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ETHELBERT STEWART, Commissioner

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EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT SERIES

PROCEEDINGS OF  
THE FIFTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING  
OF THE  
INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF PUBLIC  
EMPLOYMENT SERVICES

HELD AT DETROIT, MICH.  
OCTOBER 25-28, 1927



AUGUST, 1928

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## OFFICERS, 1927-28

*President.*—A. L. Urick, Des Moines, Iowa.  
*Past president.*—R. A. Rigg, Ottawa, Canada.  
*First vice president.*—H. C. Hudson, Toronto, Canada.  
*Second vice president.*—F. I. Jones, Washington, D. C.  
*Third vice president.*—John S. B. Davie, Concord, N. H.  
*Secretary-treasurer.*—B. C. Seiple, Cleveland, Ohio.  
*Executive committee at large.*—Mrs. M. L. West, Richmond, Va.; T. M. Molloy, Regina, Canada; O. W. Brach, Columbus, Ohio; E. Koveliski, Rochester, N. Y.; and Walter J. Boyd, Chicago, Ill.

## CONSTITUTION

(Adopted at Rochester, N. Y., September 17, 1925)

### NAME

1. This association shall be called "The International Association of Public Employment Services."

### OBJECTS

2. (a) To promote a system or systems of employment exchanges in the United States and Canada.

(b) To advance the study of employment problems.

(c) To bring into closer association and to coordinate the efforts of government officials and others engaged or interested in questions relating to employment or unemployment.

### MEMBERSHIP

3. All persons connected with Federal, State, provincial, or municipal departments operating public employment offices shall be eligible to membership in the association. Such other individuals or associations as are engaged or interested in questions relating to employment or unemployment shall be entitled to membership. No person or association operating an employment agency for profit shall be eligible for membership.

### OFFICERS

4. The officers of the association shall be the president, the last past president, three vice presidents, and the secretary-treasurer, elected annually. The executive committee shall consist of the officers, together with five other members elected annually.

### MEETINGS

5. Meetings shall be held annually and notice thereof shall be sent to members at least 90 days in advance of said meeting.

### AMENDMENTS

6. Amendments to the constitution shall be adopted at any annual meeting. Proposed amendments shall be submitted in writing and referred to the executive committee.

### QUORUM

7. Fifteen members shall constitute a quorum.

8. Roberts' Rules of Order shall govern the proceedings of the meetings of this association.

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## Annual Meetings and Officers of the International Association of Public Employment Services

No.	Date	Place	President	Secretary-treasurer
1	Dec. 19, 20, 1913	Chicago, Ill.	Fred C. Croxton	W. M. Leiserson.
2	Sept. 24, 25, 1914	Indianapolis, Ind.	W. F. Hennessy	Do.
3	July 1, 2, 1915	Detroit, Mich.	Charles B. Barnes	Do.
4	July 20, 21, 1916	Buffalo, N. Y.	do.	G. P. Berner.
5	Sept. 20, 21, 1917	Milwaukee, Wis.	do.	H. J. Beckerle.
6	Sept. 19-21, 1918	Cleveland, Ohio	John B. Densmore	Wilbur F. Maxwell.
7	Oct. 14-15, 1919	Washington, D. C.	Bryce M. Stewart	Richard A. Fliinn.
8	Sept. 20-22, 1920	Ottawa, Canada	do.	Do.
9	Sept. 7-9, 1921	Buffalo, N. Y.	do.	Do.
10	Sept. 11-13, 1922	Washington, D. C.	E. J. Henning	Marion C. Findlay.
11	Sept. 4-7, 1923	Toronto, Canada	do.	Do.
12	May 19-23, 1924	Chicago, Ill.	Charles J. Boyd	Richard A. Fliinn.
13	Sept. 15-17, 1925	Rochester, N. Y.	R. A. Rigg	Do.
14	Sept. 16-18, 1926	Montreal, Canada	do.	Mary Stewart.
15	Oct. 25-28, 1927	Detroit, Mich.	do.	Mrs. M. L. West (temporary).

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

No. 478

WASHINGTON

AUGUST, 1928

## PROCEEDINGS OF THE FIFTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING OF THE INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT SERVICES

### Introduction

The fifteenth annual meeting of the International Association of Public Employment Services was held at the Book-Cadillac Hotel, Detroit, Mich., October 25-28, 1927. Mr. R. A. Rigg, president of the association, presided at the opening session, and after introductory remarks introduced Eugene J. Brock, commissioner of the Michigan Department of Labor and Industry, who welcomed the delegates attending the convention and in a short address gave some interesting data relating to employment offices and unemployment, as an introduction to his address on Michigan's experiment in charging a small fee (p. 3). The secretary being absent, Mrs. M. L. West, of Virginia, was elected secretary pro tempore. The following committees were appointed by the president:

*Committee on credentials.*—H. C. Hudson, Toronto, Canada; John Schwarzenzer, Detroit, Mich.; Helen E. Bolyer, Elmira, N. Y.

*Committee on resolutions and constitution.*—John S. B. Davie, Concord, N. H.; Richard T. Jones, Washington, D. C.; Mrs. M. L. West, Richmond, Va.

*Committee on nominations and next convention city.*—Otto W. Brach, Columbus, Ohio; Mrs. Aline C. Ulrich, Detroit, Mich.; Francis Payette, Montreal, Canada.

*Committee on audit and finance.*—A. L. Urlick, Des Moines, Iowa; B. C. Seiple, Cleveland, Ohio; A. J. Odam, Ottawa, Canada.

Mr. Frank B. Powers, secretary-treasury of the Commercial Telegraphers' Union of America, addressed the convention, tracing the changes that the introduction of machinery had made in his profession.

The books of the association not being available, the committee on credentials submitted a list of names of the persons considered by them as entitled to be seated as delegates to the convention.

Mr. John A. Russell, editor Michigan Manufacturer and Financial Record, Detroit, Mich., gave a talk on Michigan industry.

At the succeeding sessions the various papers on the program were read and discussed.

The president's annual report was approved and made a part of the proceedings.

The committee on resolutions made its report and after discussion the following resolutions were adopted:

1. Whereas the members of this association have received such cordial treatment during their stay in Detroit: Therefore be it

*Resolved,* That the convention tender its sincere thanks to the Michigan Department of Labor and all others who have contributed in any way to make our sojourn so pleasant while in this city.

2. Whereas there is a tendency on the part of some employers in the United States not to hire men of 45 years or over; and

Whereas the members of this association fear that should this practice be generally extended it would create a serious problem of unemployment among men of middle age: Therefore be it

*Resolved*, That the members of this association do all in their power by means of publicity and education to discourage this practice in their respective districts.

