

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR  
JAMES J. DAVIS, Secretary  
**BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS**  
ETHELBERT STEWART, Commissioner

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BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS }

MISCELLANEOUS SERIES

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

HELD AT NEW ORLEANS, LA.,  
MAY 2-6, 1921



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## OFFICERS, 1920-21.

*President*, Frank E. Hoffman, St. Paul, Minn.

*First vice president*, Frank E. Wood, New Orleans, La.

*Second vice president*, R. J. Stewart, Victoria, British Columbia, Canada.

*Third vice president*, Ethel M. Johnson, Boston, Mass.

*Fourth vice president*, Margaret Lewis, Calgary, Alberta, Canada.

*Fifth vice president*, H. H. Bye, Des Moines, Iowa.

*Secretary-treasurer*, Linna E. Bresette, Topeka, Kans.

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## 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.

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 (\$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.
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.

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.	Do.
8	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.	do.	Do.
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.	do.	Do.
5	August, 1891.	Cleveland, Ohio.	do.	Do.
6	September, 1892.	Hartford, Conn.	do.	Do.
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.	do.	Do.
10	September, 1896.	Toronto, Canada.	do.	Do.
11	August and September, 1897.	Detroit, Mich.	Rufus R. Wade.	Alzina P. Stevens.
12	September, 1898.	Boston, Mass.	do.	Joseph L. Cox.
13	August, 1899.	Quebec, Canada.	do.	Do.
14	October, 1900.	Indianapolis, Ind.	do.	Do.
15	September, 1901.	Niagara Falls, N. Y.	do.	Do.
16	December, 1902.	Charleston, S. C.	do.	Do.
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. McLean.	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.

**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.
8	May, 1921.....	New Orleans, La.....	Frank E. Hoffman.....	Do.

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## PROCEEDINGS OF THE EIGHTH ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE ASSOCIATION OF GOVERNMENTAL LABOR OFFICIALS OF THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA, NEW ORLEANS, LA., MAY 2-6, 1921.

As no stenographic report was made of the proceedings of the Eighth Annual Convention of the Association of Governmental Labor Officials of the United States and Canada, which met in New Orleans in May, 1921, the following account is devoted almost entirely to the papers read at the various sessions. Frank E. Hoffman, president of the association, presided at all the sessions.

### *MONDAY, MAY 2—MORNING SESSION.*

At the first session on Monday morning, May 2, 1921, W. A. Bell, of the Chamber of Commerce of New Orleans, addressed the convention and the president of the association responded; committees were also appointed.

### *MONDAY, MAY 2—AFTERNOON SESSION.*

#### **INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS.**

BY GEORGE P. HAMBRECHT, CHAIRMAN WISCONSIN INDUSTRIAL COMMISSION.

Management can not shut its eyes to the organized struggle of labor for better and more stable industrial conditions, nor should labor ignore the problem of management in directing industrial production. The problems arising out of our complex industrial situation will not be intelligently solved by either group working alone, presenting, as each group has in the past, extreme ultimatums to the other group, threatening paralysis to the entire industrial structure until the ultimatum is met. Surely a better plan can be devised for the satisfaction of each group and for the benefit of the public.

It occurs to me that a voluntary industrial conference committee made up of equal numbers of employers and employees, with such public representatives as they may agree upon, will go a long way toward settling some of the many difficult questions arising out of the industrial problems of reconstruction following the close of the World War. Reorganization and reconstruction of industrial con-

ditions now in progress are causing considerable embarrassment to management and genuine hardship to labor. At this time approximately 70,000 men are idle in Wisconsin; about 30,000 of this number are in and about Milwaukee. The industrial commission is assisting in every way it can to help in the solution of the question of unemployment, and it is being aided by cooperative committees made up of representatives of employers' organizations and of labor organizations, respectively, all working through the several public employment bureaus throughout the State—11 in number. When the condition was reversed during the war period and labor was scarce the commission was further aided by a State advisory board on employment, made up of equal numbers representing both management and labor.

The cost of living to labor, threatened with the problem of unemployment and reduced wage scales, the fluctuating cost of materials to manufacturers, and the uncertain marketing conditions now prevailing render the present industrial situation a hardship to labor and a serious business problem for management. Both employers and employees are now confronted, and have been for some time past, with serious industrial problems vitally affecting the present and future policies of correct industrial relations. Employers throughout the country have local boards working on the problem, endeavoring to revive and maintain industrial activity. Labor organizations have similar committees working to improve labor conditions, having in mind the permanent and best interests of the workers during and following the period of industrial stress. These boards and committees are working, in the main, independent of each other, neither emphasizing the problem of the other, but each chiefly concerned with its own peculiar situation and surrounding difficulties. Often each group blames the other for conditions which both might remedy by a better understanding of each other. As this condition progresses, many misunderstandings between the respective groups develop and a considerable number of cases of strained relations, unjust suspicions, and bitterness creep in.

Employers, employees, and the public are all vitally interested in final policies to be adopted in the reorganization of industry, and each should take the other into consideration through conference on the many industrial questions involved in order to avoid further misunderstandings and bitterness. And it occurs to me that a voluntary committee, representing both employers and employees, equal in number, should be created in order to frankly and freely discuss the many problems arising out of our complex industrial situation, each representative element of the committee having due regard for the rights and responsibilities of the other and each presenting to the other its many problems with reference to industrial and living conditions. This committee, of perhaps six in number, shall be chosen, three by the employers of labor, through their recognized State associations, and three by the central trades labor council, so as to make the committee thoroughly representative, the six so chosen to add such public representatives as may be agreed upon.

The industrial commission would cooperate with such a committee in every way possible to bring about a workable industrial program

for Wisconsin, with a mutual understanding between the parties to industry, and, as I believe, with permanent benefit to both. Personally I feel that a conference committee of this kind would result ultimately in industrial harmony, and through industrial harmony alone can a community, a State, or a nation permanently progress.

The commission will do everything in its power to assist in carrying out the true purposes of such an industrial conference committee once organized. Much of the work of the industrial commission is now carried on in many of its departments assisted by joint committees of employers and employees as herein outlined. In fact, section 2394-52(8) of the statutes provides, among other things, that the industrial commission may organize such a committee on its own motion in case of labor disputes, lockouts, strikes, and serious labor trouble. The conference committee as suggested here, however, is to avoid industrial trouble rather than attempt to remedy conditions after such trouble starts through misunderstandings or bitterness. This industrial conference committee, if organized, could be of great assistance to legislative committees working on industrial problems, and any affirmative program recommended by such conference committee would be welcomed and given great weight by the legislature. It would result in a constructive, intelligent movement for good industrial and labor legislation.

I suggested the plan above outlined to groups of employers and labor officials shortly after the signing of the armistice in 1918, but at that time it was generally thought by the employers that industrial conditions would result in a more complete understanding of the problems common to both labor and capital, and the suggestions then made were not given serious consideration. Experience has shown, however, the error in this conclusion.

It is true that many attempts have been made, both nationally and locally, subsequent to the signing of the armistice to secure industrial conference committees, but the personnel of most of these conferences was "selected" by some public official, or official body, and was not "representative" in the sense that chosen delegates would be. The industrial conference committee suggested in this address should be representative in every sense of the word, and the interests affected should name their own delegates to the conference, with the idea of working out a constructive industrial program, and I do not think such conference would waste its time quarreling about nonessentials. In fact, my experience in this field of work has led me to conclude that there are more points of contact affecting a community of interest between management and labor than there are points of difference. Even the points of difference can better be harmonized in the manner here suggested than by the present method of enlarging each grievance before willing ears, arousing the baser passions and prejudices of one group against the other. Neither group has any monopoly on truth, nor does either group hold within its own membership the complete knowledge necessary for a final and equitable solution of the industrial problems, but each group has constructive ideas worthy of serious consideration by the other.

I firmly believe that the industrial situation throughout the country would be in better shape to-day if labor, management, and the public had grappled with the situation as outlined in this recommendation

before bitterness and misunderstandings had crept in. What we need to-day is a constructive program for greater intelligent production, having due regard for greater conservation of human energy spread over a lifetime, all based on a program of fair play to labor, capital, and the public. This can be worked out effectually only through mutual conferences of the best minds in the three groups. Each group must thoroughly understand and appreciate the viewpoint of the other. First having due regard for the health, welfare, and comfort of the individual worker, conserving human energy in the most efficient manner, then each group should encourage maximum efficiency so as to maintain a high standard of intelligent production. The wage question, which includes the equitable distribution of the net proceeds from production, is important, and I believe can be adjusted through mutual conferences involving all of the elements above outlined. If each party to such conference is firmly imbued with the idea of fair play and honesty of purpose, I feel confident of right results.

Another difficulty I see with the many recent conferences heretofore had, which appear to follow the line of thought in this address, and where failure has resulted, is that these industrial conferences were called after strikes were threatened and after bitterness had developed, often after an actual strike had been called and a walkout of workers resulted. The parties to the conference then entered into consultation either in a fighting and antagonistic mood or else in the attitude of shrewd bargainers, tinctured with malice, to get the better of each other, if possible.

The industrial conference here suggested should be brought about before industrial trouble starts, rather than after—a voluntary conference rather than a forced one—in order to work out a just and equitable program for sound industrial relations. In all this kind of work, however, we find that human selfishness is an obstacle to a more correct understanding of each other's viewpoint. If the parties to this conference entered it with an honesty of purpose to better industrial conditions and to make the golden rule our guide in fact as we all hold it to be in precept, then success and better industrial conditions for all would surely result.

## THE FUTURE OF LABOR STATISTICS.

BY ETHELBERT STEWART, UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF LABOR STATISTICS.

In discussing the subject of "The future of labor statistics" I want also to indicate in brief something of my idea as to the character of the labor statistics of the future, after people realize what an entire change, if not reversal, of industrial and economic methods and practices must result from the great upheaval which we have come to call the World War. It is not my intention to go into the question of the extent to which that war was brought about as the result of the idea of production for selling rather than for using.

We are in the midst of a readjustment not only of industrial and economic conditions, but also of our entire mental attitude toward the very purposes of the institutions which in the aggregate we call civilization. To begin with, let us realize that we are not facing a crisis, as we so often say, but that we are in a crisis, that it is all around us and all through us, and that we are a part of it. Like in the poem the bird that was unable to find the air and the fish that could not locate the sea, one of the greatest difficulties in a mental readjustment is and always has been that man is practically incapable of seeing the things that are closest to him. Another difficulty grows out of the natural yearning for the things to which we have been accustomed. Let us realize and accept, as accept we must, not only the fact that this nation, and perhaps a score of other nations great and small, has gone through war, but also the fact that every nation on the globe, civilized or uncivilized, whether or not it was actively engaged in the conflict, has gone through a war. Let us accept the lesson of all history and all time—that every war is followed by another war; that is to say, every physical conflict is followed by a mental conflict, in which with every fiber of our being and every instinct of our souls we resent, whether consciously or unconsciously, the requirements of readjustment, and waste our energies in yearning for the return of a dead past.

To-day the world is grieving over and longing for the good old days before the war. You of the Southland know what that means. In your case it meant 30, 40, 50 years of struggle against the inevitable, of holding back from a hopeful, prosperous, happy future to weep over a past that could not be brought back by tears and which, after all, was neither hopeful, prosperous, nor happy. You had simply gotten used to it—that is all. You had adjusted yourselves to it and did not want a change. That is the situation in the whole world to-day. We are trying to get back to the good old days before the war, which were not good old days and which can not return. The sooner we realize that the World War has made necessary a new world norm the sooner we will be able to arrive at

a basis upon which economic conditions can be stabilized and a normal condition attained to that basis may be reached. I am of the opinion that the phrase, "getting back to normal," is an unhappy and an unfortunate one, if by getting back to normal is meant the conditions in 1913. Personally I do not believe it is possible. I believe it is simply another way, another form, of weeping over the good old days before the war. Heaven knows I am as desirous as anyone of reaching a normal, but I would reach forward and not backward for it. Before we can readjust to a new normal we must know what we mean by normal. If the Sabbath was made for man rather than man for the Sabbath, then the Sabbath must be shaped to man's requirements and held within the limits of his needs. If the institutions which in the aggregate we call civilization are made for man, as they certainly have been created by man, they must be prevented from becoming unharnessed, unbridled, unhaltered wild horses on his hands. You will remember, those of you who attended the fifth annual convention of this association at Des Moines, Iowa, that in discussing the proposal to fix rates of wages within certain zones I said:

Let us see further where this would lead us. An attempt to control prices of the commodities that go into the living expenses of a workman's family means that you must regulate production, and that means, in the last analysis, that you must have statistics of the per capita consumption of the various articles included, and that you must regulate your production on the basis of that per capita consumption. In other words, your whole machinery will have to be not only regulated but controlled by labor statistics, taking the term in its broader sense.

I firmly believe that when the same intelligence has been applied to production that has been given to commerce—in other words, when we use as much brains in making things as we do in selling them—a new realization of the value of labor statistics will begin to dawn upon us. So far we have exemplified in our economic life the story of the young pupil who, when his teacher asked, "Abraham, if Opportunity should knock at your door to-day what would you do?" answered, "I would sell her something." The time will come when our economic ambition will be not for opportunity to sell something, but to produce and distribute intelligently, which, in the last analysis, means statistically.

It may interest you to know that in his address as president of the American Statistical Association at its annual meeting in Atlantic City, December 29, 1920, Mr. George E. Roberts, vice president of the National City Bank of New York, speaking of the value of statistical information, said:

There is a mass psychology so subtle and dominating in its influence that the individual judgment is unconsciously swayed. When everybody is thinking along the same lines the normal checks and correctives are wanting. We need something outside of our own mental atmosphere by which to keep our bearings, and that something is lacking when public opinion is all running one way. It creates a current of influence so strong that independent opinion is submerged and inactive. Under such conditions a mass movement is likely to swing so far that this voluntary, flexible, highly organized business organization is thrown out of balance. A period of expansion is likely to overleap itself, and when reaction comes the pendulum swings as far in the other direction. Appearances are very deceptive. The demand for goods is highly elastic, as every line of business has had occasion to observe during the past year. While certain wants of the population are imperative and must be supplied from day to day, others may be deferred.

Later on in the same address he said :

A knowledge of the fact that there is a normal state of equilibrium throughout industry, which affords a basis of just and harmonious cooperation between all classes; that no class has anything to gain, and every class is certain to lose by a disturbance of the equilibrium, would of itself be a great stabilizing influence. It would tend to narrow the scope of industrial disputes, eliminate the ideas of class conflict and international rivalry, and develop a spirit of loyalty among all classes to the unified organization which is serving the whole social body. The more completely each individual can have the picture of this great organization in all its ramifications and workings, and of his own part in it, the more fully will he appreciate his own responsibilities to it and the better will his work be done.

The most effective means of setting forth the accomplishments of this industrial organization and the distribution of benefits, is by the form of \* \* \* statistics. No other form of information admits of such concentration, or when properly prepared is at once so simple, comprehensive, unequivocal, and conclusive. A single table of figures may not prove everything that it is offered to prove, but it is definite information so far as it goes, and if it is used improperly the remedy is in more information of the same definite kind.

The greater part of the discord and contention which exists throughout society to-day is due to misstatements about matters of fact, when the truth ought to be made known beyond the possibility of controversy. The public should have authoritative information, supplied without prejudice or argument, about all the matters that have to do with our social relations and that throw light upon the service of the industrial organization.

\* \* \* It would show the outside possibilities that lie in division of present production and indicate the extent to which resort must be had to greater production. This problem underlies the principal controversies of the day, and it is possible to obtain the facts and put them in form readily accessible and easily comprehended.

\* \* \* \* \*

Finally, comes the problem of strengthening the industrial organization, of coordinating its activities to promote both economy and stability, of safeguarding its operations by providing definite information for its guidance, thus eliminating to a greater degree the uncertainties and the exaggerations which are so largely responsible for the extreme movements. The more accurately the business world can be informed about production in all branches and about commodity stocks, current distribution, and consumption the less likelihood there will be of any undue development that will carry it out of balance.

Finally, and more specifically, and more closely allied to our subject to-day, under the caption of "Plotting the wants of society," he said :

This field, wherein information is to be gathered, organized, interpreted, and put into shape for the guidance of business, is the field of the statistician. It is a field for more than routine work; it is a field for scientific study. The work is that of mapping the industrial field, of plotting the wants and resources of society, and of setting those wants and resources over against each other in a manner so informing and so graphic as to secure the best practicable adjustment of one to the other.

In the mad effort to produce and sell without any accurate information as to the amount of each commodity required by the people of this country or of the world, we run factories long hours and on night shifts and the result is to produce unemployment and panics. We are just now struggling with one of those epidemics of enforced idleness, with one of those waves of unemployment and a greater wave of partial unemployment that must of necessity come periodically unless the volume of possible human consumption of the various articles shall have been definitely ascertained and the volume of output regulated to this consuming or purchasing power.

Perhaps the best illustration of just what I mean by overdevelopment of industry and mad production without reference to possible

consumption, need, or use is to be found in the bituminous coal fields. Let us for a minute glance at the situation there.

The highest point ever reached in the industry was the week of July 7-13, 1918, and the percentage of capacity production for that week was 86.8; for the month of July, 1918, it was 84.4. It was the impossibility of full-time employment for all the workers in the industry under the very best conditions, a fact which every miner faces every day and which makes life a terror to him, that his representatives have seemed unable to make clear. It has been admitted that the normal marketable demand for bituminous coal, including exports, was about 500,000,000 tons; the present productive capacity of mines as now organized is 715,000,000 tons. It has been shown not only that the industry is 40 per cent overdeveloped but also that it is 25 per cent overmanned, and that during even the best years there are from 100,000 to 125,000 mine workers who can work only when some of the other 500,000 are not working. In Illinois and Iowa, and wherever the union membership is coextensive with the employees in the industry, that membership is in excess of 100 per cent of the highest average of total employees actually engaged. In other words, unemployment is chronic and a vast amount of total or partial idleness unavoidable. The overdevelopment of mines is also hopelessly chronic.

In 1917 the United States Geological Survey collected coal statistics from 10,634 mines. Of these, 3,695 were small mines supplying a purely local need. Their combined production was but 1,625,006 net tons. These comprise the "wagon mines" and "coal banks," worked only in winter. They are found in considerable numbers in nearly all coal-producing States—in Ohio, 708; in Illinois, 266; Indiana, 178; Pennsylvania, 572; Kentucky, 614; West Virginia, 455. They irritate the industrial situation but do not seriously complicate the economic or commercial problems. The 6,939 so-called commercial mines reporting to the Geological Survey are classified according to production, mines producing more than 200,000 net tons being designated as first class, those producing from 100,000 to 200,000 as second class, and so on. In 1917 there were 792 of these "first-class" mines; these constituted 7.5 per cent of all mines covered, but produced 51.7 per cent of the coal. But only 243 days' operation was averaged by all mines in 1917. If the mines of the first class had operated 304 days they would have produced 356,706,300 tons of the normal necessary 500,000,000 tons the country requires.

