and we have not arrived at any standard.

Miss BRESETTE. I agree with Mr. Bush that all selfish interests should be eliminated and relegated to the background and that the thing which should be considered is what amount will meet the cost of living for the wage-earning woman. And I agree with Miss Johnson, from Massachusetts, that we should decide on a uniform way of arriving at a living wage. That much should be standardized, but I do not believe that we can have the same minimum wage in the different States, because I believe that we must take into consideration that there are economic differences and that it is possible to live in one State for less than in another. For instance, I have found during my stay in Seattle that I can live much cheaper right here in Seattle than I can in Topeka, Kans., which proves to me that a minimum wage set for one community will not always fit another community.

The gentleman who has just spoken says that he has heard most of the discussion but at no time has he heard anything said of efficiency. He has not heard all of the discussion, else he would not make this statement. In the final analysis of things, if reasonable workdays, living wages, and proper working conditions do not promote efficiency, then we might as well quit talking right now. When I make an effort to establish good working conditions I try to sell the idea in its relation to efficiency and production. I believe that in a great many of our industrial establishments they have been taught to see that good working conditions promote efficiency. I have gone to many of the big employers of labor around through the country where they have excellent conditions. I have tried to select places to visit where good conditions were a part of the system, not from compulsion, and in such establishments they had learned that they can not have good workmen without good conditions. I visited a large factory in Boston some time ago, a candy factory. In this factory they have established a 44-hour week. The manager said that they had reduced their work week from 54 hours to 44 hours and had not lost one ounce in production. I could readily say that if the establishment of living wages, the 8-hour day, and good working conditions do not promote efficiency, if they do not bring better quality of work, then we might as well quit to-day, because we will never arrive any place at all.

Miss MCFARLAND. May I say one word about efficiency in connection with the minimum wage? I have always believed that the minimum wage produced efficiency, not only on the part of the girls but on the part of the employer, because not all of the inefficiency lies on the one side, or downstairs; some of it lies sometimes in the office. An efficient, competent business man is the quickest to recognize efficiency. The inefficient man is the man who is always telling you that his employees are inefficient. He is inefficient himself, but when he has had to pay the minimum wage, in many cases he himself

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has become a more efficient business man; he has had to go out of business. Moreover, his foremen, his forewomen, have taken another view of the employee when they have had to pay the minimum wage. Take in the mercantile business, for instance, in our own city; a man said: "Before we had the minimum wage I would go into the shop occasionally and I have seen standing at the notion counter, which is the easiest counter to serve, a girl who looked to be 23 or 24 years of age, selling small articles at a very low wage, and she would stand there from year to year, being taught nothing and gaining nothing for the employer. The employer would be a good man, generous-hearted, and thinking that he was doing her a service. When the minimum wage came in he had to take a new view of her altogether, and he had to see either that she learned something so that she could earn the minimum wage or else she had to go and be replaced by some one who was competent. And when an incompetent employee is replaced by some one else it means that some competent employee was out of employment before."

Mrs. TRUMBULL. I wondered myself when Mr. Hambrecht got through talking—I agreed with everything he said, and I must have been very stupid in stating my position. This gentleman said he disagreed with me because everything, he said, referred to a standard of something. That is what I am asking for. I am not asking for a desirable wage, because there comes Miss McFarland's efficiency proposition. But what we do ask for is a standard, and what I started out to say was that the minimum wage which was established in this country in the beginning was not a living wage, it was the barest existence wage. This gentleman may not be familiar with the way of the Oregon commission, and I am sure the Washington commission also, and I know the California commission had the same thing—the thorough manner in which they go to work to arrive at a minimum wage. They do not just get in and average the thing; they get the United States costs of living, they get the rates of rents all through the city, and they find out a great many things, and it is not a haphazard thing; we take our job seriously.

Miss DUKE. The California commission, I know, used the Federal Government standards, and the method has been revolutionized recently. In fact, a former member of the faculty of the University of Washington has done some really wonderful work in making scientific budgets, and I know that the State of California uses those budgets. And in addition to what Mrs. Trumbull says it does, it sends out and finds out about the cost of living in various places. They do have those tangible things in front of them, and of course there is a controversy on each side, but I think, having got your budget, nobody can fall below that budget. I think that budget making is a technical thing and it is beside the mark to go into making budgets here; it is a thing that the wage commissions I know about do take into consideration. I know that they are taken into consideration in California.

Mr. BUSH. May I say a word? I just want to point this out: The lady who has just spoken speaks of a very fine thing which is being done. She refers to the care with which commissions collect information and statistics and all that, but I defy anybody in this room to show me a wage fixed on those statistics. If there has been one

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fixed that way honestly and fairly on the basis of statistics, I would like to know where it was done, so that I can get in touch with the people who did it and see if we can not arrive at something of that sort.

Now, just one other thing that I want to take up with the lady from Oregon just a minute. Either she has changed her mind or we have utterly misunderstood her statement. If I remember correctly, she stated in so many words that she wanted to see a standard fixed which was better than a bare living. I would like to know how much better—if she wants something very much better, then just how much better?

Then I want to correct the other impression—you see I am rather poor in making myself clear—I did not say the standards of efficiency had not been discussed; I said we must discuss the two together. If you are going to fix a standard wage which is higher than a bare living, then you must also fix a standard of efficiency, which is also higher than bare mediocrity.

The CHAIRMAN. I want to say for the Minimum Wage Commission of the District of Columbia that they probably have fixed their budget more nearly scientifically than perhaps any other minimum wage commission that I know of. They have gone down the line and hunted up every minute detail, and when they did that they had a budget of over $20—they had a budget of $22. Manufacturers did the same thing. They came in with a higher budget than the minimum wage was actually fixed at later on. We live in an age of give and take; we can not get away from that; we live in an age of compromise. While of course the girls felt that the $20 a week was a bare living, and I dare say it was, at the same time the wage was fixed at $16.50 a week. It was a compromise, and you could not arrive at it in any other way. The greatest fault, it seems to me, to be found with the fixing of the minimum wage is the fact that we take only the individual person into consideration. There may be a majority of women who are supporting, either in whole or in part, families. We are not taking the family situation into consideration at all. When we fix the man's standard, or the man's wages, and it is usually a minimum wage, it is done through a union organization or some other way of collective bargaining, and we always take the family budget as a standard. Now, whether the wage is fixed exactly at the family budget or fixed somewhere near the family budget, it seems to me that the minimum wage commissions and people throughout the country will have to recognize the fact that women are responsible for the family life of the country, and that a wage ought to be fixed along those lines, and that we must not level up or level down the woman's wage to the individual budget and the man's wage to the family budget. We must remember that they are all people; they are all a part of the family life of the Nation. We are all responsible, and it seems to me that is the way of fixing a minimum wage, and I hope that sooner or later we will take that into consideration, for the women as well as the men.

Mr. H. L. HUGHES, chairman, Industrial Insurance Department of Washington. I do not feel that I can let this opportunity go by without saying something on this subject. It is one on which I feel somewhat strongly. I am almost discouraged when I hear people discussing this minimum-wage matter as something that has to be

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approached very gingerly. I think those who have to deal with this question ought to get every fact. When you talk about the cost of this thing there are a lot of things that are not generally taken into consideration, and the price will be paid and it will be a terrible price.

I am startled beyond expression when I hear a suggestion that there are some working girls in America who do not want a bathtub. That startles me. I do not know but what it would be a good idea to make a national emblem of a bathtub and get somewhere. It is said that they do not have very many bathtubs in Russia, and there is an awful mess in Russia, and we may get to the point where there will be an awful mess in this country.

I am in favor of a standard of wages for women, and I want that standard to be an American standard and to include a bathtub, and then we need not worry about the matter of efficiency; that will take care of itself. The business men require efficiency now. They always have required it, and they always will require it. As a matter of fact, a good business man gets efficient people. I know in my own line of work that I have had my competitors come to me complaining that they could not get efficient workers. I never have anything else but efficient workers, and you are a poor business man if you do not have efficient workers. If you have those who are not trained, you are a poor business man if you do not see that they are trained; and you can not produce trained workers unless you provide a proper standard of living for such people, because without such standard of living they can not in the very nature of things be profitable producers.

I was very much taken with the idea of Miss Bresette, that we put the burden of this thing upon the business men of the community. I rather think that it would be a good idea to put this problem up to the business men of the community themselves to determine what is a decent standard of living, and then measure those business men by the standard which they give you, and I will promise you that the successful business men around the community will make the standard one that is right. But they too frequently put that off onto somebody else. I want to illustrate the point. We had a conference in this State just a short time ago. The fellows who wanted to beat a decent standard of living for the women of this State got a man to go out and price clothes which a woman is supposed to wear. I do not know whether he stripped them off some person whom he found dead somewhere and put a price mark on them or what he did, but he did not bring in anything that he dared to show the public. He brought in an exhibit there locked up in a trunk, and he told the members of the conference what those things could be bought for from the merchants in the town from which he came, but you could not get him to show the goods. I think if you put the responsibility directly upon the successful business man in the community and then measure him by the standard which he sets up that you will come nearer getting a standard which is right for the American working girl than you will by the plan you are pursuing now, because it does not seem to be getting anywhere.

When we have wage scales established at $13.20 to $15 and $16 a week, everybody knows that they do not measure up to any condition which ought to be tolerated as an American standard of living

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for American citizens, which the girls are. So I think we ought not to approach this matter gingerly. I think those who have to deal with this problem ought to go out and battle for a decent wage for the women of this country.

So it is not a matter of discussing what we can just narrowly afford to do. We can not afford to tolerate, and we can not have in this country much longer, a condition of wages, either for men or women, that is below any decent standard of living or below what ought to be an American standard of living. We are going to get into a lot of trouble unless that thing can be accomplished in this country, because we can not have one side putting up sugar three or four hundred per cent and then try to have the people of the country get along on a wage of $13.20 per week, without getting into serious trouble somewhere.

Mrs. UDALL. I think I must say one thing more in the defense of the State industrial welfare commission. I do not know which conference Mr. Bush attended, but I attended 10, one in British Columbia and the rest in our own State, and I do not know of any of those conferences where the information which was presented to the conference was not considered at all. I am going to say frankly that in some instances, perhaps, they did not consider it as much as they should have, but I want to say, on the other hand, that in many instances they took the cost of living, and it was discussed before the members of the commission and they estimated the cost of each article right down the line, from board and room down to the handkerchiefs. I want to say that at one of those conferences the employers and the employees were just 50 cents apart when they summed up their items and estimates. Now, that is possible, and I want to say with Mr. Hughes that I will leave it to the best business men in the city to say what the minimum wage shall be, but they must be business men of broad viewpoint, those who are willing and who realize that efficiency does come from good standards and good wages. I would like to ask Mr. Bush, if he does not mind, how he hopes to make the standards.

Mr. BUSH. Any reasonable body. I said we ought to get a standard. I am not complaining about any standard, because we have none, but I think we ought to get one.

Mrs. UDALL. We all want standards. I want to say personally that I particularly want some standard. The estimates made by the girls are usually high, and the estimates that we receive from the employers are usually low.

Mr. BUSH. You mean estimates from the girls?

Mrs. UDALL. Made by the girls.

Mr. BUSH. You mean the expenditures of the girls themselves?

Mrs. UDALL. Yes. The estimates made by the employees are usually high. The employers in the last two instances in our conferences hired public accountants to make estimates, and those estimates varied. The public accountants in one instance made them high, what they considered high, $16.50, and another public accountant came down as low as $13, and I think that the average of the public accountants' estimates came to $13.77. So who is to make the standard? I think it is settled that we all want a standard, but who is to make the standard?

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Mr. BUSH. Did you get a minimum wage from the employer and one from the employee which came within 50 cents of each other?

Mrs. UDALL. Yes. I want to say this——

Mr. BUSH. Did you?

Mrs. UDALL. Yes; but I want to say that that was a long time ago. It was just about the time that we called the first conference. We have had no conference since that in which the estimates have come that near together. I picked that one out as peculiar. That happened about 10 years ago. I will say with Miss Anderson that we have estimates by both and then they bargain among themselves. I have yet to attend a conference where they did not get together and bargain, or whatever you like to call it, at the end of the conference.

Mr. BUSH. That is the whole argument for a standard. There should not be any necessity for bargaining if you have a standard. If you have a standard there would be no bargaining, practically speaking.

Mrs. UDALL. You might set the standard and that would be the wage.

Mr. BUSH. If you are going to use the cost of living as the standard, and then fix a list of items which are agreed upon as reasonably within the cost of living, then it is a matter of finding the price. That is the standard I am speaking of, your list of articles. That is the standard which I think should be fixed, because when that is done you naturally bring about uniformity.

Mrs. UDALL. Then you would have a budget?

Mr. BUSH. It would be a living budget.

The CHAIRMAN. Would the manufacturers' association agree to that proposition?

Mr. BUSH. Absolutely not.

The CHAIRMAN. What would they allow for doctors' bills?

Miss LORD. They would not allow anything for doctors' bills.

Mr. BUSH. No; because they were not working on a standard. Whenever you have two people who go into a proposition, one at the bottom and one at the top, and try to get together, of course you get a cat-and-dog fight, and doctors' bills or any other kind of bills are not going to be allowed by the man fighting down, and doctors' bills or anything else are not going to be ignored by the person fighting up. Everything will be included on a fighting basis.

Miss BRESETTE. I should like to know just how Mr. Bush would bring about a standard by law. He says the trouble is always in getting either side to accept the standard that is made. That has not been my experience in working with boards. I have found in most cases that the members of a wage board representing the employees establish a higher standard than the representatives of the employers. It has seemed to me that the representatives of the employees honestly endeavor to figure the amount necessary to meet the cost of living, while the representatives of the employers, however honest their intention may be, will figure from a different angle. That is, they figure just how much they think their own individual business can stand, and on all of our wage boards in Kansas the wage finally decided upon has been a compromise between what might be accepted

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as a living wage, recommended by the representatives of employees, and something less than a living wage, which has been recommended by the representatives of employers. Mr. Bush says he has looked upon it as a cat-and-dog fight. I have not viewed it in that way at all, but I have thought that there was sort of an organized feeling against regulation. I have gone into business establishments which I might have graded 100 per cent as far as working conditions were concerned and yet found that the employers are opposed to our regulations when they in any way affect them. I believe there is much talk wasted about preference for Federal legislation. We hear a great many employers say they would not mind a Federal minimum wage law, but I notice that our Federal child-labor law did not meet with very good treatment, and there was a great number of people on the spot to lobby against it. I may not have made myself clear, but I have been trying to explain to you why the minimum wage was not based on the budget submitted. It has invariably been because the representatives of employers would not accept the standards set by the representatives of employees and, vice versa, the representatives of the employees would not accept the standards set by the representatives of employers. What I would really like to do is to put the burden of the thing upon the business men of the country. I would be very willing to trust to the judgment of the business men to decide on a decent living wage, if the business men would honestly relegate their own interests to the background and actually make out a budget which would cover the cost of living. I believe they are better budget makers than the working girls are.

Mr. Bush. What I was aiming at is this: That we must arrive at the general thought as to the standard way of fixing the wage. If I understand the lady correctly, they are doing that in California under the leadership of a very able man; they are arriving at a method, and they are going to get the people to agree to that method, and when the people agree their troubles will be over, because it will be merely a matter of pricing merchandise.

Mr. Hambrecht. I have attended a great many conferences and I have found the same confusion there that we find here and elsewhere in the discussions, and that is that we can wax eloquent. I think I can wax as eloquent as anyone within my limitations, and I did then, on the desirability of people getting good wages for work. I believe in a high standard of American living. There is no question in my mind about that. That is one thing. Another thing is the function of the State in fixing a wage below which it is not safe for an individual to work. They are two entirely different propositions. When I get to the point where I believe that the State should fix the price of all those things and control absolutely the industrial product, I will be honest with myself and advocate that principle in its entirety and complete the program. That is the socialist's idea. I say that with all due respect to the socialists, because they honestly and sincerely believe the State should regulate the products of industry, distribute all of the proceeds, and maybe they are right, but I do not think so. When I come to the conclusion that they are right, I will be one of them, but I am not one of them now. I am an individualist, because I think through the individual the best in society will be worked out.

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Now, as to the minimum wage, we must look at it from the viewpoint of the duty of the State toward its citizens, and not what is desirable for a citizen to get for himself or herself—I know there are a good many people who do not agree with me on that—and that is, fixing a wage below which it is unsafe and above which most women should work and get high wages, because only through that system of getting a large share of the wealth of the country to the workers are we going to have a high standard of citizenship. That is not coming, in my opinion, through legislation fixing those standards, beyond the point, as I said, of the fixing of a safe standard.

Miss STOVALL. Could I say just a word? I want to say that in the last conference we had here some of us prepared a budget which was presented to the conference and which was considered. The way we prepared the budget was this: We found that we did not think it was right to take an arbitrary sum and apportion it out, but that we must decide upon what the need was. So a group of women, housewives and girls who work, got together and decided item by item, went over it very carefully—is this necessary, is that necessary, and is this necessary? Then we took the life of things—whether a coat should be bought which would last one year or two years. If it would last two years, we divided the cost in half. We took up each garment in that way, and for some garments we cut the cost two-thirds because some would be left over at the end of the year. Because we were preparing a budget for girls all over the State, we took the different prices which we found, from stores in Seattle, Walla Walla, and Centralia, and we averaged those prices, and from that we arrived at our conclusion. In our investigation we found many girls who did not include a nightgown in their expense, and we found in talking with nurses that many women came into the hospitals without stockings. We considered that although there were countries in which women did not wear stockings we did not want American girls to live that way, so, of course, we included nightgowns and stockings. That is the way we arrived at it, and that budget was considered at the last conference in establishing the rates here.

Miss JOHNSON. In connection with the question of procuring greater uniformity of rates in the different States, and greater uniformity in the budget for the working woman, irrespective of the State, I wonder if it would not be well if there was more adequate exchange of information among the various States; that is, if the different States having minimum wage commissions would exchange information enabling each one to have the benefit of the investigations made by the other States. While it is true that the wage board work will necessarily be largely based on compromise, we would have a better basis for compromise if we had information to present to the board.

And the minimum wage commissions are in better position to make investigations than the wage board members themselves. The wage board members are not, as a rule, experienced in that investigation. I think it would be helpful if we could have the benefit of studies made by the different commissions as early as possible, so that they will be available when needed. It would be even more helpful if we could have a study on the cost of living for the self-supporting woman, made by the Federal Bureau of Labor Statistics. We have

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had very valuable material collected by the Federal bureau on the family budget, the cost of living for families in different communities throughout the country. If we could have studies made on the cost of living for the self-supporting woman in different sections of the country, that would be a form of evidence which I think would be considered by the different boards and would help very much in the solving of this question of uniformity in which we are all interested.

[Mr. Priest of the Seattle Chamber of Commerce announced that theater tickets for the evening had been provided for the delegates by the chamber of commerce, and that Mr. J. C. Lindsey, an industrial engineer, would address the convention at the morning session.]

The CHAIRMAN. I think this is the proper time to close the discussion on the minimum wage. I think that we have had a very thorough discussion and a very illuminating one, and I will now turn this session over to Mr. Hambrecht, the president of this association.

Mr. HAMBRECHT. There are only one or two things to come up in a business way, and I will recognize Miss Edwards first.

[Miss Edwards extended an invitation to the delegates to visit the regular meeting of the Central Labor Council of Seattle in the evening.]