3. Whereas many of the members of this association deem it advisable that a careful study of methods of operation in the various employment offices, especially in the United States, be made for the purpose of learning what benefits can be derived from more uniformity: Therefore be it

*Resolved*, That the incoming executive appoint a committee to make a careful study of this subject, one of whom should be a representative of the United States Employment Service, and make a report to the next meeting of the association.

4. Whereas it has been called to the attention of the delegates at this convention that Francis I. Jones, first vice president of this association, Director General of United States Employment Service, on account of the condition of his health could not attend the convention: Therefore be it

*Resolved*, That the delegates of the fifteenth convention extend to him a message of good will and a sincere wish for a speedy recovery.

The report of the committee on audit and finance was read and adopted.

On motion duly made and seconded, Cleveland, Ohio, was chosen as the place of the next annual meeting, the date to be left in the hands of the incoming executives.

The following officers and members of the executive committee at large were elected:

*President*.—A. L. Urick, Des Moines, Iowa.

*First vice president*.—H. C. Hudson, Toronto, Canada.

*Second vice president*.—Francis I. Jones, Washington, D. C.

*Third vice president*.—John S. B. Davie, Concord, N. H.

*Secretary-treasurer*.—B. C. Seipel, Cleveland, Ohio.

*Executive committee at large*.—Mrs. M. L. West, Richmond, Va.; Thomas M. Malloy, Regina, Canada; Otto W. Brach, Columbus, Ohio; Emanuel Koveleski, Rochester, N. Y.; Walter J. Lloyd, Harrisburg, Pa.

Mr. R. A. Rigg, Ottawa, Canada, by the expiration of his term as president succeeds to the office of past president.

Convention adjourned at 12.15 p. m., October 28, 1928.

## Michigan's Experiment

By EUGENE J. BROCK, *Commissioner Michigan Department of Labor and Industry*

ONE of the problems that confronted us was the task of revamping our public employment bureaus. Our bureaus in this State have been conducted as a free employment service ever since their establishment. We found that many of the better class of clerical and mechanical workers did not patronize our bureaus. This apparently is due to the fact that many people were of the opinion that it was a charitable enterprise. In order to overcome this feeling we are attempting an experiment.

The recent session of the legislature passed a measure authorizing the department to establish a charge not to exceed one dollar per year to an applicant seeking the services of our bureaus. This dollar entitles the applicant to unlimited services of any bureau operated by the department for a period of one year. We believe that this will tend to dissipate any feeling that our bureaus are a charitable institution for "down and outs." And, on the other hand, the manner in which we administer this law retains all of the advantages of the free employment service, as we do not intend to accept the dollar unless we can place a person in a position. If the person has no money with which to pay the fee, and a position is available, he will be furnished employment and trusted to pay his dollar after he has earned some wages. The law also provides that the revenue derived from this source is to be used exclusively for the purpose of improving the employment service.

Another feature of our experiment is the establishment of local public employment commissions in each city where a bureau is maintained. These commissions are to be composed of a representative manufacturer, a merchant, a clubwoman, a minister or an attorney, and a representative of labor, which will insure a representative from all walks of life in the community. These commissions' duties will be to prevail upon employers to make our bureaus the clearing houses for labor of all types. We believe that this arrangement will yield beneficial results. It will place the entire transaction by the bureaus and the applicants on a higher and more efficient plane. I am convinced that the general attitude of people is that anything that is given free has something the matter with it. The best proof of this seems to be the fact that private employment agencies have been able to take nearly \$800,000 during the past year from persons seeking employment.

We do not advocate this plan for universal adoption; we simply submit it to you as a report of an experiment which we intend to conduct in an effort to elevate and improve our own bureaus. Should this plan be successful the experiment will have been worth while. On the other hand, if it is a failure we can abandon it and try some other method.

## Should Employment Work Be a State Monopoly?

By H. C. HUDSON, *Provincial General Superintendent Employment Service of Canada, Toronto*

**N**O DOUBT some of you have already answered in your own minds with a single affirmative or a single negative the query, "Should employment work be a State monopoly?" The fact that the Supreme Court of Canada is at present solemnly deliberating in an effort to answer the question, "Is a woman a person?" indicates, however, that questions which appear on the surface to be relatively easy to answer may involve more study and more consideration than a casual glance would reveal.

As a first step in coming to a reasonable conclusion it might be well for us to summarize very briefly the agencies and methods by which employment work is now being done. In this summary as well as elsewhere in this paper I am greatly indebted to the volume entitled "Public Employment Offices," prepared by Shelby M. Harrison in collaboration with Bradley Buell, Mary La Dame, Leslie E. Woodcock, and Frederick A. King.

The first form of employment work described by Mr. Buell is the public employment office; the second is the recognized old-fashioned type of private or fee-charging agency; the third is by direct contact between the employer and the prospective applicant, without any assistance or intervention on either side. The fourth method of securing a job is through contacts made by acquaintances and friends; the fifth is the medium of the advertising columns of daily newspapers; the sixth is the bureaus operated by employers' associations, boards of trade, and similar organizations; the seventh, trade-union business agents; the eighth, bureaus operated by fraternal, professional, and other organizations; and the ninth, bureaus maintained by philanthropic and social welfare bodies.

It is obvious from this list that the business of getting a job is one which has many ramifications, and is accordingly more complicated than a casual glance would indicate. Mr. Buell states that "the primary function of employment bureau work is seen in practice to be the collection and making available of information on work openings and on workers in search of them, and through the use of this information the making of contacts between workers wanting jobs and employers wanting workers."

The question originally asked in the title assigned to me now resolves itself into another query: "Can the primary function of an employment bureau be best carried out when the State has an absolute monopoly of every phase of placement work?"

You will have noted that certain of the methods outlined by which employment contacts are normally made—outside of public employment work—do not involve the payment of any direct fee for the job secured by the worker. I refer to the placement work, for

instance, carried on by contacts made through acquaintances, through bureaus operated by employers' associations, or through the activities of the business agents of trade-unions, or through bureaus operated by fraternal, professional, and other organizations. In all cases of this nature regulation and control by State legislation might theoretically be possible, but the difficulties of enforcing the eighteenth amendment would be nothing as compared with the difficulty of enforcing any such legislation. It would require a regular army of inspectors to attempt the elimination of these various phases of employment work and, moreover, it would be ridiculous to make the attempt in view of the fact that no one is harmed by the placement work of the agencies I have indicated. It will be seen, therefore, that employment work can never be a complete State monopoly, and we logically proceed to an examination of that phase of employment work which the State ordinarily attempts to regulate, namely, the operation of private or fee-charging agencies, organized solely on the basis of profit-making.