In the central competitive field, however, the situation is more tense than is indicated by the above. In Illinois, for instance, 761 mines report to the Geological Survey. There are 154, or 20.2 per cent, of these in the first class. This 20.2 per cent of the mines produced 79.7 per cent of the coal mined in the State, operating an average of 77 per cent of the time. Had these 154 mines operated 304 days in 1917 they would have produced 89,236,000 net tons, or more than 3,000,000 tons in excess of the total actual output of all the mines in the State; or if we take 1916 for the entire United States (when 502,519,682 tons or about the normal salable amount of coal was produced) as the "normal" year, then this 20 per cent of the mines in Illinois could produce 23,000,000 tons more than the State's entire

quota, or over 33 per cent more than it did produce. The money invested, the operating expenses, and the labor supply of the other 607 mines of Illinois, or 80 per cent, would appear, therefore, to represent the unnecessary growth which, because unnecessary, becomes essentially parasitic upon the industry. "Car shortage" was the principal reason for the fact that Illinois mines operated only 243 days, but if 154 mines could have produced all of the coal normally salable, then the entire time loss and cost of car distribution to 341 other mines scattered throughout the State (excluding the 266 purely local "banks") would probably have so conserved "car time" as to have provided enough cars for Illinois to keep the necessary mines running 304 days in the year. As things stand, however, 154, or 20 per cent, of the mines of Illinois can, on the basis of the 1917 output, produce 89,236,000 net tons of coal in 304 days, while the State's entire contribution to a normal year's requirement is 66,195,336 tons. In Ohio 61 first-class mines out of a total of 1,407, or 4.3 per cent of the mines, produced 43.4 per cent of the coal. These mines of Ohio worked but 210 out of a possible 304 days in 1917; that is to say, 69 per cent of full operating time. Had these 61 mines operated 304 days they would have produced 25,632,200 tons. The entire output of all mines in the "normal" year 1916 was 31,995,913 tons. Here again the "car-time" loss to unnecessary mines would have more than met the "car shortage" which it is alleged reduced by 94 days the possible running time of these mines. In Indiana 52 out of 414, or 12.6 per cent, of the mines produced 62.9 per cent of the total output in 1917, or 16,708,099 net tons, operating 221 days, or 72.7 per cent of full time. Had they run 304 days they would have produced 22,982,200 net tons. This is practically 2,900,000 tons more than the total output of the State in the "normal" year 1916. The 362 additional mines in Indiana contributed much to the "car shortage" through car-time loss in distribution and to the surplus which rendered the mines of Indiana idle 83 days out of the year.

This much on overdevelopment in the "basing" field seemed necessary to make clear the workman's point of view when he insists that the "30-hour week," if not the specific for the disease that has attacked this admittedly "diseased industry," is the best immediate remedy. For however badly their leaders stated it the coal miners were seeking more work, not less, and to them the "30-hour week" meant a guaranteed minimum of work.

While their capacity figures are for 1917, the changes effected up to 1920 were for greater overdevelopment of mine productive capacity and hence tend to further aggravate conditions. The majority report of the Bituminous Coal Commission concedes that "the coal industry is a part-time industry, the number of idle days, out of a possible 308 working days [the productivity of mines above noted has been figured on a 304-day year] being 63 in 1918 and 115 in 1919. On the average for the past 30 years the number of possible working days when the mines were not in operation was 93."

The situation in the coal fields is precisely the situation in the flour-milling industry, the boot and shoe industry, and in the building trades. That production in practically all of the industries except agriculture has outstripped the growth in population of the United States was forcibly brought out in the following table which occurs

in a paper read by Mr. Edmund E. Day before the American Statistical Association at its convention held in Atlantic City in December, 1920:

INDEX NUMBERS OF THE GROWTH OF POPULATION AND THE PHYSICAL VOLUME OF PRODUCTION OF MANUFACTURED PRODUCTS AND OF MINING AND AGRICULTURE, 1899 TO 1919.

[1899=100.]

Year.	Growth of population.	Manufactured products.										Mining.	Agriculture.		
		Lumber.	Food.	Textiles.	Tobacco.	Liquors.	Stone, clay, and glass.	Iron and steel.	Chemicals and allied products.	Metal products other than iron and steel.	Vehicles.			All products.	
1899.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1900.....	101.8	98.1	100.7	100.6	106.5	105.7	105.4	95.5	102.6	102.3	117.4	101.0	105.7	100.6	100.6
1901.....	103.8	96.2	123.1	101.5	112.9	112.9	125.2	117.5	115.5	113.1	147.2	112.4	114.6	89.3	113.7
1902.....	106.0	94.3	117.3	116.0	118.1	120.9	142.0	133.3	130.2	145.8	183.3	123.5	122.7	136.3	116.0
1903.....	108.1	92.4	124.5	115.8	126.0	125.6	143.1	130.2	138.6	142.4	210.3	125.5	135.0	105.0	117.5
1904.....	110.3	90.7	125.0	116.1	126.8	129.4	146.8	120.4	146.6	141.4	186.5	123.2	136.3	116.0	117.5
1905.....	112.4	87.4	141.3	129.2	128.4	137.6	165.3	164.2	165.5	163.9	284.4	144.4	161.6	117.5	125.0
1906.....	114.5	109.1	142.1	130.4	138.2	149.4	178.4	178.7	180.4	184.7	356.7	155.0	169.9	125.0	124.4
1907.....	116.7	115.8	132.2	131.9	141.8	153.6	177.4	179.7	184.4	161.8	430.5	156.3	185.9	112.4	118.8
1908.....	118.9	112.4	136.2	121.5	136.3	149.3	155.3	167.7	182.0	148.5	498.8	132.7	154.2	118.8	118.1
1909.....	121.0	126.2	144.3	149.2	143.6	151.5	192.6	171.8	199.2	192.6	354.5	163.4	189.4	118.1	123.2
1910.....	123.1	123.2	134.3	141.2	150.7	161.6	200.7	183.2	189.6	198.4	522.2	166.0	201.6	117.0	138.1
1911.....	125.3	116.1	140.4	130.3	153.7	165.6	193.2	159.6	208.3	199.0	377.6	158.3	194.4	117.0	138.1
1912.....	127.4	118.7	149.5	148.4	158.6	168.5	204.0	201.0	233.4	216.3	650.6	181.4	216.7	138.1	132.1
1913.....	129.6	113.4	151.0	155.8	169.1	173.4	211.2	211.2	240.6	223.9	769.8	187.1	227.2	132.1	141.0
1914.....	131.6	101.8	152.7	157.3	165.0	164.5	193.8	161.3	238.8	200.3	657.8	171.4	202.6	135.0	141.0
1915.....	133.2	95.6	169.7	167.8	158.8	158.3	208.6	205.3	247.8	248.1	747.4	187.2	227.6	141.0	124.9
1916.....	134.8	100.6	150.8	207.6	173.4	163.8	238.1	268.9	294.8	319.0	1,304.6	218.6	267.0	135.0	138.1
1917.....	136.5	90.5	159.5	201.4	188.8	151.2	227.5	262.7	299.0	305.0	1,483.3	215.2	277.2	135.0	133.2
1918.....	138.1	80.4	194.2	202.7	183.0	105.0	200.5	267.9	353.8	343.5	1,019.5	214.0	279.6	133.2	137.6
1919.....	139.7	85.5	191.1	190.7	176.0	.....	178.8	212.7	282.2	296.1	1,373.8	195.3	228.4	137.6	137.6

This table, however, refers to production and not to the productive capacity of plants. The capacity to produce measures the extent to which sudden spurts of production may go as a result of artificial or psychological booms. This in turn, of course, measures the extent of the sudden overemployment and at the same time shortens the period of time that this excessive number of persons can be employed.

In the matter of productive capacity as against production: The pig-iron capacity of a certain group of plants in 1901 was 7,440,000 tons. In that year the production for the same group was 6,855,731 tons, or practically the capacity of the plants. In 1914 the capacity had reached 16,740,000 tons with an output of 10,000,000 tons; in 1915 the capacity was 17,000,000 tons and the output 13,641,000 tons. In 1916 the capacity was 17,930,000 tons and the output was 17,607,637 tons, perhaps the closest approximation that production has ever come to capacity on any large scale. This, however, resulted in the immediate increase of capacity to 18,400,000 tons in 1917, though the production dropped to 15,600,000 tons. The same capacity existed in 1918 and 1919; in 1918 the production was practically 16,000,000 tons, dropping to 13,637,000 in 1919 and 14,532,000 in 1920. The cement-manufacturing capacity of a certain group of plants is 13,500,000 barrels of cement. The production has ranged from 1915 to 1920 from a minimum of 7,648,000 to a maximum of 11,960,000 barrels.

If unemployment is to be controlled excessive production must be controlled, and excessive production can be controlled only when reasonably accurate statistics of consumption are available, and here lies one of the fields for the expansion and increased value of labor statistics in the future. Cost-of-living surveys, in which the family budgets of a large number of families in various parts of the country were taken, have been made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for their practical usefulness in developing wage agreements and in settling wage difficulties. They were undertaken primarily with the idea of throwing some light upon what we mean by the American standard of living. They were an attempt to put some meaning into the term "a living wage." It is only now that we begin to see the far-reaching influence that investigations of this character may have toward such an organization of industry as will fulfill the needs of man without entrapping him—in other words, an adjustment of production to consumption. Heretofore these family budgets have been analyzed in terms of averages, and these figures, so far as they refer to the average standard consumption per family, have been published. It is becoming apparent, however, as the throes of industrial readjustment proceed, that these investigations will prove a gold mine of practical information of a statistical character. Besides the information that the average family of the wageworker class consumes 8.8 pounds of salmon per year, which is used simply to arrive at the cost of living, it is worth something to know that 60.8 per cent of the families use canned salmon, while 39.2 per cent do not use it at all; that the average number of pounds purchased by those purchasing is  $14\frac{1}{2}$  pounds, and that the development in this industry must be along the line of inducing a greater percentage of families to use this class of food.

I can not of course go over all of the items of the budgets of the bureau, but let us take a few. What seems to me to be a mine of useful information here in guiding production may be best illustrated by the article which we schedule as bedsteads. The figures published show that there is two-tenths of a bedstead purchased every year per family on the average. This of course is mere arithmetic and not what we could call statistics at all. What it indicates is that a family buys a bedstead about once in five years. However, the actual figures show that 18.5 per cent of the families will buy bedsteads during the year and that the families actually purchasing purchase an average of 1.2 bedsteads per year. Taking into consideration the practically 25,000,000 families found in the United States by the census of 1920, and also the other fact that there are practically 1,200,000 marriages in the United States per year on the average, based on our present population, it would seem to be entirely possible to come reasonably close to the number of bedsteads that can be sold to our own people in any one year, and furniture factories could adjust their business along these lines. Our figures could be thus applied to all the products of a furniture factory, and this would enable the business to be so organized as to put out the necessary number of articles, such as bedsteads, for instance, and the plant to be so equipped that it would do this in 12 months instead of 3. The Bureau of Labor Statistics possesses the material from

which statistical data of this character can be shown for practically every article of food, clothing, and furniture, and almost everything else used in the household. If the principle obtained throughout the entire range of production, that output should bear some relation to possible usage, we might be able to know what fixed employment is possible in the manufacturing and mechanical industries on a full-time basis and ultimately to equalize production throughout the year, so that there need be little, if any, unemployment in standard lines.

Further than this the bureau possesses information as to the quantities purchased of all articles which it lists, according to the income of the family groups. For instance, we can tell you what proportion of the families having an income of \$900 per annum or less would purchase carpets during the year, the amount they would purchase, and the price they would be able to pay. We have seven of these income groups, and it is remarkable, in the item of carpets, for instance, how the number of yards and the price increase from one family income group to the next higher income group. The percentage of those purchasing is not seriously changed by the income, but the quality and quantity are determined for each article by this factor.

Not only do we possess this material by income groups but by geographical districts, and sometime when the manufacturers are as anxious to work the year round, as the workers are, they will learn that their business must be planned along the lines of information such as I have indicated.

I hear the objection that I have ignored the question of export, but the difficulty here is, as we are beginning to realize, that with the exception of agriculture all of the countries which fit into our general term "civilized" are as overdeveloped along manufacturing lines as is our own, and that if they are to meet their unemployment problems they must meet them in a similar way. Germany has offered to pay her war indemnity in goods rather than in money, which will be refused, if it has not already been, because the countries to which she owes these sums can not accept her goods. It would mean that Germany would be the only country whose factories were running and that the payment of the indemnity in goods would only increase the unemployment, resulting in social and political danger to the countries receiving this form of payment.

There is another field for the labor statistics of the future, and after all it is more or less akin to that just discussed. In determining the equipment necessary to produce all of society's requirements it will be necessary to know how many men can be employed for 12 months in the year in each industry. To determine this it will be necessary to know what the detailed output of a man's labor really is.

May it not be true that we are neglecting the most practical, the easiest, and the simplest method of solution of the output problem? For years the slogan of both capital and labor has been "A fair day's wage for a fair day's work." Statistics on cost of living have enabled us for a number of years past to be fairly definite in fixing a fair day's wage on the basis of living costs. I venture to say, however, that there is practically nothing tangible in any large industry that can be used to determine what is a fair day's

work. We have standardized but one end of our problem and left the other dangling in the air.

What I wish particularly to call attention to now is that what constitutes a fair day's work can be ascertained in any industry or any occupation; that employers and employees can as readily agree upon a fair day's work as upon a fair day's wage; that each industry has the means at its disposal for ascertaining a fair day's work; and my proposition is that these be written into the agreements or made the subjects of subsidiary agreements between employers and employees.

I have in mind a very recent experiment along this line. In a men's clothing establishment employing a large number of people the 1921 wage scale was agreed upon, the wage scale merely intimating that a standard of output would be made the subject of a subagreement. This subagreement was worked out by a committee of workers, selected by the employees and the labor manager and other representatives of the employers, who developed a standard basic output for each operation. It lists all operations in the making of a coat or a suit of clothes, the agreed output for 1920 and the agreed output for 1921. The increases in the agreed output for 1921 over the agreed output for 1920 range, in cases where any change at all was made, from 4 per cent to as high as 51 per cent in one case. This is a basic output and entitles the operative to earn the standard weekly wage in this factory. For those who can produce more there are other grades. For instance, this standard, or what would be called in the printing trade a "dead line," is known as "class A." To reach the output in class A entitles one to the standard weekly wage. To enter class B one must produce 10 per cent above the standard for a period of three weeks in succession. Class C is for those whose production averages 20 per cent above the standard for three weeks. Class D is for those whose output reaches 30 per cent above the standard for a period of three weeks. The pay is increased for each of these grades in an amount equivalent to the increased output. In this particular factory standard A is not exactly a dead line. A person who is unable to make class A and whose output falls to 20 per cent below class A output for a period of three weeks is put into a subgrade, practically a learners' group, where such person remains until the output is increased to standard.

You may ask, "What is the difference between this and piece rates?" The answer is that it does not drive the workers to anything like the extent that piecework does; it does not tend to reduce piece rates if one does produce a large output; and it has, what to my mind is a much more important thing, the moral advantage of being an agreed fair day's work for a fair day's wage.

In a great many industries output has been a part of the collective bargaining, a part of the agreement; and if it can be done in so complicated an industry as the clothing industry, it is rather absurd to say that it can not be done in the building trades and in a great many, if not all, of the various industries.

TUESDAY, MAY 3—MORNING SESSION.

## CHILD LABOR AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

### CHILD-LABOR PROBLEMS.

BY ESTHER LEE RIDER, CHILD-LABOR INSPECTOR, MONTGOMERY, ALA.

The problems confronting any official empowered with the enforcement of labor laws are manifold, as all who have had experience in work of this character will agree. The problems encountered by a child-labor official are more complex, I sometimes think, because the entire success of safeguarding the health and welfare of the future industrial forces of our country depends so largely upon how carefully and how thoroughly we protect the children from premature and harmful employment.

The present Alabama child-labor law, which is enforced by the child labor division of the State child-welfare department, was enacted by the legislature of 1919, and constitutes a very great amplification over the child-labor law which preceded it. The law was enacted with a minimum opposition as a consequence of careful and skillful work on the part of several untiring champions of the cause who understood the temperament of the people and had been careful in establishing the principles of child-labor reform in the mind of the public for several years. The measure was a popular one when it was enacted, and it has been the greatest problem of our division to keep it so, and yet enforce it most vigorously and rigorously. No matter how constructive a bit of legislation the child-labor law of Alabama may be, the full value of it can never be received unless its enforcement is backed by public sentiment. The chief concern of our division has been to convince the people that the future industrial progress of Alabama is inseparable from the adequacy with which those laws protecting the future industrial forces are enforced. In order to be safe in maintaining unquestionable public support, it has been our policy to go forward slowly but surely.

Child-labor protection and prohibition in Alabama are measures yet much too recent to be so well established in the minds of the general public that the vigorous enforcement of them is accepted without opposition; therefore it has been considered a more important part of our child-labor program to be very active in the education of the public mind to a point of automatic cooperation rather than to keep up a continual police duty over the present and prospective employers of children. Three important groups of people must first be educated with greatest care if our child labor law is to be enforced effectively. These are: (1) The schools, (2) the local officials, (3) the employers of children. Our greatest problem has been to secure the cooperation of these three groups.

To secure the cooperation of the schools should be the least of our difficulties, but this is untrue for several reasons, the main one of which is that the teachers have not fully awakened to a social consciousness of their responsibility for the destiny of the child beyond that of the schoolroom. Alabama has a compulsory school attendance law, which requires all children who have not completed the common-school course of study to attend school until they are 16 years of age except such children 14 years of age or over who have completed the fourth grade and who have been granted a work permit and have entered employment. A rigid enforcement of this law would prevent half of the child-labor violations which occur annually in the State. Many of the other half of the violations could be prevented by the proper issuance of the work permits, which is the duty of the school principals. The fact that the issuance of these work permits is the duty of the schools affords one of the very best checks possible in determining whether those children who leave school for employment are educationally qualified to be exempted from attendance. Also, a very valuable opportunity is afforded the school authorities to extend the much-needed vocational guidance to the child who is about to leave school for work. They could be of invaluable assistance to the child in helping him to avoid the blind-alley occupations which offer so little opportunity for advancement.