Mrs. TRUMBULL. We have with us a representative of the Bemis Bros. Bag Co., and she tells me that they have a splendid type of chair for the use of their employees. Now, for the benefit of those inspectors who have this in mind, I wish that she might tell us what it is.

Miss NINA F. WINN. I am not here as a representative of the Bemis Bros. Bag Co., but as a representative of the Industrial Relations Association of America. I will say this, however, that we have for the use of our machine operators an adjustable chair which is very much on the order of a stenographer's chair. It is adjustable to the operator's height and it has a back which is adjustable, which enables the operator to get the support where it is needed. The chair is also adjustable horizontally. I do not know the name of the manufacturer of that chair, but I think I can find out.

Mr. HAMBRECHT. Where is the chair?

Miss WINN. I haven't one here, but we have them in our plant, the Bemis Bros. Bag Co., 65 Atlantic Street, Seattle.

Mr. HAMBRECHT. I want to make an announcement. The chairman of the resolutions committee desires that any delegate having resolutions which he wishes considered by the convention file the resolution with Mrs. Cox or any member of the committee not later than 9 o'clock to-morrow morning, and at 11 o'clock Mrs. Cox desires to have a meeting of the resolutions committee to consider its report. The resolutions should be in writing in the form the delegate desires it to be presented, as it will be impossible for those on the committee to bear in mind verbal suggestions.

[Mrs. Wilson, representing the Seattle ladies, extended an invitation to the ladies of the convention to a luncheon to-morrow at noon.]

Mr. HAMBRECHT. On behalf of the lady delegates Miss Bresette expresses her appreciation and thanks. This organization will now stand adjourned until 9 o'clock to-morrow morning.

(Whereupon the convention adjourned until 9 a. m., July 15, 1920.)

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THURSDAY, JULY 15—MORNING SESSION.

GEORGE P. HAMBRECHT, PRESIDENT, PRESIDING.

SAFETY AND COMPENSATION.

The CHAIRMAN. The meeting will come to order, please. The reason we started a little late this morning is that the committees had to meet, and it is pretty hard to get together before 9 o'clock for that purpose.

We will take the first number on the program for to-day and listen to a talk on the problem of the injured worker by a man from this State who probably knows more about the workmen's compensation law, industrial insurance, and the general problem of the injured man than anyone else on the coast. I have the pleasure at this time of introducing to this association, if he needs an introduction, Mr. Harley L. Hughes, chairman of the Industrial Insurance Department of Washington.

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PROBLEM OF THE INJURED WORKER.

By H. L. HUGHES, chairman, Industrial Insurance Department of Washington.

The problem of the injured worker presents a field of activity for the most interesting and inspiring work that anyone can be called upon to do. It presents the opportunity for a humanitarian work of real magnitude. It is surprising that the States of this great enlightened Nation of ours so long left the injured worker to his own resources; but now that most of the States of the Union have adopted some form of industrial insurance, the purpose of which is to compensate him for his injuries, the field of endeavor upon his behalf is broadening out, and a wider effort is being made to do everything that can be done in his behalf and to carry the burden for him until he can be returned to his place in industry a healed and rehabilitated man, or to care for his immediate family and dependents in the event that his industrial accident results fatally.

The State of Washington is one of the early pioneers in the field of industrial insurance. Our law was enacted in 1911, and we are one of the few States having compulsory State industrial insurance and medical aid funds, out of which every worker injured in the hazardous employments of the State receives definite insurance and unlimited medical, surgical, and hospital care.

The declaration of police power in section 1 of the Washington act declares:

> The common-law system governing the remedy of workmen against employers for injuries received in hazardous work is inconsistent with modern industrial conditions. In practice it proves to be economically unwise and unfair. Its administration has produced the result that little of the cost of the employer has reached the workman and that little only at large expense to the public. The remedy of the workman has been uncertain, slow, and inadequate. Injuries in such works, formerly occasional, have become frequent and inevitable. The welfare of the State depends upon its industries, and even more upon the welfare of its wageworker. The State of Washington, therefore, exercising herein its police and sovereign power, declares that all phases of the premises are withdrawn from private controversy, and sure and certain relief for workmen, injured in extrahazardous work, and their families and dependents is hereby provided regardless of questions of fault and to the exclusion of every other remedy, proceeding, or compensation, and to that end all civil actions and civil causes of action for such personal injuries and all jurisdiction of the courts of the State over such causes are hereby abolished.

In adopting the compulsory State fund plan of insurance, under which every worker of the State engaged in extrahazardous employment was guaranteed certain definite, speedy, insurance benefits which provide for his misfortune, we succeeded in eliminating the ambulance-chasing lawyer and profiteering insurance companies who had theretofore fattened upon both the injured worker and his employer. Previous to the enactment of this law the private insurance companies had charged the employers of the State excessive rates for protection against personal damage suits arising out of industrial injuries. The protection thus afforded was not only extremely ex-

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pensive, but very unsatisfactory, inasmuch as it was limited in its character, and the injured worker was always forced to make a fight in the courts for the benefits which the insurance was supposed to provide at such tremendous cost to his employer. The legal profession did a large business in handling these personal damage suits on a contingent fee, which was generally 50 per cent of any damages awarded by the courts. The court process of collecting personal damages was long and expensive, and even though the injured worker was successful it was at the cost of such a long period of time that living expenses and court costs ate up the amount of the judgment long before he actually received it. He was generally the loser in the end, even though he won his case. By adopting the compulsory State fund plan of insurance we also succeeded in eliminating the meddlesome interference of the private insurance interests.

In the matter both of the administration of our law and of the progress of its development we have only to consider the injured worker and his employer, and we have now reached the point where these two get together, agreeing upon the matter of new amendments and legislative action relating to amount of awards, etc., under the act. The law has steadily progressed, and each session of the legislature adds some new feature to provide for the better handling of the problem and to increase the amount of payments which may be made on account of the disabilities arising out of injuries.

It can be safely said at this time that the total of all payments reaching the injured workmen of the State under the provisions of this act amounts to more than five times the amount that was paid to the injured workers at any time previous to the enactment of this law, and that the amounts paid to the workers go direct to them without loss of time or expense in collecting the same. What the injured worker is paid is 100 per cent clear to him. It is no longer necessary for him to employ an attorney to handle his case, for there is nothing that an attorney can do in his behalf but what is performed for him free by the commission. In other words, the Industrial Insurance Department of the State of Washington was created by this act for the express purpose of administering a department whose sole object is to obtain for him the full benefits of the act in every case where his claim is legitimate and to protect the fund against fraud.

However, be it said to the credit of the legal profession of the State of Washington, as a whole they have recognized the unsound and inequitable condition which existed under the old practice and many of the best lawyers of the State gave their efforts and support to the enactment of this law. The attitude of the insurance companies, however, was to the contrary. They did not seem, however, to fathom what was happening until this law with its compulsory State fund insurance plan had been adopted by the legislature and signed by the governor. They then realized that they had lost this tremendously profitable business in the State of Washington, and they immediately busied themselves in an effort to discredit the law. One year of successful operation under the act, however, was a complete demonstration to the employers and workmen of this State of the soundness of compulsory State insurance. The employer found that he was receiving absolute protection at a reasonable cost, and

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that fully satisfied him. The worker liked the idea of receiving his insurance directly and promptly without having to go to court to fight for it, and he, too, was highly satisfied. Try as they may, the insurance companies have been unable to regain a foothold in any of the industries of the State which come under the act. At the last session of the legislature they came here prepared with an amendment to the law the purpose of which was to enable them to write insurance in competition with the State fund. They did not succeed in introducing this amendment in the legislature for the very good reason that they could not find in the entire body one member who would consent to introduce their amendment, for our law had worked out so successfully and satisfactorily to both employer and employee that the legislators all realized that it would be an unwise thing to court the displeasure of the employers and workers by making any effort to allow insurance companies to get back into the game in this State.

While we are proud of our law and feel that it is one of the very best that has been enacted in any of the States, we are not satisfied to stop where we are. We are making continuous efforts to broaden its field of activities and to enlarge the payments that may be made to injured workers. We have made very good progress in the past, and we expect to make vastly greater progress in the future.

The administration of the act in this State has had a tremendous influence in bringing worker and employer closer together, and it has promoted industrial peace and harmony more than any other one thing that has been done in the history of the State. It has tremendously broadened both sides. Representatives of the workers every two years meet the employers in a conference and try to agree upon amendments to the law which are to be proposed to the legislature. In this way we have developed a sort of enthusiasm for the good work we have in hand. Both workers and employers are proud of the act and want to make it better. They discuss the problem in a most friendly and constructive way. New ideas are continually coming out.

Prior to the enactment of the law in the State there was little interest taken in safety work. Dangerous machinery was left unguarded. Little or no educational work was carried on along the line of safety. To-day a vastly different condition prevails. There is general agreement among both the workmen and the employers that the big idea is safety; that machinery must be guarded to the utmost; that the workmen and those in charge of them must be educated to safe practices in work around dangerous machinery and hazardous places of work. Hundreds and hundreds of industrial establishments now employ safety engineers and have safety organization for their employees. This has practically all been the outgrowth of the enactment of the industrial insurance law in this State.

As soon as this law was enacted the employers began to take an interest in lowering the number of accidents in the State in order to lower their rates of insurance. This gave them personal touch with their workers. Organizations were formed, and then the work became humanitarian and more intensified. Two years ago the industrial insurance department called two conferences to discuss the

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question of safety. As a result of these conferences the commission was empowered to appoint a committee of seven employers and seven workmen to draft a State safety law. After several months of earnest work a bill was agreed upon. This bill provided for a State-wide organization consisting of a State safety board and three district boards located in the three main industrial centers of the State. The board was empowered to formulate standards of safety and to provide for their enforcement in all extrahazardous establishments in the State. The board was given an appropriation of $350,000 to carry out the provisions of the act. The spirit in which this work was gone into is illustrated by the fact that the employers and workmen of the entire State were in complete agreement on this legislation. The bill was introduced and passed both branches of the legislature with but one vote in opposition.

The State safety board is now organized and its machinery is in operation, and we confidently predict that with such a splendid organization, coupled with the remarkable cooperation that it is receiving from both workers and employers the time is coming within the next few years when the accidents in our industries will be reduced 50 to 80 per cent.

Now that we have provided insurance for the worker who is injured and for a comprehensive plan of safety work, the purpose of which is to reduce accidents to the irreducible minimum, the next big feature in solving the problem of the injured worker is to take up in a State way the rehabilitation of the man so badly injured that he will be unable again to follow the work which he was doing at the time he received his accident. We have found in handling the problem here in Washington that in very few instances are men left in such bad condition following their injury that they may not be rehabilitated by corrective surgery, occupational reeducation, etc., to fill some useful place in the industries of the State.

We are hoping that the next legislature will empower the commission to do this work and give an adequate appropriation to carry it out. Already we have succeeded in doing very good work along this line without special legislative authority or appropriation therefor. We have no power of retraining a man found in this condition, but we frequently have found a way of helping him by making an appeal to his employer to find a place for him in his plant organization. In a case of this kind we write the employer fully concerning the man's problem and his need for help and direction, calling the attention of the employer to the line of work which it would be possible for the injured man to do, and urge him to give the man an opportunity. In practically every instance the employer has responded with the assurance that he has a job for the man, and if the man will return he will be placed back in employment. In practically every instance, too, where the man has gone back he has made good, and to-day there are a large number of such men who are rendering excellent service in the industries of the State, living lives of usefulness and being again independent and self-supporting and providing comfort for their families and dependents.

We find, however, that to do the best work along this line it is necessary to have some plan of retraining which will take the man, if possible, while he is yet in the hospital and make him active with

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both hand and brain and fill his mind with the suggestion that his injury is not going to incapacitate him, but that when he again comes out he is going to take his place in industry. This keeps the injured man from being discouraged. It occupies his mind with healthful thoughts and enables him better to overcome his injury, to recover more rapidly. We have found by experience that the condition of mind of an injured workman frequently becomes a much greater disability than the actual physical disability which results from his injury.

But we find this same thing true with our permanent total disability cases—the pension cases. Men who have lost both legs, both arms, a leg and an arm, eyesight, or suffered any of the other disabilities commonly known as permanent total disabilities, are still capable, as a general thing, of being reclaimed to some useful line of work, and it is much better to reclaim them in this way than to pay them a pension, though the pension should always be paid in these cases. But to pension them alone is frequently destructive of manhood.

To my mind there is nothing so pitiable as to set a man aside on a pension with the suggestion that he is a permanent total-disability case and can never again be useful. Give the man his pension, but also fortify him with the thought that there are yet opportunities for usefulness and whatever physical powers he has left can be trained to some work that will keep him occupied and happy. We have many cases in the State of Washington of permanent total disabilities where the men drawing pensions from this fund are doing things to supplement their pension and to provide for themselves and their families a comfortable living. Sometimes they go into a little business which they are capable of handling and succeed. Other times they get a little piece of land and raise chickens, garden truck, small fruits, dairying—various activities of that kind. Outside of those cases which are bedridden, practically all can engage in some work of usefulness, and in doing so their happiness and satisfaction in life are tremendously increased.

This, to my mind, is the final big, splendid thing which can be done in handling the problem of the injured worker, and certainly, with the enactment of the Federal rehabilitation act which has been passed by Congress and signed by the President on June 2, the way is open to all of the States of the Union to adopt a comprehensive plan for this work; and well may we hail it as one of the finest opportunities that has yet been presented to those of us who have been charged with the administration of the industrial insurance acts of the various States.

The CHAIRMAN. Those commissioners who are also charged with the responsibility of administering the workmen's compensation act know, and for the benefit of those who may not be so charged I want to say, that the State of Washington ranks foremost among the States in the splendid work it is doing in that field, and it is due very largely to the personal attention, punch, and ability of its chairman, Mr. Hughes.

I think for the present, at least, we will defer discussion, because there are two other papers, and I would like to have them presented this morning, and then if there is time at the end of those papers

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they will be open for discussion. So, if you have any questions, you will reserve them until after the program is finished this morning.

The next number on the program is discussion on the subject of activity of the railway accident prevention movement by Mr. Metcalfe, safety superintendent of the Northern Pacific Railroad. Mr. Metcalfe has given this subject his personal attention for years, and those who are familiar with the safety movement know that his name is a household word in safety. He is one of the few men who have been pioneers in this movement, and at great personal sacrifice, after urging him on behalf of our association, he has consented to come from St. Paul to deliver his message to us on safety. I have the pleasure at this time of presenting Mr. Metcalfe.

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ACTIVITY OF THE RAILWAY ACCIDENT PREVENTION MOVEMENT.

By F. M. METCALFE, safety superintendent of the Northern Pacific Railroad.

The subject assigned to me is the activity of the railway accident prevention movement. Being an employee on but one railroad from my youth, it will be necessary for me to use that one railroad as typical of the other railroads of this country. The benefits accruing from accident prevention to the employer and to the employee alike have been so apparent wherever such activities have been undertaken systematically that the movement has become a national one. Ten years ago the accident prevention movement was in its infancy, having originated in the plants of the United States Steel Corporation. The immediate large decrease in their number of accidents attracted the attention of other industrial leaders, and as a result there was created by them the National Safety Council, with headquarters in Chicago, for the purpose of analyzing accident prevention. It is through the activities of that council that the wonderful progress of the safety movement has been made within the past few years, and it is through that medium that the railroads of this country became interested in it.

Permit me here to digress from my direct subject to tell you briefly something about the organization and the work of the National Safety Council. Its membership embraces all the leading industries. Its detail work is handled by Mr. C. W. Price, its general manager, who has a dozen or more assistants and a corps of clerks, and it occupies an entire floor in one of the large business blocks of Chicago. The total membership is 3,761 industries, with 16,700 representatives and with 6,275,000 employees under their jurisdiction. Those correlated memberships are divided into sections, and thus we have the steam-rail section and sections for the lumber industry, the milling industry, mining, rubber, paper and pulp, meat packers, the textile industry, woodworkers, the chemical makers, cement, the electric, and other industries.. There are also sections for public health, for health service, and public utilities and other similar branches. Annually the representatives of those sections meet in one big safety congress, at which there are present from 5,000 to 8,000 persons all vitally interested in the prevention of bodily accidents. The first day's session of this convention is devoted to the hearing of addresses from speakers of national note and to the reading of the annual report. Then these various sections go into session separately and discuss accident-prevention problems of their own. The printed proceedings of last year's congress filled a book of over 1,450 pages, which will indicate the large amount of business transacted. The National Safety Council has been instrumental in installing local councils in many of our large cities. These local councils become departments of the local chambers of commerce and undertake for them the systematic safety work among the public, in the schools, in the homes, and in local industries which do not have separate safety organiza-

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tions of their own. In addition the council is doing welfare work; that is, looking after the employees from a health standpoint to see that they have healthful surroundings both in their workshops and in their homes. It is also undertaking to Americanize the foreign element which to-day forms a big percentage of the common labor in many of our large industries and which has already become a factor in our national issues. This summarization will, I believe, convey to you some idea of the magnitude and importance of the safety movement that is going on in this country.

The accident-prevention movement made greater progress in 1919 than in any previous year. How many people are to-day alive, healthy, and happy who might have been maimed or killed but for the accident-prevention campaign no one knows. However, among our railroad employees we do know, through the Federal records, that in 1919 there were 1,600 fewer fatal accidents and 26,000 fewer serious injuries. This total of 27,600 railroad employees when multiplied by 4, to include their families, means that every person in a city of over 100,000 population was in one year saved no inconsiderable amount of suffering, sorrow, deprivation, or inconvenience.

The method pursued by the railroads to inculcate into the minds of their employees the great importance to them of life and limb conservation is one of education. There is scarcely an American railroad that has not a department which devotes its entire time to this work. The usual method is to have a safety committee for every operating division and for every large shop, composed of the head of each department and a separate employee to represent each class of labor. Ordinarily these committees have from 30 to 40 members, with the superintendent as chairman. At their meetings, which are usually held monthly, the members are expected to present a list of all the hazardous practices and conditions which have come under their observation since the previous meeting, with a statement of the action taken to remedy them. In case corrective measures have not been taken it is the duty of this committee to devise ways and means for corrective measures. The members of this committee are allowed their regular wages for attending the meetings, and their activities receive the cordial support of railway managements, which strongly urge the enthusiastic cooperation of all employees. These men assemble at the meetings as safety committee men and not in the relation of employer and employees. Thus each member has an equal standing and is free to act according to his judgment. Last year as a result of this organization there were submitted on the road which I represent over 4,000 items, and by the close of the year 75 per cent of those items had been favorably acted upon, thereby eliminating over 3,000 hazards.

To persons unfamiliar with railroads it would be quite natural for them to suppose that property conditions would be a very large casualty contributor. However, that is not the case, as is indicated by the fact that but 3 per cent of our total casualty list is chargeable to property conditions. This small total is due to the railroads having spent many thousands of dollars to remove as far as possible every property hazard. The one big problem for railroad safety departments and safety committees to solve is the human tendency toward

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negligence, which embraces carelessness, thoughtlessness, indifference, disobedience, and in some cases inexcusable negligence. Statistics show that 82 per cent of railroad employees who receive an injury receive the injury through the negligence of the man himself; 9 per cent of the injuries are chargeable to the negligence of fellow workmen; 3 per cent to property conditions, and 2 per cent to unavoidable causes. Of the fatal accidents, 99 per cent are due to negligence.