In Canada, "mainly as a part of a Dominion-wide program for the better control of the labor market during the period of demobilization and reconstruction, operation of private employment agencies was forbidden by law in Alberta, British Columbia, and Saskatchewan in 1919, in Nova Scotia in 1920, and in Manitoba in 1923." In the Province of Ontario the number of licensed-fee charging agencies has been reduced from 96 in 1916 to 15 in 1927, and under an agreement with the Federal Government private employment agency licenses may not be increased in number nor may they be sold or otherwise transferred.

A person not familiar with the history of private agencies might reasonably ask why this particular business has been subjected to government supervision and regulation to a greater extent than almost any other form of private enterprise. The answer has been adequately summarized by Frank B. Sargent in a United States Bureau of Labor bulletin published 15 years ago. Some of the more common of the fraudulent methods alleged to have been practised by certain of these agencies are as follows:

1. Charging a fee and failing to make any effort to find work for the applicant.
2. Sending an applicant where no work exists.
3. Sending applicants to distant points where no work or where unsatisfactory work exists, but whence the applicant will not return on account of the expense involved.
4. Collusion between the agent and the employer whereby the applicant is given a few days' work and then discharged to make way for new workmen, the agent and employer dividing the fee.
5. Charging exorbitant fees or giving jobs to such applicants as contribute extra fees, presents, etc.
6. Inducing workers, particularly girls, who have been placed, to leave, pay another fee, and get a "better job."

It is not necessary at the moment either to attempt to prove or to disprove these allegations. It is sufficient to say that the consensus of opinion has been that such improper practices have been carried on, with the result that practically every Province in Canada and a great number of the States of the Union have either abolished private employment agencies or have hedged their operations around

with restrictions designed to eliminate or reduce to an absolute minimum the alleged fraudulent practices.

There are times when the centralization of all employment opportunities through the single medium of the public employment office would be highly advantageous from the point of view of the best interests of the community. I refer to the unemployment crises through which we pass at varying intervals. At such times one of the serious difficulties in meeting the situation is the impossibility of gauging the extent of the problem and it would be much easier to tell exactly how many men and women are unemployed if there were no overlapping of registration, which is inevitable when public and private offices are operating in the same town or city. This difficulty can be overcome to a large extent, however, by concentrating unemployment relief work or other special assistance in the public office, thereby virtually insuring the registration at that office of a very high percentage, if not all, of the unemployed.

In the city of Port Arthur the office of a private employment agent was at one time located directly across the road from the local branch of the public employment service and it was amusing to see the well-trampled path in the snow between the two offices in the winter months. Our customers, if they might be so designated, compared the goods offered by the private agency and the public office over a period of months and ultimately decided apparently that the public office was better able to provide them with employment, and the private employment agent was obliged to discontinue his business on account of lack of vacancies and applications. He is now a pulpwood contractor and uses our Port Arthur office for recruiting gangs of men for his own operations. In the adjoining city of Fort William there were at one time 20 private agencies. This number has now been reduced to one, and it continues to function only because of the fact that the railroad uses it as a means of recruiting extra gang and construction workers. I have no doubt that the railroad would be perfectly willing to transfer even this business to the local employment office were it not for the fact that the private employment agent also acts as a steamship-ticket agent for that particular transportation company.

On a recent visit to North Bay I found one private employment agent's board listed two jobs, his nearest neighbor in the same business had about 100 vacancies available, while the public employment office located a few doors further along on the same street had bona fide orders for over 600 men. This indicates clearly that the competition of the private agent can be met if the public employment official is willing to forget ordinary governmental office hours and if he reaches out after the business with the same energy shown by the private agent.

You may ask why a man will pay for a job at all when a free employment office is available. The answer is that the private agent is prepared to advance out of his own funds amounts sufficient for board and lodging to applicants who may be temporarily financially embarrassed, or, to put it more briefly, "broke." He is also willing to advance transportation where the employer for any reason has not done so. In one instance in Ontario he operates a rooming house in connection with his private employment agency business and one

of the conditions under which workers are allowed to stay in his rooms is that they shall use his office as a means of obtaining work. The cost of the room need not be paid in cash but is deducted from his first wage check and returned by the employer to the private employment agent. Still another factor entering into the situation is the comparative youthfulness of public employment agencies as compared with private agencies. Certain foremen in various kinds of bush work have used the same private agencies for 20 years and an applicant who wishes to engage for such a company must of necessity patronize the private agent in question.

In the Province of Ontario private employment agents are allowed to charge only \$1 to the employer and \$1 to the applicant for each man or each position secured. This is in marked contrast to the payments permitted by some of the laws in the United States, but it has always been my personal opinion that in certain States at least private employment agencies were permitted to charge an amount out of all proportion to the service which they rendered. When the fee is high there is naturally a greater incentive for crooked work between an employer's representative and a private agency. Collusion between an office manager and a private agent may in such cases result in the discharge of workers whose services during the period of their employment have been satisfactory and who are only let go because of the expectation of a profit to the employment manager and the agent in connection with the hiring of a new man or woman.

If I may be pardoned I would like to place on record my own personal point of view with regard to the relationship between public and private offices. When I first became connected with the Ontario offices of the public employment service, 11 years ago, there were almost 100 private employment agencies flourishing in Ontario and, frankly, their reputation was none too good. Being in close contact with many of the abuses to which I have previously made reference I became convinced that the private employment agency was very much like a noxious weed, which should be uprooted and destroyed in wholesale fashion, the medium for the uprooting process being, of course, stringent legislation. The weeding-out process commenced soon after I joined the service and the zealots of the Spanish Inquisition were not much more active, I am sure, in their pursuit of an alleged heretic, than I in my pursuit of private employment agents. The elimination of the obviously crooked agency in Ontario was effected to a very large extent between 1916 and 1919, when the employment offices coordination act came into effect. Under the terms of this act the Provinces agreed to a still greater reduction in the number of fee-charging agencies and the ones which were allowed to remain in existence were those with few, if any, charges of malpractice against them. Since 1919 the private agencies in Ontario have had an exceptionally clean record, and where there have been difficulties between the worker and the agent the department of labor has had very little trouble making a satisfactory adjustment. Whether it is fear of losing the license or whether it is a change of heart on the part of the private agent which has resulted in this condition I am not prepared to state. There is no doubt, however, that the existence of at least a few fee-charging agencies

has a tendency to put public employment superintendents on their mettle and their own efficiency is accordingly increased as they are naturally anxious to make a showing as good as or better than that of a rival agency. Over a period of years I have accordingly come to the conclusions so well stated by Mr. Buell in the survey made under Mr. Harrison's direction and which read as below:

The mere abolition of a thing does not always help the situation. That is only negative. It is more important to build up a good constructive, competing organization. The abolition alone of the private fee-charging agencies would not necessarily bring about a system of public employment bureaus nor an efficient system. With all their abuses the private agencies are performing a function needed in the absence of an adequate public system; they should not be abolished until something is provided to take their place.