It has been our aim never to lose an opportunity to meet with the teachers' organizations to interest and instruct them in the requirements of the law and its inseparableness from the attendance law. We never fail to impress upon every body of teachers before whom we appear that their duty extends beyond the schoolroom, that they must feel more and more responsible for the destiny of the child who drops out of school, that it is as much their duty to instruct the child concerning obtaining suitable employment in conformity to the child-labor law as it is to instruct him in any of the subjects included in the school curriculum. The school-attendance officers should see that the child who has been granted an employment certificate and who may soon grow tired of his job and leave it does not remain idle, free to roam the streets excused from school. A work permit must not signify that he has been granted license to be exempted from school except only so long as he is employed. Our child-labor inspectors always try to work in cooperation with the attendance officers in rounding up those children, many of whom can be returned to school. The school should not lose sight of the child just because he has been granted a work permit. In one of our cities where a few months ago we made a very thorough miscellaneous inspection, it was found that more than half the children who were illegally employed had not obtained the necessary work permit. It was a plain fact that the situation was resultant of too lax enforcement of the school attendance law. We lost no time in showing to the superintendent of schools in that city that if they had been sufficiently active in looking after the school attendance that most of the children whom we found employed illegally would have been returned to school when they first dropped out or when they failed to enroll at the beginning of the session.

It has been most difficult to obtain whole-hearted support from the school authorities of one of the largest cities in Alabama in enforcing that part of the law which would exclude children from after-school

employment, because thrift has long been a slogan of that school system. Every child is encouraged to earn while in school. Consequently he is encouraged to find before and after school hours employment, which more often than otherwise results in the child working late at night or going into street trades, where he spends most of his time on the streets instead of spending it in healthful recreation and sleep.

How to break down that long-established policy has been a difficult problem. It will have to be done carefully and diplomatically. We feel that most decisive steps in this direction were made recently when the superintendent of this school agreed to assist our department in compiling a list of all school children who have after-school employment, giving their grades, their conduct and attendance records, based upon the average for the class, whether or not the child is repeating his grade. This study will also show the character and hours of work in which the child is engaged as well as his earnings and the disposal of them. When we compile this information, if we can show thereby to the school authorities that these children who are working after school hours are more irregular in attendance; are below the class average in grades; or, as will be true in many cases, are failing altogether; and that the majority of the children who are truants are working after school hours or that they are not saving any of their earnings, it will be the most concrete and convincing argument that employment after school is entirely unprofitable and usually results in a loss of physical energy, because it deprives the growing child of necessary sleep and recreation, causes him to go to school wholly unfit for study, and the result is that the child becomes dissatisfied with school and drops out as soon as possible. If we can do this, we feel that we have accomplished something very much more lasting than continually policing all the establishments which are employing or are likely to employ children after school.

Also, our department has made studies of the effect of street trades upon children thus engaged in the different cities, with the object of determining whether or not street trades lower the grade of school work done by these children and whether or not they contribute to delinquency. We expect to put this information into the hands of the local school authorities, the municipal officials, and whatever welfare agencies the cities may possess, to prove to them concretely that these blind-alley-after-school jobs are harmful and must be discouraged and regulated by them. The State child-labor inspectors, only three in number, could not control or regulate children in street trades for the whole State; but we must secure the interest and backing of the local police, the school-attendance officers, and all public-welfare organizations interested in boys, such as boys' clubs, Boy Scouts, etc. Enforcing the child-labor law relating to street trades is one of the most difficult tasks before us, because the public has so long maintained an illogical and sentimental idea that many great men start life as newsboys. While a few of the many lads who have sold newspapers do attain respectable and honorable manhood, and stand out as conspicuous examples to the public of the apparent effectiveness of the street trades to inculcate habits of thrift and business methods, the public does not understand that these men merely represent a small survival of the fittest. They lose sight of

the countless hundreds of urchins who have sold papers upon the streets and who have thereby acquired habits of delinquency and crime. They do not know how great a per cent of these boys have juvenile-court records and are finally sentenced for a term in our State industrial school.

Our second problem, the problem of securing the cooperation of the local officers, is one the importance of which is second to none. In Alabama, while there has been a child labor law for years, our inspectors are daily confronted with an astounding lack of information and manifest indifference toward child labor laws and the prosecution of their violation on the part of these officials. We still find solicitors and judges so uninformed and unsympathetic that they are even reluctant to prosecute or try our cases. Where such conditions still exist, it has been considered inadvisable to bring prosecutions until we have made no end of trouble to interest the officials by establishing personal contacts and thereby diplomatically winning their confidence and support. We consider that the loss of a case through an unsympathetic official results in more damage to our cause than to file the charge without prosecution by simply having the child dismissed or by having the employer conform to the law. By following up this method of procedure we have lost no prosecutions and are establishing a precedent which will be hard to break down if we continue to build so carefully. However, I am constrained to add that we are not always so patient with the local officials who apparently are disinterested and unsympathetic. In one instance, we threatened to report a local solicitor to the governor, when he refused to prosecute our cases, and to request the governor to appoint a special officer to try the cases. This was sufficient to bring the solicitor to such a full realization of his duty that the violators were found guilty and fined without the inspector appearing as witness at the trials. We are most fortunate to be able to depend upon our present governor for unfailing loyalty and support in whatever measures we may wish to inaugurate to insure protection for children.

With all our efforts the process of educational enforcement is a tedious one, in fact, so tedious that, sometimes, we feel totally discouraged. A few days ago I was talking to the judge of one of our juvenile courts whom I had considered interested and well informed concerning child-labor laws. This judge remarked that he was an advocate of a more active health program in our State. And for an example of its need he mentioned that in a pool room where he sometimes stopped for a game, there was employed a sickly looking little Negro, apparently about 12 years of age. He said the little fellow looked so diseased that he didn't like to have such a child setting up pins for him and he told the manager so. When the manager of the pool room failed to discharge him, the judge, as an officer of the law, sent the child to a public health physician for an examination and he was found to be 100 per cent syphilitic. When the judge reported this to the manager the boy was immediately discharged. I asked the judge why he didn't report this case to the child-labor inspectors as he, of course, knew it was unlawful for any person under 21 years of age to work in a pool or billiard hall. The judge replied that he had never thought about that, besides the poor child doubtless needed the work so badly

that he would not have interfered had the boy not been so diseased that he would be a menace to public health. This shows that the responsibility of the child labor law enforcement does not rest very heavily on that judge's shoulders. His interest in the child's employment extended only so far as it might affect or endanger his own health and happiness.

Another one of our problems has been what to do with children whom we find illegally employed and who are seemingly utterly dependent upon their own efforts to support themselves or probably help with the family support as well. Our State has no mother's pension law, and we have no State agencies which could manage the situation. It is a difficult thing to remove a child from work, to know that you are probably throwing the child and family upon public charity or, what is still worse, that you will cause actual suffering for want of food or clothing. Besides, this would certainly arouse unfavorable comment unless the public can be made to feel its responsibility in providing for such families. In endeavoring to offset this condition we have been active in securing the aid of welfare and charitable organizations in caring for such families. Moreover, we have in several counties arranged with different local chapters of the Red Cross to establish funds which are available in the form of scholarships to those deserving children who would be forced into industry if some financial aid were not given. These scholarships are usually paid weekly upon the stipulation that the child attend school regularly and submit his report for approval monthly. This plan was worked out only since the first of this year, and we hope to amplify it very much next year, and as the Red Cross goes more generally on a peace-time program.

Our third problem, of how to interest the employer to employ children only in conformity with the child-labor law, is not with the factories and cotton mills where several children are employed, where our inspectors can more readily keep check on the children employed, and where the employer has already been made to understand what the regulations of the law are and that he must obey or suffer the consequence. Such concerns seldom violate the law intentionally. It is the miscellaneous establishments, such as mercantile stores, drug stores, and the small shops where relatively few children to each establishment are employed and where no skill is required to perform the duties of the position filled by the children, that constitute our problem in child-labor enforcement. The educational process is necessarily slower with this kind of employer because he can not be made to feel the responsibility for the one or two children whom he employs as quickly as if he employed 20 or 30. Also he knows that the child whom he employs will probably remain with him but a few weeks and drift on to some other job. It has never been our policy to prosecute first violations unless they are very flagrant ones. It is considered much more constructive to warn the offender when we discover his first offense, and endeavor to interest and instruct him in abiding by the law of his own volition. Whereas if we prosecute his first offense we would probably antagonize not only the employer but the parent, who is usually more or less ignorant. Since we are much too limited in staff to undertake a police patrol over the employers of children, which would be most

unsatisfactory if we could, we must more or less depend upon securing the employer's interest and the interest of the community in general. We want to popularize and advertise the cause of child-labor protection and prohibition so far as we are able to do so and not sacrifice any of the principles of the law or to hazard the protection of the children. The most enduring and certain manner of securing universal enforcement is through the public itself, represented by the local authorities who know the local conditions. We want to build up a sentiment that will make a violation of the child-labor law not only a misdemeanor but a disgrace. To be able to do this we inspectors must resolve ourselves into not merely law-enforcement agents but into propagandists, ever awake to any opportunity to put our work before any organization which may be in any way instrumental in influencing or shaping public opinion.

## REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON PHYSICAL STANDARDS FOR WORKING CHILDREN.

BY E. N. MATTHEWS, DIRECTOR INDUSTRIAL DIVISION, UNITED STATES CHILDREN'S BUREAU.

One phase of child-labor legislation which up to the present time, except in a few of our larger cities, has received little more than perfunctory attention from administrative officials is that which relates to the certification of physical fitness for children granted work permits.

It is generally recognized that children who go to work during the period of adolescence are in need of special protection if they are to develop into vigorous men and women. Legislative measures of many kinds have been enacted in the attempt to lessen the exposure of children and young persons to the strains and hazards of industry. Of these the most effective measures, next to ones fixing a minimum age for general employment and for especially hazardous occupations, are those which provide for a physical examination for every child of work permit age and prohibit the issuance of a work permit to any child who has not been certified by the examining physician as being in sound health, of normal physical development for his age, and physically fit for the occupation in which he wishes to engage. During the past 10 years much effort has been given to the passage of legislation of this kind. At the present time 19 States have laws providing that every child must have a physical examination and be given a certificate of physical fitness before he goes to work, and in 10 other States and the District of Columbia the official issuing the work permits has power, if he so desires, to require the physical examination of any child applying for a permit.

In adequacy of enforcement, however, most of these States fall far short of their legislative achievement. This is due primarily not to actual indifference toward this important provision of the law but to the absence of any well-defined standards of administration and uniformity of procedure on the part of the administrative officials and to a failure on the part of the public and of many of the administrative officials as well to recognize the necessity for adequate appropriations to provide for properly qualified medical examiners. Even where competent physicians are provided the staff in many instances is so inadequate that only superficial inspections of the children are possible. Moreover, forms used by examiners are, in many cases, entirely inadequate to serve as a record of a thorough physical examination. In some cities the local officials in charge of issuing, with the cooperation of their medical examiners, have done excellent work in devising forms for examination and in standardiz-

ing methods of procedure in the districts under their jurisdiction. In a few States an even more significant step towards standardization has been taken in the prescription of a uniform record blank by the labor department or other State agency responsible for the enforcement of the child-labor law. There is, however, no uniformity in the standards and methods prescribed, and in general even in those States where uniform directions are issued and prescribed forms are used very great divergence in practice is found.

At the conferences on child-welfare standards, held by the Children's Bureau in Washington and other cities in May and June, 1919, much attention was devoted to the subject of physical standards for working children. The difficulties in the way of adequate enforcement of the standards of "sound health" and "normal development" in the absence of a clear definition of these standards were especially emphasized by members of the conference, which at its close passed a resolution requesting the Children's Bureau to appoint a committee of physicians to formulate standards of normal development and sound health for the use of physicians in examining children entering employment and children at work.

This committee, which was appointed by the Chief of the Children's Bureau early in the following winter, consisted of the following physicians, selected either because of their special experience as certificate examining physicians or because they were experts in one or more of the fields of industrial hygiene, pediatrics, or physical education:

Dr. George P. Barth, director of school hygiene, city health department, Milwaukee, Wis., chairman.

Dr. Emma M. Appel, chief medical examiner, employment certificate department, Chicago Board of Education.

Dr. S. Josephine Baker, chief, bureau of child hygiene, department of health, New York City.

Dr. Taliaferro Clark, representing the United States Public Health Service.

Dr. C. Ward Crampton, dean, Normal School of Physical Education, Battle Creek, Mich.

Dr. D. L. Edsale, dean, Harvard Medical School.

Dr. George W. Goler, health officer, Rochester, N. Y.

Dr. Harry Linenthal, industrial clinic, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, Mass.

Dr. H. H. Mitchell, representing the national child labor committee.

Dr. Anna E. Rude, director, hygiene division, United States Children's Bureau.

Dr. Thomas B. Wood, chairman of committee on health problems and education, Columbia University.

Following its first meeting in January, 1920, the committee prepared a preliminary report and a tentative record form, which were sent for criticism and suggestions to State labor officials, local certificate issuing officers, examining physicians, and others interested in physical standards for working children. The record form was also tried out in a number of cities. In accordance with suggestions and criticisms received from these sources, the report was revised at a second meeting of the committee held last January. I have here for distribution a few copies of the advance proof of the revised report which is now in the hands of the printer. This report is not final; it is expected that from time to time it will be revised to embody the results of further scientific research and practical experience in this field, in which comparatively little is now known.

In its report the committee prescribes minimum standards of height and weight for specified ages, based on the most trustworthy experience and present-day practice. It also lists specifically defects for which children should be refused certificates, remediable defects for which they should be refused certificates pending correction, and conditions requiring supervision under which provisional certificates for a period of three months may be issued. The points which examining physicians should cover if adequate protection is to be given the working child are also given in detail in the report, which contains a record blank for the use of physicians in making these examinations and detailed instructions for its use.

The committee has not confined its attention wholly to the formation of standards which are strictly medical in character. Among its most significant recommendations are those which relate to more general or nonmedical provisions for the protection of the health of working children. Especially significant is the recommendation which this committee of physicians places at the beginning of its report—that for strictly physiological reasons the minimum age for the entrance of children into industrial employment “should be not younger than 16 years.” Another important recommendation is that laws should provide for periodical reexaminations of all working children at least once a year. As yet no State has taken this legislative step, though an exceptionally good opportunity for putting into operation an effective program of health supervision, including periodical reexaminations, is afforded by the attendance of working children at continuation schools, now required by law in 22 States.

One other recommendation is of special interest to State officials charged with the enforcement of child-labor laws, especially those already having authority to prescribe forms and administrative standards in connection with issuance of work permits. It reads as follows:

In order to insure uniformity in each State the State labor or other department administering the child-labor law should have authority to make rules and regulations relative to methods of examination and qualifications of examining physicians, to prescribe record forms, and to require reports with reference to examinations made. Each such department should employ one or more physicians qualified in industrial hygiene, who shall be authorized and required to supervise the work of the local examining physicians.

It is our hope that through a wide distribution of the committee's report State and local authorities may be stimulated to a more active interest in the adequate administration of the provisions of the child-labor laws which relate to physical fitness. The State labor departments have a unique opportunity to bring the recommendations of the committee to the attention of local officials throughout their States. Even where they are not authorized by law to prescribe forms or methods of administration, State officials may effect a very general standardization, as experience in some States has shown, by securing the voluntary cooperation of local officials in the use of standard forms and in the general improvement of administrative methods.

## REPORT ON CHILD-LABOR TAX.

BY NILA F. ALLEN, HEAD CHILD-LABOR TAX DIVISION, UNITED STATES TREASURY DEPARTMENT.

A statement of the general situation relative to the Federal child-labor tax law seems the logical starting point in a discussion of the enforcement of the law. This law places a tax of 10 per cent on the annual net profits of the employer of children under 16 years of age in mines and quarries; of children under 14 in mills, canneries, workshops, factories, and manufacturing establishments; of children between 14 and 16 in the same class of establishments for more than 8 hours a day, or before 6 in the morning or after 7 in the evening. This law has been in operation two years, having gone into effect on the 25th day of April, 1919. The question of its constitutionality was raised immediately thereafter and reached the Supreme Court of the United States for argument on the 10th of December, 1919. A year and a half has elapsed since that time but no decision has been handed down as yet.<sup>1</sup> The consensus of interested legal opinion and popular opinion as well is that the law will be held constitutional.

Meantime in the Bureau of Internal Revenue the work of the child-labor tax division, which was organized to administer the law, proceeds as if the constitutionality of the law had never been questioned. Many tax cases coming before us urge the pending decision as a reason for arresting payment of the tax. Until declared unconstitutional the measure remains a law.

In its enforcement our work logically falls into three parts closely interrelated. The first is certification. As you know, the law empowers the bureau to issue Federal certificates of age for children to employers, or to accept as having equal power the work permit, school certificate, or other form issued by a State, in which the laws and administrative practices are not inconsistent with the provisions of the tax law. This acceptance is known as designating a State, and 38 States have been designated. In five States, however, we are issuing the Federal certificates through our representatives stationed there for the purpose. In our two years of operation we have received applications from 40,000 children. Omitting those who have twice applied or failed to pursue their first request,

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<sup>1</sup>This (Atherton Mills) case was on June 6, 1921, restored to the docket for reargument, the attention of counsel being called to the question of jurisdiction. The case was set for the October, 1921, term, becoming No. 16 on the docket. In the meantime another case was brought by the Vivian Cotton Mills, and on August 22, 1921, a decision adverse to the law was rendered by the same judge as in the Atherton Mills case. These cases were docketed together but were withdrawn on October 5, and held for argument at a later date. A new case is being prepared, involving the Drexel Furniture Co., Drexel, N. C., on which a decision from the same district court is expected at an early date. It is proposed to join this case with the other two, and seek for a decision that will cover the essential features of the act in a final determination as to their validity.

we have handled over 30,000 children during this time, and have refused certificates because the applicant was under 14 in about 3,000 cases. In other words, 1 child in 10 coming before us was under 14 years of age, and our activities prevented its too early entrance into industry.

Inspection is the second activity in the enforcement of the law. Our theory in the beginning was that in the discharge of their regular duties, employees of the internal revenue collectors' offices, of which there are 64 in the United States, would contribute much toward the detection of child labor in their respective districts, and that a certain amount of necessary inspection would also be accomplished in this way. In addition, we have a small force of expert inspectors who have done intensive work from time to time in a specified industry, or State, or else have trained members of the internal revenue offices in child-labor detection. Our inspection force also inquires into the excellence of the certification in the designated States coincident with inspection work.

In addition to the division inspections and the reports from the collectors' offices, are the reference of cases from the States by State child-labor law officials. We have not received a large number of reports from any one State, but a few from several States. Tax has been assessed in several of these cases, though actual collection has usually been delayed by all the legal means provided by the tax law. While there has been a gratifying response to the request that State cases be reported to the bureau, we hope that those States not yet availing themselves of the tax-law provisions may yet find it to their advantage to do so.