As illustrative of the headway that is being made in this work, I will inform you that in 1916 one railroad employee was injured for every 100 in service. The record for 1919 is that one employee was injured for every 200 in service, so that in four years there has been a reduction of 50 per cent in the casualty lists on railroads. As a result of this reduction in casualties there occurred to the men in the Northern Pacific service 21 fewer fatal accidents in 1919 than in 1918, and 402 fewer serious injuries; and 23 fewer fatal accidents and 1,539 fewer serious injuries than in 1917. This record is typical of the record made by the railroads as a whole and should convince the most skeptical that an important and efficient service is being rendered the Nation by this work.

Few of us realize what an enormous economic and financial waste is involved through accidents. Now, please remember that 95 per cent of all the casualties to railroad men are preventable by the exercise of proper vigilance and forethought, but because these are not exercised our railroads are charging their personal-injury account each year over $30,000,000. The railroad labor organizations are paying death and disability claims annually amounting to over $20,000,000, and no one knows what tremendous sum the insurance companies are paying out for those preventable cases. It is estimated that American railways are suffering yearly from accidents to their men a loss of 8,000,000 working days, which represents a wage loss to the employees of over $25,000,000 annually. You can readily see, therefore, that casualties are of great importance and are a matter of great concern to every railroad.

What I have said to you about the safety committee work is but a small part of what the railroads are doing to prevent accidents. For each branch of the operating department a carefully prepared set of safety rules is distributed among the men which, if observed by them, would practically wipe out accidents. Every casualty is given an intelligent, detailed investigation in order to develop definitely its cause and in order that action may be taken to prevent a recurrence. Field men are employed whose duties require them to travel over the lines to observe and correct hazardous practices and conditions and to talk accident prevention to the men. Safety notice boards are set up at hundreds of places on every large railroad, on which are kept posted fresh educational illustrative printed bulletins. On the Northern Pacific boards last year there were posted 8,113 copies of safety bulletins. There were 844 safety addresses made to the men, and 349,844 copies of pamphlets, circulars, and other educational safety literature distributed by that road among the men. I believe this will suffice to convey to you, at least vaguely, the fact that railroad companies are undertaking an earnest and consistent work to prevent accidents to their employees.

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Their activities, however, do not stop there, as they are doing a similar work to prevent accidents to their patrons and to the public which uses their properties.

Considerable energy has been spent to get the safety idea properly impressed upon children by distributing through the schools pamphlets and books containing attractive educational safety notices.

Now, concerning the public, the railroads are confronted with two very serious problems which give endless trouble, and they are the trespassing and the grade-crossing accident. I can quote you no statistics on these subjects, because, as you all so well know, the large loss and the bodies maimed each year total a sum beyond human comprehension. The railroads have gone the limit in their endeavors to educate the public to understand that their property can not with impunity be used as a public thoroughfare, but adults will persist in trespassing upon it, and parents often allow their children to do so and to play along the tracks, with results that are frequently extremely distressing. The fatal accidents resulting from trespassing on our properties are three times greater than all the fatal accidents resulting to employees while at work. The stopping of railroad trespassing can not be accomplished by the railroads. In my opinion it requires Federal action, but this action will not be taken until the American public rouses itself and demands that action. Several States have had enacted laws against trespassing, but they have proved unpopular and inconsequential, their enforcement received no support, and to-day they are practically a dead letter. Ours is the only civilized country which does not federally penalize trespassing upon railroad property.

Now, regarding grade-crossing accidents, the most prevalent of which are, as you know, those in which automobiles are concerned, and about which I desire in conclusion to say a few words: The press is recording daily the lamentable circumstances resulting from automobiles and trains colliding at railroad crossings. The railroads have equipped all their crossings over which there is sufficient traffic to justify the expense with electric bells, wigwag signals, or crossing gates, or have placed a crossing watchman upon them. There is a standard crossing sign at every railroad grade crossing to indicate the existence of that crossing. At crossings outside of towns, where the view of the crossing is in any way obscured, an advance sign has been placed a few hundred feet from the crossing to indicate to the vehicles approaching that there is a near-by railroad crossing. Extreme care is generally exercised by the locomotive enginemen to sound long, distinct blasts of their whistles for crossings, and some roads have adopted a nine-second crossing-whistle signal as a better means of protection. The railroads post periodically in waiting rooms, automobile clubs, garages, and other appropriate places striking warning placards, and are constantly using every medium of publicity to impress upon automobile drivers the great hazards of railroad crossings.

Let it be remembered that trains are considered a public utility and that they have no choice of routes. They must stay upon that 4 foot 8½ inch strip of ground upon which the rails are laid; and the passengers demand that they make their scheduled time. This is not the case with automobiles. They usually have ample space, generally have plenty of time, and frequently are being moved for the

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pleasure of their owners. Then, again, many trains haul hundreds of tons of freight, making the total weight of the train and engine a thousand times greater than that of an automobile and its load. This heavy train is moving 30 to 40 miles per hour and can not be stopped in less than 1,500 feet, while an automobile traveling at that speed can be stopped in a little more than its own length. Most drivers of automobiles do not appreciate the great amount of power that is at their command, nor when moving at 40 miles per hour do they realize that they cover 60 feet of ground every second. Observations have been made to record the care taken by automobile drivers when going over railroad crossings, and in 35,000 instances 53 per cent of drivers looked neither to the right nor to the left, 8 per cent looked but one way, and one-half of 1 per cent, or 174 drivers, actually observed the safety slogan of "Stop, look, and listen."

The railroads have done about all they can. They have spent their money and skill to infuse into the drivers of those machines the spirit of caution, with a view to preventing these deplorable and numerous casualties. But the efforts of the railroads are credited as being the result of selfish motives, and in consequence these efforts have been of little avail. Little or no support is given the railroads in this matter, particularly in the West, through governmental channels. As an illustration, last December I wrote the commissioners of public service in the seven States covered by the Northern Pacific Railroad. I wrote them a courteous appeal to aid the railroads in this matter, and my record shows that I received one acknowledgment, and that was from the commissioner of the State in which we have the smallest mileage. This indicates the lack of interest that is being taken in it, particularly among those who, as public servants, should be most vitally interested in it. In the meantime the annual sacrifice upon this altar of carelessness and recklessness continues unchecked and almost unheeded, blotting out in many cases entire families and filling our hospitals and cemeteries with its victims. Now, there are many other phases of accident prevention in connection with the railroads that I have not touched upon, but I believe this will suffice to convey to you a fair idea of what the railroads are doing in this splendid work.

The CHAIRMAN. We certainly appreciate the sacrifice you made, Mr. Metcalfe, in coming here, and the message was well worth while. Anything that will give a new inspiration or new thought along the line of safety may prevent an accident and leave intact one of our fellow men or fellow women, who otherwise might have suffered an accident which would result disastrously. We can not give too much attention to that question. The price of success is eternal vigilance. Such a caution can not be given to-day and finished, but must be given to-day, to-morrow, next week, and next year, over and over again, approaching it from new angles, and Mr. Metcalfe is performing a splendid service in keeping alive before gatherings of all kinds the absolute necessity for caution. Personally, I have a great interest in safety, because I believe an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure. It does not make any difference how efficient we make our compensation acts, how well we provide for the injured workman; after all, when an accident has happened

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we are dealing with a human wreck, and we do the best we can, of course, to put him in a position where he may be self-supporting and spend the remainder of his days as comfortable as may be. But if in any way we may be able to prevent the thing which caused that disaster, we are performing a real service, and that means hard work; it means extreme diligence on the part of those charged with the important responsibility of safety and sanitation in the department of labor.

I was so anxious that this particular subject be presented to the delegates by the foremost men and women in this field that I took a trip to Chicago to see Charles Price, who is field agent for the National Safety Council, and asked him to furnish a good speaker, a live man in the safety movement, for the benefit of those who are in attendance and charged with the administration of laws in their States. He said, "I have just the man for you. Our man Coffin is one of the best we have in the field, and he will be glad to respond." So on Mr. Price's recommendation—and I have a great deal of confidence in him—Mr. Coffin was invited, and he very cheerfully responded, and I have now the pleasure of presenting to this association Mr. Coffin, who will speak on behalf of the National Safety Council and its work in the safety movement.

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PUBLIC AND SCHOOL SAFETY.

By H. P. Coffin, representative of the National Safety Council, Oregon.

If I were a preacher I would select a text. It would be a portion of the ninth verse of the fourth chapter of the Book of Genesis—"Am I my brother's keeper?" This question has rung down through all the ages. The march of progress and civilization has gone hand in hand with the humanization of the world, until to-day, when we believe we have reached a higher point of civilization than ever before, we find the question of our text, "Am I my brother's keeper?" answered more affirmatively than ever before in the world's history. Shakespeare has said that there are "sermons in stones and good in everything." How much more, though, are there sermons in human deed and human activities.

Each new year brings to light new activities, new movements. Some flourish for a time, receive extensive publicity, then fade and pass on to find a niche in the hall of fate, to take their place with the countless other obsolete fads and fancies. Others have a longer life and actually become vital factors in our everyday existence.

Of all the movements in many years, that which had its inception in the slogan "Safety first" has become the greatest in the history of man. Its rapid development to the point of universality has stamped upon it the indorsement of all classes, until to-day it is a world factor.

Why this crying need for safety? We are to-day living a life of speed. We have our being in a world of machinery—the roar and clank is all around us. Men are thinking out new problems of commerce and transportation. Man's ingenuity has placed within our reach dangerous weapons of locomotion and mechanical operation, revolutionizing primeval conditions and making obsolete the laws and regulations governing them. Our generation is living in the presence of the outward and actual as no other generation of humanity has lived. Our civilization grows daily more complex. Every man's life is more inextricably linked with the lives of others. Injury or misfortune to one is increasingly an injury to all. Out of a just realization of these conditions is coming a larger sense of civic responsibility, due to the fact that accidents and deaths have alarmingly increased, inflicting untold hardships and sorrows upon families involved and causing irreparable loss to the community.

Every accident, except the most trivial, results in loss of time by the wage earner or in his death, and produces an economic waste to the man himself, to his employer, and to society at large. There has not yet been designed a compensation plan which fully recompenses an employee for the loss of time, loss of limb, or loss of life, or remunerates the employer for the disintegration of his working force and the lessened efficiency in operation. Society is interested, as well, for it is generally called upon in some manner or form to contribute to the maintenance of the injured one or his family.

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Out of the complexity of our everyday world has come the automobile, a thing of beauty in its perfection, but for all that a human Juggernaut. At first a toy in the hands of the well-to-do, but now, through the fertile brains of such men as Ford, Olds, Willys, and others, a public necessity. With the advent of the motor car came the demand for good roads and well-paved streets, the consummation of which presented an opportunity to disregard, either willfully or carelessly, all rules of the road and to infect a certain class of human beings with a peculiar bacteria, inoculating them with an uncontrollable desire to burn up our city streets and wear out our newly laid country roads. This grave and well-nigh helpless condition confronts every community. Much thought and deliberation have been given to devising some solution. New laws and regulations were easily obtained when public opinion demanded, but no matter how excellent their form, their usefulness ceased the minute they were put on the statute books, because of the lack of education and the fact that the executive and police power has not kept apace with the new conditions.

The subject of public and school safety in its field of operation is a vast one. It takes in that holy of holies, the home; it enters the sacred confines of the church; it flits along the aisles of the theater; its presence is felt in the workshop and on the street, reminding our people to conserve that which is most precious—their lives, their limbs, and their property—eliminating the chance taker, and reducing to the minimum the hazard from that dreaded element, fire. We Americans are by nature, inclination, and education the most reckless, the most careless, and the most extravagant people on the face of the earth. How often have we heard it stated that we waste more than would support a like number of people anywhere in continental Europe. Prosperity in America eliminates frugality. The great middle class of people, which constitutes such an important part of our population, is not a class of conservationists. The fast and furious age in which we live keeps us on high speed all the time, and this condition of living does not beget habits of carefulness.

Let us turn for a moment to that phase of safety, the prevention of loss of life and property by fire. Eighty-five per cent of all fires are preventable. Ten per cent of all fires are caused by gasoline, notwithstanding the fact that gasoline is known to be worse than dynamite. Many a conflagration is started by the careless flip of a cigar stub or cigarette. Sad to relate there are manufacturers, business men, townsfolk, and farmers who do not care for fire prevention, who are annoyed to have it talked about, who will not spend a cent as a precautionary measure unless forced to. Neither will they cooperate in any movement looking to an amelioration of these conditions. Owing to this apathy it was a hard problem to thoroughly initiate such a movement. We started a campaign in Portland, Oregon, four years ago to make our schools safe. With the assistance of the fire marshal and the police bureau we brought home the facts to 35,000 children of our public schools, initiated a competitive school drill which attained such a degree of perfection that it received favorable comment from periodicals all over our country. Ponder over the lives that have been lost in school fires in the last decade: The Triangle Shirt Co. fire in New York, in which

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140 girls lost their lives; 22 children in a private school a short time ago; 13 in Pittsburgh; and so on. We in Portland hope that we have prepared for this emergency by establishing a perfect fire drill. Think of 1,700 pupils leaving the Jefferson High School in 46 seconds; 750 pupils in a grammar school placed out of danger in 40 seconds; and all this accomplished in perfect order, the rules forbidding running. The public safety commission presented cups in token of their appreciation of this work. Just a month ago one of our public schools caught fire and the roof was burning furiously. The fire drill was sounded, and every child was out of the building in less than a minute, no one the wiser but that it was a regular fire drill.

My observations and experience lead me to say right here that too much importance can not be put upon the fire drill in the public school or in the factory or any structure in which a considerable number of people are housed. Fire drills, to be effective, must be compulsory and at frequent intervals. A fire drill once a year as a sort of celebration of fire-prevention day is of little value. To be effective it should be conducted at least twice a month and at irregular times. In our fire-prevention campaign in Portland we reduced the fire loss from over $2,000,000 per year to about $200,000 annually, sent 22 men to the penitentiary for arson in one year, reduced the false alarms to practically nothing through the cooperation of the school children who were made fire marshals in their own homes, and ran 15 days without the tap of a bell in the engine house.

During this campaign the dangers of the street were brought home to the pupils, that they should look out for the automobile and street car, and that the older children should care for the younger ones. The result was that accidents to children of school years were reduced and for three months not a report was made to police headquarters involving a school child. But for this work to be effective, it is absolutely necessary that this matter be kept before them constantly and in such a manner that it will not become stale. This fall we expect to install in every school a chart showing a number of circles, with this slogan, "Keep the slate clean." In case of accident to a pupil of a school, a red disk will be sent which will be pasted in one of these circles. The object, of course, is to keep the board free from the red disks, which means no accidents to members of that particular school. We find that it is not necessary to give prizes to accomplish our work; the pupils take pride in keeping down accidents and establishing a clean record for the school.

Supplementing our work, we have reached out to gain the support of our law-abiding citizens and have obtained their cooperation in reducing automobile accidents, speeding, and reckless driving. A number have been sworn in as special traffic officers and 275 have taken a pledge to serve our community.

Portland established a record a few months ago in covering 83 days without the loss of a single life by an automobile. This in a city of narrow streets and short blocks and a population of 275,000, is remarkable. Accomplished through the efforts of the National Safety Council and the daily press this result is placed before you in hope that some may be inspired to go home and initiate a like cam-

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paign to save our people. I will be glad to go over the details with anyone interested, or answer questions in regard to our work.

In order to make an industrial campaign successful, the manager and superintendent must thoroughly believe in it. This is true of the public safety work. Unless the mayor, city officials, and police are with you, your efforts are in vain. A safety engineer or foreman can accomplish very little unless he has the absolute backing of the executive. So it is with the law-enforcing officials. Unless the chief executive is committed to a constructive policy and injects his enthusiasm in the rank and file, very little can be accomplished. To reach the manager, superintendent, and foreman, and the city officials and the traffic head is our job. We tell the man and teach the child that he is the unit in an organization whose ideal is the conservation of human life and limb—the unit in reducing accidents—in fact, his brother's keeper, to the end that joy and happiness may prevail.

Is it any wonder that the national battle cry now is "Safety first"? For if the need of safety and caution in the fields of labor and hygiene, on the highway, and in the home be made a part of the safety education of our children in the public schools, the next generation should be able to turn the stream of wastefulness into channels of dividends and wages. How can we accomplish this? By an organized effort on your part and my part to invoke the cooperation of a sympathetic public opinion. The gradual training in care and caution of the entire personnel of the community, the standardization of traffic laws and signals, the constant drilling into the minds of our youth of the element of caution in conserving that which is most dear—their lives and limbs—to teach them that it is better to be safe than sorry, and to remember that a bed at home is worth two in the hospital.

In closing may I suggest a thought that I have expressed many times, that those two words "safety first" should be held as sacred as the sign of the Red Cross on its errand of mercy. They should not be used lightly nor in jest nor in an advertising way, but when a man, woman, or child sees those two words "safety first," it should be an incentive to stop, look, and listen.

This leads me, as a final word, to quote a beautiful thought:

> And the end is that the workman shall live to enjoy the fruits of his labor; that his mother shall have the comfort of his arm in her age; that his wife shall not be untimely a widow; that his children shall have a father; that cripples and helpless wrecks, who were once strong men, shall no longer be a by-product of industry, and that the sons of toil, having earned their rest, shall peacefully enjoy the evening of a well-spent life.

DISCUSSION.

The CHAIRMAN. We feel indebted to the National Safety Council for recommending Mr. Coffin to us and to him personally for responding to the invitation. At the last annual convention of the National Safety Council they decided to hold their next convention in Milwaukee, Wis., some time in September. Mr. Coffin, do you remember the date of the National Safety Council meeting?

Mr. COFFIN. I think it is the 24th of September, but I am not quite sure.

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Mr. METCALFE. It is on September 27.

The CHAIRMAN. The week of September 27. I do not know how many of you have ever attended the sessions of the National Safety Council, but all those who are charged in any way with responsibility for accident prevention should get in touch with that wonderful association which is offering inspiration and practical advice all the time. The convention and the addresses and the material that are presented at the National Safety Council convention are well worth your time and the money for the trip. I think that most of the States send representatives—that is, their officials—to attend the sessions of the National Safety Council, and they are expecting a very large delegation. Mr. Price told me that he thought in all probability there would be approximately 5,000 people in attendance. It is not an official body in the sense that this association is, but is rather an association of employers and those who are interested in the safety movement.

Now, as to the problem that is now pending in Oregon as to the trespass law, or a law forbidding trespasses upon railroad tracks by those who have no right to be on the tracks, I want to tell you that we went through that in Wisconsin in 1915, if you will pardon just a reference. I happened to be in the legislature in that year, a representative from my district, and I introduced a bill against trespass on railroad tracks. And that ran the usual gamut of opposition—that individual rights were being infringed upon; that railroads ought to be common property, anyway; that they were quasi public; that they were a national highway and sometime they would be under Government control, and then what; and all that sort of thing. The debate was rather bitter; it lasted all one forenoon in the legislature; and there was a pretty rapid-fire debate pro and con on the wisdom of that sort of legislation. I remember one of the leaders of the opposition made what he thought was a telling point in saying that if his boy should innocently wander onto a railroad track and one of the railroad officials, or one of those charged with the administration of the law, would arrest him, when the father got home for supper he would be told that his boy was in jail, due to some innocent trespass on a railroad track, and how would I like it if it was my boy. In reply I said this—and I think it was one of the elements that helped to pass the bill that is now a law in Wisconsin—I said if it was my boy I would a great deal rather get a message from the jail that he was there as a trespasser, having committed a minor offense, a misdemeanor, than to receive word from the undertaker that his mangled remains were at the morgue. I said to him that I wanted him seriously to consider that, and I described a railroad accident that I saw and will never forget as long as I live. A newsboy, industrially inclined, in order to make a short cut used the railroad track, and I saw him a few seconds after his body was severed in twain by a passing train. It would have been a good deal better if that boy had been violently and vigorously and effectively warned to keep off of the railroad track, even at the expense of a row with the police and the municipality. He would have been alive to-day. There are literally hundreds of those accidents happening every year. It would appall the delegates present to go into the statistics of fatalities occurring to casual frequenters of railroad tracks in this country. I did not think such figures were possible

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until I made a survey. But once see an accident of that kind and you will never again talk about the inconvenience that is suffered in keeping off the railroad right of way. We can do a great deal in our own field in keeping children particularly, and adults where we can, off so dangerous a place as a railroad right of way.