It would seem far more practical to set to work on a positive program of improving the public bureaus, for if we get a good public service, the fee-charging agencies and their abuses will then become a minor question. The private agency will be eliminated because it will be useless; or we shall learn how to improve it through experience gained in the public bureaus. Experience in England, Canada, and in a number of our American cities is showing the public bureaus when well run to be formidable competitors of the fee-charging agencies and able to reduce their number, or, in cases where this result has not followed, at least to force many of them to reform their practices.

In conclusion then I would say after several years of experience that private employment agencies should be permitted to function under close governmental supervision and that accordingly employment work should not be a State monopoly. I shall be pleased if any statement which I have made in this paper arouses sufficient interest to start a discussion among those present at the convention. This will, no doubt, throw more light upon the subject than I have been able to do in this presentation.

## Civilian Vocational Rehabilitation

By PERCY ANGOVE, *State Supervisor of Vocational Rehabilitation, Lansing, Mich.*

**T**HE subject assigned is exceedingly broad in scope. It embraces anything and everything that may possibly be done to eliminate or ameliorate physical want and suffering. As we are thinking of the term to-day, it implies or signifies the "Alpha and Omega" of all constructive efforts on behalf of a class of people who are sadly in need of special services. You will observe that I stated "constructive efforts," recognizing that there are beginnings that do not always assure desirable endings. The term "rehabilitation" designates a definite objective. It means "to restore to lost rank or right; to reinstate"; therefore, in all efforts on behalf of physically impaired vocationally handicapped people, if we are to rehabilitate them, a definite objective must be set up for each individual and this objective reached, otherwise the job is not complete. This resolves itself into the method of procedure employed and the whole process involved.

Civilian rehabilitation embraces so much of life and all its conditioning problems that it could be discussed from the psychological point of view, the medical point of view, the therapeutic point of view, the social point of view, the economic point of view, the legal point of view, and, last but not least, the humanitarian point of view. Each of these phases is a subject within itself. Yet each is involved in the whole process of human engineering in behalf of handicapped persons. The time and occasion will not permit or warrant generalization, and while I shall attempt to cover the subject assigned I am thinking of my audience as a particular group interested in the problem of employment for handicapped people.

### Social and Economic Significance

For me to say that vocational rehabilitation plays a very important and constructive part in the whole process of social service is merely to state an absolute truth. There are numerous reasons why human beings fall into the so-called class of undesirable citizens, but it is a well-known fact that one of the greatest, if not the greatest reason, is brought about through ill health and accident. Physical disablement of human beings in a very large measure is responsible for many social ills. A large proportion of homelessness, tramp life, begging, adult crime, and even juvenile delinquency is due to physical want and suffering.

It has been authentically stated by students of the problem that slightly more than 25 per cent of homelessness is due to industrial maladjustments, resulting from some kind of physical impairment. When a person is laboring under a serious physical impairment and

is thereby thrown out of employment he is very likely to degenerate into a social menace. Poverty, more than any other one thing, is the cause of most of the existing social evils.

It is a well-known fact that a large number of wage earners coming to social-welfare agencies for relief are physically incapacitated. Sickness is a large factor, but physical handicap caused by accident is considered equally as large a factor.

In one large city in this country 60 per cent of families who were subjects for charitable relief presented the problem of physical disability. This is a deplorable condition, one that is socially and economically unsound and inexcusable. Not only is the handicapped wage earner the one who suffers, but also his dependents. I stated that juvenile delinquency is one of the resulting evils of physical disablement on the part of the wage earner. It is natural to assume that the environment in which the child lives is sure to have its effects. Because of physical want and suffering and dependency, the self-respect of the entire family is oftentimes lost. For the want of proper food, clothing, and shelter the child is deprived of proper home training, schooling, and the necessities of life, and consequently the germ of all social corruptness finds a fertile field. The only way to alleviate these undesirable conditions is to bring the disabled person into a normal state of living. This is the aim of civilian rehabilitation. When a handicapped person is made self-supporting, not only is the vocational handicap removed, but his self-respect is restored, the spark of ambition, grit, and determination is revived, and better modes of living and happy home relations are assured.

It is the right of every person to support himself and adequately provide for his dependents. Society decrees that no man has the right to depend upon others for sustenance and maintenance, whether or not he is a cripple. Because a person happens by circumstance to be physically handicapped, it does not necessarily infer that he has a right to be classed as among the nonproducers, depending upon friends, relatives, and public philanthropy for support.

Those human beings made helpless by some misfortune impose upon society a double burden. First, being nonproducers, they do not contribute to material or social wealth. Second, they are economic liabilities in that the production of others is necessary to maintain them. Thus there is a constant drain upon our resources from both ends, which adds greatly to the liabilities of community, State, and Nation. It is truly a great social and economic problem, but one capable of solution.

### **Employers' Responsibility**

The fact that industry is not assuming its full responsibility toward the rehabilitation of handicapped persons is very largely due to a lack of knowledge of what the possibilities are and how rehabilitation actually affects their particular interests. Modern industry exists to provide satisfactory employment to those who must work, just as much as to provide commodities for the consumers of the Nation. No particular employer is obliged to furnish employment to a particular individual, but it is recognized to-day that when a citizen elects to become an industrialist, he assumes by that act the responsi-

bility of industry to society, to furnish a livelihood for the industrial workers. Of course, it is taken for granted that he can not create jobs, or provide work unnecessarily. This would be an economic waste, and in the long run, a detriment to the general welfare of the Nation. On the other hand, it is his responsibility and to his advantage to apply the same thought, study, and managerial ability to the employment aspects of his business as he applies to the construction and mechanical aspects of his particular industry, the quality and variety of products, obtaining of markets, and the financing of business operations. Human engineering is just as important to the employer from an economic point of view as is mechanical engineering.

Modern industries to-day are scientifically enlarging their activities in order that so-called waste and by-products may be salvaged and utilized to bring the most economic returns. But what of the human by-products? Will a new science of human engineering be developed in which trained minds will, through research and planning, exercise the same degree of thought and energy in adapting broken workers, the human by-products, to useful service in the production scheme? In this connection I raise the question, eliminating sentiment and humanitarian impulses. Is not the one proposition as economically sound as the other? All tasks that can be performed by disabled persons might well be set apart for such disabled persons exclusively. An analysis of the various tasks and their component parts should, as far as possible, be made to render available to disabled people all jobs that can be safely and satisfactorily performed by them. Of course, the disabled person should be selected with care and on the basis of scientific analysis, but the process of selection should present no difficulty after the characteristics of the particular task are studied. Able-bodied men should be put at able-bodied tasks, and work not requiring bodily perfection be reserved for disabled workers. In this day and age of efficiency and production, an employer would not think of using a 3-inch shaft to do the work that could be performed by a 1-inch shaft. He would not think of using a 5-horsepower motor when a 1-horsepower motor would carry the load. The same principle might apply to the placing of men. Considering it from a purely selfish motive, such procedure would insure better and more economic production, because individuals would be suited to given tasks.