The third phase of activity is concerned with collection of the tax. Despite the fact that the law has been functioning for two years, tax collection has proceeded through but one year. As the law places the tax on annual profits, we must await the end of the year before learning the amount upon which the tax can be laid. The law also gives the taxpayer two months after that time before his tax return is due. If he has not then made it, it takes more time to secure it. In many cases employers desire to fight the case and send legal talent to Washington to advance arguments and present refuting evidence. Invariably they try to prove mistake of fact as to the age of the child. (See section 1203(b) of the law.) If but a fraction of the effort were expended to ascertain the age of the child before its employment that is used to determine its age after tax liability occurs, the bureau would never hear of the case. Proportionately few of the cases now deal with the child under 14. Instead, they rest on the child who claims to be 16 but is in fact under that age and working 9 and 10 hours a day, or at night. Particularly is this condition found in designated States where provision for certification stops at the age of 16. The same difficulty no longer exists in the issuance of Federal certificates, as the certification maximum has been raised to include 17.

Sooner or later similar provision will be required in each State before it will be designated. Then the employer will be automatically estopped from the only plea, mistake of fact as to the age of child, which can now be advanced in extenuation of the child's employment.

To what extent the present industrial conditions are contributing and to what extent the Federal tax law is responsible for the practical elimination of child labor in the classes of establishments named in the law is not known. Many establishments are closed down, others are running part time, and more and more are employing only adult labor—no one under 21, no one under 18, or no one under 16 seems to be the rule where this tax law is understood. It is truly eliminating child labor. The only employer knowing the law and willfully employing children contrary to its terms has been the man running his business at a loss.

Tax liability has been established in about half of the States. Contrary to popular opinion, much tax will come, not from the South, but from designated States which permit child labor for 9 or 10 hours, or fail to provide certification for the child falsely claiming to be over 16.

There is insufficient basis at present for any estimate of the amount of tax this law will yield. It is now evident that a considerable sum will be collected. An increasingly effective administration of the law, however, should secure its enforcement in such a way that there will be no tax because there is no child labor.

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## FEDERAL BOARD FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

BY L. S. HAWKINS, ASSISTANT DIRECTOR FEDERAL BOARD FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

*The vocational education act.*—The Federal Board for Vocational Education was established through an act of Congress approved by the President February 23, 1917 (now known as the vocational education act or the Smith-Hughes Act).

This act provides for cooperation between the Federal Government and the States for the promotion of vocational education in the fields of agriculture, home economics, and industry. Under this act the Federal Government does not propose to undertake the organization and immediate direction of vocational training in the States, but does agree to make from year to year substantial contribution to its support. It undertakes to pay over to the States annually certain sums of money and to cooperate in fostering and promoting vocational education and the training of vocational teachers. The grants of Federal money are conditioned and the acceptance of these grants imposes upon the States specific obligations to expend the money paid over to them in accordance with the provisions of the act.

The State must show the kinds of vocational education for which it is proposed the appropriation shall be used, and the kind of schools and the equipment of the schools in which the instruction is to be given. The State must set up courses of study, methods of instruction, and qualifications of teachers who are to give such instruction.

*Federal and State administrative agencies.*—The Federal administrative agency designed by the act is the Federal Board for Vocational Education. This board consists of seven members—four ex officio and three appointed by the President. They are the Secretary of Labor, the Secretary of Commerce, the Secretary of Agriculture, the Commissioner of Education, and three citizens who represent, respectively, the manufacturing and commercial, the agricultural, and the labor interests of the Nation.

The State administrative agency provided in the act is a State board for vocational education designated or created by the legislative authority of the State, and consisting of not less than three members and having all necessary powers to cooperate with the Federal Board for Vocational Education in the administration of the provisions of the vocational education act.

*How States may secure allotments.*—In order to secure its allotment the State must accept the provisions of the act through legislative authority, and the State board must provide a plan of work for the State which is approved by the Federal board. Each of the 48 States at present has a State board for vocational education, which is cooperating with the Federal board in the administration of

this act. The plan submitted annually to the Federal board for approval must show the kinds of schools and classes for which it is proposed the allotment shall be used, the plan of administration and supervision to be followed by the State board, the qualifications of teachers, the courses of instruction, the methods of instruction to be used, and the plans for training supervisors and teachers.

It is the duty of the Federal board to examine these plans and approve the same if believed to be feasible and found to be in conformity with the provisions and purposes of the Federal act. The Federal board must certify on or before the 1st day of January of each year to the Secretary of the Treasury each State which has accepted the provisions of the act and complied therewith, including the amounts which the State is entitled to receive. Once the plan of the State is approved by the Federal board the administration of the act in the State is in the hands of the State board for vocational education, with the Federal law and the State plan as the plans and specifications to guide the work.

*Studies and investigations.*—It is the duty of the Federal Board for Vocational Education to make or cause to have made studies and investigations and reports, with particular reference to their use in aiding the States in the establishment of vocational schools and classes and in giving instruction in agriculture, trades, and industries, commerce and commercial pursuits, and home economics. Such studies, investigations, and reports include agriculture and agricultural processes and requirements upon agricultural workers; trades, industries, and apprenticeships, trade and industrial requirements upon industrial workers, and classification of industrial processes and pursuits; commerce and commercial pursuits and requirements upon commercial workers; home management, domestic science, and the study of related facts and principles; and problems of administration of vocational schools and of courses of study and instruction in vocational subjects.

*State autonomy.*—With all the restrictions which have been placed around the expenditure of Federal funds as safeguards, the autonomy of the States has been entirely preserved by the following provisions:

1. The Federal Government deals with the work in the States only through an official State board created by the legislative machinery of the State.

2. The Federal Government deals with the State only in terms of standards and policies and not in terms of particular institutions or individuals. This means standards and policies rather than personalities.

3. The Federal Government deals with a State in terms of the conditions within that particular State and not in terms of the United States as a whole. This is possible through the provisions of the act which provide for standards but do not specify such standards in terms of equipment, courses of study, or other uniform requirements for the country at large.

*Federal and State relationships.*—Under the plan of administration set up by the act, the Federal board has no dealings directly with any institution inside the State. It does not say that a plan of teacher training shall be carried on by this, that, or the other institution; it does not say that vocational instruction shall be given by this, that, or the other school; it can not say this, but it does pass

upon the plan for teacher training proposed by the State covering all such things as entrance requirements, length of course, content of course, method of instruction, and graduation requirements. It does pass upon the plan of vocational education proposed for the schools of a State, including plant and equipment, minimum for maintenance, course of study, and qualifications of teachers. When this plan has been approved it becomes the duty and responsibility of a State to select some institution or institutions inside the State to give the teacher training in conformity with the plan. It also becomes the duty and responsibility of the State board for vocational education to pass upon the question of whether or not certain schools have met the requirements of the act and the standards set up in the plan; and it is the duty of the Federal board to see that the State board does carry out its plan of teacher training properly in the institution which has been selected and to see that the institution approved by the State board is in conformance with the plan proposed by the State.

The Federal board must inspect the work of classes, schools, and institutions, but not as schools, classes, or institutions. It inspects the work as the work of the State board being carried on by such classes, schools, or institutions. Should the State board fail to do this, it becomes the duty of the Federal board to withhold the allotments of Federal money for the ensuing fiscal year. The State board, therefore, takes the responsibility upon its shoulders of not only selecting and approving the schools in which work is to be carried on, but of seeing that these schools do carry on properly the work which they have undertaken to do with the expectation of receiving reimbursement from Federal funds.

The Federal board, therefore, is not concerned with controversies within a State as to what institutions or schools are chosen by the State board for carrying on the work. This matter rests entirely in the hands of the State board. The Federal board is concerned only with the question of whether or not the State board is subletting the contract of vocational education and training vocational teachers according to the plan which it proposed and which the Federal board approved.

At the same time it is the duty of both the State and Federal boards to see that the Federal moneys are used in the most effective way possible and for the purposes set forth in the act.

*The soldier vocational rehabilitation act.*—From the day of its organization, July 21, 1917, the Federal Board for Vocational Education has taken an active interest in the promotion of vocational rehabilitation, both as it concerns men disabled in such large numbers in the World War and as it relates to the thousands of men and women injured every day in the pursuits of business.

Through an act of Congress, approved by the President June 28, 1918 (now known as the soldier rehabilitation act), the Federal Board is charged with the responsibility of providing for the vocational rehabilitation and return to civil employment of disabled persons discharged from the military or naval forces of the United States.

*Federal Government directly responsible for training.*—This act provides for the direct organization and immediate direction of vocational training by the Federal Government for disabled ex-service

men. In providing this training the Federal Board has used as far as possible the existing educational facilities and training agencies of the country. It is to be noted, however, that in this work the Federal Board deals directly with these training agencies in securing training for the men, in the supervision of the training, and in all fiscal matters related thereto. In this respect the administrative procedure set up in the soldier vocational rehabilitation act is entirely different from that set up in the vocational education act described in the first part of this paper.

*The size of the problem.*—When we realize that within two years after the inception of this work the board was using over 1,700 educational institutions, representing the best in the country, to train its students, and in addition that arrangements had been made in more than 8,000 shops, mills, factories, and business places of all sorts for training men in and on the job, the extent of the work is appreciated. The number of men in training approaches 70,000. Although some considerable criticism has been made of the program, I am confident that no other educational enterprise of its size has ever been organized in so short a time and so effectively as this. In the very beginning the policy was adopted of decentralization by establishing districts and later by opening branch offices in the several districts. It was difficult to find men competent to supervise the work of districts and establish methods of procedure. While the work in Canada and Europe was suggestive, it was not possible to build upon this to any great extent. The vocational education program had been under way only a short time and there was a demand in the States for persons experienced in the field of vocational education. The building up of a trained and competent staff was a most difficult and perplexing problem. The remarkable thing is that at the end of three years the board finds itself with such an effective and well-working organization.

*The industrial rehabilitation act.*—Through an act of Congress approved by the President June 2, 1920 (now known as the industrial rehabilitation act), the United States has established the principle that the Nation as a whole has a share of the responsibility for the vocational rehabilitation of physically disabled persons who are vocationally handicapped by such disability. At the same time the principle is established in this act that direct responsibility for carrying on the work of vocational rehabilitation rests upon the States. To the Federal Board for Vocational Education has been given the task of administering this act.

*Administration and procedure.*—From the standpoint of administration and procedure the industrial rehabilitation act follows very closely the lines of the vocational education act. It does not provide for any direct organization or immediate direction of vocational rehabilitation by the Federal Government or its agents, but does provide financial assistance to the States in carrying on such a program. The conditions under which the allotments are made and the procedure for obtaining and using these allotments is similar to that under the vocational education act.

*Purposes of the act.*—The ultimate purpose of the industrial rehabilitation act is to provide for rehabilitation of persons disabled in industry. In this respect it is similar to the soldier rehabilitation

act, the difference being that one is for the rehabilitation of civilians not ex-service men and the other for the vocational rehabilitation of ex-service men. In administrative procedure, however, it differs from the soldier rehabilitation act in that it provides for cooperative relationships between the Federal Government and the States, while the soldier rehabilitation act provides for the work being carried on directly by the Federal Government.

*Summary.*—The work of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, then, consists in the administration of three Federal acts:

1. The vocational education act.
2. The soldier rehabilitation act.
3. The industrial rehabilitation act.

The first and third named acts provide for the carrying on of work by the States in cooperation with and aided by the Federal Government. The second-named act provides for the carrying on of a piece of work directly by the Federal Government.

*Compulsory part-time school-attendance laws.*—The welfare of a democracy demands that its future citizens shall receive educational training which will enable them to assume the duties of intelligent citizenship upon reaching maturity. In recognition of this principle, every State in the Union has a compulsory education law. The history of the enactment and enforcement of these laws shows objection and opposition at every step. State interference with local affairs, loss of labor of children affected, and increased cost of schools were some of the objections which blocked the way of progress.

The right and responsibility of the State to regulate the employment as well as the education of youth are gradually being asserted. The State has come to regard citizenship and efficiency as so necessary that it is ready to extend its guardianship over the child into employment. These principles have found expression in child-labor laws and part-time compulsory education laws. Twenty States have passed laws requiring the attendance of wageworkers on part-time classes for from four to eight hours a week. These part-time laws provide for schools and classes which will bridge over the period of adjustment from parental support and full-time school attendance to the status of self-support and industrial employment. The workers affected by these laws are within the 14 to 18 year age group and in eight States are within the 14 to 16 year group. This movement is a social effort to provide an educational agency which will lessen the handicap of the thousands of minors who are every year projected as wage earners into full-time industrial service. These boys and girls drop out of a school system formulated to provide for continued and uninterrupted progress from the kindergarten through the college or university. They drop out not only without preparation for the work which they undertake, but without guidance in the selection of it. They are in a period of physical, mental, social, and industrial adjustment. The size and importance of the problem is further emphasized by the fact that over 85 per cent of our boys and girls drop out of school between the ages of 14 and 18. It is evident that society, for its own protection and preservation, should provide every necessary educational opportunity for this great group.

The passage and enforcement of compulsory school-attendance laws, child-labor laws, and compulsory part-time school-attendance laws is only a start in the solution of the problem. If the State, for

its own protection, compels these children to attend school, then the State must assume a share of the responsibility for the character and extent of the instruction given. It becomes the responsibility of the State to help provide a range of educational opportunity which will meet the needs of all children; to help provide a guide and counselor who, in the words of Dr. E. R. Snyder, "will know of the home, working, and recreational conditions, and who in turn will stimulate and guide these boys and girls in the pursuit of an education which will make them active, efficient, law-abiding citizen producers, and intelligent promoters of the public welfare." Such a program costs money, but is a triple A investment in national security and defense.

## REHABILITATION OF CIVILIANS.

SUMMARY OF AN ADDRESS GIVEN BY TRACY COPP, AGENT FOR INDUSTRIAL REHABILITATION, FEDERAL BOARD FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

By an act of Congress approved by the President in June, 1920, provision is made for the promotion of the rehabilitation of persons injured in industry and otherwise and their return to civil employment. The Federal Board for Vocational Education is charged with the responsibility of this work in cooperation with the States.

An appropriation of \$750,000 for the first year and \$1,000,000 for each of three succeeding years is to be allotted to the States on the basis of population.

The State board for vocational education is the State agency designated as the cooperating State force to undertake this work. Compliance with the Federal act requires first that the State appropriate or provide funds, at least equal to the amount of the Federal allotment; second, that a State plan be submitted and approved by the Federal board, showing in outline the manner in which the State is to be organized for the work; third, that a written statement be submitted showing a working agreement between the State board for vocational education and the State compensation agency.

This movement has met with a favorable attitude very generally in the States. The records at this time, incomplete because legislatures are still in session, would indicate that at least 34 States are now, or will be very soon, doing industrial rehabilitation work.

The plans for bringing about the rehabilitation for handicapped civilians will include the closest cooperation with agencies engaged in physical restoration. Although vocational rehabilitation of civilians does not definitely include physical rehabilitation, it is well recognized that vocational training will not fully satisfy the demands of this social program until every available source for physical improvement and restoration is exhausted.

Vocational rehabilitation of civilians is a social program that takes a man from the time of his disability to employment in a satisfactory job. This procedure will include an estimate of a person's assets, based on his educational and work experience and his traits and abilities. It will include advisement regarding the opportunities for new work. It will also include vocational training where advisable and finally placement and follow-up in the job for which he has been made ready.

The experiences of State industrial commissions already at work in the field and the experience of the advanced employer who has employed handicapped people successfully will contribute valuable material to State boards.

As subsequent legislation is contemplated for advancement of this work it should be remembered that compensation laws should be strengthened as compensation laws and that the burden of cost for rehabilitating disabled civilians should be borne as far as possible by agencies which will find prevention good business.

*TUESDAY, MAY 3—AFTERNOON SESSION.*

## **ACCIDENT PREVENTION.**

### **THE EDUCATIONAL SIDE OF ACCIDENT PREVENTION.**

BY W. GRAHAM COLE, RESIDENT MANAGER LUMBERMAN'S MUTUAL CASUALTY CO.

I am very glad to have this opportunity of addressing the association of governmental labor officials, representing the officials in charge of the labor departments of our various States and of the Provinces of our neighbor across the northern boundary line. I am specially glad that I have been asked to speak upon a subject, which, in addition to being the one in which I have been chiefly interested for the past six years, is also one which is of vital interest to you and to the work which you represent. The fact that one entire afternoon session of your program has been devoted to the discussion of factory inspection and accident prevention, clearly indicates the importance of this subject to you. I regret that my business circumstances have prevented me from giving the time to the preparation of this paper which the subject demands, but I will endeavor to outline the facts as I have observed them during the past few years while in charge of the safety work of one of the plants of the Bethlehem Steel Co. and later as safety director of the Southern Pine Association.

My experience, therefore, has been obtained in connection with both the steel and the lumber industry and in the North as well as the South. I mention this as I have often heard it said that whereas modern safety educational methods had proved very successful in the larger industrial plants of the North, they would be a failure if tried in the small sawmills and logging camps of the far South. The experience which I have had, however, clearly proves that the results obtained in accident reduction work are not dependent upon the section of the country, the kind of industry, the type of men employed, or the size of the operation; but they are dependent on the sincerity of the management, the amount of interest taken by the managers, superintendents, and foremen, and by the methods used to arouse the interest of the workmen.

Let us consider for a moment the industrial accident problem, its history, its size, its costs, and the methods used to combat it. Until a comparatively few years ago industrial accidents were considered, if considered at all, as an inevitable part of all operations. Our national industries had grown so quickly that more attention had been given to increasing production and the machinery necessary for this increased production, than to any other phase of the work. Little attention was paid to the ever increasing waste of man power, time, and material. The increased use of steam and electricity as power

producers, the construction of huge industrial plants, the bringing together of many individual classes of skilled and unskilled workmen, with their individual hazards, the increased speed at which all operations were carried on, all combined to cause an enormous increase in the accident frequency of our industrial life.

During the last 10 or 12 years, however, a great deal of attention has been given by the larger industries to accidents, their causes and their prevention. The subject has been studied in a systematic way, statistics have been obtained for various industries over long periods of time and the actual causes of accident ascertained. It has been proved that every accident has a cause or a series of causes which, happening just as they do, combine to produce the accident. The old theory that accidents were a necessary part of industry has been exploded and we now know that the majority of all industrial accidents can be prevented if the proper mechanical precautions are taken, the employee properly instructed concerning his work, and his interest obtained and maintained for safety. These three steps are just as essential, when considering the reduction of accidents, as are any three processes in the course of manufacturing a product.

How large is the accident problem which still confronts our country after nearly a decade of active safety work? During the 19 months in which the United States was engaged in the World War, approximately 48,000 Americans were killed in battle or died from wounds received on the battlefield. During the year 1919 alone, 82,000 persons were killed by accidental means within the boundaries of our country, 22,000 of these occurring in our industries. Considering the loss of life, therefore, the annual war against carelessness is considerably more serious than was the World War. Organization and definite effort on the part of every activity in our country won the World War; similar methods will win the war against accidental injuries. The need is now, as it was during the war, one of placing the facts before the Nation as a whole and obtaining national interest and cooperation in the matter.