Mrs. SEMPLE. I saw a railroad accident such as you speak of, and I have a very hearty sympathy with your viewpoint, but at the same time I have the impression that occasionally the desire to eliminate trespassing is bound up with the question of the expense to the railroad companies. Is that true at all?

The CHAIRMAN. That was one of the arguments, I think, but I do not think that is so good, that one argument.

Mrs. SEMPLE. I know one town in Pennsylvania where the whole town would be kept from the privilege of crossing the railroad by the passage of a trespass act. The whole town would be tied up to one legitimate crossing for that railroad, the whole length of the town, because the railroad has successfully resisted up to the present time the elimination of crossings in that town.

The CHAIRMAN. Even in that extreme case I would rather have them put to the inconvenience than to have my wife or my father or mother or my boy or my girl reported to be in the morgue because he or she had been run over by a train.

Mrs. SEMPLE. I would too. It seems to me there ought to be a double emphasis put upon legislation for the elimination of railroad crossings and for the elimination of trespass.

The CHAIRMAN. I will tell you my experience, though, with reference to the point that you make, and I think that there is some merit to it, and that is, the arguments I heard on the floor of the assembly when this bill was up are the things which defeats railroad trespassing acts in the States.

Mrs. SEMPLE. May I ask a question for information? Has organized labor adopted any attitude on the question of an antitrespass act?

The CHAIRMAN. Organized labor happened in this particular instance to be against the proposition. They thought it was interfering with personal liberty. I will say that the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, however, were for it. There was some division, but the opposition I met on the floor of the assembly came from the labor people.

Mr. COFFIN. I want to state on this question that when we went before the legislature to get a similar law enacted we had the opposition of the labor people for this reason: They thought that a law on the statute books preventing trespassing on the railroad tracks would prohibit them from going on the railroad tracks to picket. That was one of the arguments that was used by the labor men. But the locomotive engineers had their man down there, and he said that question should not enter into the matter.

And then, just to show you by an instance what I want to bring out, just a short time ago four men in a Ford, instead of taking the road down there on one of our very bad roads through the central part of the State, took the railroad track and got stuck on a trestle 100 feet high. Fortunately a section gang came along and got the

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machine out of the way and onto the road just as the Coos Bay Limited went by at 40 miles an hour. There were four men in that Ford who would have gone to eternity sure if the section gang had not happened along.

The CHAIRMAN. We must look upon this as a safety proposition, and a bill prohibiting trespassing on a railroad right of way should be so drawn as not to have it used either as a club or a shield for other matters. Of course your bill must be carefully drawn. I do not know anything about the Oregon act, but I presume they put the same thought on that that they usually do. There are certain rights that the public have on crossings, and the bill must be very carefully drawn. I am talking about the casual trespassers on the railroad tracks, those who use them as a public highway and as a matter of convenience. It ought to be stopped, and stopped short, if you want to prevent the loss of lives. You are paying a tremendous price for this convenience, and the price is not worth while when you stop to consider it.

Mrs. TRUMBULL. I would like to ask the railroad representative whose duty it is to take care of railroad crossings? Twice recently in attempting to cross a railroad crossing persons have been killed by the very poor equipment at the crossing. The approach is sloped so that they had to go up it at a rather good speed, and when they got there the engine was dead and the car rested between the tracks.

Mr. METCALFE. I will be glad to answer that question in this way, that the State laws provide what a railroad crossing shall be, and the railroads maintain them so, ordinarily. Of course, there may be exceptional cases where a crossing may get into bad repair and be neglected by the section forces, but the crossings themselves are legal crossings of a certain width as provided by the statutes.

The CHAIRMAN. I was going to say that in Wisconsin, and I think a great many of the States, they have public utility commissions, sometimes called railroad commissions, to whom any grievance may be presented and receive investigation, the same as any grievance growing out of industrial matters is presented to the labor department. And of course there are grievances—you can not do anything that is going to work automatically, in this world at least. But the railroad commission has a grievance body to take up such matters. We certainly would not be able even to touch that question.

Miss JOHNSON. I would like to ask if there are any statistics showing the proportion of accidents occurring at crossings that are not guarded?

The CHAIRMAN. Yes; there are available statistics. I think the bureau of statistics might furnish that information, and I think the railroads keep pretty accurate data on it. I know that the Northwestern road compiled statistics on accident cases that were very interesting. That was four or five years ago.

DELEGATE. I would like to inquire as to what the status of the law would be in relation to the stopping of an automobile prior to the crossing of a railroad, as to the liability, just where the liability would rest in such an instance. We had that matter before our last general assembly. A bill was introduced requiring automobiles to stop before they had reached the crossing.

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The CHAIRMAN. You can make the liability anything you want to by statute.

DELEGATE. The consideration of that bill depended upon that question of liability, and it was defeated because of that.

The CHAIRMAN. If you really want to stop automobiles and want to have absolute liability on the part of the railroad company you can do that by statute, the same as you can take away defenses. Automobile owners do not want to be stopped, and they will think of many schemes and plans to throw in the way of such a matter as that.

DELEGATE. The question there, however, came up absolutely in the interests of the railroad company to escape the liability.

The CHAIRMAN. I am going to assume that a railroad company has no rights, and as far as I am concerned I am looking at it from the public standpoint. You can make them absolutely liable if you want to. I do not know whether that is fair play. In the first place we ought to find out if we can not stop automobiles from going over the tracks, and if we can not do that, let them go over, let people be killed and let the railroad companies pay for it. Maybe that is the best way. My idea would be that if we could prevent the accident it would be better. If the people would obey the law you would not have these fatalities. It is a mighty serious question, and forcing the railroad companies to pay damages does not always solve the question. Of course, you can go the full extent of doing perhaps what might appear to be an injustice and take away all defenses from the railroad, like you do from the employers, take away the defenses of contributory negligence, and all that. I think that we have got to work out something, for anyone who goes through the cities now, and out on the country roads as well, and remembers back five or six years, will find the increase of automobiles is almost terrific, and it is growing more and more.

Now, are there any other comments or remarks or questions that may be asked on the papers that have been read? There are two matters that will be brought up this afternoon. Miss Allen's paper is one, and the other matter is the continuation of our yesterday's program. I think Miss Allen's paper will be disposed of in an hour's time, after which we will have a business meeting, and we will try to wind up the affairs of the association to-day. We will now stand adjourned until 2 o'clock.

(Whereupon the convention adjourned until 2 p. m.)

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THURSDAY, JULY 15—AFTERNOON SESSION.

GEORGE P. HAMBRECHT, PRESIDENT, PRESIDING.

The CHAIRMAN. The meeting will come to order, please. We have part of an unfinished program to dispose of, and we have a very limited time in which to do it, so I think we will have to cut out any further discussion. The parts of the program which are to be taken up now are addresses of members which we were unable to reach yesterday and the day before. Mr. Lindsey was here yesterday to participate in the discussion of matters that were then on the program and we were unable to reach his address, and we will take that up first; I will give just 15 minutes to each speaker with reference to that part of their program. I now have the pleasure of introducing Mr. J. C. Lindsey, of Seattle, Wash.

Mr. J. C. LINDSEY, of the industrial relations committee of the Seattle Chamber of Commerce. I was in Chicago about a month ago to attend the National Convention of the Industrial Relations Association of America. There were about 4,600 representatives there of industries all over the country, and from my talks with them they generally think, and I think it is the general opinion all over the eastern part of the United States, that Seattle is a hotbed of radicalism; that Seattle is a place to stay away from if you are figuring on putting in an industry where you have to employ labor. What I want to say is that that is not true. We are getting along here very nicely. The Associated Industries has done a great deal for the open shop. Now, I am not holding any brief for the open shop or for the unions. My work is absolutely neutral in that respect. The chamber of commerce advocates not exactly shop committees, they advocate either scientific management along the most refined scale or the employment of a trained employment manager or the use of shop committees. They are advocating some form of an organized system of conducting industrial relations between employers and employees. Now, the form to be used is to be guided mostly by the nature of the industry. We have had some success, some definite success, in the use of shop committees. No doubt in your work as employment agent for the Government and for the State you have seen something of this subject and probably read a good deal about it. If you want a line of bibliography on it so that you can go into that further, I will be very glad to furnish it to you if any of you, as individuals, will write to the chamber of commerce, referring the matter to the industrial bureau, which will refer it to me.

Now, all I have time to give you will be an instance or two to show you that there are such things as decent workingmen in this vicinity, and that they are working with the employers, and that they are friendly and that they like their jobs. Fifteen minutes ago one of our foremen came to me down on the dock, and he told me this incident. He said the gangs had just started to work on the steamer *Queen*, and that one man in the regular gang had arrived

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about three minutes late, and in the meantime they had called an extra man to put in this man's regular place to give him the job unloading the ship. That is common stevedore water-front work. This fellow, the regular member of the gang who was three minutes late, had hired a taxicab and paid $1.50 to get down there the minute that he was called for. Now, the man did not kick because he had lost his job, even after making that effort to get to it. Mind you, he had lost the job for that shift only; he had not lost the job, but merely lost that day, but he has put one mark against him; and if he has that three times in a month, he goes out of the regular gang into the extra gang. He was not so anxious about catching this shift and catching this little job, but he did not want it against his record, so he hired a taxicab and came down. Now, that shows that the men want to work and want to get there.

Another incident: It was day before yesterday—I am trying to impress you with the fact that these are things of to-day and located here in Seattle, and I can give you the names of the people involved if you want them. A foreman was working on a planing board in my office. As he was working on the board he turned around and said: "I may leave here about 11 o'clock and be gone a couple of hours." I did not pay much attention, but I said, "Why are you going, Bill?" He said, "I am going up to the hospital." I said, "How is Grange?" Grange was the assistant agent of the local freight office, a man who had very little to do with this man that I speak of; he was just around there. His work was mostly clerical work, and he was a cranky sort of a fellow, because he had been ill a great deal. This illness culminated in a situation which required an operation. He was sent to the hospital a few days ago and was losing blood so fast that he was dying. I said, "Why are you going; what are you going up there for, Bill?" or "How is Grange?" He said, "I am going up to give him a bunch of blood." I said, "Well, why you?" He said, "Well, there have been eight fellows who have gone up there, and they have drawn their blood for him, and they have not found any of them who were just exactly fit yet, so I am going up and give them some of mine." I saw the picture of a man in the paper the other day who was lauded in the newspaper because he was offering his blood for transfusion with that of his son who was dying. Here were eight or nine men working down here on the water front who were going up to offer their heart's blood for the man with whom they were working.

I could talk to you about three weeks on this subject. Some time ago in Bellingham, Wash., where there is a shop committee working, the men were offered pay for their time as committeemen. They were to get the same pay for the time they put in as committeemen which they would get if they worked, but after the first two or three meetings they said to the boss, "This sounds like real 50-50 stuff, and we think it would be a good idea if we only drew half pay for the time we put in as committeemen. That would show our spirit." Another man in the crowd, one of the employees, got up and said, "No; I have been thinking about that myself. If we want to represent the men really and truly, so that they will not find any criticism of our actions here in the council, I think it would be best for us to serve without any pay." The general manager of the business

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said, "Well, boys, if that is the way you feel about it, all right; but I will not withdraw the instructions to the foremen. If any of you get over this spirit of enthusiasm and want to draw your time, all you have to do is put it in and it will be included in your pay check." That had been running about eight or nine months, and no one put in any time until about a month or six weeks ago. The president's wife donated $100, or something of that sort, to aid a shop committee fund which the men had accumulated. I suppose they had accumulated $110 or $115, and one day they came to me and said, "Mr. Lindsey, did the boss ever cancel that order that we could get our money for committee work?" I said, "No." This man said, "Well, we think we are going to draw it clear back to the beginning." I said, "Well, go to it; that is what the company said, and it will keep its word." So the men drew this money and put it in the benefit fund for six members of the crew. When the company heard about it the company added dollar for dollar. The company manager said, "We are just as white as those fellows," and turned it over to those men to administer entirely. They do not account for a cent. If they want any money for those purposes it is turned over to them, and I want to tell you that I have been around Mrs. Trumbull's office a good deal in Portland when she was administering the associated charity funds there and I have knowledge of her investigations, and the investigations that these shop committeemen make are just as carefully done as the best work of her best investigators. They do not waste any money.

Now, those things I give you merely to show you the attitude of some of the men in some of the companies in the vicinity of Seattle, to show you that our men are not all radicals, they are not all reds, they are not all trying to overturn the Government. And when you see an article in the magazine or hear a speech by Ole Hanson telling about how he saved the Government here, and all that sort of thing, I wish you would remember that there are some white companies operating here, and the workmen have steady jobs and are raising families and are good, decent citizens.

The CHAIRMAN. On behalf of this association, I wish to inform Mr. Lindsey that we appreciate very much his coming here and addressing us.

The next number on the program, as announced in the beginning, is the paper of Miss Allen.

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THE FEDERAL CHILD LABOR LAW.

By Miss NILA F. ALLEN, chief, Child Labor Tax Division, Bureau of Internal Revenue, United States Treasury Department.

I have selected for the subject of my address the points which will be of the greatest interest to you. At your convention last year in Madison I had the pleasure and the honor of addressing you for the purpose of securing your cooperation in the enforcement of the child-labor tax law. At that time it was so new that the Child Labor Tax Division of the Bureau of Internal Revenue was not fully organized, our policies were not determined, our work was not wholly decided upon, and the concrete application or construction of the law was not determined to any great degree. At the present time our organization is complete, our work is in full swing, and our policies determined, and numerous rulings as to the application of the law have been issued under the title of commissioners' rulings on the subject of the Federal child-labor tax law. There is a revision of those rulings in process now, and it will be ready for distribution in a very short time. I am sure that a great many questions which you might have at this time will be answered by a perusal of those rulings.

The terms of the law are that a tax of 10 per cent is placed upon the annual net profits of a person operating a mill, cannery, workshop, factory, or manufacturing establishment in which children under 14 years of age are employed, or in which children between 14 and 16 in the same class of establishments are employed more than 8 hours, before 6 in the morning, after 7 at night, or more than 6 days a week. This same tax is applied to mines and quarries employing children under 16 years of age.

Since the tax of 10 per cent is based on the annual net profits, it is obvious that it can not be collected until after the end of the business year of the establishment. And by the terms of the law two months after that time is given in which the establishment can make its return upon which the tax is based. Then after that an additional month after the tax is actually listed for assessment is given the establishment in which to pay the tax. This has meant that no tax was payable before April of this year, as the business year of the concerns offending was concluded in every case but one on December 31, 1919. So we had no power to collect one cent of tax prior to April 1 of this year. I do not think that is generally understood, but you can easily see that if the tax is based on the annual profits we have to wait until the year is ended before the profits are known. There has been additional delay in these cases because—I recall but one instance now in which the taxpayer has not said that he wanted a hearing, and in justice and fairness whenever a hearing has been requested it has been given. Consequently we have been besieged by lawyers from the various States in which we have started collection, who come in and attempt to place some construc-

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tion upon that law by which the tax is not collectible in their particular cases. Of course, that means delay. Invariably some interpretation, or the interpretation of some point of the law, has been advanced to which we have to give consideration, and, as I say, that simply means delay. So at the present time we have collected only a few thousand dollars of the tax, but there is considerable more in sight and it is in process of collection at the present time.

The Child Labor Tax Division bespoke your cooperation at your convention last year, and followed it up by writing the official in each State engaged in enforcing the child-labor laws and placing in his hands the means for cooperating with us if he so desired. Some States made no response, and that is all right; it is optional with you whether you care to avail yourself of the means the law places in your hands. Some four or five States responded at once, and we already have actually collected the tax in those cases or are in process of collecting it now. Several States have but recently referred cases to us, which, of course, we will handle in due time, which means some time next year. We can not collect the tax for the offense now, but have to wait until the end of that man's business year. You can not take the first step toward it.

Personally I regret that in these cases we have not had earlier reports, but we are most glad to be of service when, in your judgment ment, you wish it. Our limited experience leads us to believe that few employers will care to pay the tax more than once, and that a knowledge of the law is in most cases all that is required to secure its observance. To this end we secured through the offices of the various collectors of internal revenue a return from potential or actual employers of child labor. It was our intention that a canvass of the whole country be made by the revenue men to secure this form; but in a number of instances the collector, feeling that the volume of work could be materially lessened, applied to the various State labor officials for data and attempted the collection of this form by mail, or limited his canvass to concerns listed by State labor officials. That was not our intent primarily, because most State labor officials had prior to this been exceedingly active in distributing copies of the law to people who were in positions not to observe it. In each internal revenue district the manner of the collection of this form was varied. I would not touch upon this activity of ours but for the confusion which it has caused in your opinion of our work and in your attitude toward our work. You see we placed in your hands first that form which, if filled out properly and sent to us directly at Washington, will result in the tax being assessed, and we are asking for your cooperation in that way.

Now, when these various revenue men came to you for lists, and so on, you have had reason to believe that we had some other purpose in view. One State labor official said to me, "But we should not go over the heads of the collectors by referring cases to you," but when we put the means for a report in your hands we expected, we desired, the report to be mailed to us direct at Washington. The Washington office determines the matter of taxation; that is not left in the hands of the collector. It then directs the revenue collector to collect the tax. He is the tax-collecting agency rather than a child-labor inspection agency. In time the collectors may take over this latter

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duty to some degree, but in States where an excellently administered and effective State law exists we are not urging such activity on the collector's forces to any great degree. In States where the terms of the State law are less strict than the Federal tax law we send in Federal inspectors directed from Washington and wholly unrelated to other revenue activities or forces. In two instances where our overtures to State labor officials received no response, we have sent inspectors into those States without comment. If anyone here feels that he has not received the consideration due his official position, I should be most happy to have him speak to me about it. The State labor officials as a whole have been most interested and tremendously helpful in disseminating a knowledge of the law. Our work showed that many employers were not informed of the law, and therefore we collected this form in June with most happy results, aside from the occasional confusion created among you.

The Commissioner of Internal Revenue early ruled that no demand whatever shall be made on State labor officials in connection with this law. Collectors' offices are advised that they may make requests of State people, but that it is optional with the latter whether or not they comply. We demand nothing. We want only what you are willing to give to us. We receive almost daily proof of the effectiveness of this law. In sections where child labor had formerly flourished and where great opposition to the law exists, a comparatively small percentage of employers attempt to evade the law or openly employ children with the intention of paying the tax. Of the latter class most people believe that the law will finally be declared unconstitutional and are taking a chance on paying the tax. Some of them have already had their minds sadly disabused on this point, because the tax has actually been collected.

Perhaps you are aware that the constitutionality of the law has been attacked in courts and was argued before the United States Supreme Court on the 10th of December last. The Supreme Court adjourned June 7 until October next without having rendered a decision.