The idea prevails among many employers that an additional risk is run by employing handicapped people. This barrier is, however, being gradually broken down. It presents the most difficult problem which those of us engaged in the work of vocational rehabilitation have to contend. Statistics show that the total number of second injuries, as compared with the total number of first injuries, is minutely small. Investigations made by bureaus of labor statistics prove that seldom do second injuries occur, wherein combined injuries would constitute a total disability. In one of the largest industrial States of this country an investigation proved that only two such second injury cases occurred during the year in which the investigation was made.

There is every reason to believe that second-injury occurrences that would constitute a total disability or a partial total disability would be exceedingly rare if the particular work of the handicapped person was selected with care and adapted to his type and physical condition. It is also conceded that a person who has met with an accident, when reemployed, is exceedingly careful.

Of course, there is always the personal equation to be reckoned with. Some handicapped people, like their physically perfect fellow men, are not always ambitious nor inclined toward improving their potential values. True, these men are difficult to handle. There is, however, a responsibility which the employer has toward the handicapped person who has the necessary background and qualifications, and really wants to come back.

Those of us engaged in the work of human engineering know from experience that the employer has nothing to lose. If anything, the advantage is on his side. Time will not permit of a lengthy discussion of these advantages. Suffice it to say that arguments in favor of the handicapped person could be presented. For instance, vocational rehabilitation is a safety measure in itself, since it aims to, and does, conserve human resources. Surely no one would dispute the fact that the reemployment of handicapped people injured in industry is an excellent safety measure. Does it not show concrete evidence to other employees of the result of carelessness and poor safety practices? Would it not be a means of lessening accidents because of other employees seeing the results? Does it not affect the entire morale of the plant for good, and does not all of this mean a saving to the employer in terms of dollars and cents?

Experience has demonstrated that it is an unwritten law among a few employers to provide work for their own handicapped employees, and, in a few instances, it is encouraging to know that a few employers recognize a moral obligation to those who have become the victims of circumstance through public accident, disease, and congenital conditions. However, many of these people are placed on jobs beneath their ability and at a comparatively low wage when in spite of their handicapped condition they are capable of performing more skilled tasks. The advantage is on the employer's side to confer with all handicapped persons concerning a rehabilitation program and to refer them to the rehabilitation agency for expert counsel and advice, so that the advantage of the numerous services may be made available to them. Oftentimes it is quite possible that a rehabilitation program be arranged for through a plan of cooperation between the employer and all parties concerned.

The farseeing, progressive employer of to-day not only interests himself in replacing broken or worn-out parts of machinery, but when the other important producing unit, known as the human being, becomes a victim of accident or other disabling factors the employer, with the aid of rehabilitation services, puts the human producing unit back to work again, with the result that in many instances the reclaimed worker has a higher degree of work proficiency.

## The Industrial and Nonindustrial Groups

Accidents to workmen in industrial pursuits have been and still are almost inevitable. Even though the laws for the prevention of accidents are carefully framed and rigidly enforced, there is always the element of the personal equation to be reckoned with. In this day and age of machinery and production we will always have to contend with the problem of industrial accidents. But because of the preventive measures being exercised and improved upon we hope that industrial accidents may be materially lessened. However, as long as men are working with tools and materials there will always be industrial accidents.

Legislation in behalf of injured workmen first provided for the making of employment conditions safe and sanitary. Its next step was to render some financial assistance to the injured person. While compensation awards are a decided help and an immediate benefit to the disabled person and his dependents, that which he most craves and is most in need of is to be restored to an earning capacity. Thus, rehabilitation completes the cycle and endeavors to make this possible. It is a definite, separate, and distinct program of social legislation to aid all classes of handicapped persons who, in spite of their physical impairment, are capable of being returned to remunerative and satisfactory employment, through either one or a variety of rehabilitation services.

The largest class of handicapped people with whom a rehabilitation agency must work are those who have become disabled through public accident, disease, or congenital conditions. For every industrial accident there are two public accidents, and the number crippled through disease and from conditions at birth are vastly more than the industrial-accident and public-accident group combined.

The nonindustrial group presents by far the most serious problem. For the majority of cases their disabilities are much more severe. They have no means of financial assistance such as the industrial-accident group have through compensation awards. Consequently, as a part of the rehabilitation program local individuals and agencies of all kinds must be appealed to for help, in providing certain necessities, before a rehabilitation program can be initiated and maintained.

Many of the nonindustrial handicapped group are cripples of long standing. Many have been deprived of an education and work experiences because of the lack of opportunity, due to their physical condition. Many have had very little or no vocational experience, which makes the matter of advisement, vocational guidance, vocational training, and rehabilitation placement services exceedingly difficult. Because of these conditions their employment possibilities are much more narrow and limited, whereas in most cases the industrial accident group return to their former employment with very little or no assistance, because they can capitalize upon their previous work experience. Only the serious industrial accident cases, those suffering from amputations, for instance, are in need of rehabilitation services.

Rehabilitation services for the nonindustrial accident group are necessarily much more expensive and involve longer periods of time.

Especially is this true when vocational training is necessary, and for most of these cases training is essential. In fact, it is nearly always necessary for the younger people of employable age who have had no work experiences to capitalize.

### Principles and Methods

As previously inferred, there are many forms of rehabilitation services, and by the very nature of the work involved vocational rehabilitation must be correlated with all efforts and services rendered by public and private agencies so as to avoid any unnecessary duplication of effort. But because the program of rehabilitation is so diversified it becomes a distinct professional service. Complete restoration for the handicapped person can be accomplished only when the services are administered by a personnel definitely qualified, by virtue of training and experience, to perform the work, if desirable results are to be assured.

There are various agencies at work nowadays that are in a position to provide one or more of these professional services for persons who become the victims of various misfortunes. In order to accomplish vocational rehabilitation, it is often necessary to effect physical reconstruction. In fact, this is always the first service considered in connection with individual case work. No one would dispute the fact that to remove the physical impairment by means of physical reconstruction is perhaps the highest type of rehabilitation, and while this service sometimes removes the physical impairment it is more often only one phase of an individual rehabilitation program.