We have read a great deal about the cost of the World War. We are still feeling its cost in every turn we make to-day, but what about the cost of the war against accidents? Every accident costs the employer money, not alone in compensation and medical expenses but indirectly in the loss of morale of his workmen, decreased efficiency, and loss of production. These costs are all indirectly passed on to the great buying public. But aside from this, every serious accident causes a loss, not alone to the injured man but to his family, his community, and to the country as a whole. Reduce accidents and we will have a better class of physical manhood, the children of our workmen will receive better education, the Nation as a whole will be more prosperous.

Yes, you will say, all this sounds very good in theory, but can such results be obtained; and if so, how?

In the first place, we have figures which show that many industrial plants have reduced their accident frequency in varying amounts from 50 to 75, and some even to 85, per cent in a single year. You have all seen such figures, so it will be useless for me to repeat them here, but suffice it to say that we know it has been done and is being done to-day. Statistics, which I have compiled during the past two

years from accident reports received from southern pine mills and logging operations, show that only 15 per cent of the time lost due to accidents resulted from accidents which were mechanically preventable, and that the other 85 per cent resulted from carelessness, ignorance, or other items chargeable to the human element. Similar figures have been obtained in many other industries. Permit me to qualify this statement by saying that the accidents which were included in the figure 85 per cent were not all due to the carelessness of the injured workman, but they were the result of carelessness or neglect on the part of the management, the foremen, the workman himself, or his fellow workmen, or were due to ignorance of the hazards, which cause is chargeable to the neglect of the management. This fact should in no way be construed as an argument in favor of the discontinuance of safeguarding; on the other hand, guarding should be continued and a careful study made of existing hazards and their elimination in order to minimize the 15 per cent while at the same time due emphasis should be laid on the need of safety education among the foremen and workmen.

Let us now consider what is meant by the term "safety education." It implies that the workman must be brought to a full realization of the dangers or hazards of his occupation and his interest obtained in the limitation of such hazards. In any industry, if the employees are simply given a list of dangerous places and then issued a set of rules prohibiting them from doing certain things, they are liable to think that their work is one of the most dangerous of all occupations. It is important, therefore, not only to point out the dangerous but to show the safe methods of performing a given piece of work. This is particularly important in the case of new men, who are unaccustomed to the work, but is also essential in the case of the old-timer who has been used to doing his work in the same way for years. It is often harder to persuade him of the need of safety than it is to impress it upon the new man.

Safety education must apply itself to the personal element, utilize the employee's thoughts and initiative, and thus gain his active cooperation. A safety rule which simply gives an order not to do a certain thing is seldom, if ever, heeded by the modern industrial employee. On the other hand, however, if the employee's attention is called to the safe way of performing a certain piece of work and he is further shown the results which are liable to occur from doing it in an unsafe way, his interest in and compliance with the safety rule is more readily obtained. Still further, if his initiative is made use of, first by explaining to him the dangers which are liable to result from certain unsafe practices, and then by permitting him to help formulate his own rules to prevent such occurrences, he feels that he has been personally considered, and will be quicker to obey the rule which he himself has thus helped to make.

How can a company best proceed in order to educate its workmen in the matter of accident prevention? In the first place, it must show that the management is truly interested in the conservation of the lives of its employees and is sincere in its desire to prevent accidents. In order to obtain the results desired, safety must emanate from the first man in the organization and then work its way down the line through the foreman to the workmen themselves. In other

words, the "Big boss" must be a safety advocate, and this must be apparent not only from his words, but from his actions as well. It is one thing to talk safety, it is another thing to act safety, but the acting has a greater effect on the workman than has the talking. Safety first, as the words imply, means more than simply the exercising of ordinary care in the operation, when the exercising of such care does not interfere with the production or in some other manner inconvenience the management. On the other hand, however, safety first means that the prevention of accidents and the prohibiting of unsafe practices are considerations which demand first importance in the operation. It means that the conservation of human life must be considered as of even greater importance than production. The general manager or superintendent who is constantly preaching safety to his workmen, but who will permit or order his men to perform a piece of work in an unsafe manner, in order to increase production, is not a true safety-first advocate. Although he may be lucky enough to get by on certain occasions, he has disproved his sincerity; he can not expect to obtain full cooperation from his employees, and cooperation is as necessary in decreasing accidents as it is in increasing production.

What has been said concerning the attitude of the general manager toward safety, applies equally well throughout the organization. It must be practiced as well as preached by the foreman, who, in my estimation, is the man in the organization who can make or break a safety campaign. The general manager may be very earnest on the subject, but unless his spirit is caught by the foreman and the squad boss the results will be small. The foreman comes in daily contact with the men; he instructs them what to do, he should also instruct them how to do it and how not to do it. A foreman who can obtain a good day's work out of his crew and show relatively low costs of production, but who allows his men to injure themselves frequently by careless practices, is not an efficient foreman. I have often heard it said that a safe foreman will never ask his men to work in a place where he himself is afraid to go. This is a good working rule, but I would add an additional one: A true, safe foreman will always do his work in as safe a manner as he expects his men to do theirs. A workman is often quicker to mimic the action than to obey the orders of his superiors. It is impossible, therefore, to emphasize too strongly the importance of the foreman in all safety work.

If the attitude of the company is sincerely for safety and this attitude is borne out by the actions of its officers, from the manager to the foreman, the workmen will naturally be more inclined toward safety in their daily work and the field will be prepared for educational work. In other words, I mean that the very best safety educational work will produce little, if any, results in a carelessly operated plant. I mention this because I have known companies who thought that they could remove accidents by a little exterior interest in safety; such interest will have little, if any, effect; interest in safety must be deep and sincere.

In order to illustrate how the idea of safety can be kept before the workman in his daily work, I will take the liberty of describing the methods used by the Southern Pine Association during the accident campaign of the past two years. A series of illustrated

safety bulletins was published and distributed for posting in the operations of the subscribing members. These bulletins depicted actual accidents which frequently occur in the industry. The possibility of such accidents together with suggestion for the prevention of same were thus kept directly before the workmen. A small booklet, containing a set of safety rules for use in the woods and mills, was issued and distributed to the employees of the southern pine mills. These rules were not written in the form of laws, but were written in the form of suggestions and hints, and the booklet was illustrated with pen and ink sketches to make it attractive to the employees. A series of safety pay envelopes, containing safety slogans and sketches, was issued and was used by many companies to couple up the idea of wages received with that of safety in the daily work. Other literature designed to attract the attention of the foremen and workmen was prepared and distributed. The best safety moving pictures were obtained and used at safety rallies and mass meetings, at which times safety talks were presented by men who had spent considerable time in accident prevention work and by officials of the local plant.

As a material aid in obtaining the interest and cooperation of the employees of any organization in accident prevention work, I would mention the excellent results which have been obtained from first-aid instruction. Many of our largest industrial plants now make a regular practice of having modern first-aid methods taught to their employees by a competent doctor or trained layman. It is not the intention of modern industrial first-aid to produce trained doctors from among the employees, but it is the intention to give them a working knowledge of what should be done in case of an accident to a fellow workman. They are taught the need of cleanliness in the treating of open wounds, how to control hemorrhage, how to treat shock which usually results from serious accidents, how to give artificial respiration in the case of asphyxiation or drowning, and how to apply splints to fractures in order to minimize the suffering while the patient is being transported to the doctor.

By presenting first aid in a clear and simple manner, and by creating a spirit of rivalry among the different employees concerning their proficiencies, interest is quickly obtained and the employees become ready enthusiasts in this type of work. It does not take the average workman long to realize that what he is thus being taught will not only be of use to him at his work but he will further realize the use to which he can put this training in his own home in case of accident or illness to his own family. Furthermore, a man once trained to care for the injured feels a moral responsibility to make use of his knowledge whenever he sees another human being suffering. The next step is simple—he wishes to prevent suffering, he wishes to prevent accidents, he becomes a guaranteed safety-first advocate, principally through his training in first aid.

Although first aid is usually considered as a means of providing trained men for those parts of the operation where it is difficult to have a doctor in constant attendance, it is doubtful whether there is any better means of obtaining the workmen's cooperation in accident prevention than by thus instructing him in the principles of first aid.

After being trained in first-aid work, the men thus trained should be given a responsibility and duty to perform in their plant. They should be encouraged to study the operations from a safety standpoint, to make suggestions of safe methods, to recommend safety rules, and to assist in seeing that they are enforced. They should constitute a live and active safety committee and become the backbone of the accident prevention work in their organization.

In general, therefore, safety educational activities will have a greater tendency to reduce accidents than will the mere safeguarding of machinery, because only a comparatively small percentage of modern industrial accidents are the results of the lack of safeguards. Some good can be obtained by advertising methods, such as the posting of bulletins, the use of safety pay envelopes, the distribution of literature, and the use of the moving pictures in connection with safety rallies. The greatest results, however, will be obtained by giving the employee some actual safety or first-aid duty to perform; by making him responsible for some part of the safety work of the plant for a given time; by appealing to his desire for sport and competition by encouraging one department to rival another in the matter of accident prevention, safe working places, and efficient first aid, offering prizes or other suitable reward to the department having the best record. Such methods will tend to make safety the interesting part of the day's work, instead of something to be abhorred, as is an unpopular law.

WEDNESDAY, MAY 4—MORNING SESSION.

## WOMEN IN INDUSTRY.

### EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN IN LAUNDRIES IN MASSACHUSETTS.

BY ETHEL M. JOHNSON, ASSISTANT COMMISSIONER MASSACHUSETTS DEPARTMENT OF LABOR AND INDUSTRIES.

[Summary of investigations made by the Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industries in 1920-21.]

*Purpose of study.*—A study of working conditions in Massachusetts laundries, with special reference to the employment of women and minors and the physical effects of the occupation, has recently been made by the department of labor and industries.

This study was undertaken with the threefold purpose of ascertaining compliance with existing laws, rules, and regulations relating to the health and safety of workers, of enabling the department to decide whether it is advisable to formulate special rules and regulations governing working conditions in laundries, and of determining whether there are health and accident hazards which would warrant excluding minors from the occupation.

Under the law the department of labor and industries is authorized to make reasonable rules and regulations regarding the lighting, ventilation, and sanitation of industrial establishments to protect the health and welfare of employees. The department is also authorized to exclude minors under 18 from occupations other than those from which they are now specifically excluded by statute if in the opinion of the department such action is necessary to protect the health or safety or morals of such minors.

*Time of study.*—The field work for the study was conducted in the fall and winter of 1920-21, covering the period from October 25 to March 25, inclusive. Practically the full time of one inspector was given to the work.

*Scope of study.*—The study was intended to cover the different types of laundries: The general power or steam laundry, conducting all of the laundry processes; the wet wash, a special form of power laundry, where the work is confined to washing and extracting; and the hand laundry, where, as the name indicates, all of the processes are performed by hand. It was also intended to include representative localities, large cities, and smaller cities and towns, and the different sections of the State. An outline giving the scope and method of the investigation is appended.

It was planned to include, in addition to visits to laundries to ascertain working conditions, visits to the employees in their homes to learn, if possible, the effect of the work upon their health; visits to

hospitals and conferences with physicians, for the purpose of securing morbidity statistics for the occupation; and the collection of data from the industrial accident board and from insurance companies regarding accident hazards in the occupation.

In all, visits were made to 125 laundries, comprising 80 regular power laundries, 36 wet-wash laundries, and 9 hand laundries. In reality, five of the last mentioned were feeders for power laundries, so that actually only four hand laundries were included. This number is too small for statistical purposes. The number of power and wet-wash laundries, however, is fairly representative and includes approximately one-fourth of the laundries of this type in the State. These 125 laundries employed nearly 4,000 workers, 70 per cent of whom were women. Of this number, less than one-twelfth were minors under 21 years of age. Of the women workers, 120 were interviewed in their homes or in the establishments.

*Method of study.*—In the visits the following points were covered: Age; physical appearance; laundry where employed; length of employment in laundries; previous employment, with length of time; specific occupation in laundry; machine on which employed; accidents, if any, met with in work; effect of work on health.

Because of the limitations of time and for other reasons it was necessary to discontinue the home visits before the work was completed. Although some of the data collected are of interest, the records secured are too limited to permit any definite conclusions regarding the physical effects of the work.

The major part of the study was concerned with the investigation of laundry establishments. In these visits the following points were considered: Type and condition of building, including construction of floors; physical condition of workrooms, as drainage, ventilation, heat, and humidity; provisions for the health and comfort of workers, such as washing facilities, lockers or dressing rooms, rest rooms, lunch rooms, seats for employees; provisions, if any, taken to reduce fatigue; provisions for safeguarding the employees from infection in the marking and sorting rooms; accident hazards; machinery—type of machines employed, whether old or new models, and kind of guards used; work on which minors under 18 are employed; and whether general rules and regulations regarding health, safety, and sanitation are complied with.

*Orders issued.*—In the course of this inspection 192 orders were issued, covering 97 establishments, including 67 power, 28 wet-wash, and 2 hand laundries. The majority of these orders had to do with guarding dangerous machinery and with accident prevention, as guarding belts and pulleys, covering washers and extractors, repairing wash-room floors and gutters. Orders for the improvement of general sanitation, lighting, ventilation, and cleanliness were issued 27 times; for removal of gases, fumes, and dust, 10 times; for improving toilet and washing facilities, 26 times; providing seats for women and minors, 7 times; prohibiting the employment of minors under 16 on machines, 8 times. Other requests were concerned with hours of women and minors, procuring employment and educational certificates, supplying medical chests, and protecting employees from injuries to eyes.

*Statistics regarding working conditions.*—Of the entire number of laundries visited 40 per cent were reported as having objectionable

features of some sort. These were mainly the smaller general laundries, wet-wash laundries, and coat and towel supply establishments. Good or fair conditions were found in approximately 60 per cent of the laundries visited, employing nearly 70 per cent of the workers. Of the wet-wash laundries one-half were insanitary and presented objectionable features. This group employed 42 per cent of the workers found in this type of laundry.

*Location and type of building.*—With respect to location and type of building, 50 per cent were built for laundry purposes or had been entirely remodeled. Approximately 60 per cent were well located. With about 30 per cent the construction and location were fair. A few, however, approximately 10 per cent, were in buildings unsuitable for laundry purposes or ill adapted for the type and amount of work conducted. In some instances the difficulty was with the situation, the laundry being below the street level and so arranged that satisfactory sanitation was impossible.

*Objectionable features.*—In addition to poor location, other objectionable features noted in the investigation were bad sanitation, poor equipment, lack of repairs, defective floors or stairs, poor drainage, excessive heat and humidity, overcrowding, and machinery hazards. In a few establishments antiquated machinery was employed, poorly adjusted, heavy to operate, and either inadequately guarded or without guards.

*Sanitation of workroom.*—Because of the nature of the work in a steam laundry, ventilation is a particularly important factor. In several of the departments of power laundries unnatural temperature-humidity conditions are created which necessitate in most establishments the installation of artificial ventilation. This is especially true in the wash room, where large volumes of water are used; in the flat-work ironing rooms; in the working zones of gas-heated body ironing machines, where free flames are exposed without vent; and in ironing rooms, where the steam-heated chests of the body and shirt presses in contact with damp clothes produce both heat and humidity.

Although the majority of the workers can and do adjust themselves to these abnormal conditions, the effects are enervating. They increase the fatigue of the workers and enhance the possibility of accidents.

Many of the problems of sanitation in the laundry can be corrected by providing sunny, well-lighted, properly heated, and ventilated workrooms with high-studded ceilings and adequate window space, and with wash room floors properly constructed, graded, and drained. Some additional mechanical devices, such as heat deflectors and fans, are usually required to insure comfortable working conditions.

It is desirable both for the comfort of the employees and for efficiency in the work that the temperature should not exceed 80 degrees by the dry-bulb and 70 degrees by the wet-bulb reading. Another factor less frequently considered in connection with laundries is sufficient heat during the winter months. We are apt to assume that laundries are overheated if anything; yet in three of the laundries visited the temperature in the wash rooms was abnormally low, so that the men were subject to the double discomfort of working in a cold, damp atmosphere.

On the whole, however, the ventilation in the laundries inspected was fairly satisfactory. In 60 per cent, according to the agent's report, conditions were good, in 28 per cent fair, and in only 12 per cent bad.

*Drainage.*—Other important factors in the proper sanitation of laundries are the flooring in the wash rooms and the arrangements for drainage, as floors improperly constructed with inadequate drainage offer both health and accident hazards. The majority of the laundries visited had well-constructed floors, properly graded, and with adequate gutters placed beneath the wash machines and draining to the sewers.

In the buildings constructed or reconstructed for laundry purposes, the floors as a rule were built with a slight slope from the center to the side, so that the gutters received the water shed from the truck tubs to the inclined floors as well as that discharged by the machines. Only six of the laundries had wooden floors in the wash rooms. Of the entire number, drainage conditions were reported as good in 76 per cent, fair in 12 per cent, and bad in 12 per cent.

*Machines operated by women.*—In only four of the laundries were women found operating washers or extracting machines. This is an undesirable practice, and should be prohibited, as the work is too heavy for women and the accident hazard is serious.

*Speeding up.*—Another undesirable practice which is not covered by existing legislation, and which it would be very difficult to correct through legislation, is running machines at such a speed that it is hard for the operatives to maintain the pace. In the majority of the laundries, the flat-work ironers were run at a speed of 40 to 60 feet per minute, according to the class of work. In five of the laundries engaged in wholesale flat work, however, the speed was adjusted from 80 to 90 feet per minute with only two folders engaged to receive. The practice of speeding, however, is not peculiar to laundries.

*Provisions for health and comfort of workers.*—Apparently the most serious defect existing on a large scale in laundries is the lack of provision for the physical well-being of workers. Of the entire number of laundries visited, only 26 provided dressing rooms; only 8 had rest rooms; only 8 had lunch rooms; 5, first-aid equipment; and 3, lockers. Yet all of these provisions are particularly essential in the power laundry.

*First-aid equipment.*—The type of machinery used in the large laundry, the number of accidents that occur, and the possibility of infection from scratches or cuts while handling soiled linen make a first-aid outfit essential.

Fortunately, a measure enacted this year adds mechanical establishments, which include laundries, to those that must provide first-aid outfits and that must also provide a rest room for employees injured or taken ill upon the premises, in cases of establishments employing 100 or more. Yet even with a smaller number of employees a rest room is desirable, because of the nature of the work, the conditions under which it is performed, and the fatigue induced by monotonous processes carried on at a high rate of speed, often in an extremely hot and humid atmosphere.