I find considerable confusion existing in the popular mind as to the establishments coming under this law. "Minors in quarries" should be definite enough for the casual reader, but is a coal breaker or a coal washer part of a mine or not? Does the quarry include the crusher half a mile away, or does the establishment across the road from the quarry proper, which produces lime or cement, come within the law? Let me point out that the words of the law, "mill, cannery, workshop, factory, and manufacturing establishment," apparently carry the idea of a manufactured or fabricated article of produce. Nothing is implied concerning child labor in agricultural, horticultural, mercantile, trade, or transportation lines. State laws invariably contain much on those points, but as the tax law is limited to mills, canneries, workshops, factories, and manufacturing establishments we can not collect a tax on child labor elsewhere than in those concerns.

I have in mind a case reported to us by one of your members in which stationery supplies were manufactured in the outskirts of a large city and the sales establishment was maintained down town. Children employed in the manufacturing concern came under our

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law, but not those employed in the down-town mercantile establishment. If the two branches of the establishment had been under the same roof, not separate and apart, we would not be able to make this kind of a distinction for administrative reasons. I think you can easily see that.

If after this discussion you are in doubt concerning some case you have referred to us I wish you would give me an opportunity to state to you personally our action and the reasons for it.

We have one serious difficulty in certain States where no provision is made to assure the employer of the age of children claiming to be over 16. Invariably children under that age are found working more than 8 hours a day, and under our law the employer can plead honest mistake of fact as to the age of the child without intent to evade the law. Although children over 16 are not certificated, if some statement was issued by the certifying authority to the effect that the child was past 16 the employer could not avail himself of this plea, and we could collect more taxes as a result.

In conclusion let me say that we have the active cooperation of at least half of the State labor officials, and we hope that this tax law may be fully recognized by the members of this convention as an instrument within their grasp for the accomplishment of a common end, the elimination of child labor.

DISCUSSION.

The CHAIRMAN. We still have five minutes left for discussion before we start the rest of the program, if there are any questions.

Mr. SEAMAN. I would like to ask whether or not the Revenue Department requires the employer or manufacturer to report the fact that he has had children within that age limitation in his employment in the past year.

Miss ALLEN. No, we have not asked that. It is unlike the income tax return in that respect. So far we have felt that it would not be necessary. I believe there is a general clause somewhere in the internal revenue act which would make it possible for us to ask that, but we have not felt so far that it is advisable to require it.

Mr. SEAMAN. We have had a number of manufacturers who have raised that question, a number who feared that they had to make such a report.

Miss ALLEN. We have not asked for a regular return.

Miss McLEOD. I have a number of questions, but I will confine myself to those which I think are the most important. I am in a State where a certificate of age is issued to children past the age of 16, and they still have children employed without certificates. Can we accept a plea of ignorance in that case? In our State we have certificates which will be issued for children over the age of 16 on the demand of the employer, and it is optional with him whether or not he gets them. Then take another case where a man may be operating more than one plant—he may have a plant in Detroit and one in Chicago—would that tax be collectible on all of his plants or only on the plant where the child is employed?

Miss ALLEN. Only on the individual plant in which the child is employed. We have felt that if an employer was operating six or

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seven different concerns and was observing the law in six and failed to observe it in the seventh, we have decided that he shall be taxed only on the plant in which the child is employed.

Miss McLeod. I would like to ask another question. I asked this question yesterday, but I knew that Miss Allen would be able to answer it. Would you define a printing establishment as a manufacturing establishment?

Miss Allen. I think we have already done that in one of the commissioner's rulings.

Miss McLeod. I got a letter from your department stating that you did not define a printing shop as a manufacturing establishment.

Miss Allen. There must be some misunderstanding in the matter somewhere, because certainly a printing establishment is a manufacturing concern. I stand committed to that.

Miss McLeod. I always thought so, too. There are a lot more questions, but I think I will give way to somebody else.

Mrs. Semple. What was the decision concerning the coal breaker and stone crusher in the quarry?

Miss Allen. We class them all as part of the main plant, as a matter of fact, the mining proposition. I simply gave that as an illustration of some of the various questions that come up. We have ten times that difficulty when we begin to define a workshop and make the definition of a workshop apply to some particular set of circumstances or some particular kind of a business concern.

Mr. Seaman. What consideration, if any, is given to the particular case where a prosecution has been brought in a State and conviction thereon secured; what particular consideration is given to that sort of a situation?

Miss Allen. We would like to have the information, and we would like to collect the tax. Our collectors of internal revenue have been instructed to watch the papers for that kind of thing and report that information to us. We would like to have that information, and we would like to collect the tax in those cases.

Mr. Seaman. I asked the question because of the fact that in our State we have had some prosecutions of manufacturers and secured convictions where violations of the child-labor law have occurred. So far as I know, there has never been any action taken by the Federal department, and I know of no instance where our department has reported the fact to the Federal tax division.

Miss Allen. We have had a number of cases in which the States have felt that the minimum fine that has been imposed is not at all in harmony with the offense, and they have referred those cases to us. Of course, the proof is absolute in a case of that kind and we should collect the tax.

The Chairman. Some of these questions can be answered by correspondence with the tax division. Of course, there are any number of questions in the mind of everyone, but the proceedings and the interpretations sent out are quite clear and detailed questions can be answered in that way. Our time is nearly up now, but I do not want

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to be arbitrary. If there is anything that ought to come before the association of a general character in connection with Miss Allen's paper I would be glad to entertain it.

[An invitation was extended by Mrs. Udall to all those directly or indirectly connected with the minimum wage laws to a dinner at the Calhoun Hotel at 6 o'clock for an informal conference.]

BUSINESS MEETING.

The CHAIRMAN. We have as the next thing on the program the report by States. Now, if the convention thinks it desirable we can spend some time on that, but it will probably run into a night session if we do. This is the thought that has occurred to the officers of the association, that while the reports on new legislation are interesting, as a rule the bulk of it comes out during the discussions. The detail of it is easily available, but if there are any features of State legislation that any of the delegates present feel ought to come before the association the chair does not want to be arbitrary. I am just simply stating what was thought to be the best way to handle that situation. I think this is the only association that requires or expects a reading of new legislation. Sometimes that gets to be perfunctory and is a repetition of ground which has been covered through a three-day session in discussion of the vital questions on the program. Mr. Shipman, you have been with us some time, what is your idea on that?

Mr. M. L. SHIPMAN, commissioner, Department of Labor and Printing of North Carolina. It has been customary to have reports on the activity of our State departments during the year. We have had no legislature since the last session, and I have no new legislation to report. I have written a report on the activities of the departments, but that can be filed with the secretary.

The CHAIRMAN. I think it is desirable to have it printed.

Mr. SHIPMAN. If I can file that, there is no use in reading it.

The CHAIRMAN. We will be glad to have it. We want it in the proceedings. I think that is important. If the delegates have brought anything with reference to new legislation in their States I think this is a very good place to collect it for national purposes. I know that the members do read those reports when they are printed.

The secretary will now read some communications that have accumulated during the past three days.

(Secretary reads communications.)

The CHAIRMAN. The next thing on the program is the report of committees.

(Report of committee on constitution read, as follows:)

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON CONSTITUTION.

SEATTLE, WASH., *July 16, 1920.*

To the officers and delegates of the seventh annual convention of the Association of Governmental Labor Officials of the United States and Canada:

Your committee on constitution beg to report that no amendments were presented to the committee for our consideration, but suggestions were made by individuals that the name of the association does not convey to outsiders what constitutes the organization.

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To bring the matter before the convention for discussion we recommend the following amendment:

Amend section 1 of article 1 by striking out the words "Governmental Labor Officials," and insert in lieu thereof the words "Labor Bureaus," the section to read: "This association shall be known as the Association of Labor Bureaus of the United States and Canada."

Respectfully submitted.

F. E. HOFFMAN,
ALICE K. MCFARLAND,
WM. E. DUNCAN,
Committee on Constitution.

Mr. YOUNGER. I move the adoption of that resolution relative to changing the name of this association.

Mr. HOFFMAN. The committee merely suggests the name in that resolution. The name arose out of discussion as to what might be a proper name, and we thought that would be short and still inclusive. We considered that a minimum wage commission is a labor bureau. Even a child-labor welfare commission would be a labor bureau. They are all connected with labor in some way, and we felt that we could not leave the word "labor" out of it. To make a long name which would include everything, makes it still worse than we have it now, and yet the name "governmental labor officials," has been very confusing. I know that at home when I told the people where I was going they wanted to know what it was and what that meant, and after I arrived here and told some one that I was here to attend the governmental labor officials' convention, he said, "Well, who are they; will Jimmie Duncan be there?" and everybody seemed to think that it was the labor officials who were going to hold a convention here. It has not been really plain to outsiders as to just what our organization is composed of, and labor bureaus are better known, I think, than any others, and include all the different organizations that make up this one. The committee just suggests this name and leaves it to the convention for discussion. We are not trying to force this at all, but we wanted to submit that as our thought as to the best name.

Mrs. MCGILL. Ours are not called bureaus in Canada at all; they are called departments of labor, usually, and they take in, of course, quite a number of things, factory inspection, minimum wage legislation, and a number of other things. A labor bureau would not cover us at all. With reference to the suggested name I would like to ask Mr. Hoffman if he does not think we would be taken for employment bureaus.

The CHAIRMAN. The same thing applies to Wisconsin, I might say. The so-called labor bureau or labor department, or the labor official, is known legally as the industrial commissioner of Wisconsin. I had a thought in connection with it—"International Association of Labor Commissioners"—but that perhaps is too narrow in its construction.

DELEGATE. In Oregon "labor bureau" would not help us at all, because the industrial welfare commission handles child labor and also the minimum wage.

Mrs. MCGILL. If you said "labor bureaus," they would simply think you meant our employment offices.

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The CHAIRMAN. There is something to that. I think there are some States where the employment office is called a labor bureau.

Mrs. MCGILL. We do not use any other name for that.

(Secretary reads constitution by request.)

Mr. SEAMAN. Were there not some amendments made to that constitution at subsequent conventions?

Miss BRESETTE. There was an amendment suggested by the constitution committee, but it was not submitted in proper form, and therefore is not included. The constitution should be taken one article at a time and amended section by section. This was not done, and I could not make anything out of it.

The CHAIRMAN. The auditing committee has acted upon the secretary's report, and we will hear from the chairman.

[Reports of secretary-treasurer and auditing committee were read, as follows:]

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY-TREASURER.

To members of Association of Governmental Labor Officials of the United States and Canada:

Your secretary herewith submits a report covering financial transactions of the association from July 7, 1919, until July 7, 1920:

Cash on hand at making of last report	$84.35
Receipts from dues	465.00
Total cash	549.35
Disbursements	349.00
Cash on hand	200.35

Debts contracted by former secretary:

Balance Stella McLeod for reporting proceedings at Buffalo, N. Y., 1916	$25.00
Fratcher Printing Co., Kansas City, Mo	187.00
Hickin Sign Co., Buffalo, N. Y	4.00
	216.00

Respectfully submitted.

LINNA E. BRESETTE,
Secretary-Treasurer.

REPORT OF AUDITING COMMITTEE.

We, the undersigned members of the auditing committee, have examined the financial report of your secretary-treasurer and find the following:

Cash on hand at the last convention	$84.35
Receipts from dues up to July 1, 1920	465.00
	549.35
Disbursements	349.00
Balance on hand July 1	200.35
Liabilities outstanding	25.00

Respectfully submitted.

J. D. SEAMAN, *Chairman.*
STELLA F. MCLEOD.

Mr. SEAMAN. I would like to make this explanation in reference to the liabilities as shown by that report. To the mind of this committee only $25 of that amount should be considered as an actual liability. The balance of that amount is indebtedness or presumed

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indebtedness from former meetings at a considerable time past, and the actual obligation of this association, therefore, has been questioned many times, and it has been carried along from one meeting to another until I believe that we no longer should consider that as a liability. I would move that we strike from our records the liability as shown in excess of the $25 included in that report.

Miss BRESETTE. I would like to offer a little word of explanation. The fact of the matter is even that $25 is an old debt which was incurred before I became secretary and treasurer of this association. There have been a number of requests that this $25 be allowed. I think the printer to whom the association owed the $187 has become tired, and thought he was using too much additional money in sending statements to get what he thought was due him. The other $4 was due the Buffalo Sign Co. for a sign which they made and hung out of the hotel headquarters. The debts are all debts of the association and they all are of exactly the same age as the debt we owe Miss McLeod. I have a feeling somehow that the secretary-treasurer, or that every secretary-treasurer, ought to assume no debts of which he or she can not take care. You are asking too much of anyone to assume the debts that somebody else has contracted. If you could force every State to pay the amount it should contribute to the organization, then perhaps that could be done. I have adopted the plan since I have been secretary-treasurer that I will not contract any debt that I can not pay off. If I contract a debt without seeing my way clear to pay it, I will pay it out of my own funds before I leave the organization to pay it.

There is another thing that is very evident. That is that the dues paid into this organization are not adequate to carry on the affairs of the organization, and that some way must be devised by which more funds will reach the treasury. Either we must have additional assistance, we must increase our dues, or we must charge for our proceedings. As long as the United States Department of Labor prints our proceedings for us, as it has so generously in the past few years, we, of course, can not charge for them. That, of course, would be another way of raising money. The National Safety Council asks $5 for its proceedings. We have been sending ours all over the country, even paying the postage on them, and asking nothing in return. We have a great many letters which come in asking for copies of our proceedings, and I believe that if we arrange to publish them ourselves we might charge a fee for them, and in that way carry ourselves through. However, I personally feel very grateful to the United States Department of Labor that it has been willing to print our proceedings for us. I have had no assurance thus far that the Federal department will print our proceedings again this year. If it does not, I believe we should charge for them a sufficient amount to help our treasury along. This matter surely needs some discussion by the association.

Referring again to the debt of which Mr. Seaman speaks, I also am in favor of paying it, but I see no reason why we should feel in conscience bound to pay one and not the other. The money is no more honestly due to Miss McLeod than it is to the printing company which printed our proceedings; in fact, not so much, for the reason that Miss McLeod is a member of the association and the

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printer was a disinterested party. He was put to a great deal of expense, and I wish to say that I am quite in favor of paying off all of our debts when we are able. I do feel, however, that I should be privileged first to pay the debts which I myself have contracted as secretary-treasurer of the association.

Mr. SEAMAN. I think an explanation is due on my part. I understood these debts were contracted without the proper authorization of the association. I believe we ought to pay all honest debts, and I would not want to do anything which would appear otherwise; whatever we are able to pay we should pay, but we should work in accordance with the constitution.

Miss BRESETTE. I do not want to seem to take the floor all the time, but I wish to say that many things have been done which have not been done according to the constitution. The constitution says that the officers making up the executive board must indorse or approve every voucher. In other words, that no moneys may be paid out without their approval. If it is not possible to get all of the members of the executive board to even answer communications, the secretary and president and those members of the board who are interested would have to sit back with folded hands and could do nothing. Two people who were members of the executive board this year have left the service of their respective States—lost interest in our organization—and would not reply to our communications. Another reason, say I, why the constitution needs changing. I feel that the president and secretary should be allowed to decide on the expenditures. We have done the best we know how under the circumstances. I am free to admit to you that some of the work has not been done in accordance with the constitution, else it could not have been done at all.

(The report was unanimously adopted and placed on file.)

The CHAIRMAN. I have a report that I can make at this time. Your motion, Mr. Seaman, is withdrawn by the remark you made, I suppose, when you were aware of the facts?

Mr. SEAMAN. Yes.

The CHAIRMAN. When I first assumed the duties of president I was approached by the Commissioner of Labor Statistics at Washington, asking me to see what I could do with the officers of the association to amalgamate with the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions, whose primary object is to discuss workmen's compensation. I did not look favorably upon it, and told him that as far as I was concerned, while I was an officer of the association, I did not think it was a wise thing to do; that I thought there was room for a week's program on the administration of the workmen's compensation laws, and that association never has failed to have a full three-day program. The I. A. I. A. B. C. thought they might set one day aside for us, but I told them that would not be satisfactory because the labor laws were something entirely apart from the administration of compensation laws and they were not so closely allied as safety and compensation; that there were many problems before the I. A. I. A. B. C. as such which might not have any particular interest for us. In a great many States in the Union the industrial accidents are administered through a

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board whose sole responsibility is the correct administration of that work. There are few States where all labor matters are handled in one commission, as in Wisconsin, New York, and Ohio. I am reporting this to you as the position I took. In talking the matter over with Miss Bresette she agreed with me that I took the right stand at that time. However, I would like to get an expression of opinion from those present here as to whether your officers acted wisely or unwisely in discouraging any idea of negotiations. It would lengthen the session if we joined with that association. Are there any suggestions?

DELEGATE. I move that it is the sense of this association that the position taken by the officers in reference to that matter be sustained.

(Motion carried.)

Mrs. SEMPLE. May I ask what about the Government labor exchanges, have they ever been included in this organization?

The CHAIRMAN. Not in my memory, anyway, have they been included.

Mrs. SEMPLE. I have attended two meetings.

DELEGATE. They are eligible for membership.

The CHAIRMAN. There are not very many States which maintain a separate bureau of public employment, but there are some which do. We do in Wisconsin, but it is under the industrial commission. The employment managers have rather absorbed the interest as to the employment problem. I attended a week's session at Chicago, that association which was referred to this morning by Mr. Lindsey, and there were about 2,500 people present. It filled the Auditorium Hotel, and there were quite a number of people who were interested in employment offices there. I would like to have all public officials interested in the employment offices with us, because they are handling a labor question. That is a matter which I am glad you raised, Mrs. Semple.

Mrs. SEMPLE. Do they still maintain their separate organization?

The CHAIRMAN. I could not say; not to my knowledge, but they may. There is an Employment Managers' Association, but I think that is private. I do not believe the public employment bureaus maintain an assoication now, but I may be mistaken. There is more of a relation, to my way of thinking, between that and our work, because it deals with the labor problem in its normal condition, than there is with compensation. I stand corrected by the gentleman from Washington; industrial insurance is probably a better term, but we in the Middle West refer to such laws as compensation laws.

Mrs. SEMPLE. What I really had in mind was the thought of inviting them, if the organization is still in existence, inviting them to merge.

The CHAIRMAN. Treating that as a motion, do I hear a second to it?

(Motion seconded.)

The CHAIRMAN. The motion is made and seconded that any association now existing composed of public officials engaged in public employment bureau work is invited to meet with this association, and we will give them a place, I presume, on the program.

(Motion carried.)

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Miss JOHNSON. In the absence of Mrs. Cox, the chairman of the resolutions committee, I was asked to present the report, and before reading the resolutions may I say that this is a unanimous report of the committee? During the absence of Mrs. Cox Miss Anderson has kindly assisted on the committee. These are the resolutions which are reported by the commission, and, as I mentioned at first, they are unanimously reported.

[Resolutions read as follows:]

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS.

1. *Resolved*, That the convention express its warm appreciation to the various organizations and individuals who have extended their hospitality to the delegates, and that the secretary-treasurer be instructed to send letters of thanks to the Bureau of Labor of Washington, Chamber of Commerce, the Rotary Club, the Federated Trades Council, the Women's Trade-Union League, and to the following individuals: C. H. Younger, Dr. Kloeber, and Gov. Hart, for the courtesies extended.

2. *Resolved*, That this convention express its approval of the participation in the program of administrators of vocational education laws and trust that this may become an established policy of the association.