Oftentimes it becomes necessary for a rehabilitation worker to make provision for the maintenance of the handicapped person and his dependents in order that a rehabilitation program may be initiated and carried out to its final completion. Suffice it to say that when any other service becomes necessary it is the function of the rehabilitation agency to make such services possible. It sometimes involves restoring the morale of the individual who has lost a grip on himself, and not infrequently it becomes necessary to effect moral rehabilitation.

The disabled person whose disability is such that he is vocationally handicapped can not become a competitor with the nondisabled until a rehabilitation program has removed the vocational handicap. Merely finding a job for a person through the ordinary placement method is not vocational rehabilitation, and placements made on this basis do not enable the handicapped person to compete with his fellow men. But when he is rehabilitated, then as far as his employment status is concerned, the vocational handicap is removed and he is a subject for normal employment under normal employment conditions. Even when a vocational training program for individual cases is neither feasible nor practical, the handicapped person can not be placed haphazardly and then be expected to hold his own alongside of his nondisabled fellow employee. He can not be expected to produce to the best of his ability. The consequences are he is not wanted. He becomes a drifter. He falls into "blind alley" jobs and eventually becomes a problem for, and sometimes a charge upon, society. The whole process of placing handicapped people into satisfactory

employment can be administered on a scientific basis only by a personnel who, by virtue of training and experience, are especially qualified to do the work, and by an agency organized for such professional service.

To realize a definite objective for each handicapped person, all services rendered are a means to an end. I wish to emphasize, however, that vocational rehabilitation is not primarily a social, a compensation, a physical rehabilitation, an artificial appliance, a training, an employment, or a charity service. It is a special work involving all these services that can be accomplished only by close cooperation with all other agencies. Practically every existing facility that has to do with the promotion of human welfare must be drawn upon and made use of.

### Beneficiaries

In a work of this kind it is imperative that there be established some definite policies to govern and to control all efforts. The name itself, "vocational rehabilitation," implies that for one to receive the benefits he must be of employable age. In fact, laws upon our statute books govern this matter.

There are many physically impaired people who are not vocationally handicapped; therefore, they are not eligible. They are not in need of the services. To illustrate my point, a person who is a bookkeeper, even though he has lost one arm, or even both legs, is not a subject for rehabilitation services, because he can still work as a bookkeeper. The mere fact that he is out of employment does not make him eligible. He may be a case for the free employment office but not one for the rehabilitation service. All he is in need of is a job, and no special program is necessary to make this possible.

Again, a person who suffers an extreme minor injury or ailment is not ordinarily a subject for rehabilitation services. The selection or rejection of the case is always made on the basis of vocational handicap and not on the basis of physical disability. Those suffering minor injuries or ailments might be subjects for the free employment office, but they are not necessarily subjects for the rehabilitation service.

Again, since normal employment must always be the main objective, and since a person must be expected to be made fit to engage in a remunerative occupation, the services can not apply to aged or helpless persons requiring permanent custodial care or to epileptic or feeble-minded persons for whom rehabilitation services are not feasible. Such people, however, may be able to perform simple odd jobs, but they would always be coming back continually for replacement. The free employment office may be able to assist them, but they are not subjects for rehabilitation services because they can never be returned to normal employment.

Again, a person who has received the benefits of vocational rehabilitation services, has reached his objective, and has demonstrated that he has been satisfactorily rehabilitated is no longer a subject for rehabilitation services merely because he is out of employment due to industrial conditions or other reasons. The rehabilitation service is not a replacement agency. This particular person is no longer in need of a special program. He is merely out of work

and looking for a job. He may, however, be a subject for the free employment office. The only instances where cases who have once been rehabilitated may become subjects of the rehabilitation agency again is where the work status of the case is necessarily changed because of additional disablement. For instance, a person with one arm is rehabilitated as an accountant. He meets with an accident and loses his other arm. He can no longer work as an accountant. His employment status is entirely changed. Therefore he is in need of a new rehabilitation program.

I have attempted to show that rehabilitation services are not for those who are not vocationally handicapped, even though they might have a physical impairment. But rehabilitation may apply to any person who can meet the test of eligibility, providing the person is susceptible to rehabilitation.

Amputation of members usually constitutes a vocational handicap. Not infrequently it becomes necessary to extend the services to those suffering from double amputations, such as both hands, both arms, or both legs. In fact, it has been the privilege of the department which I represent to render the services to cases suffering the loss of all four members. This might appear to some to be an insurmountable problem, yet with much human engineering and a combination of services such cases have reached a definite employment objective. Limb amputations are specific and in practically every case they are subjects for rehabilitation services. But this is not the only type of disability to contend with. It has been my personal privilege to extend the services to persons suffering from one or more of approximately 200 different types of disabilities in varying degrees of severity. They may be classified as follows: Limb deformities, dislocations, serious multiple fractures, severe burns, arthritis, infantile paralysis, tuberculosis, cardiac conditions, diabetes, cut tendons, stiff joints, spinal curvatures, osteomyelitis or bone diseases, severe rheumatism, locomotor ataxia, hernia, severe asthma, speech defects, hearing defects, and eye defects. Not infrequently individual cases suffer from a combination of more than one of these disabling conditions. These, of course, present a very serious problem.

### Case-Work Procedure

Vocational rehabilitation is individual case work. Handicapped people can not be rehabilitated in groups. Because of varying degrees of disabilities, education, age, capacity, energy, spirit, determination, and desires, each case presents its own problem and requires its own specific solution. There are no two cases alike and each one must be considered on its own merits. Rehabilitation to be successful must be organized on the case method.

The disabled person is interviewed for the purpose of securing a complete inventory regarding his disability, education, occupational experiences, capacity, personality, financial resources, desires, likes and dislikes, opportunities for training and employment, attitude toward rehabilitation, and numerous other factors. All of these conditions are studied for the purpose of developing the best plan for each case. Such a plan requires, on the part of the rehabilitation agency, through its personnel, a general service to the disabled per-

son in the nature of advisement, guidance, counsel, and cooperation. This service can not cease until the person has been definitely established in remunerative employment; and even after that, suitable and systematic follow-up and supervision must be maintained to determine whether or not the person is genuinely rehabilitated, before his case can be closed as such.

If, after the investigation, the disabled person is found to be both eligible and susceptible to a rehabilitation program, the following steps, in brief, should constitute the methods of case work procedure: (1) Explain the rehabilitation service and the benefits to be derived; (2) make physical reconstruction possible through cooperating agencies; (3) advise and direct the selection of a vocation, in order that a definite objective may be set up; (4) if necessary, see that living maintenance is made possible for the disabled person and his dependents, in order that a rehabilitation program may be carried out; (5) if necessary, see that the proper prosthetic appliances are provided; (6) if feasible, organize and provide vocational training; (7) provide regular supervision where a training program is involved; (8) see that satisfactory employment is secured; (9) engage in systematic follow-up after employment until the handicapped person has demonstrated to himself and to the employer that he is no longer vocationally handicapped.