*Dressing rooms and lockers.*—Another form of equipment needed in practically every power laundry is dressing rooms and lockers.

These should be located outside the workroom, where the employees may be sure their outer garments will be warm and dry, and if their work is such as to require a change of clothing, as much laundry work does, that they will have a suitable place to make the change. In addition to physical discomfort, it endangers the health of the workers if they are obliged to hang their street clothes on the wall of the workroom, to become permeated with moisture. Yet only three of the laundries visited provided such lockers for employees, and only 26 furnished dressing rooms. Several of these were connected with toilets.

*Lunch rooms.*—Very few lunch rooms were provided—eight in all—and in consequence, even in some of the large establishments employees ate their lunch at the machines and work places. In one laundry young girls, sorting and marking soiled clothes, were found eating while at work.

*Washing facilities.*—In some instances washing facilities were inadequate, the washtubs being the only means provided. Comparatively few furnished running hot and cold water in immediate proximity to the marking and sorting booths, yet here if anywhere such facilities are needed. On the other hand, it should be noted that two of the laundries visited furnished shower baths for their employees.

*Protection of workers from infection.*—Very few laundries took any precaution to protect the workers from possible infection other than to refuse bundles from placarded houses and to return bundles of an objectionable nature. Laundries with regular patrons are less likely to incur hazards of this nature than those that receive work from any source, as agencies, hotels, hospitals, railroad and steamship companies.

In two of the laundries visited the bundles of soiled clothes were sprayed with germicide before they came to the markers. Four furnished uniforms for the markers. In a few establishments special compartments were provided for this work.

Neither from the home nor hospital visits was any information obtained that would show definite connection between handling soiled clothes and communicable disease. A number of the markers interviewed who had been employed on the work for several years reported no ill effects, although several, especially minors, complained of nausea. It should be noted, however, that the data regarding the health of workers were insufficient for evidence on this subject. Moreover, information of this nature is extremely hard to secure. Even in cases where specific diseases had been contracted, it would be difficult to prove that it was contracted from the work, although a high frequency of infectious diseases among laundry employees would indicate connection with the occupation. In the absence of statistics showing the morbidity of laundry workers in comparison with other workers, no conclusions are warranted.

It is true that the germs of many diseases live but a short period apart from the human body. This minimizes the danger of infection through marking soiled clothing in the general laundry. In the case of institutional laundries where linen is handled directly after contact the hazard would seem to be more serious. In any case, however, it should not be necessary to prove that disease has been contracted from the work in order to insure more sanitary conditions where the possibility of health hazard exists.

Reasonable precaution should be taken to protect employees from the danger of infection in marking soiled clothes. This work should be entirely separate from other laundry processes. It should preferably be performed in a light, sunny, well-ventilated room with running hot and cold water in close proximity. Overall aprons and gloves should be furnished workers and their use required. Employees should not be permitted to eat while at work. Sprinkling the clothes with germicide or even moistening them with water is advisable, as it helps to protect the workers from dust.

*Seats for workers.*—Processes at which women were generally found sitting while at work were folding and feeding small pieces for the flat-work ironer, operating collar-ironing machines, and sorting clean clothes. Much of the work, however, performed by women in power laundries involved standing, as the operation of shirt units, shaking and folding large pieces for the flat-work ironer, and marking-in. In a few of the establishments visited chairs were available for the workers in the marking-in department. The practice, however, was not general. It would seem desirable that better provision should be made for seating workers and that use of chairs for short periods of relaxation should be much more common than at the present time.

*Rest periods.*—In 8 of the 125 laundries inspected, rest periods were given employees. Four of the laundries following this practice were in hospitals. Three gave a 15-minute rest interval in the forenoon and again in the afternoon, and in addition served a light lunch. Because of the speed at which the machines are operated and the monotony of the work, rest periods are important from a business standpoint as well as in the interest of the employees.

*Machines and equipment.*—The type of machines and their adjustment plays an important part in the comfort of the operatives. Although the majority of the establishments visited were using standard machinery, some were still employing antiquated models, such as gas-heated body irons, heated by an open gas flame, with the machines in rows so arranged that the heat from one machine was reflected to the operator of the next. These machines are very fatiguing, as the operation involves a continuous muscular motion, stepping back and forth in treadmill fashion to keep the contact of the two rolls complete and even. These machines were found principally in the coat and towel supply establishments.

Several laundries were found using old type 30-pound drag irons. Others employed old-model shirt units which are heavy to operate, so that the workers were subjected to unnecessary strain and jar. In very few of the laundries were pneumatic treadles used on the shirt units. Some of the latest models, however, used steam for part of the pressure and were so adjusted as to involve slight strain on the operators.

*Guarding machines.*—In the majority of the larger laundries machines were properly guarded. Of the orders issued, however, 87 related to guarding dangerous machinery and removing accident hazards. Illustrations of these orders are: Repairing torn edges on outer shells of washers, guarding belts and pulleys on extractors, placing and adjusting finger guards on flat-work ironers, guarding shafting and repairing and reinforcing guards, repairing wash-room floors, stair railings, and stair treads.

*Accident hazards.*—That there is need for more precaution in this respect is indicated by the number of accidents still occurring to workers in laundries. In the year 1919 there were 190 tabulatable accidents sustained by employees in Massachusetts laundries. Of this number, 1 resulted fatally, 6 involved permanent partial disability, such as the loss of a hand or arm, and 183 resulted in temporary disability; that is, in absence from work resulting in loss of pay. In 1920 there were 204 tabulatable accidents of this nature, 2 of which were fatal, 3 of which resulted in permanent partial disability, and 199 in temporary disability. Although these statistics in Massachusetts are not classified by sex, the type of machinery on which the accidents occur gives a fair indication. It is safe to assume, for example, that the accidents occurring on washing machines and extractors are practically confined to men, while those on ironing machines, body ironers, and flat-work ironers are presumably confined to women. In the year ending July 30, 1920, there were 37 accidents on washing machines and extractors, 1 of which resulted fatally and 3 of which resulted in permanent total disability. During the same period there were 27 accidents on ironing machines and flat-work ironers, 2 of which resulted in permanent disability.

Many of the accidents occurring in laundries are of a minor nature, as burns, jams, and bruises. This is a natural result where workers are engaged in monotonous operations which deaden the faculty of attention. To prevent such accidents, it is essential to take every precaution such as guarding machinery, varying the work where possible, and providing rest periods. Where an establishment is properly equipped and supervised, such accidents do not occur.

A considerable proportion of the accidents in laundries is due to defective or slippery floors and obstructions. Other sources are lack of space, overcrowding of machinery, and narrow aisles in the wash rooms. A number of accidents still occur on the flat-work ironers, caused by the hands of the operatives being drawn into the rolls. The most serious accidents are those occurring in connection with extractors and washing machines. Workers have had their hands or arms caught in the revolving extractor, resulting in some instances in broken wrists or arms; and in others, in tearing the arms completely off.

*Morbidity of workers.*—Very little definite information could be secured showing the relation between the industry and health of employees. Records were secured from two hospitals. These reports, however, were meager and did not give the history of previous illness or family conditions which might have contributed to the condition of the patient.

The results of the home visits indicated that 50 per cent of the employees complained of ill health. In about half of these cases, however, home conditions or previous employment were in part responsible. In some instances, the complaints indicated specific connection with laundry work. The employees complained of sore feet, broken arches, varicose veins, strained muscles, lame sides, colds, and bronchitis. The information secured from this part of the study, however, is too meager to warrant conclusions. It serves merely to illustrate the inadequacy of existing morbidity statistics, and the difficulty involved in efforts to obtain data on the subject.

*Results of study.*—On the whole, however, the result is encouraging. It shows a marked improvement in working conditions since previous investigations made in this State. Doubtless the publicity resulting from the early studies made by the minimum wage commission is one of the factors which has helped to bring about improved conditions. The laundrymen have been trying to remove the unfortunate stigma that has attached itself to this work and to make laundry employment a more attractive occupation.

*Improvement in working conditions.*—From the nature of their business laundrymen are particularly sensitive to public opinion, and the awakened interest on the part of the public (through the work of such organizations as the Consumers' League and the Trade-Union League) has reflected itself in a quickened responsiveness on the part of employers. Other factors that have probably contributed to this result are the efforts that have been made to organize the workers in this occupation. Although these attempts have met with little direct success, indirectly they have brought about in many instances better wage and working conditions. The fact that the industry has been organized by the employers on a national scale is another important factor in the change. The Laundrymen's Association has been conducting a campaign of education to secure throughout the industry the utilization of better machinery, better methods, and better service. As illustration of the attitude of some of the progressive laundrymen, one firm visited employs two college women to study the job, observe processes, and make recommendations for improving the work and working conditions.

*Employment of minors.*—Another encouraging feature is the small number of minors found employed in the industry. Out of a total of approximately 4,000 workers, only 57 were under 16 years of age. Among the reasons for the small number of child workers is the fact that minors under 16 are not permitted to be employed on any laundry machinery, so that the work they can do is mainly confined to marking and sorting. As this work requires accuracy, children as a rule are not desired. The requirement for continuation school attendance for minors under 16 and the fact that their legal working day is shorter than that of older employees is another reason for their exclusion from the occupation. Then, too, there is a growing sentiment among employers against child labor. Although the efforts to raise the age for employed minors from 14 to 16 have been defeated year after year, it is recognized that the change is coming. The educational work connected with this campaign has resulted in raising public sentiment against the employment of children. This sentiment is finding expression in the changed attitude of many employers. One man, the proprietor of a large laundry, at the time of the visit to his establishment pointed to the list of minors posted at the entrance, saying that there were only two black marks on the list—that is, only two minors under 16 in the establishment. He stated that as soon as he could make other arrangements these would go.

*Exclusion of minors.*—With regard to the advisability of further exclusion of minors from the occupation, that is a matter for the department to determine. No evidence was obtained from the investigation to indicate that the occupation presents more serious hazards to minors 16 to 18 years of age than many others in which employ-

ment is permitted. Minors under 16 may not now be employed on laundry machines. This leaves as the principal occupation for those below that age classing and marking soiled clothes. From the nature of the work, the possible health hazard, the susceptibility of young children to disease, and the difficulty of inducing them to observe proper precautions to guard against infection, it would seem advisable to confine such work to older and more experienced employees.

*Rules and regulations.*—Whether the study will result in the establishment of special rules and regulations such as have been adopted in other States for safeguarding working conditions in laundries is also for the department to determine. Should such action be considered advisable, a committee would be appointed made up of employers and employees in the occupation to recommend a code of rules.

It would seem that sufficient evidence has been collected to show the value that would come from the work of such a committee and from the adoption of reasonable rules and regulations for the occupation. Such action would set before all employers the standards of good practice already in effect in the more progressive establishments. It would reach the type of establishment which the association has been unable to reach with its educational work. It would help to standardize working conditions and to remove unfair competition resulting from existing variations. In this connection the work would be in the interest of the employers quite as much as in the interest of the employees.

Another reason for suggesting rules and regulations for laundries is that many of the laws regarding working conditions in industrial establishments do not apply to laundries. The following requirements, for example, apply to factories and workshops, mechanical establishments under which laundries are classed, not being covered: The requirement of a 45-minute lunch period for women and minors; keeping work places free from objectionable gases, vapors, odors, and other impurities; requiring that openings through floors shall be guarded; and provision of lockers for employees.

There are, it is true, requirements as to guarding machinery in the existing laws, and rules and regulations on the subject have been adopted by the department. These cover general requirements as to all machines and specific requirements for woodworking machines. No rules, however, have been adopted with respect to the type of guards to be used on laundry machines. Similarly there are general provisions as to sanitation, lighting, and ventilation of industrial establishments. The law authorizes the department to establish reasonable rules and regulations covering such requirements. No action, however, has been taken under this authorization, although a lighting code is now under consideration.

Because of the prominence of the industry, the large proportion of women employed, the serious accident hazards involved, and the possibility of health hazards, and because, too, of the great variation existing with respect to working conditions in the different laundries at the present time, it would seem desirable that a laundry code should be established.

## LAUNDRY INVESTIGATION.

## OUTLINE FOR REPORT ON HOME VISITS.

Date of visit \_\_\_\_\_  
 Name of employee \_\_\_\_\_ Address \_\_\_\_\_  
 Laundry where employed \_\_\_\_\_

*Points to be covered in interview.*

1. Age \_\_\_\_\_, indicate merely whether minor or adult.
2. Physical appearance (health), indicate whether good, fair, or poor.
3. Length of employment in laundries \_\_\_\_\_
4. Previous employment, with length of time \_\_\_\_\_
5. Specific occupation in laundry.
6. Machine on which employed. .
7. Accidents met with in work, if any, describe.
8. Effect of work on health. Describe any illness or pathological condition resulting from work \_\_\_\_\_ Specifying cause.
9. General working conditions:  
 Hours \_\_\_\_\_ Overtime \_\_\_\_\_ Night work \_\_\_\_\_  
 Sanitation of workroom.  
 Arrangements for comfort of employees.  
 Equipment of machines to protect workers from accidents or fatigue.
10. Wages.
11. Earnings: Weekly \_\_\_\_\_ Annual \_\_\_\_\_
12. Regularity of employment. Average number of days worked per week.

## OUTLINE FOR REPORT ON ESTABLISHMENTS.

File No. \_\_\_\_\_ Date of visit \_\_\_\_\_  
 Name of laundry \_\_\_\_\_ Location \_\_\_\_\_  
 Official interviewed \_\_\_\_\_ Attitude<sup>1</sup> \_\_\_\_\_

*Points to be covered.*

1. Type and condition of building:
  - (a) Old or modern; built for laundry or rebuilt.
  - (b) Repair—good, fair, or bad.
  - (c) Construction—brick, frame.
  - (d) Floors—cement or wood.
2. Physical condition of workrooms:
  - (a) Drainage—satisfactory or not—describe.
  - (b) Ventilation of workrooms—  
 Is there an exhaust system?  
 Are rooms equipped with fans?
  - (c) Heat—  
 Temperature of rooms where women are employed.  
 Are machines provided with heat deflectors? (Note location of machines with respect to distribution of heat.)
  - (d) Humidity—  
 Note if excessive.  
 Note devices for reducing.
3. Provisions for health and comfort of workers:
  - (a) Washing facilities—adequate or not—are hot and cold water supplied?
  - (b) Lockers, or dressing room—  
 Are separate lockers provided for women?  
 Location \_\_\_\_\_ Outside workroom?  
 Is there a dressing room or coat room for women?
  - (c) Rest room—  
 Are there any provisions for employees to rest?  
 Are there any provisions for caring for sick or injured employees in establishments employing less than 100 (other than first-aid outfit)?
  - (d) Lunch room.

<sup>1</sup> Note availability for work on committee on rules in case such should be formed. In this connection, acquaintance with problems, intelligence, and fairness.

4. Provisions for safeguarding employees from infection :
  - Marking and sorting rooms—
    - Note what precautions, if any, are taken to protect workers from infection in handling clothing.
5. Accident hazards :
  - Describe in detail.
  - Are machines guarded?
    - Type of guard employed.
6. Machinery :
  - Modern or old.
  - Repair.
    - Describe machines on which women and girls are employed.
      - Extractors—
        - Operated by women.
        - Guards.
      - Flat-work ironers—
        - Guards, kind—note whether adequate or not.
      - Collar, cuff, and body ironers—
        - Are there machines equipped with pneumatic treadles or operated entirely by foot pressure?
        - Is platform used with machine?
7. Seats for employees :
  - Describe operations at which women are seated.
  - Note if other operations could also be performed with worker seated.
  - If additional devices or different machinery would be required to effect this—note.
8. Work on which minors under 18 are employed :
  - Note particularly processes in which young girls are engaged.
  - Describe in detail with reference to physical demands and probable effect on health.
9. Are general rules and regulations re safety and health complied with?
10. Do conditions meet requirements for health and safety of workers suggested in Federal study (United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, Bulletin 122) and embodied in Laundry Code of Wisconsin?
11. Note changes that you would recommend to improve working conditions in this establishment with respect to health and safety of women employees.
12. In hand laundries note especially the number of hours per day and per week women work.
13. What provisions are taken to reduce fatigue? Are workers shifted from one operation to another?

## NEED FOR PROTECTIVE LEGISLATION FOR WOMEN.

BY ETHEL M. JOHNSON, ASSISTANT COMMISSIONER MASSACHUSETTS DEPARTMENT OF LABOR AND INDUSTRIES.

There has been, as you know, within the last few years not only a marked increase in the number of women employed outside the home, but a striking change in the type of employments entered. Women have been leaving the traditional occupations and thronging to new ones hitherto supposed to be confined to men. These changes are in part due to the war, but only in part. They have been in progress for a number of years. The war has, however, served to accentuate them. These changes have created new problems, the extension of the protection of women in industry, and the recognition of the importance of providing better conditions of employment for all workers—men and women alike. The physical and economic disabilities of women, and until recently their political disabilities, have caused attention to be centered more particularly on provisions for safeguarding women workers. Both problems, however, are important. They are in fact interdependent. In devoting a special session to considering some of these problems of women in industry it is not therefore intended to suggest that they are distinct from the problems of men in industry, but merely to emphasize their importance as part of the larger problem of humanizing industry for all.

Since we met last year the nineteenth amendment to the Federal Constitution has been adopted granting to women throughout the country full citizenship. Its passage has given rise to new questions concerning women in industry, or, rather, to old questions in a new form. To the majority of thinking women the change has meant added opportunities for service and added responsibilities for assisting in securing protective legislation for other women and the children of other women. A few extreme feminists, however, feel that political equality necessarily implies economic equality and, unmindful of the physical disabilities of women, unmindful also of the industrial history of the race, are urging that all special labor legislation for women should be removed. Their efforts serve as a smoke screen for those less disinterested agencies that have always opposed protective legislation for women and children.

One fact that is sometimes overlooked in the discussion of equal opportunities is that a large proportion of the women industrially employed are minors. About 40 per cent, it is estimated, are under 21 years of age and so are unable to avail themselves of the protection of the ballot, while a considerable part of the remainder are foreign-born women who have not been naturalized and are not entitled to vote. It is because of the helplessness of the mass of working women,

their youth, their ignorance of industrial conditions, their lack of organization, and consequent lack of bargaining power, that many feel that special legislation is needed.

In discussing the question of protective legislation for women, there are, therefore, divers points to be considered. Is there primarily need for special labor legislation for the protection of women in industry? Has the extension of suffrage to women changed this situation? Should labor legislation for women be different from that for men or should it be the same for both, and if the same, should this equality be secured by breaking down existing safeguards for women or by raising the standards of employment for men and women alike?

THURSDAY, MAY 5—MORNING SESSION.

## FACTORY INSPECTION.

### THE VALUE OF FACTORY INSPECTION.

BY LOUISE SCHUTZ, SUPERINTENDENT BUREAU OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN, ST. PAUL, MINN.