3. *Resolved*, That the Association of Governmental Labor Officials, believing that it is extremely important to secure scientific information regarding the cost of living for the self-supporting working women in different localities, respectfully requests the Labor Departments of the United States and Canada to undertake investigations which will give such information for their respective countries, and that a copy of this resolution be sent to the Secretary of Labor at Washington, D. C., and the Minister of Labor of Canada.

4. *Resolved*, That this convention recommend that the Women's Bureau at Washington, D. C., be asked to make a study of seats for working women with special reference to posture.

5. *Resolved*, That the convention, recognizing the importance of securing more adequate means of exchange of information regarding the work in the separate States and Provinces, suggest that the officers of the association be asked to consider means of securing such exchange.

6. *Resolved*, That the convention recommend that the labor departments of the various States and Provinces, wherever possible, undertake an educational program to instruct employers, employees, and the public in the work of their departments.

7. The Association of Governmental Labor Officials, recognizing the specialized needs of women and children in industry, indorse the principles of the representation of women on State boards and commissions dealing with problems concerning women and children.

MRS. LUELLA COX,
M. L. SHIPMAN,
J. N. MCLEOD,
MISS ETHEL M. JOHNSON,
Committee on Resolutions.

The CHAIRMAN. You have heard the reading of the report of the resolutions committee. Is there a desire to separate the several recommendations, or shall we act upon the recommendations in their entirety?

Mr. HOFFMAN. I do not see any reason for objecting to any of the resolutions. I think they are all good and proper, and I move the adoption of the report as a whole.

(Motion seconded and carried.)

The CHAIRMAN. I would like to read a letter which I received before leaving Wisconsin from the Bureau of Standards at Washington, D. C., from Dr. Rosa. (Reads letter.) Those who are charged with the responsibility of applying safety laws know that

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there is a movement on foot now to secure uniform standards of safety in machine protection. There have been a great many meetings held both at Washington and in New York in connection with this work. The active work is being done by the National Safety Code Committee, a committee of 15, of which I happen to be a member. There may be some others here who are members. The committee has never met in its entirety, perhaps half a dozen at a time getting together. The engineers with which this committee is working have stated conferences in the East on uniform safety codes, and anyone who has followed the work knows that some good is going to come out of it. That, of course, will be minimum standards at best, but they are working also for some degree of uniformity in safety codes. I have drawn up a resolution, and you may do as you see fit about it. If you think it of enough importance, you may adopt it. (Reads resolution, as follows:)

Whereas the Bureau of Standards, Department of Commerce, Washington, D. C., is now engaged in the framing of adequate industrial safety standards through the National Safety Code Committee; and

Whereas some of the members of the Association of Governmental Labor Officials of the United States and Canada are now serving on the National Safety Code Committee, assisting in the establishment of uniform industrial safety standards in so far as that may be done: Therefore be it

Resolved by this association, That the work of the Bureau of Standards and the work of the National Safety Code Committee be indorsed and its progress encouraged; be it further

Resolved, That a copy of these resolutions be mailed to Hon. E. B. Rosa, chairman of the National Safety Code Committee, and that these resolutions be spread upon our minutes.

Mr. YOUNGER. Is that to be a uniform code; is that the aim, a uniform code throughout the United States?

The CHAIRMAN. That is the ultimate aim.

Mr. YOUNGER. We have a safety standard, and we do not want to change it.

The CHAIRMAN. I will say this for the uniform code; it will only be a recommended code and what is good in it the States can adopt if they wish to, but where States have gone further we certainly would not interfere, because that naturally would interfere with the administration of a State law. Are there any remarks?

(It was moved and seconded that the resolution be adopted. Motion carried.)

Mr. WOOD, Commissioner of Labor and Industrial Statistics of Louisiana. Under the report of committee on legislative work it seems as if our friend Mr. Shipman, from North Carolina, was the only one who had prepared a report. I wish to make it plain to you that our legislature was in session at the time I left and was just coming to a close. I did not have an opportunity to submit my report in writing, but I made provisions with my secretary to send me a newspaper which shows the legislation which has been enacted and has been passed and has now been signed by the governor. For that reason I have no written report, but there are one or two articles here that I have marked, and if you will permit me to go back to the subject I would like a moment to tell you what we did at this session.

The CHAIRMAN. There is no objection.

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Mr. WOOD. You know we are a little backward down in our country—I mean in legislation—but we are like the drummer, we are getting there.

A law was put upon the statute books of Louisiana which is entirely new—I do not know of any other State which has a similar law—imposing a 2 per cent license tax on industries as a severance tax, for severing natural resources from soil and water. Now, that is a new law. As we have been drifting along for many years, I do not know why we did not think of that before, because it nets our State something like $3,000,000 per annum. Of course, a great deal of that comes from oil and gas. That is our new governor's work. That creates a fund of $3,000,000, and out of that fund, along educational lines, we are going to construct a $1,500,000 agricultural college in conjunction with the Louisiana State University at the State capital. We took that much from that severance tax. That is absolutely a new tax. Of the total amount under this severance tax, $200,000 goes to the educational fund of the State, $25,000 goes to the State board of health, and the rest is distributed where the most benefit will be derived. Incidentally, the department of labor comes in for a small amount.

There were a great number of laws passed in the interest of labor, but they are not what we could call labor laws directly. We also succeeded in having a new law placed on the statute books—a previous law having been declared unconstitutional—requiring the immediate payment of labor at the time of discharge. We had that law for something like six years, but it was declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court on the ground that the text of the law was broader than the title of the law, which is in violation of the State constitution. As I stated to you, the department of labor got a little increase in pay. I am not sure that these figures are correct, because we submitted to the law-making bodies a demand that the department of labor be placed on a parity with other State departments and the commissioner be paid $5,000, like the heads of other State departments, and our assistants and inspectors $1,800. The house reduced that amount to $3,600. It went to the Senate with a fight on hand to have it put back, and I see from the paper that it was finally settled at $4,000 for the commissioner. I do not know whether that is true or not, but I hope it is, because you know where we stand on money matters. The assistants were placed at $1,800, and we got $2,000 more for expense money. The secretary was raised $200 and my office expense raised only $100, but we will get along with that if they gave us the balance.

There is also a law which makes it a misdemeanor for any contractor or subcontractor to misapply any moneys received on account of or for the purpose of settlement of any bills for labor and to keep the laborer waiting. That is one of the recommendations of our department.

We also passed the mothers' pension law for our State. We have been trying to pass that for 14 or 15 years. It ranges in amount from $10 to $50 per month for any mother whose husband is dead or disabled and who has children under the age of 14, and that is to be paid out of what we call the police jury's fund of each respective county;

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and I think that is a great boon and a great protection to the poorer women of the State.

In regard to the compensation act, the amended compensation act passed by the legislature, of which Sanford Stuart was the author, made some important changes in the system which has provided for factory and industrial life. The change in the compensation for injury was from 55 to 60 per cent of the wages of the injured employee. The classifying clause also specifies more particularly the beneficiaries of employees killed through accident.

We also raised the maximum, I might say, from $16 to $18. Now, that may be very small, but you know our compensation law is young; we have had it only about six years. The maximum was originally $10 and we have virtually doubled the amount in six years and raised it from 50 to 60 per cent, and in cases of death to 300 weeks, and in cases of total permanent disability to 400 weeks, so we have bettered it very materially. I am sorry that I am not in a position to give that to you in written form, but I have just received this paper and I am pleased to see that we even accomplished that much, although we lost the creation of a minimum wage commission. We were never successful before even to get such a bill reported out of committee, but this time we got a favorable report, got it through the house, only to be defeated in the senate. The 48-hour law met the same fate. This time we got a 48-hour law past the house by a handsome majority, but it was defeated in the senate. We feel that we are making progress, and that we will eventually accomplish that end. I am glad to report that we have accomplished even as much as we have.

Miss BRESETTE. That is your 48-hour law for women?

Mr. WOOD. We had the bill in last year for 54 hours and it was defeated. This year we had it at 48 hours and got a favorable report in the house, but it was defeated. We do not take any credit for what has been accomplished in the betterment of child and woman labor or in their surroundings; we say the war had everything to do with it, and we are willing to say that the war was instrumental in bringing about the change of conditions in our State. In the last two years, or since we met the last time, the employers are working women 56 hours and children 44, so we are pretty well off even without the law, but they are not agreeable to putting that upon the statute books for fear that the competitor States of the South, particularly in the textile industries, will get the better of Louisiana.

Mrs. SEMPLE. What attitude did the labor department take toward all this progressive legislation?

Mr. WOOD. It was always on our recommendation.

Mrs. SEMPLE. Did the labor department look to the origination of any of this; does the labor department have a program of progressive legislation that it presents to the legislature in your State?

Mr. WOOD. Well, the labor department in conjunction with organized labor of the State—our State is very well organized—and we also had with us the women's clubs of the State, and the welfare commissions of a local nature, which exist in our larger cities, and a few friends of labor. We had not many friends in the legislature, especially among the farming element. They are usually against

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such legislation in our section of the country. Every such law that has been placed on the statute books in the last four years has been at the suggestion of our department, and because we had very hearty cooperation on the part of the women.

The CHAIRMAN. The next thing we have in order is unfinished business if there is any.

Mr. SHIPMAN. When Miss Bresette, the secretary, commented upon her report, she brought a matter to the attention of the association, that of selling the proceedings so that the publication might be self-sustaining. I would like to hear an expression of opinion on that subject. I am wondering how it would do to sell advertising space and thus cover our expense.

Mr. WOOD. It is all wrong. That will not get us anything.

Miss BRESETTE. I should dislike to commercialize our proceedings to that extent. I recall the first convention I attended, that a fight was being waged at that convention because somebody had solicited advertising to pay for the proceedings, and there had not been proper reckoning of that money. Solicitors had gone all over the country urging employers and those selling safety devices to advertise in the proceedings. I do not know who was at fault, or where the fault really lay, but I do recall there was a lot of wrangling over it.

Mr. SHIPMAN. We have an honest official in charge now.

Miss BRESETTE. You may not have after the election. Of course you appreciate the spirit in which I said that, but I do believe there will be such abuse when advertising space is sold, unconsciously perhaps, but it is well to avoid it. I do think it would be legitimate to publish our proceedings and charge for them and thus make ourselves a self-supporting institution. You will agree with me there have been some very valuable discussion and some very splendid papers and addresses made here. I believe they would be welcome in many places. We have a great many requests from libraries and organizations which want them. I personally think it is legitimate to charge a fee for them, and in that way swell our treasury.

A DELEGATE. Why don't you charge a registry fee of say $2? That would help. You might have a convention registry fee of $2. They do it at other conventions.

Mr. SHIPMAN. I think we ought to charge for copies of the proceedings.

Miss BRESETTE. I also think that should be done in case the Federal department does not print the proceedings for us.

Mr. SHIPMAN. I move that the secretary-treasurer be authorized to charge a dollar for the copies of proceedings.

Miss BRESETTE. Suppose they cost us $1.50? We would not make much to sell them for a dollar. It would be better, I think, to leave it to a committee to decide after the cost is figured up.

Mr. SHIPMAN. That is all right with me.

Mr. WOOD. When you have books printed you are going to pay something. I realize that because I paid for having my reports printed. The present report is something like 40 pages larger than the former report, but the difference in cost is over 60 per cent. You

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are not going to get a report of any size printed for a dollar. You have a book set up and the printer's ink and the paper—of course the labor is the main cost. It does not cost anything hardly after that is done.

Mr. WOOD. I do not believe we can set a price on the book if we do not know what it is going to cost. It depends entirely on how many books we are going to have printed, and how much the demand is going to be, what those books will cost. If you are only going to have 100 printed they will cost you within $20 of what 200 will cost you. The more you have printed after the forms are made up the cheaper the book becomes. It is the main work of getting up the forms that costs the money—they become cheaper the more you have printed; I think that ought to be left discretionary with the secretary, to set a price on those books after she learns exactly what the cost of printing is going to be. As far as I am concerned, every department ought to be willing to give $5 for a copy of the proceedings, because we are up against a financial proposition here. We have no funds, we owe back debts, and everything is going up. I believe in paying people and taking care of them, and taking care of our department. Let us pay for what we get and pay well. I think we ought to be willing to pay $5 a copy. I will pay my money any time. We ought to take care of this association. If we live and exist we have to have money, because the time is gone by when you can get along without cash.

The CHAIRMAN. Do you offer a motion or an amendment to that other motion? The motion before the house is to charge $1 for a copy.

Mr. SHIPMAN. I will withdraw that motion.

The CHAIRMAN. Will you leave it to the executive officers to get the proceedings out the best way they can and figure on whether it is best to allow the Federal department to print them, or for us to plan the proceedings?

Mr. SHIPMAN. I make a motion to that effect.

(Motion seconded and carried.)

The CHAIRMAN. Is there any other new business to come up? The next matter before the convention is the selection of a place of meeting. There are some communications, that will be read if you desire, from the governor of Louisiana, the mayor of the city of New Orleans, the New Orleans Association of Commerce, and several citizens of the State of Louisiana inviting this association to meet at New Orleans next year.

Mr. SHIPMAN. Miss Bresette knows that we nearly wrecked this association in the southern country not very long ago, and I think it proper that we go back and let the folks down there see how far we have progressed since that event. I move that we accept the invitation of the city of New Orleans and that we meet there next year.

(Motion seconded and carried.)

Mr. WOOD. I do not want to take you down there when it is excessively hot. Of course our evenings are pleasant all the year round, but I would suggest that you come either in the early spring or late fall. In view of the fact that we have the races there in the fall

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and two parks running, the city is badly crowded, and I would suggest that you come in the early spring, about the last week in April or the first week in May. I would not like to set a date at this time, because I would like to confer with the hotel committee and see what other conventions are booked at New Orleans. New Orleans is a convention city, and we have conventions there year in and year out, always something going on, and I would like before setting the exact date to go back and make some arrangements.

The CHAIRMAN. If there are no objections, we will leave the matter of date, either spring or fall, with Mr. Wood, who has extended the invitation, and he will take it up with the executive officers of the convention when they are elected. Are there any objections? If not, it is so ordered.

The next thing on the program is the election of officers.

[The following officers were elected for the ensuing year:]

President.—Frank E. Hoffman, assistant commissioner of labor of Minnesota.

First vice president.—Frank E. Wood, commissioner, Bureau of Labor and Industrial Statistics of Louisiana.

Second vice president.—R. J. Stewart, chief factories inspector of British Columbia, Canada.

Third vice president.—Miss Ethel M. Johnson, assistant commissioner, Department of Labor and Industries of Massachusetts.

Fourth vice president.—Mrs. Margaret Lewis, inspector of factories and shops, Alberta, Canada.

Fifth vice president.—H. H. Bye, factory inspector, Iowa.

Secretary-treasurer.—Miss Linna E. Bresette, Industrial Welfare Commission of Kansas.

[It was moved and seconded that a vote of thanks be given the president and secretary of the association for their efforts toward the success of the convention. Motion carried.]

The CHAIRMAN. I want to assure the delegates in attendance that it has been a real pleasure to work in this association during the past year, and I want to assure Mr. Hoffman that he will find the same pleasure. There is a satisfaction in putting over a program where you are able to get a response from busy men and women and the big men and women of the country and where they are willing to come a long distance to respond. There is a real and genuine pleasure when you have arranged such a program and where that program has been a success, as I think it has been here.

I want to say for Miss Bresette that there can be no question but what the real success of this association is in the last analysis due to the persistent efforts made by her. If it were not for the secretary-treasurer, I do not know how this association would ever have reached its present position. I am sure that the association appreciates that because of the splendid indorsement which was given her, and it is a matter of personal gratification to me that Miss Bresette was reelected secretary-treasurer so spontaneously and unanimously, and you will have no cause to regret it.

(Whereupon the convention adjourned.)

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REPORTS OF STATES ON NEW LEGISLATION.

It has been the custom for each State to report new legislation. The convention was crowded for time; therefore it was decided to dispense with the verbal reports during the convention, but to incorporate the written reports in the proceedings. Some of the States failed to submit reports.

REPORT OF KANSAS.

By Miss ALICE MCFARLAND, woman factory inspector of Kansas.

New labor legislation in Kansas during the past year was not extensive as to the number of laws passed, but has aroused much interest and attention because of the nature of the legislation.

The outstanding legislation of the year was the passage by a special session of the legislature of the act establishing a court of industrial relations. This court is given authority in all questions concerning public utilities and those industries declared to be affected with a public interest, such as manufacturing of food products and clothing, production of fuel, and the transportation of such articles or substances entering into the production of such articles.

The industrial welfare commission reconsidered the ruling formerly passed establishing an 8-hour day and $11 minimum wage for woman workers in manufacturing establishments and repassed the ruling with certain minor amendments. However, this ruling, which became effective May 21, 1920, was almost immediately held up by an injunction. The case has not yet been settled.

Further legislation for the woman workers of Kansas has been halted until the completion of a survey which is being carried out by the Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor and the industrial welfare commission of the State.

New child-labor legislation is in the making through the establishment of a children's code commission for the purpose of formulating new laws and correlating existing legislation. The method of making a survey by State-wide voluntary effort is a new departure in the country and is developing into a great cooperative effort for better child-welfare legislation.

REPORT OF LOUISIANA.

By F. E. WOOD, commissioner, Bureau of Labor and Industrial Statistics of Louisiana.

There was enacted in Louisiana in 1920 labor legislation—

Requiring that all street and electric cars shall be equipped with sand boxes, and providing penalties for violations thereof.

Requiring that discharged employees shall be paid within 24 hours after time of discharge, and providing penalties for violations thereof.

Requiring the filing of bonds to protect further the wages of workers, and broadening the scope of the laborer's lien laws, and providing penalties for violations thereof.

Amending and reenacting the workmen's compensation act; increasing the percentage from 55 to 60 per cent of wages being earned at the time of accident, and fixing the maximum allowance at $18 per week instead of $16 as previously paid.

Amending and reenacting all laws applicable to the State department of labor and increasing the appropriation for office maintenance and traveling expenses, 25 per cent each; increasing the salary of the secretary, 20 per cent; that of the two assistants, 25 per cent; and that of the commissioner, 25 per cent.

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REPORT OF MASSACHUSETTS.

[The report of Massachusetts, by Miss Ethel M. Johnson, assistant commissioner, Department of Labor and Industries, will be found on pages 52 to 55 of the proceedings.]

REPORT OF MINNESOTA.

By F. E. HOFFMAN, assistant commissioner, Department of Labor and Industries of Minnesota.

The only legislation in Minnesota since last year's convention was that at a special session of the legislature in September, 1919, the compensation law was amended by removing the $5,000 maximum limit which could be paid in any compensation case.

REPORT OF NORTH CAROLINA.

By M. L. SHIPMAN, commissioner, Department of Labor and Printing of North Carolina.

The activities of the Department of Labor and Printing of North Carolina have been enlarged to a considerable extent during the past year by reason of the commissioner being offered and accepting the office and responsibilities of Federal director of the United States Employment Service for North Carolina.

The United States Employment Service originated as a war measure and it stands out as one of the big undertakings during the war which rendered effective service, notwithstanding the fact that it was hurriedly organized throughout the entire country. And North Carolina is one of the few States in the South where the service has been continued since the signing of the armistice, and the results obtained, notwithstanding a greatly curtailed organization, have been exceedingly satisfactory.