A word might be said about the furnishing of prosthetic appliances, such as braces, artificial arms, and artificial limbs. Such prosthesis in the service of vocational rehabilitation always presents a difficult problem. In many instances rehabilitation for the physically disabled is impossible without the supplying of artificial members. An appliance is usually a substitution for a missing limb, for the purpose of restoring the individual to the greatest possible functional efficiency. Merely providing an appliance is not considered good vocational rehabilitation service, yet it is frequently necessary that an appliance be furnished as one of the factors incident to rehabilitation. To provide a disabled person with only an appliance does not increase his vocational skill or ability. It appears to many engaged in the work of rehabilitation that purchasing an artificial member for a disabled person is nothing more than providing relief or charity. It is more in the field of physical rehabilitation than vocational rehabilitation. In no case should an appliance be furnished merely for the sake of appearance and convenience. It should be necessary to the performance of a given task.

Experience has demonstrated that the best rehabilitation results are assured when training for a specific vocation has been provided. But not always is training necessary. Usually persons over 40 years of age are not susceptible to a formal training program. But it is almost always necessary for the younger group because of the fact that they have had very little or no vocational experience. All the phases of case work procedure which I have enumerated must be thoroughly explored with each individual case if the disabled person is to be rendered fit to engage in a remunerative occupation. The efforts of the rehabilitation personnel must be rendered in a universal, helpful way through every activity that will relieve such disabled person as far as possible from worry caused by financial stress, physical suffering, or other burdens. Experience has demon-

strated that perhaps the most important process in rehabilitation is the process of case analysis. The plan and execution which follow are always the inevitable results.

In order to carry out the work in a satisfactory manner, it is highly important that personal contact with the handicapped person be established at the earliest possible date before he has become despondent and has acquired habits of thought and living that render it difficult to arouse ambition and interest in a rehabilitation program. Very often the attitude of mind on the part of the handicapped person presents a more serious handicap than the physical condition. Rehabilitation services can be successful only when the disabled person, within his physical, educational, and mental limitations, desires such rehabilitation to be successful and cooperates to that end.

Truly, rehabilitation is a great social and economic problem. Efforts have been made to calculate the values in terms of dollars and cents, to estimate the value of material wealth likely to be produced by those rehabilitated during a specified portion of time throughout the remainder of their productive lives. But a way will never be found to measure adequately the economic returns from investments made in rehabilitation services. Not all the results can be tabulated. There is no column in statistical tables for registering contentment, happiness, and service. Human lives can not be measured in terms of dollars and cents alone. We do know this, that when production begins, dependency ceases, and a financial burden borne by families, communities, and the State is lifted.

## Some of the Problems of the Middle-Aged Man—His Chances of Securing Employment

By CHARLES J. BOYD, *General Superintendent Illinois Free Employment Offices, Chicago*

**T**HERE is no doubt that the man of 45 years of age or over, under the present industrial conditions, is up against a hard proposition.

When business is anywhere near normal his chances of securing employment are fairly good, providing, of course, he is physically fit. If he has a trade of some kind requiring skill, his chances are much better of securing work under subnormal conditions than if he did not have one. There is a certain protection that goes with the affiliation to a trade organization that he does not possess if he is not so affiliated. Without that protection, when business is slack he is under two handicaps, the one of age and the other the lack of assistance a trade organization would give him during dull times. Their by-laws generally take care of cases of this kind, and the older man is not so liable to be discriminated against in favor of the younger one. At least that is the theory of most organizations, and it is probably true to a large extent. However, in practice it does not always work out 100 per cent. Our observation, though, convinces us that there is a mantle of protection thrown around this man, or woman if you please, which the unorganized man does not possess.

In our employment work we have situations of this kind brought to our mind frequently, and there is no doubt that the fit man is given the preference when it comes to the hiring of help. This holds good in almost every walk of life.

Modern industry is run on a different theory and basis than it was some years ago. The old theory of a low wage is not now the generally accepted one nor is it thought to be conducive to continued prosperity. Modern methods of manufacture call for a so-called speeding-up process, the fruits of which are generally a fairly high wage scale. Into this order of things the man above 45 years of age does not seem to fit.

Of course, there are exceptions to all rules, and in making them they are generally elastic enough to fit special cases. The employment managers of our large industrial concerns do not generally have any hard and fast rules governing cases of this kind, and this flexibility of their rules permits the employment of the man over 45 if he is physically fit and capable of fitting into the organization. Many employment managers have expressed this view to me, qualifying it by adding that they are at all times willing to give the man above 45 an even break.

A great deal depends, I take it, on the character of the work to be performed and the caliber of the man and his general fitness.

Another thing that works as sort of a handicap in these cases is the workmen's compensation laws of the various States, although I would not advocate doing away with these.

We all know that a man begins to slow up as he advances in age, and that around 45 he is not so alert as a younger person, hence more apt to receive an injury. For that reason the younger man is generally given the preference when help is hired.

We recently made a survey of the ages of applicants applying to our Chicago division for employment in order to have some accurate data on this subject. There is always a chance of a man around the 40 or 50 year mark shading his age when registering or making application for employment at any place, as he realizes that his age is a certain handicap; however, we have accepted the ages as given on our registration card as being correct, and the data compiled from the men's division, based on the registration of 6,535 applicants, showed an average age of 32 years. This data also showed that 29.1 per cent of the total was from 31 to 40 years of age, that 14.2 per cent were between 41 and 50, while only 3.6 per cent were 50 years of age or over. Common labor, which statistics show is the most frequently on the labor market, made up the largest of any single registration list. The average age for this class of labor was 35. In other words, with a total registration of 2,787 common laborers for the month in which the survey was made, 607 were between 41 and 45 years, 321 were 46 to 50, and 236 were over 50 years of age.

In the female division the showing was somewhat better. In our State women are not required to declare their age when registering to vote, except to state that they are of legal age, and this might have had something to do with so favorable a showing in that division. However, based on a registration of 3,637 persons, the women's average age was only 29.

The other data brought out showed that those 31 to 40 years of age comprised 24.8 per cent of the total and those from 41 to 50, 12.8 per cent, while less than 2 per cent were over 50 years of age.