There is nothing especially new to be said on my subject—the value of factory inspection. I can only repeat and emphasize again the points that have been brought out at previous conferences. Certainly if we had no inspection force in the various departments whose business it is to enforce labor laws, the laws would be of little account. We all know employers who strive earnestly to live up to all the laws and who acquaint themselves with the new legislation passed biennially. Other employers are only too glad to plead ignorance of the law and to go smugly along the same old way unless mildly jolted out of their complacency by an inspector who comes to tell them of the changes that must be made in their factories.

We have to bear in mind that when we enter a workshop or other place of business as an inspector with the intent to enforce the law, we are looked upon, at the time of the initial visit at least, as an intruder. We must then, at that time, give the appearance of knowing what we are about if we expect results later. In the final analysis I think factory inspection is valuable or valueless just so far as the factory inspectors are themselves capable, conscientious, and convincing, because of their knowledge of the work, and as tactful as is possible to be under the circumstances. If the inspector is able to suggest practicable working out of a plan, if he is not only able to suggest that certain machinery ought to be guarded, but can also tell what kind of a guard should be used and how to install it, he can have far-reaching influence. If he can go still further and tell the employer, especially if he demurs at the expense of guarding the machinery, that such and such an accident occurred on just this type of machine, he can not be otherwise than convincing. If the employer knows why a certain law was passed and why the law states that this particular machine must be guarded, the inspector need say nothing more.

In Minnesota one of our inspectors was sent to look over a plant which was in bad shape and under the management of rather an ignorant type of employer. There was much work to be done in the plant, old wooden guards to be removed and better-constructed ones installed. Many minor accidents had occurred in this box factory. The inspector took rather an arrogant high-handed attitude toward the employer, and an altercation seemed imminent. When court

action seemed necessary in order to make this plant come up to standard, as a last resort another member of our department went down to go over the plant and see what he could do. He talked the situation over in detail with the manager in a patient and reasonable manner, and then made suggestions as to what guards to use, how to put them on, and just why they were necessary. At the end of the interview the employer said, "If that other man had explained these guards as thoroughly as you have we wouldn't have had all this trouble." If, then, we are to be successful factory inspectors, we must have our subject thoroughly in hand and be able to keep our temper and reason patiently with difficult employers.

Our inspection work will be more fruitful of results if we are able to make definite recommendations. Since few people besides factory inspectors have the privilege of going into all places of employment and knowing the various practices in the different workshops, a mental note ought to be made, or information jotted down in a notebook concerning interesting and useful features developed in different plants. The good news should then be carried around to other employers, who may be wondering how they themselves could solve a certain problem to which the suggestion that is forthcoming may be the key. The employer will of course listen with an especially attentive ear if he finds that at the same time that he is improving his plant and making it a more livable place and a safer place, he is also in a fair way to increase production.

We should be able to suggest changes that will make the factory comply with the law, and we should also be able to go further and make good suggestions when we have no law back of us—suggestions that may result in happier, more contented employees, and also increased production, possibly. While some employers are satisfied if they are living up to the minimum requirements of the law, others are not satisfied until their factory is as good as the best, and they want to know what the best is and expect us to be able to tell them. Factory inspectors should be interested in everything that is progressive in connection with their work. They should attend lectures on accident prevention, safety, lighting, and so on, when such courses are offered, as they were last winter in St. Paul by the Association of Commerce. If employers know we have attended and have absorbed something, they will think we are not just political appointees, drawing a salary from the State and going around mechanically inspecting, but are really interested in our work and progressive.

One of our Minnesota inspectors had rather a difficult time the first two years he was on the staff, because the employers did not take him seriously. He tried to organize a safety committee in one of the plants but did not meet with a response. One day when he was in the plant waiting for an interview with the manager he noticed that during a certain process on a machine, at intervals the workman had to walk several feet to turn off the switch, then come back to his machine, work a few minutes, and turn off the switch again. He called the attention of the manager to this waste of time. The manager came in and watched the process and made a note of the fact that if this man went back and forth to the switch this way all day, a great deal of time was being lost. At the sug-

gestion of the factory inspector, the switch was placed on a post near the machine where the employee could reach up easily and turn it off. The manager from that time had confidence in the inspector and allowed him to organize a safety committee, with the superintendent as chairman. The superintendent, however, was not interested and the committee did not cooperate as it should have done. The inspector then advised that the superintendent be removed from his position as chairman of the safety committee and that one of the foremen be placed in full charge as chairman of the committee on safety work. The manager carried out the inspector's suggestions. Since that time the selfsame inspector has been elected to full membership in the American Society of Mechanical Engineers.

Inspectors should not try to see how many inspections they can make a week but should rather try to do thoroughly the work they attempt. Employers must not get the impression that we have only so much time to give and are poised for flight to meet another engagement. Some employers, after they have melted a bit, want to talk over their problems with the inspectors or they may ask for information about the law. We find that some employers who do not at first take kindly to being inspected will, in the course of an interview, become quite interested in the discussion and finally decide that the inspectors are not half bad after all and do know what they are talking about.

It has been our experience that with some employers we have to suggest improvements gradually, but that if we keep going back and back we can in time bring the plant up to standard. We have found sometimes, upon a return visit, that employers who were the most suave and affable at the time of the initial inspection have not carried out as many of our suggestions as have the employers who glowered at us until we were uncomfortable. We have found it advisable to make written records of the suggestions we have offered during our inspections. For example, if an accident occurred on a machine that was ordered guarded by the inspector and he has a written record to that effect, he at least is vindicated. Even after a liability man has gone through a plant, an inspector may find it necessary to issue orders. When an insurance man is accustomed, for example, to inspecting packing plants, he might overlook some feature that might come to the attention of an inspector who is familiar with all sorts of plants. In one case in Minnesota, an inspector was told when he came into the factory, "You won't find anything here this time, because our liability man has just been through." When the inspector came out of the plant and went back to the office he issued 40 orders which meant additional guarding of machinery.

If we did not make inspections in plants we would not have reports of conditions that can be corrected only by legislation; for example, in Minnesota we presented enough data to our legislature this year to make it seem advisable, at least to us, to pass laws restricting the number of hours that women in all occupations could work. I might add that we did not get the law, but we hope, as the result of this experience, to present an overwhelming array of facts to the next legislature. Incidentally, in going through different plants the inspectors have an opportunity to talk with the workmen and get their

views of conditions. In that way certain desirable changes are called to the attention of the inspectors, which would otherwise be overlooked entirely.

There is much said nowadays about taking courses in character analysis, and many traveling salesmen in particular are enthusiastic over the idea because they feel that after such a course they are able to understand their customers better and so sell more goods to them. It occurs to me that it would be equally advisable for factory inspectors to make a study of character with the idea in mind of finding out the best method of approach, for surely no group of people has to deal with a greater variety of individuals than do factory inspectors, and we ought to sell ideas just as traveling salesmen sell their wares. With some employers we have to touch their pride. For example, I recall a case of a factory in which there had been considerable carelessness in determining the age of young people before hiring them. After we had told one of the owners of this large factory that his plant was commonly known as a kindergarten in some circles we never had any more trouble with child labor there.

Finally, if the time does come when the employers send for us to pass on a particular guard or to make a suggestion about ventilation or a proper kind of chair to use at a certain occupation, we will feel in a measure rewarded after the trying experiences we have had when we were only trying to do our duty.

## QUALIFICATIONS OF A GOOD INSPECTOR.

BY H. H. BYE, FACTORY INSPECTOR, IOWA.

Good inspectors, be they male or female, must of necessity be practical men and women, who seek to do their work in a practical manner. In factory inspection, we must have high standards as to what constitutes effective and efficient inspection. Technical and practical ignorance on the part of an inspector, which asks for impossibilities, must be eliminated and practical definite knowledge substituted.

A good inspector must of necessity be capable of rendering service to the manufacturers and their workmen, by placing before them the best information available regarding proper lighting, heating, ventilating, sanitation, hazardous and harmful practices, and numerous other matters pertaining to the workshop, factory, or other place of employment, as well as the safeguarding and methods of accident prevention relating to mechanical equipment; in other words, he must be in a position to impress upon both the employer and employee the fact that the health, safety, and comfort of all concerned is not an imaginary quantity nor a particular hobby, but that it is a very necessary and important factor toward the production of real efficiency.

In every instance where requests or orders are to be made he must be prepared to show the real need for such orders, and the benefits to be derived through compliance with the same. He should also be prepared to show in a concise and specific manner just how his requests should be complied with, and, if necessary, how to install any guard, safety device, lighting, heating, or ventilating scheme, etc., required, taking into consideration the physical conditions of the workroom and surroundings and the elimination of any needless expense in installation, but always impressing those who are to be benefited, with the idea that his orders must be completed in a substantial and workmanlike manner, and that the efficiency of said safety devices must not be impaired or diminished in any manner through faulty or cheapened construction and installation.

In our opinion a good inspector should be qualified to act as an educator or practical instructor to both the employer and employee; if this be true, a broad field is presented, where the inspector may exercise his considerable experience and practical knowledge toward stirring up interest among employers and employees, in effecting methods of organizing and conducting safety committees and safety campaigns, in individual plants, to such extent as to make said safety organizations of practical value to all, not only in the interest of safety, but also from the standpoint of efficiency.

It sometimes occurs that an inspector misses some of the danger points and dangerous portions of equipment in a factory, but if he has properly impressed and enthused the employer and workmen

in the interest of health, safety, and comfort, the few details missed by the inspector will soon be found and remedied by those who have become enthused; on the other hand, if an inspector should have missed nothing in the way of danger points, etc., and should have made a very careful tabulation of same and ordered same remedied, without making the proper impression on the employer and employee, we are doubtful as to the full success of his inspection, for he has left the employer and employee in an indifferent attitude, so far as real safety is concerned.

A good inspector realizes the value of cooperation, by both employer and employee, in making his labors pleasant and effective. While most inspectors are governed by laws and certain rulings required under the laws, they can not afford to be overbearing or too arbitrary in the exercise of official duties, and should be tolerant of the views of those with whom they come in contact, but firm in their decisions and rulings; such demeanor on the part of an inspector will win the confidence and cooperation of those whom he meets.

It is not always the most efficient inspector or officer who has the largest number of prosecutions to his or her credit; and sometimes it pays to be lenient and wait until the time limit for compliance with an order is absolutely exhausted, rather than force the burden of prosecution; while at another time it may be the poorest policy to do so. We must all study humanity; the man or woman who does not study human nature is dead and does not know it. A good factory inspector's work is in the direction of studying humanity and for the conservation of human lives, so that we may make our children and children's children strong mentally, morally, and physically.

New and improved mechanical equipment and ever-changing conditions change the mode of operation to such extent as to permit, if allowed, certain hazardous and harmful practices on the part of both employer and employee; it is therefore of great importance that the inspector should thoroughly acquaint himself with all of the major details, at least, pertaining to such changes, and to be in a position to point out and show why and how such practices can and should be remedied.

The inspector should be able at all times to carry on such conversation or correspondence in relation to his duties as can be readily understood by those with whom he may talk or correspond; it thus becomes necessary for the inspector to be well posted regarding technical and mechanical terms, as well as with the many abbreviated terms and common practices in use by both employer and employee in relation to mechanical equipment and operation of same. A good inspector not only gains his point of argument, if there be one, but also gains the respect of the employer and employee if his conversation or correspondence be worded in such terms as are properly and commonly used and understood.

Knowing, as well as all do, that real efficiency depends very greatly on the comfort of all concerned, we can not underestimate the need of proper heating facilities for places of employment. The employer sometimes overlooks this important feature to his own detriment. The inspector should be able to show, if necessary, that increased efficiency can be produced through making workrooms or

other places of employment comfortable, so far as heating is concerned; he should take into consideration the physical condition of the place of employment and the nature of the employment, so far as possible, and be able to determine so far as practicable whether such place of employment was insufficiently or overheated, as the case might be, and be in a position to order the application necessary to remedy same. Adequate and proper lighting facilities are very necessary in the production of efficiency and indispensable so far as safety and comfort are concerned, but the physical conditions of some places of employment are such that the best results can not be obtained. The inspector may or may not be an expert so far as shop lighting is concerned, and he may find numerous obstacles to overcome in accomplishing the best results, but if he be studious and observant he will find in his daily travels places where inadequate lighting conditions have been overcome in various ways, and will profit by the experience of others, and be in a position to suggest or request certain practical means for better lighting that will appeal to both employer and employee.

One of God's richest gifts to mankind is fresh, pure air; it is very necessary in the promotion of efficient production and absolutely necessary so far as health, safety, and comfort are concerned. The good inspector must make a study of proper ventilation, and where he finds a workroom or other place of employment, where the atmosphere is vitiated, he should be able to show conclusively and to the satisfaction of both employer and employee the necessity of proper ventilation for such place of employment, and order such plan or methods as will tend to remedy the evil condition and allow for the proper inlet of fresh air and the discharge of foul air. Sanitation in factories, workshops, and, in fact, everywhere, should demand the attention of a good inspector. Cleanliness is next to godliness, so we are taught, and clean, sanitary conditions are inseparable from good health and comfort, which tend toward efficiency in production; hence the proper sanitation of any place of employment or abode is of most vital importance.

The good inspector will insist upon the installation of clean and sanitary toilet and washing facilities, sanitary dressing rooms, and clothing lockers where the nature of employment is such as to demand the change of clothing; clean and sanitary drinking facilities, and a clean, sanitary place of employment, in all cases where possible and practicable.

The good inspector must be so thoroughly impressed and enthused in his work and the discharge of his manifold duties as to enthrall all with whom he officially or otherwise comes into contact, and must conduct himself, his work, and his attitude toward both the employer and employee in such manner as to gain their confidence and respect and make his services practically indispensable to them.

If such confidence and respect exists, there will be little, if any, doubt as to the hearty cooperation of all concerned, and the inspector will be considered as a public benefactor, and not as an unnecessary nuisance, empowered by law or otherwise to agitate useless reforms and make life miserable for both employer and employee. The really efficient and good inspector need have no fear or misgivings as to his reception on future visitation of employers and employees if he has made the correct impression on both during his first inspection.

THURSDAY, MAY 5--AFTERNOON SESSION.

BUSINESS MEETING.

REPORT OF SECRETARY-TREASURER.

Cash on hand at making of last report.....	\$200. 35
Receipts from dues.....	305. 00
<hr/>	
Total cash.....	505. 35
Disbursements.....	335. 02
<hr/>	
Cash on hand.....	170. 33

Respectfully submitted.

LINNA E. BRESETTE, *Secretary-Treasurer.*

MAY 2, 1921.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS.

1. *Resolved*, That the association express its warm appreciation to the various organizations and individuals of New Orleans who have extended their hospitality to the delegates here assembled.

2. *Resolved*, That the association extend its thanks to Dr. John A. Lapp, of Chicago, Ill., and to Miss Jean Gordon, of New Orleans, for their contributions to the program, and to those who prepared the program and participated in making the meeting a success.

3. *Resolved*, That the association extend its thanks to the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics for arranging for the printing of the proceedings of the convention.

4. *Resolved*, That the secretary of this association be, and she hereby is, authorized and instructed to extend, in the name of this association, to the several organizations and individuals the thanks and hearty appreciation of the delegates here assembled for the several courtesies extended, and that each be written an individual letter expressing such appreciation.

5. *Resolved*, That the association express its pleasure over the appointment of Miss Mary Anderson as director of the United States Woman's Bureau and of Ethelbert Stewart as United States Commissioner of Labor Statistics.

6. *Resolved*, That this association indorse the minimum standards for children in industry adopted by the child-welfare conference called by the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor in 1919.

7. *Resolved*, That in view of the importance of safeguarding the health of working children through adequate provision for physical examination of minors entering industry and at work, this association expresses its approval of the principles embodied in recommendations of the committee appointed by the United States Children's Bureau to formulate standards of health for working children, and recommends the general adoption of these standards in the various States and Provinces.

8. *Resolved*, That the convention recommend that the uniform method of tabulation of accident statistics now in use in several States be employed by the different States and Provinces, and that notice of this recommendation be sent to the boards and commissions that deal with industrial accidents.

9. *Resolved*, That the association recommend that more adequate opportunities for vocational training in trades of industry be offered to women and girls, and that notice of this recommendation be sent to the various State and provincial boards of education.

10. *Resolved*, That the association recommend that State labor departments take a more active part in shaping the policy of labor legislation in their respective States.

11. *Resolved*, That an invitation to attend the open sessions of the convention be extended to college departments of economics, to women's clubs and organizations, to the chamber of commerce, to employers' associations, and to the labor unions in the cities where the convention is held.

12. *Resolved*, That this association express its warm appreciation to the various organizations and individuals of New Orleans who have extended their hospitality to the delegates here assembled, and particularly to the New Orleans press for publicity; to the management of the Grunewald Hotel for the free use of the gold room, to M. Trelles & Co., Hershheim Co., Peoples' Tobacco Co., A. Falk Cigar Co., Phil D. Mayer & Sons, Elmer Candy Co., Paul Gelpi & Sons, Jacobs Candy Co., Fuerst & Kraemer, Pantages Theater, Josiah Pearce Sons, Saenger Amusement Co. for the theater party, to the Manufacturers' Bureau of the New Orleans Association of Commerce for the banquet furnished the delegates, and especially to M. A. H. Seawalk of said bureau for his personal efforts and cooperation for arranging entertainments, and to Dr. J. A. Lapp, of Illinois, for his splendid address delivered at the banquet.

[These resolutions were adopted unanimously.]

#### ELECTION OF OFFICERS.

The election of officers resulted as follows:

*President*.—Frank E. Wood, commissioner of labor and industrial statistics, New Orleans, La.

*First vice president*.—C. B. Connelley, chairman industrial board, Harrisburg, Pa.

*Second vice president*.—Ethel M. Johnson, assistant commissioner of labor, Boston, Mass.

*Third vice president*.—H. M. Stanley, commissioner of labor, Atlanta, Ga.

*Fourth vice president*.—Francisco Varona, director labor bureau, Manila, P. I.

*Fifth vice president*.—J. N. McLeod, chief inspector, Calgary, Alberta, Canada.

*Secretary-treasurer*.—Linna E. Bresette, director women's work, court of industrial relations, Topeka, Kans.

[Convention adjourned.]

#### REPORTS OF STATES ON NEW LEGISLATION.

The convention voted to dispense with hearing of reports of States and Provinces. The reports given here were the only reports submitted in writing to the secretary.

##### REPORT OF MASSACHUSETTS.

By ETHEL M. JOHNSON, assistant commissioner Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industries.

As the Massachusetts Legislature is still in session, a complete report of the labor measures introduced this year would not be possible at the present time, even if such a report could be given in the space available. In view of these limitations I shall confine myself to a statement regarding the measures recommended by the department of labor and industries and those directly concerning the work of the department.