The appointment of the commissioner of labor and printing as Federal director of the United States Employment Service in North Carolina at a nominal salary of $1 per year, became effective October 1, 1919. The office was established in the department of labor and printing. Through the generous cooperation and financial support of Wilmington, Charlotte, and Asheville communities, local employment offices have been maintained in those cities, and through careful handling a high degree of efficiency has been attained in the placing of applicants for positions. In well-established and thoroughly equipped employment offices the placing in jobs and positions of 65 per cent of the applicants registered and referred is considered efficient work. The service in North Carolina has exceeded this record, some months the percentage of placements running as high as 80 per cent. This is due to the men in charge of the work exercising care in referring applicants, the aim being to refer men to the places they are best fitted to fill. This policy has borne fruits as stated.

A very large proportion of the work has been in behalf of the returned soldiers, the Federal director's office confining most of its efforts to that work, covering the State as a whole. Many hundreds of cases of returned soldiers, who have been disabled in the service and unable to follow their former vocation, have been located and reported to the Federal Board for Vocational Training. Likewise many hundreds of cases have been located where the soldier has failed to receive Liberty bonds subscribed for while in service; cases where his relatives or dependents have failed to receive allotments assigned to them; cases of misunderstanding in regard to war-risk insurance, and various other troubles that have been the lot of uninformed soldiers after their return from the service.

Recently the service has been very active in recruiting and sending to the wheat fields in the West a large number of men, these being sent to Oklahoma, where the harvest work in the wheat belt started.

The Federal director feels justly proud of the record made by the employment service in North Carolina, and was very much gratified when the office at Raleigh was selected by the administrative offices as the zone clearance office for the fifth zone, comprising the States of Maryland, Virginia, North and South Carolina, and the District of Columbia, and it is to be hoped that funds can be provided whereby the State and the Federal Governments can cooperate in placing the United States Employment Service on a full-time basis with complete and adequate force to continue the work. At this time the prospects for this desirable result being obtained are encouraging.

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There has been no session of our legislature since the last meeting of this association, and therefore there is nothing to add to my report of last year as to new legislation. The special session to convene in a few days is called for the special purpose of considering the question of taxation, and general legislation relative to other subjects will probably have to wait until the regular session in January next.

OPERATION OF CHILD-LABOR LAW.

A matter which will doubtless interest the members of this association is the operation of our child-labor law. The child-labor law of 1919, which was combined with the school-attendance law, prohibiting the working of any child under 14 years of age in or about or in connection with any mill, factory, cannery, workshop, manufacturing establishment, laundry, bakery, mercantile establishment, office, hotel, restaurant, barber shop, bootblack stand, public stable, garage, place of amusement, brickyard, lumber yard, or in messenger or delivery service, is being carried out in North Carolina. The first five places mentioned, namely, mill, factory, cannery, workshop, manufacturing establishment, are also embraced in the national law, which is being enforced by the national authorities despite the fact that an injunction was issued by a district court in a suit brought by one mill. This case is now pending in the United States Supreme Court.

The agents of the Federal and State authorities are working separately. The State agents are finding that the factories and manufacturing establishments are obeying the law without difficulty, since they are subject to inspection both by the State and Federal authorities. The great number of other employments where children are forbidden to work in the State now and then furnish some violations, for the reason that the law is new and people had in mind for a long time the belief that the child-labor law was confined only to cotton mills and similar manufacturing plants.

The State child welfare commission, which is charged by the legislature with carrying out the law, sends an agent to a county, who, in company with the county superintendent of public welfare as his local agent, visits all the establishments in that county, explains the law, looks for violations, and instructs the local agent how to issue work permits, etc., during his absence.

The commission is allowed by the statute to make certain exceptions to the law. The only exceptions which have been made are that boys between the ages of 12 and 14 may work when the public school is not in actual session, provided the employment is not injurious to their health or morals and a certificate to that effect is obtained by the county superintendent of public welfare. All of this means, of course, that the work of children under 14 years of age is largely done away with.

In carrying out the law the child welfare commission is not only seeing that there are no violations, but is seeking to stimulate in each locality a sentiment for community playgrounds and other forms of recreation and training for the children who are not in school. In North Carolina the child-labor law is regarded merely as a part of the general program of child welfare of the State, and the commission realizes that the largest problem now is not so much the mere prevention of child labor, which within the age limit prescribed is practically extinct, but the provision for positive measures of education, recreation, and more wholesome home surroundings.

PUBLIC HEALTH.

An ambitious public health program is being worked out in North Carolina through the various bureaus of the State Board of Health in cooperation with the United States Public Health Service. A force of experts deal effectively with matters of infant hygiene, vital statistics, public health nursing, medical inspection of school children, epidemiology, county health work, rural sanitation and inspection, venereal diseases (which are made reportable under the law), inspection of hotels (with power of condemnation), etc.

The bureau of medical inspection of schools is doing a great work, but there is an insistent demand that all defective school children, without regard to the

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financial status of parents, be treated for all physical defects, absolutely free, by the State. This question will be dealt with by the 1921 legislature.

LABOR SITUATION.

During the past year an effort has been made to organize the workers in the textile industry in the State. This has met with determined opposition from manufacturers in some sections, and refusal by them to recognize the principle of collective bargaining has resulted in a few strikes and lockouts. In most instances the workers have secured recognition. Labor disturbances in North Carolina are, however, rare and short lived when they do occur. Practically all industries are operating under the handicap of an insufficient number of workmen.

REPORT OF BRITISH COLUMBIA, CANADA.

By Mrs. HELEN G. MCGILL, of the Minimum Wage Board of British Columbia, Canada.

The measure of a nation's civilization is not its material welfare or prosperity, but the care and protection given its weaker members. The real ideals of the State are expressed in its domestic legislation.

The true mind of the statesmen of a community is unerringly revealed in the laws which they advocate and enact.

That State in which the view of the father is alone represented, and the mind and heart of the mother is not given effective utterance through the ballot, may not hope to lead in the march of civilization. It is as true of the nation as it is of the home that its highest ideals can be reached only where both the mother and the father play their full part.

Before 1917 the women of British Columbia had no voice in the making of the laws of their Province. For 25 years they had worked, suffered, and endured calumny, scorn, and contempt in an effort to secure the ballot. The married mother and her child frequently suffered bitter and cruel wrongs under unjust laws which they were helpless to change and against which they could make no effective protest. For many years women, both organized and unorganized, protested and appealed for a just recognition of the right of the married mother to share equally with the father in the guardianship of their child. While the unmarried mother, the coming of whose child was a burden and disgrace, was given its custody, the child of the married mother belonged exclusively to the father during his lifetime. He could will away from her the child unborn at the time of his death. Only mothers can realize the pain and sorrow such a law often wrought.

Boys and girls of 12 and 14 could be legally married with the consent of the father or of the guardian appointed by him. The mother's consent was not necessary.

Under the misnamed dower act the husband whose wife perhaps had worked long and faithfully by his side to gather together their little savings could by his will deprive her of everything and leave her penniless and dependent in her old age.

If the father and husband deserted, he was free from obligation to provide for his family and wife, if she had sufficient means to support them. Yet he was guardian of the children, with a right to their earnings for his or his creditors' benefit, unless the mother was able to obtain a court order giving them to her for the support of the children.

Within the last four years many of these old laws belonging to the Dark Ages have been wiped out. From being one of the most backward of our Provinces, with laws on our statute books dating from the days of the Romans and the early British sovereigns, to-day British Columbia is leading in domestic legislation. Until 1917 no material changes were made looking to better conditions for our women and children. Since then women of other Provinces lift their eyes with hope to British Columbia as they see their ideals crystallizing and taking shape in legislation of the highest and noblest type. For years the daughters, wives, and mothers of British Columbia lived and suffered under laws, perhaps intended at the time of their enactment to serve a good purpose, suited only to a world of men and an age of force—a world in which women had no place—but cruelly ill adapted to modern conditions.

So much legislation of vital interest to women and children has been enacted within the last few years that it is only possible in many cases to give the gist of the acts.

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MOTHER AND CHILD.

When the new Government came into power in 1917 it brought with it the extension of the franchise to women and a full recognition of their rights to citizenship. The Provincial Election Act (Acts of 1917, ch. 23) conferred upon women not only the franchise but also the right to sit as members of the legislative assembly. Thus with the introduction of a direct Government measure, preceded by the repeal of the Suffrage Referendum Act, the validity of which had been questioned by some legal authorities, ended a long, hard struggle of 25 years.

Since then the municipal franchise has been extended and women given the right to sit as mayors, aldermen, reeves, and councilors. In certain municipal districts they may qualify as voters upon tendering $2 in lieu of the "direct tax" required of men similarly placed.

The protection given those voters who served with the Allied forces, allowing them, if they return within 10 days of election day, to have their names placed upon the voters' list, in every case specifically includes nurses.

In rural districts husband and wife may qualify on each other's property in school trustee elections. Many rural women have felt keenly that since the farm usually stood in the husband's name they, who were so deeply interested in the education of their children, had no voice in school matters; now both mother and father may vote.

Coming events cast their shadows before, and as naturally as daylight follows darkness, with the recognition of the rights of women as citizens came justice to the mother in the Equal Guardianship Act (Acts of 1917, ch. 27). By this father and mother are placed on an equal footing, and their rights, powers, and responsibilities in regard to their minor children made equal, with no paramount right to either. The husband and wife living apart voluntarily may arrange by agreement, in writing, the guardianship of the children, or may apply to the court for an adjudication. The court may make such order as it thinks fit, but first and above all is the welfare of the child. (Acts of 1917, ch. 27.)

CHILD WELFARE.

For the protection of the children of the Province a splendid group of laws has been enacted, including the creation of a separate department in the attorney general's office for their administration. Under this group come the Juvenile Court Act (Acts of 1918, ch. 20), the Infants' Act Amendment Act (Acts of 1918, ch. 36), the Industrial School Amendment Act (Acts of 1918, ch. 35), the Industrial Home for Girls Amendment Act (Acts of 1917, ch. 29, and Acts of 1918, ch. 34), the Mothers' Pension Act (Acts of 1920, ch. ——), and Adoption of Children Act (Acts of 1920, ch. ——). In the Infants' Act the definition of "neglected child" has been so enlarged as to afford much greater protection. It now includes children begging or pretending to sell, running away from home, living with immoral parents or in immoral homes, or being permitted to grow up "without salutory parental control." The same act provides for the creation of a provincial superintendent and department of neglected children. The age to which such protection may be extended is raised to 18 years. Any reputable citizen may call to the attention of the probation officers or lodge the complaint with the provincial superintendent that there is a neglected child who needs protection. (Acts of 1918, ch. 36.)

Along this same line is the care of delinquent children. The Juvenile Court Act and the Industrial Schools Act have both been definitely extended to deal with all cases coming under the Infants' Act and the Industrial School Act (both boys and girls). The age that girls may be sent to the industrial school has been raised to 18. This does not mean that all girls up to this age should be sent there. But if in the opinion of the magistrate there is any likelihood of reform, the erring girl, though over 16, may be committed there rather than to the provincial jail. (Acts of 1917, ch. 29.)

Until last year child offenders, where there was no juvenile court and detention home, had to be taken in the police court, but among the new sections of the Juvenile Court Act are those providing that upon written request of the attorney general any person may act in any specified case as a judge of the juvenile court, and any house or home be declared by him to be a detention home. The judge may ask some person to act as a voluntary probation officer. Thus in a night may be created the whole machinery of a juvenile court giving

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the child the full benefit of being dealt with, under the Juvenile Delinquents Act, not as a criminal but as "erring and misguided, needing encouragement," as the act states. After the case is decided the machinery may vanish as quickly as it came into existence. So to-day no child need be tried in the police court of British Columbia if its older fellow citizens will but interest themselves sufficiently to communicate with the attorney general's department. The act provides also for the appointment of women as judges. (Acts of 1918, ch. 20.)

Under the amendments to the Industrial Schools Act the charge of "incorrigibility," so often thrown as a cloak of charity over the childish delinquent, may now be made by probation officers, forcing weak or immoral parents to come under the jurisdiction of the juvenile court in order that the erring or misguided child may be protected as a "ward of the court"—Industrial Home for Girls Amendment Act (Acts of 1918, ch. 34), Industrial School Amendment Act (Acts of 1918, ch. 35), and Infants' Act Amendment Act (Acts of 1918, ch. 36).

The community that is caring adequately for its young citizens can not do so long without becoming alive to the value of the good mother in the home. The children of the widowed or deserted mother who must spend long hours away from the home earning their daily bread too often become first "neglected," then "delinquent." The necessity of helping the worthy mother who is earning a living to bring up her children in the way they should go, and the cruel and painful consequences of separating her from her children, have received due consideration in one of the broadest mothers' pension acts in existence. Under this pensions may be given the poor mother for herself and her children under 16, if she is: "(*a*) A widow; or (*b*) a married woman whose husband is an inmate of a penal institution or public hospital for insane; or (*c*) a woman whose husband is unable to support his family by reason of sickness or accident arising while his wife was residing in this Province; or (*d*) a deserted wife; or (*e*) any other person whose case, in the opinion of the superintendent, is a proper one for assistance under the provisions of this act."

This pension, the highest in the world, is safeguarded by the paramount principle that it must be for the best interests of the child that the mother should have the custody of it, and that she is a fit and proper person. She must be a British subject and have resided for at least 18 months in British Columbia, have a child or children under 16 and be without the necessary means to support them. (Acts of 1920, ch. —.)

The rights of the adopted child are safeguarded by the Adoption Act (Acts of 1920, ch. ——). The place in the family of such child is definitely established, with due share in the inheritance.

Herein are checked some of those evils which arose under the former haphazard method. Many adopted children, owing to the ignorance of the adoptive parents as to their real status, upon the death of their protectors found themselves thrust into the world penniless and helpless. Formal application to the court must be made by those wishing to adopt a child, and in the case of those over 12 years of age the child's own consent is required. (Acts of 1920, ch. ——.)

MARRIAGE.

Until 1919 British Columbia had no legislation safeguarding the age for marriage. Children of 12 and 14, or even younger, if the father or the guardian appointed by him gave consent, could be legally wedded. The age was not fixed by any statute of British Columbia, for despite the urging of the mothers of the Province the statutes remained blank. Therefore, recourse was necessary to British law, under section 25 of the British Columbia Marriage Act. While some legal authorities held that it did not lie in the power of a Province to specifically raise the age of marriage, other Provinces found no difficulty in solving the problem by fixing an age below which it is held unlawful to issue a license or solemnize a marriage.

In 1919 our Province of British Columbia followed the same course and raised the age of both sexes to 16. Thus a law which we received as a legacy from the old Roman code was wiped off the statutes. The mother's consent is also now required and the marriage of parents legitimizes the child born before wedlock—this is retroactive. (Acts of 1919, ch. 52.)

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PROTECTION OF WIVES.

Another legal millstone was sunk deep in the sea by the repeal of the former Deserted Wives Maintenance Act. An entirely new act was framed in 1919. Under this the wife may sue for nonsupport without being compelled to live apart from the husband. The complaint may be lodged either where the husband resides or where the cause arose. The charge may be lodged by officers or public charities or by the wife in writing or proceedings may be begun by the attorney general. The husband and wife are compellable witnesses on the question of support. Orders may be registered against land and wages garnisheed. Relief and support are obtained not only for the deserted wife but also for the children of the family. (Acts of 1919, ch. 19.)

In line with mothers' pensions and the maintenance of deserted wives is a group of acts protecting widows from injustice and deprivation under the wills of their husbands, whether intentional or otherwise. By an amendment of the Administration Act a new and more equitable apportionment of personal estate has been made for the benefit of the wife. Under this the widow of the intestate is given half the personal property and the children the other half.

Where there are no children or legal representatives of them, the whole of the surplusage goes to the wife. If there be no wife, the whole is to be equally divided among the children. If there be neither wife nor children, the surplusage goes to the next of kin and their legal representatives. The mother takes equally with the father (hitherto the father inherited to the exclusion of the mother). In no case are representatives to be permitted among collaterals after the brothers' and sisters' children. This wipes out those unjust enactments which preferred the father to the exclusion of the mother and included relatives remote in degree. (Acts of 1919, ch. ——.)

The wife's share in the family estate receives just and generous recognition in an act passed during the session of 1920. The Testator's Family Maintenance Act belongs to that new fine school of law making which is content to enunciate a just and right principle, leaving each case to be decided upon its own merits. This act establishes the rightful claim of a wife and children to adequate maintenance before any other gifts or bequests. No person may die leaving a will without making adequate provision for the proper maintenance and support of either husband or wife or children. If such will be made, the court may order such provision for the same as the court thinks adequate, just, and equitable in the circumstances. This provision may consist of a lump sum, or periodical or other payment. Application for benefit of the act must be made within six months. While this is a great stride forward, it is only a proper recognition of the claim of the family upon the family estate. (Acts of 1920, ch. ——.)

WOMEN IN INDUSTRY.

One of the most notable features of 1918 was the Minimum Wage Act, which provides that woman workers shall not be paid less than a living wage. While to some this may appear radical, no real or lasting prosperity can be founded upon the exploitation of the actual or potential mother of the race.

The act is administered by a board of three, one of whom must be a woman, and the members receive no salary as such. The board is empowered to call for pay rolls and other information from employers, and if the wages are found inadequate may call a public meeting of all interested and request a conference to make a recommendation as to the proper wages. (Acts of 1918, ch. 56.)

At the next session the board was given powers to deal with hours and conditions as well as wages. One of the most valuable protective sections is that which permits any employee who has been paid less than the legal minimum to collect the difference between it and the wage she received. This act, initiated as a Government measure by the Hon. J. W. de B. Farris, attorney general, was piloted through the legislature by Mrs. Ralph Smith, M. L. A. (Acts of 1919, ch. 61.)

PUBLIC HEALTH.

A definite effort to check the ravages of that most awful of social diseases, venereal disease, is put forth in the Venereal Disease Act, 1919. Under this act venereal disease is reportable and provision made for the examination of those detained in jails, reformatories, etc. Treatment is furnished, and all hospitals

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receiving provincial aid are required to make provision for the giving of such treatment. Secrecy is required from all officials, in order to protect those needing treatment. The sale and advertising of drugs, medicines, and appliances is prohibited and only legally qualified physicians permitted to administer treatment. Penalties are imposed upon those who, knowing they are diseased, impart it to others. Treatment for venereal disease of prisoners and those under detention, which has long been advocated, is now a reality under the new act. (Acts of 1919, ch. 88.)

The protection long sought by the graduate nurses, not only for themselves but for the benefit of the public, was given by the Nurses' Registration Act. Only graduate nurses are permitted now to append the letters R. N. after their name, and a uniform course of hospital training is established. The British Columbia act had the indorsement of the Medical Association of British Columbia. (Acts of 1918, ch. 65.)

PROTECTION OF MILITARY NURSES AND SOLDIERS' WIVES AND DEPENDENTS.

In the numerous measures enacted for the benefit and relief of soldiers, military nurses and soldiers' wives and dependents have received due recognition with the soldiers themselves. They were included in the war relief acts, which prohibited civil action during the war and a certain period thereafter. (War Relief Act, Acts of 1917, ch. 75.)

Nurses and soldiers' widows are also included in the benefits conferred by the Soldiers' Land Act and the Soldiers' Homestead Act. Military nurses receive the benefit given the members of the Allied forces in the Mining Act. (Acts of 1917, chs. 80 and 81.)

WIDOWS AND DEPENDENTS OF CIVIL SERVANTS.

Under the Civil Service Act, upon the death of any person who has been at least two years in the service the widow or dependents may be paid a sum equal to three months' salary. (Acts of 1917, ch. 9.)

EDUCATION OF CHILDREN.