Of the six bills introduced by the department this year three relate to the employment of minors and three relate to general conditions of employment. Of these last mentioned one requires that the covering hoods of grinding machines shall be of material approved by the department of labor and industries. The second extends the law regarding the weekly payment of wages to include employees of transportation companies; and the third extends the requirements for first-aid equipment to cover mechanical establishments. All three measures have been enacted and will become effective some time this summer. Under the present law every bill that is passed automatically becomes effective 90

days after its enactment unless the bill specifically provides that it shall become effective at a later date or unless it carries an emergency preamble authorizing its immediate enactment.

Of the three measures relating to child labor one extended the penalty for the illegal employment of minors. This was one of the most important recommendations made by the department. The present penalty for violation of the child-labor laws is inadequate and fails to deter unscrupulous employers. At the present time the minimum penalty for a first offense is a fine of \$10. The department recommended that the minimum penalty for both the first and subsequent offenses be materially increased. This recommendation has been referred to the next annual session of the legislature, which means that the bill was dismissed without prejudice and may be brought up again in 1922.

The other two recommendations are still pending. One extends the requirements for educational certificates for working children, the other those for employment certificates. At the present time educational certificates are required for minors 18 to 21 years of age who are employed in factories, workshops, mercantile, mechanical, and manufacturing establishments. As one purpose of the certificates is to serve as the basis for determining night-school attendance for illiterate minors, it is essential that they should cover other occupations in which illiterates are likely to be engaged. They should, in fact, cover all occupations, as it is advisable that a record should be available for the school authorities who are responsible for enforcing the school-attendance laws; also that definite proof of age should be available for the agents of the department of labor and industries who enforce the laws regarding the employment of minors. Eventually I hope the law will be amended to meet this need. The bill recommended by the department, however, will improve the existing situation, for it will add to those occupations now covered the following: Minors employed in public and private bowling alleys, pool and billiard rooms, boot-black stands and establishments, barber shops, the construction or repair of buildings, or by express or transportation companies.

The attorney for one of the large railroads objected to having transportation companies included. That objection, however, has been overruled. It is especially important that railroads should be covered, as many of the laborers employed by the roads are illiterate, and their lack of knowledge of the English language has frequently been the cause of accidents. Moreover, the employment of minors under 18 in connection with certain work on the roads is now prohibited, yet without definite proof of age it is difficult to prevent violations. Sometimes these violations are entirely unintentional on the part of the employer. The inclusion of minors employed by the railroads is therefore distinctly in the interest of the employers as well as the employees.

The corresponding bill regarding employment certificates applies to all gainful occupations. At the present time, these certificates are required for minors 14 to 16 years of age in factories, workshops, mercantile, mechanical, and manufacturing establishments. It is important that the protection afforded by the certificates should be extended to all working children. The purpose of these certificates is threefold. They enable the school authorities to ascertain where the children are so that if they are not employed regularly they may be returned to school, and if employed regularly, they may be required to attend continuation school. The certificates assist the department of labor and industries in determining whether the children are legally employed, by affording definite proof of age. They also offer protection to children entering industry, by ascertaining that they can at least meet certain minimum requirements as to age, education, and physical fitness before they are permitted to go to work. The enactment of this measure will remove an inconsistency that now exists between the school-attendance law and the employment-certification law. Both of these bills have passed one branch of the legislature and are now pending<sup>1</sup> enactment in the other.

Among the measures that affect the work of the department, although not recommended by the department, one of the most important is an amendment to the 48-hour law which adds to the groups now covered, women employed in hand laundries, hotels, manicuring and hair-dressing establishments, motion-picture theaters, and private telephone exchanges.

The bill was introduced by organized labor and met with practically no opposition. Its enactment under these circumstances tends to prove the successful operation of the original law which had been in effect for approximately 18 months.

<sup>1</sup> These measures have since been enacted.

A proposal to extend the compulsory school attendance age for all children to 16, and prohibiting the employment of minors under that age was introduced by the labor organizations, but defeated.

Another child-labor bill which is now pending<sup>2</sup> extends the licensing and badge system for street trades. The present law requires badges for boys 12 to 16 years of age in places of over 50,000 inhabitants. The bill as originally introduced by the News Dealers' Association would have broken down entirely this protection so far as it applies to the sale and delivery of newspapers. Through the efforts of the individuals interested in child welfare a substitute measure was accepted which extends the licensing system to cover all localities and children of all ages. Unfortunately, an amendment has been added which extends the hours of minors 14 to 16 years of age; but even with this change the measure will mean a distinct improvement over the existing situation.

A measure which directly concerns the department and which has just been signed by the governor makes mandatory the representation of women in the department of labor and industries by requiring that the assistant commissioner shall be a woman. It also gives the assistant commissioner coordinate powers with the commissioner and associate commissioners in all matters acted on jointly. The consolidation act under which the department of labor and industries was organized made no provision in its original draft for a woman on the administrative board of the department. This department took over the functions of two boards dealing with matters directly concerning women and children on each of which women were by law represented, the board of labor and industries and the minimum wage commission. Through an amendment secured by the women's organizations, the position of assistant commissioner was created. The law as passed provided that the assistant commissioner of the department may be a woman, and also that in matters regarding specifically women and minors, the assistant commissioner may have and exercise such authority as may be prescribed by the commissioner with the approval of the associate commissioners. The bill just enacted not only provides that the assistant commissioner shall be a woman, but also gives certain definite authority to the position and specifically confers the right to investigate and inspect.

#### REPORT OF MINNESOTA.

By FRANK E. HOFFMAN, assistant commissioner of labor of Minnesota.

The most important labor legislation passed in the session of 1921 was a bill reorganizing the department of labor and industries and placing the administration under an industrial commission of three members. Five bureaus, viz, compensation, accident prevention, public employment, statistics, and women and children are continued under the reorganization as divisions. There are added divisions of boiler inspection and of mediation and arbitration, both of which were formerly under other jurisdiction. The industrial commission also becomes the minimum wage commission and the enforcement of their rulings will be placed with the division of women and children. Active administration of all the divisions will be taken over on June 1, 1921, by the commission.

The compensation law was completely redrafted. It provides for administration by the industrial commission in lieu of the district courts. A complete program of procedure for investigation, approval, and settlement of claims arising under the law is provided, all of which are aimed to make payments to the injured workman certain and speedy. The limit of time after an injury in which to bring action for recovery of compensation was extended from one to two years. An enumerated list of 23 occupational diseases is brought within the purview of the act. Farmers may elect to come under the act. State employees are brought under the act. Insurance of liability is made compulsory under the act for all private employers unless permitted by the industrial commission to carry their own risk. A bureau to regulate rates is provided for in another law.

The benefits under the act were materially increased. The maximum of \$15 and minimum of \$6.50 a week which can be recovered were increased to \$18 and \$8 a week, respectively. In cases involving total permanent disability the compensation will be paid during disability, but not to exceed a total amount of \$10,000. For permanent partial disabilities, in addition to the schedule previously provided, compensation must be paid during the healing period, but

<sup>2</sup> This bill has since been enacted.

subject to a limitation of 25 weeks. In serious cases of permanent disabilities, involving compensation for more than 75 weeks, compensation amounting to a total of 25 weeks additional may be allowed during a reeducation period, provided the education is received under the supervision of the State vocational education board.

In death cases, where a widow and children are dependents, the 300-week limitation is abolished. Compensation must be paid during dependency, but subject to a maximum limit of \$7,500 for any case. Grandparents were included in the list of actual dependents, and compensation is also provided for serious disfigurement which affects the employability of an injured person. They can recover a maximum of 50 weeks' compensation. Changes were provided in the schedule for arms and legs when amputation is so near the joints as to prevent the use of an artificial member. The waiting period is eliminated in all cases where the disability lasts over four weeks.

The only accident prevention legislation passed gives the department of labor authority to require goggles and other devices in occupations in which there is grave danger of injury to the eyes of the worker. The furnishing of these devices is made compulsory on the employer and their use made compulsory on the worker. However, under the plan of reorganization, the factory inspectors will not be burdened with such a multiplicity of duties as formerly and will be able to devote much more time to prevention work. The increased costs under the compensation law will also greatly stimulate prevention work among employers.

Among other laws passed relating to labor and industrial conditions was an amendment to the law defining coercion; it makes it a misdemeanor for a foreman or other agent of an employer to coerce or require a worker to contribute money or any other valuable thing in order to obtain employment or to retain his position with such employer.

In House File 45 the legislature provided for aid for poverty-stricken children who are unable to attend school because of such poverty and who can not be legally employed. The school board is authorized to make an allowance for the benefit of the family, but not to exceed \$6 a week for any one child and not more than \$12 a week to any one family.

As a means to hasten justice and avoid excessive court costs in the collecting of small wage claims and other debts the legislature authorized the city council of any city to designate one of the municipal judges to act as a conciliation judge and establish a conciliation court. All cases in which the amount involved is less than \$50 may be heard in this court and summarily disposed of without the need of an attorney and without the usual court formalities.

The law which limits employment on State work to eight hours was amended so it would not apply to road work. The law which limited employment in State institutions to eight hours was also amended to exclude outside employees of such institutions.

A bill was passed which makes claims for compensation in cases of injury to employees of counties, cities, villages, and school districts preferred claims against the general revenue fund of such divisions of government.

The division of the vocational education board which has charge of the re-education of industrial cripples was granted access to the accident reports made by railroads to the railroad and warehouse commission.

A street trades law was enacted which prohibits children under 12 years of age selling newspapers and other articles on the streets. Children between 12 and 16 years of age can secure permits to sell, but under stringent regulations. The law does not apply to regular carriers of newspapers.

A number of bills affecting industrial conditions were defeated or failed to get to a vote, among which were the following: Providing for a constitutional amendment for an eight-hour day for all workers; providing an eight-hour day for women workers; the one-day-rest-in-seven bill; and another limiting the weight that women workers should be permitted to lift in the course of their employment.

#### REPORT OF NORTH CAROLINA.

By M. L. SHIPMAN, commissioner Department of Labor and Printing.

The general assembly of 1921 recognized the department of labor and printing to the extent of the enactment of a statute providing for the establishment and maintenance of a free employment service under the supervision of the commissioner. The bill carries an appropriation of \$10,000 per annum and

the new bureau is proposing to extend its activities as far as possible by offering its services on the basis of municipal, county, State, and Federal cooperation. The development of the system is in its initial stage, with prospects favorable to the establishment of local offices in a number of the larger cities and towns of the State. The State law authorizes cooperation with the United States Employment Service on such basis as may be agreed upon by officials of the Commonwealth and the Federal Government.

Recommendations of the department to the general assembly included: An act establishing industrial standards, creation of a State board of arbitration, workmen's compensation act, boiler-inspection law, State system of employment, strengthening of child-labor law, and providing an 8-hour day for all classes of labor in the industries, to apply to both children and adult workers. We "drew" only the employment-service bill and an increase in the salary of the commissioner from \$3,000 to \$4,500 per annum. Three workmen's compensation bills were presented, but not one of them "passed muster," due, to a large extent, to misunderstandings which arose between the authors and other proponents of the different measures proposed. The 8-hour bill failed in committee. Other recommendations were not pressed.

The closing up of labor ranks during recent periods and the cohesion shown to exist therein, together with the stimulation of new interest in public questions as they may affect the workers, have secured for them more practical recognition than had been previously accorded. The right to bargain collectively was formally recognized last year by platform declarations of both political parties in the State, the natural result following the participation of those who toil in matters of public significance. Recognition of the representatives of organized labor on State boards and commissions in North Carolina is now accorded, and members of the crafts may well look to the future with greater hope and confidence.

The general assembly of 1919 increased the personal property tax exemption from \$25 to \$300, and thousands of dollars in taxes are thus saved to the workingmen of the State every year. An amendment to the State constitution, ratified at the November election last year, exempts from the payment of income tax the incomes of all married men, or widows or widowers having dependent minor child or children, whose incomes do not exceed \$2,000, and only the excess above \$2,000 will be subject to income tax after this year. This amendment will have the effect of leaving thousands of dollars in the pockets of wage earners which would otherwise be required as income tax.

The requirement of two years' residence in the State, six months in the county, and four months in the precinct, before a person could vote in North Carolina is changed, by another amendment to the constitution, to a residence of one year in the State and four months in the county. This will enable a great many workingmen, whose employments take them from one place to another for comparatively short periods, to participate in the elections with less handicap than before.

Again, the capitation tax is definitely limited to \$2 for county and \$1 for municipal purposes. No poll tax is now collected for State purposes; nor is the payment of poll tax required before a person can vote. Women are not required to pay poll tax in North Carolina for any purpose. The tax limitation on property is reduced from 66½ cents to not exceeding 15 cents on the \$100 worth of property—for county purposes only, no ad valorem tax being exacted for the expenses of the State government.

No class of people are as vitally concerned with the questions of public health and sanitation as are the workingmen of the country, and I am glad to be able to say that North Carolina stands right near the top of the list of American Commonwealths with respect to these two highly important subjects. Experts constantly on vigil in the offices of the State board of health have developed a well-conceived plan for the prevention and treatment of ills of every kind, and it is little wonder that the death rate in North Carolina is smaller than that of almost any other State.

I am submitting a supplemental report touching the activities of the State child welfare commission for the past year. There has been no change in the provisions of the child labor law since our meeting in Seattle, despite the existence of a growing sentiment to so change the State law as to make it conform to the Federal statute regulating the employment of children in industry.

We are making haste slowly, but surely, along progressive lines in my State, and shall continue to look to the future with hope and confidence.

*Operation of the Child Labor Law.*

By E. F. CARTER, executive officer State Child Welfare Commission of North Carolina.

A brief outline of the requirements of the North Carolina child labor law, the machinery for enforcement, the program of work, and its relation to the Federal law was reported to the last annual convention. It is, therefore, presumable that a few references to the operation of the law would be interesting to this convention.

The State child welfare commission was created to administer the child labor law, also an act to require employers of females to provide seats therefor, and an act to compel all persons, corporations, manufacturers, and business enterprises to provide separate and distinct toilets for each sex and color.

The commission realized from the report at the close of the year ending November 30, 1920, that a volume of careful and painstaking work had been accomplished by the executive secretary who is charged with the administration of the laws under the general direction of the commission. A total of 3,935 inspections of industrial and business places and investigations of child labor and general welfare were reported from cities and counties by the authorized agents of the commission during the year. There were 738 violations of the child labor law discovered in the 20 terms enumerated in the law. In all cases the employers were informed of the law and rulings of the commission, the children were stopped from work, and employers promised to comply with the law in the future.

In introducing child-labor administration it has been the policy where violations have been discovered to endeavor to secure a compliance with the law without resorting to the force of it. However, a number of cases have been prosecuted because of persistent violations, and the desired effects have been observed upon the community. The superintendents of public welfare reported 291 prosecutions under the school-attendance law and six prosecutions under the child-labor law.

The personal contact of the agents of the commission in these visits has had a strong educational and corrective influence in the State. The corrective influence upon the physical condition of plants is manifested by the large number of recommendations made for sanitation, ventilation, lighting, first aid, drinking water, fountains, toilets, and equipment, seats for women, wash rooms, and rest rooms. The attendance upon public schools was increased approximately 100,000 last year, which reflects the force of the compulsory school attendance and child labor laws. The personal observation and study of the conditions surrounding the child life in the industrial community and our conferences with the responsible leaders have frequently offered an opportunity for service to the child life by suggesting the strengthening of the local school units by consolidation, raising the grades, organizing vocational classes, community schools for the illiterates, erection of community buildings, providing libraries, reading rooms, gymnasiums, games, and auditoriums where amusements may be supervised and directed and not commercialized. An unusual growth has been experienced in vocational training and schools for illiterates. The cooperation of this department with the State board of health and the State board of education has received the emphatic and appreciative indorsement of each department.

No new child labor legislation has been passed by the last general assembly, but the appropriation was increased, thereby enlarging our possibility for service to the State.

## LIST OF DELEGATES AT CONVENTION.

### ALABAMA.

Esther Lee Rider, head child labor inspector.

### CONNECTICUT.

William S. Hyde, commissioner bureau of labor and factory inspection.  
James P. Keena, deputy factory inspector.

### GEORGIA.

H. M. Stanley, commissioner department of commerce and labor.

### IOWA.

H. H. Bye, factory inspector, bureau of labor statistics.

### KANSAS.

J. H. Crawford, judge court of industrial relations.  
N. F. Wilkerson, chief clerk department of labor and industries, court of industrial relations.  
Linna E. Bresette, director women and children's work, court of industrial relations.

### LOUISIANA.

Frank E. Wood, commissioner bureau of labor and industrial statistics.  
Martha D. Gould, factory inspector, New Orleans Parish.  
Mrs. Woods, assistant factory inspector.  
T. C. Price, Lake Charles.  
J. B. Taylor, Shreveport.  
Robt. L. Russell, district director, United States Employment Service, New Orleans.

### MASSACHUSETTS.

Ethel M. Johnson, assistant commissioner department of labor and industries.

### MINNESOTA.

Louise Schutz, superintendent bureau of women and children.  
Frank E. Hoffman, assistant commissioner department of labor and industries.

### MISSISSIPPI.

Sam E. Woods, State supervisor civilian rehabilitation.

### NORTH CAROLINA.

M. L. Shipman, commissioner department of labor and printing.

### PENNSYLVANIA.

Fred J. Hartman, secretary industrial board, department of labor and industry.

### TEXAS.

Harriet N. Leary, director women's division, bureau of labor statistics.

### VIRGINIA.

John Hirschberg, commissioner bureau of labor and industrial statistics.  
Iuth H. Blanton, inspector bureau of labor and industrial statistics.

### WISCONSIN.

• Geo. P. Hambrecht, chairman industrial commission.  
Edna H. Kuhnert, deputy minimum wage commission.

### WYOMING.

Henry C. Hoffman, commissioner bureau of labor and statistics.

### WASHINGTON, D. C.

Nila Allen, director child labor tax division, United States Treasury.  
L. S. Hawkins, Federal Board for Vocational Education.  
Tracy Copp, Federal Board for Vocational Education.  
Natalie Matthews, Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor.  
Ethelbert Stewart, commissioner Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor.  
Whitehead Klutz, assistant commissioner United States Board of Mediation and Conciliation.  
Florence P. Smith, research assistant Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor.  
Agnes L. Peterson, industrial supervisor Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor.

### PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

Francisco Verona, Philippine Islands Special Labor Commission.

## 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. The bulletins marked thus \* are out of print.]*

### 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
- Bul. 269. Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1919.
- Bul. 284. Index numbers of wholesale prices in the United States and foreign countries. [Revision of Bulletin No. 173.]
- Bul. 296. Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1920. [In press.]

### 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.
- Bul. 270. Retail prices, 1913 to 1919.
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