Several important changes have been made in the Public School Act, one of the most wide reaching of these being the right to consolidate two or more schools in order to establish central graded schools, and in such case requiring school trustees to provide for the transportation of those children too far from school to walk, the Government agreeing to contribute half the cost. The interchange of pupils is also authorized. The purpose of all these amendments is to build up a stronger and better system in country and rural districts by unifying the educational needs and centers.

The extension of manual training, domestic science, commercial, and high schools in rural and municipal districts is made possible, the Government undertaking to pay a certain percentage of the initial cost. Also, husband and wife may qualify on each other's property in rural districts, thus allowing both the father and mother to vote upon educational matters.

Another amendment provides that advanced courses may be given in physical training, gymnastics, or cadet instruction, and where the teachers' whole time is devoted to these subjects the Government will give the usual per capita grant. (Acts of 1918, ch. 74.)

PROHIBITION OF LIQUOR.

The passing of the Prohibition Act and amendments brought relief and comfort to many wives and mothers. The lessening of crime is evidenced in the emptying of jails. Many men spend on family groceries what they formerly squandered on intoxicants. (Acts of 1917, ch. 49; Acts of 1918, ch. 68; Acts of 1920, ch. ——.)

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APPENDIX.

LIST OF DELEGATES AT CONVENTION.

CANADA.

Margaret Lewis, inspector of factories and shops, Calgary, Alberta.
Mrs. Helen Gregory McGill, Minimum Wage Board, Vancouver, B. C.
J. N. McLeod, chief factory inspector, Calgary, Alberta.
J. D. McNiven, deputy minister of labor, Victoria, B. C.
R. J. Stewart, chief factories inspector, Department of Labor, Vancouver, B. C.

COLORADO.

W. L. Morrissey, deputy labor commissioner and chief factory inspector, Denver.

CONNECTICUT.

William Ainley, Hartford.
William E. Duncan, factory inspector, Hartford.

INDIANA.

Mrs. Luella Cox, director, Department of Women and Children, Indianapolis.

IOWA.

F. T. Crockett, factory inspector, Des Moines.
J. D. Seaman, deputy commissioner, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Des Moines.

KANSAS.

Linna E. Bresette, secretary, Industrial Welfare Commission, Topeka.
Alice K. McFarland, woman factory inspector, Topeka.

LOUISIANA.

F. E. Wood, commissioner, Bureau of Labor and Industrial Statistics, New Orleans.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Ethel M. Johnson, assistant commissioner, Department of Labor and Industries, Boston.

MICHIGAN.

Mary C. Girardin, deputy factory inspector, Detroit.
Stella F. McLeod, special agent, Department of Labor, Detroit.

MINNESOTA.

Lucile Davis, inspector, Department of Labor and Industries, Minnesota.
F. E. Hoffman, assistant commissioner, Department of Labor and Industries, Minneapolis.
Louise Schutz, superintendent, Bureau of Women and Children, St. Paul.

NEW YORK.

Emma Duke, National Child Labor Committee, New York City.

NORTH CAROLINA.

M. L. Shipman, commissioner, Department of Labor and Printing, Raleigh.

NORTH DAKOTA.

Hazel Farkasch, secretary, Minimum Wage Department, Bismarck.
J. N. Hagan, commissioner, Department of Agriculture and Labor, Bismarck.

OREGON.

Mrs. Millie R. Trumbull, secretary, Industrial Welfare Commission, Portland.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Samuel Semple, Harrisburg.
Mrs. Samuel Semple, Industrial Board, Department of Labor and Industry, Harrisburg.

WASHINGTON.

James Bagley, State Mine Inspector, Seattle.
Robt. P. Duncan, member, District Safety Board No. 2, Seattle.
Martin J. Flyzik, State Safety Board, Seattle.
Lew A. Greene, Post-Intelligencer, Seattle.
Hon. Louis F. Hart, governor of Washington, Seattle.
H. L. Hughes, chairman, Industrial Insurance Department, Olympia.

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W. G. Hummell, State Director of Vocational Education, Olympia.
Mrs. W. J. Kennedy, Industrial Welfare Commission, Olympia.
Dr. J. S. Kloeber, chairman, State Safety Board, Olympia.
Ira L. Lockney, safety engineer, State Safety Board, Olympia.
S. C. Melve, Seattle.
H. C. Miles, deputy commissioner, Bureau of Labor, Olympia.
Edgar W. Mills, minister, Seattle.
H. Alvin Moon, Industrial Code Commission, Olympia.
Mabel Palmer, Seattle.
M. D. Parkhurst, clerk, Northern Pacific Railway, Seattle.
Marie Pidgeon, deputy commissioner, Bureau of Labor, Olympia.
Florence A. Probert, Seattle.
Jas. E. Quigley, deputy factory inspector, Olympia.
Chas. T. Richardson, deputy commissioner, Bureau of Labor, Olympia.
A. C. Stirn, Seattle.
O. M. Strand, deputy commissioner, Bureau of Labor, Olympia.
W. H. Sutter, deputy commissioner, Bureau of Labor, Olympia.
Mrs. W. H. Udall, secretary, Industrial Welfare Commission, Olympia.
A. L. Valentine, District Safety Board No. 2, Seattle.
Nina F. Winn, Industrial Relations Association of America, Seattle.
C. H. Younger, commissioner, Bureau of Labor, Olympia.
Victor Zednick, secretary, District Safety Board No. 2, Seattle.

WISCONSIN.

John Callahan, State Director of Vocational Education, Madison.
R. B. Dudgeon, superintendent of city schools, Madison.
George P. Hambrecht, chairman, Industrial Commission, Madison.
Stewart Scrimshaw, manager of industrial relations, Kearney & Trecker, Madison.
A. W. Siemers, director of vocational schooling, Madison.
Chas. E. Whelan, supreme national lecturer, Modern Woodmen, Madison.

WASHINGTON, D. C.

Mary Anderson, director, Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.
Anne Larabee, secretary to director of Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.
Agnes L. Peterson, industrial supervisor, Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.
Whitehead Kluttz, commissioner, United States Board of Mediation and Conciliation, Washington, D. C.

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SERIES OF BULLETINS PUBLISHED BY THE BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS.

[*The publication of the annual and special reports and of the bimonthly bulletin was discontinued in July, 1912, and since that time a bulletin has been published at irregular intervals. Each number contains matter devoted to one of a series of general subjects. These bulletins are numbered consecutively beginning with No. 101, and up to No. 236 they also carry consecutive numbers under each series. Beginning with No. 237 the serial numbering has been discontinued. A list of the series is given below. Under each is grouped all the bulletins which contain material relating to the subject matter of that series. A list of the reports and bulletins of the bureau issued prior to July 1, 1912, will be furnished on application.*]

Wholesale Prices.

Bul. 114. Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1912.
Bul. 149. Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1913.
Bul. 173. Index numbers of wholesale prices in the United States and foreign countries.
Bul. 181. Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1914.
Bul. 200. Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1915.
Bul. 226. Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1916.

Retail Prices and Cost of Living.

Bul. 105. Retail prices, 1890 to 1911: Part I.
Retail prices, 1890 to 1911: Part II—General tables.
Bul. 106. Retail prices, 1890 to June, 1912: Part I.
Retail prices, 1890 to June, 1912: Part II—General tables.
Bul. 108. Retail prices, 1890 to August, 1912.
Bul. 110. Retail prices, 1890 to October, 1912.
Bul. 113. Retail prices, 1890 to December, 1912.
Bul. 115. Retail prices, 1890 to February, 1913.
Bul. 121. Sugar prices, from refiner to consumer.
Bul. 125. Retail prices, 1890 to April, 1913.
Bul. 130. Wheat and flour prices, from farmer to consumer.
Bul. 132. Retail prices, 1890 to June, 1913.
Bul. 136. Retail prices, 1890 to August, 1913.
Bul. 138. Retail prices, 1890 to October, 1913.
Bul. 140. Retail prices, 1890 to December, 1913.
Bul. 156. Retail prices, 1907 to December, 1914.
Bul. 164. Butter prices, from producer to consumer.
Bul. 170. Foreign food prices as affected by the war.
Bul. 184. Retail prices, 1907 to June, 1915.
Bul. 197. Retail prices, 1907 to December, 1915.
Bul. 228. Retail prices, 1907 to December, 1916.

Wages and Hours of Labor.

Bul. 116. Hours, earnings, and duration of employment of wage-earning women in selected industries in the District of Columbia.
Bul. 118. Ten-hour maximum working day for women and young persons.
Bul. 119. Working hours of women in the pea canneries of Wisconsin.
Bul. 128. Wages and hours of labor in the cotton, woolen, and silk industries, 1890 to 1912.
Bul. 129. Wages and hours of labor in the lumber, millwork, and furniture industries, 1890 to 1912.
Bul. 131. Union scale of wages and hours of labor, 1907 to 1912.
Bul. 134. Wages and hours of labor in the boot and shoe and hosiery and knit-goods industries, 1890 to 1912.
Bul. 135. Wages and hours of labor in the cigar and clothing industries, 1911 and 1912.
Bul. 137. Wages and hours of labor in the building and repairing of steam railroad cars, 1890 to 1912.
Bul. 143. Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 15, 1913.
Bul. 146. Wages and regularity of employment in the dress and waist industry of New York City.

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Wages and Hours of Labor—Concluded.

Bul. 147. Wages and regularity of employment in the cloak, suit, and skirt industry.
Bul. 150. Wages and hours of labor in the cotton, woolen, and silk industries, 1907 to 1913.
Bul. 151. Wages and hours of labor in the iron and steel industry in the United States, 1907 to 1912.
Bul. 153. Wages and hours of labor in the lumber, millwork, and furniture industries, 1907 to 1913.
Bul. 154. Wages and hours of labor in the boot and shoe and hosiery and underwear industries, 1907 to 1913.
Bul. 160. Hours, earnings, and conditions of labor of women in Indiana mercantile establishments and garment factories.
Bul. 161. Wages and hours of labor in the clothing and cigar industries, 1911 to 1913.
Bul. 163. Wages and hours of labor in the building and repairing of steam railroad cars, 1907 to 1913.
Bul. 168. Wages and hours of labor in the iron and steel industry in the United States, 1907 to 1913.
Bul. 171. Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 1, 1914.
Bul. 177. Wages and hours of labor in the hosiery and underwear industry, 1907 to 1914.
Bul. 178. Wages and hours of labor in the boot and shoe industry, 1907 to 1914.
Bul. 187. Wages and hours of labor in the men's clothing industry, 1911 to 1914.
Bul. 190. Wages and hours of labor in the cotton, woolen, and silk industries, 1907 to 1914.
Bul. 194. Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 1, 1915.
Bul. 204. Street railway employment in the United States.
Bul. 214. Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 15, 1916.
Bul. 218. Wages and hours of labor in the iron and steel industry, 1907 to 1915.
Bul. 225. Wages and hours of labor in the lumber, millwork, and furniture industries, 1915.
Bul. 232. Wages and hours of labor in the boot and shoe industry, 1907 to 1916.
Bul. 238. Wages and hours of labor in woolen and worsted goods manufacturing, 1916.
Bul. 239. Wages and hours of labor in cotton-goods manufacturing and finishing, 1916.
Bul. 245. Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 15, 1917.
Bul. 252. Wages and hours of labor in slaughtering and meat-packing industry.
Bul. 259. Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 15, 1918.
Bul. 260. Wages and hours of labor in the boot and shoe industry, 1907 to 1918.
Bul. 261. Wages and hours of labor in woolen and worsted goods manufacturing, 1918.
Bul. 262. Wages and hours of labor in cotton-goods manufacturing and finishing, 1918.
Bul. 265. Industrial survey in selected industries in the United States, 1919. Preliminary report.

Employment and Unemployment.

Bul. 109. Statistics of unemployment and the work of employment offices in the United States.
Bul. 172. Unemployment in New York City, N. Y.
Bul. 182. Unemployment among women in department and other retail stores of Boston, Mass.
Bul. 183. Regularity of employment in the women's ready-to-wear garment industries.
Bul. 192. Proceedings of the American Association of Public Employment Offices.
Bul. 195. Unemployment in the United States.
Bul. 196. Proceedings of the Employment Managers' Conference held at Minneapolis, January, 1916.

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Employment and Unemployment—Concluded.

Bul. 202. Proceedings of the conference of the Employment Managers' Association of Boston, Mass., held May 10, 1916.
Bul. 206. The British system of labor exchanges.
Bul. 220. Proceedings of the Fourth Annual Meeting of the American Association of Public Employment Offices, Buffalo, N. Y., July 20 and 21, 1916.
Bul. 223. Employment of women and juveniles in Great Britain during the war.
Bul. 227. Proceedings of the Employment Managers' Conference, Philadelphia, Pa., April 2 and 3, 1917.
Bul. 235. Employment system of the Lake Carriers' Association.
Bul. 241. Public employment offices in the United States.
Bul. 247. Proceedings of Employment Managers' Conference, Rochester, N. Y., May 9–11, 1918.

Women in Industry.

Bul. 116. Hours, earnings, and duration of employment of wage-earning women in selected industries in the District of Columbia.
Bul. 117. Prohibition of night work of young persons.
Bul. 118. Ten-hour maximum working day for women and young persons.
Bul. 119. Working hours of women in the pea canneries of Wisconsin.
Bul. 122. Employment of women in power laundries in Milwaukee.
Bul. 160. Hours, earnings, and conditions of labor of women in Indiana mercantile establishments and garment factories.
Bul. 167. Minimum-wage legislation in the United States and foreign countries.
Bul. 175. Summary of the report on condition of woman and child wage earners in the United States.
Bul. 176. Effect of minimum-wage determinations in Oregon.
Bul. 180. The boot and shoe industry in Massachusetts as a vocation for women.
Bul. 182. Unemployment among women in department and other retail stores of Boston, Mass.
Bul. 193. Dressmaking as a trade for women in Massachusetts.
Bul. 215. Industrial experience of trade-school girls in Massachusetts.
Bul. 223. Employment of women and juveniles in Great Britain during the war.
Bul. 253. Women in the lead industry.

Workmen's Insurance and Compensation (including laws relating thereto).

Bul. 101. Care of tuberculous wage earners in Germany.
Bul. 102. British National Insurance Act, 1911.
Bul. 103. Sickness and accident insurance law of Switzerland.
Bul. 107. Law relating to insurance of salaried employees in Germany.
Bul. 126. Workmen's compensation laws of the United States and foreign countries.
Bul. 155. Compensation for accidents to employees of the United States.
Bul. 185. Compensation legislation of 1914 and 1915.
Bul. 203. Workmen's compensation laws of the United States and foreign countries.
Bul. 210. Proceedings of the Third Annual Meeting of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions.
Bul. 212. Proceedings of the conference on social insurance called by the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions.
Bul. 217. Effect of workmen's compensation laws in diminishing the necessity of industrial employment of women and children.
Bul. 240. Comparison of workmen's compensation laws of the United States up to December 31, 1917.
Bul. 243. Workmen's compensation legislation in the United States and foreign countries, 1917 and 1918.
Bul. 248. Proceedings of the Fourth Annual Meeting of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions.
Bul. 264. Proceedings of the Fifth Annual Meeting of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions.

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Industrial Accidents and Hygiene.

Bul. 104. Lead poisoning in potteries, tile works, and porcelain enameled sanitary ware factories.
Bul. 120. Hygiene of the painters' trade.
Bul. 127. Dangers to workers from dusts and fumes, and methods of protection.
Bul. 141. Lead poisoning in the smelting and refining of lead.
Bul. 157. Industrial accident statistics.
Bul. 165. Lead poisoning in the manufacture of storage batteries.
Bul. 179. Industrial poisons used in the rubber industry.
Bul. 188. Report of British departmental committee on danger in the use of lead in the painting of buildings.
Bul. 201. Report of committee on statistics and compensation insurance cost of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions. [Limited edition.]
Bul. 205. Anthrax as an occupational disease.
Bul. 207. Causes of death, by occupation.
Bul. 209. Hygiene of the printing trades.
Bul. 216. Accidents and accident prevention in machine building.
Bul. 219. Industrial poisons used or produced in the manufacture of explosives.
Bul. 221. Hours, fatigue, and health in British munition factories.
Bul. 230. Industrial efficiency and fatigue in British munition factories.
Bul. 231. Mortality from respiratory diseases in dusty trades.
Bul. 234. Safety movement in the iron and steel industry, 1907 to 1917.
Bul. 236. Effect of the air hammer on the hands of stonecutters.
Bul. 251. Preventable death in the cotton manufacturing industry.
Bul. 256. Accidents and accident prevention in machine building. (Revised.)

Conciliation and Arbitration (including strikes and lockouts).

Bul. 124. Conciliation and arbitration in the building trades of Greater New York.
Bul. 133. Report of the industrial council of the British Board of Trade on its inquiry into industrial agreements.
Bul. 139. Michigan copper district strike.
Bul. 144. Industrial court of the cloak, suit, and skirt industry of New York City.
Bul. 145. Conciliation, arbitration, and sanitation in the dress and waist industry of New York City.
Bul. 191. Collective bargaining in the anthracite coal industry.
Bul. 198. Collective agreements in the men's clothing industry.
Bul. 233. Operation of the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act of Canada.

Labor Laws of the United States (including decisions of courts relating to labor).

Bul. 111. Labor legislation of 1912.
Bul. 112. Decisions of courts and opinions affecting labor, 1912.
Bul. 148. Labor laws of the United States, with decisions of courts relating thereto.
Bul. 152. Decisions of courts and opinions affecting labor, 1913.
Bul. 166. Labor legislation of 1914.
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Bul. 211. Labor laws and their administration in the Pacific States.
Bul. 213. Labor legislation of 1916.
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Bul. 246. Decisions of courts affecting labor, 1917.
Bul. 257. Labor legislation of 1918.
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Foreign Labor Laws.

Bul. 142. Administration of labor laws and factory inspection in certain European countries.

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Vocational Education.

Bul. 145. Conciliation, arbitration, and sanitation in the dress and waist industry of New York City.
Bul. 147. Wages and regularity of employment in the cloak, suit, and skirt industry.
Bul. 159. Short-unit courses for wage earners, and a factory school experiment.
Bul. 162. Vocational education survey of Richmond, Va.
Bul. 199. Vocational education survey of Minneapolis, Minn.

Labor as Affected by the War.

Bul. 170. Foreign food prices as affected by the war.
Bul. 219. Industrial poisons used or produced in the manufacture of explosives.
Bul. 221. Hours, fatigue, and health in British munition factories.
Bul. 222. Welfare work in British munition factories.
Bul. 223. Employment of women and juveniles in Great Britain during the war.
Bul. 230. Industrial efficiency and fatigue in British munition factories.
Bul. 237. Industrial unrest in Great Britain.
Bul. 249. Industrial health and efficiency. Final report of British Health of Munition Workers Committee.
Bul. 255. Joint standing industrial councils in Great Britain.

Miscellaneous Series.

Bul. 117. Prohibition of night work of young persons.
Bul. 118. Ten-hour maximum working day for women and young persons.
Bul. 123. Employers' welfare work.
Bul. 158. Government aid to home owning and housing of working people in foreign countries.
Bul. 159. Short-unit courses for wage earners, and a factory school experiment.
Bul. 167. Minimum-wage legislation in the United States and foreign countries.
Bul. 170. Foreign food prices as affected by the war.
Bul. 174. Subject index of the publications of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics up to May 1, 1915.
Bul. 208. Profit sharing in the United States.
Bul. 222. Welfare work in British munition factories.
Bul. 242. Food situation in Central Europe, 1917.
Bul. 250. Welfare work for employees in industrial establishments in the United States.
Bul. 254. International labor legislation and the society of nations.

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