The question which arises in my mind is, What is to be done in the case of the man out of work who is 45 years of age, especially so if he is the breadwinner of the family? It is apparent that they can not be left to starve and if they have no means of support and are out of work, without the prospect of securing the same, it will eventually mean as much as that, or they will of necessity have to seek charity. No one wants to accept charity except as a last resort, for it tends to pauperize the person receiving; and most anyone, I think, would sooner be self-supporting than to have to accept it. Charity lowers one's manhood, if one has any in the first place. In the final analysis, charity is largely supported by the public, and such being the case, why not the public initiate some great improvement so that these people can be employed and stay useful citizens of the community, not objects of charity.

If the public is left to foot these bills, then the initiation of public improvement to take care of these is the most logical thing to do; also let this be carried out in times of industrial depression, so as to relieve the distress caused by unemployment and take up the slack. In this way the man of 45 can be taken care of as well as relieving the unemployment situation in general. It seems to me that it would

be better to do something of this kind even though the cost is excessive than to pay the money out for charity.

It is generally understood that every day in which labor is unemployed, no matter whether that labor be done by the man of 45 years of age or of any other age, there is economic loss to the community. This being the case, what is more logical than to get public improvements under way as speedily as possible so as to prevent this economic loss due to idle man power; and society would in the end be the gainer.

Private capital can not do these things, so it would seem that it was the public's duty to promulgate some scheme and let it be charged as a public benefit.

These are only a few thoughts along this line, but I am hopeful as we become educated in these things that society will develop enough foresight to remedy this condition.

The compensation law works against the man over 40 years of age. A study made of the workmen's compensation law for the last 10 years shows that as a general rule men are turned down either by the employment manager or the doctor. The children can not go to work because they have not reached the age of 18. What is he going to do? It is a desperate situation. This is universal with the large industries. Some will not employ a man over 35 years of age. They give as an excuse the workmen's compensation and also the insurance and pensions particularly. If a man is employed at 45 years, it is claimed he ceases to be productive. It is a serious question to which our employment offices must give some study and thought.

## The Employment Service and the Agricultural Interests

By RICHARD T. JONES, *Acting Director General United States Employment Service, Washington, D. C.*

**S**INCE agriculture is the largest employer of labor in the Nation, it is only natural that the demands made by this industry on the United States Employment Service should increase year by year. The facilities of the Employment Service of the Department of Labor have, during the past few years, been taxed to the limit in supplying seasonal farm labor which can not be successfully recruited through the regular channels.

These demands for seasonal labor are, of course, for comparatively short periods. The fact that most of the labor required must be brought in from outside territory places upon the Employment Service a problem and a responsibility which calls for the utmost care in ascertaining what these outside labor requirements are in the various States comprising what is known as the great wheat belt. For it should be remembered that the function of the Employment Service is not merely to supply adequate labor for the agricultural interests in the harvesting of crops, but to disseminate reliable information as to cutting dates, probable wages, and other items, so that the men who seek this class of employment are not required to spend their time and money for travel to points in the wheat belt before their services are actually needed.

At the conference at Montreal in 1926, Mr. Walter Smitten, Commissioner of Labor for the Province of Alberta, very pointedly remarked that, "Not until the binders are actually in the field do they (the farmers) think about ordering or taking labor." The farmer's plight during recent years has been such that we can not well criticize him for this attitude, but it presents a phase of employment-service activity which causes our placement offices much concern. How often have we been confronted with this situation! In the evening a farm division placement office will receive a call for 200 men to report at 6 o'clock the following morning. We immediately recruit the men. During the night there is a heavy rainfall, and our office is notified that they will not be required until the ground is dry and again in condition for work. I am glad to say, however, that, in spite of this and other difficulties in connection with the recruiting and directing of harvest labor, the Employment Service is coping with this big problem in a manner which is eliciting the genuine praise of employer and employee alike.

While on this subject it might be well to state that during the harvest of 1927 the use of combine machines on a large scale created an additional problem for the United States Employment Service. For example, the machine materially reduced the harvest labor requirements in Kansas, where approximately 4,500,000 acres of

wheat in the western two-thirds of that State were cut by combines. While the labor requirements in that State were cut to approximately 20,000 men from the outside, it required as many men to handle 20,000 laborers as would be required to handle 30,000 or 35,000. The use of combine machines may eventually lessen the wheat-harvest labor problem of the Employment Service; but increased demands from the fruit and cotton sections and other seasonal agricultural activities will more than offset it.

Four years ago very little was done by the Employment Service to supply cotton pickers. The director general made a survey of the cotton industry and decided that an office should be established at Fort Worth, Tex. At the present time permanent offices are located at Fort Worth, San Antonio, and El Paso. Reports from our agents and expressions from chambers of commerce and other bodies interested disclose that our efforts in this phase of our work are highly appreciated and that the Employment Service will be called upon to render additional assistance to the cotton industry with the passing of each year.

In the flooded districts of the South efforts were made this year to place those who were out of employment, but there was a sentiment abroad that if labor were taken out of these districts the situation might be rendered worse than at the beginning. The situation was largely under the control of the Red Cross.

It may interest this convention to know that chambers of commerce in the agricultural section set a high value on the work of the Employment Service, for in some places they pay the rent of the offices and supply heat, light, and telephone. In fact, if it were not for this financial help it would be questionable whether some of the permanent offices could be maintained.

Beginning early in May and at frequent intervals thereafter bulletins are issued setting forth the latest information relative to conditions, acreage of various States, cutting dates, estimated number of men required, and probable wages to be paid, and other necessary information. These bulletins are given to the press, placed in post offices and other conspicuous places, and every attempt is made to give the subject matter of these publications as wide a distribution as possible. The central field office of the farm labor division of the United States Employment Service is located in Kansas City, Mo. Permanent branch offices are maintained at San Antonio and Fort Worth, Tex.; Denver, Colo.; Sioux City, Iowa; Sioux Falls, S. Dak.; Fargo, N. Dak.; Shreveport, La.; and Spokane, Wash. As the wheat ripens, the field headquarters are moved northward and the services of additional special agents are enlisted as the harvest advances. More than 70 temporary field offices are opened during the period beginning from May 15 until the middle of November.

The annual production of wheat in Texas required from 5,000 to 6,000 laborers from outside the State during harvest. Normally the cutting in the Fort Worth district begins June 1 to 15, and in the Panhandle country, due to a higher altitude, from June 20 to 25. About the time cutting is well advanced in the Fort Worth district, the harvest is getting well under way in Oklahoma. Oklahoma usually affords an opportunity for about three weeks' work, at the end of which time the men employed in Oklahoma and Texas usually

are able to find plenty of employment in Kansas, the largest winter-wheat-growing State in the Union. With favorable weather conditions cutting starts in the south central counties of Kansas from June 15 to 20. Harvest in this State is generally concluded about July 15. Many temporary field offices are maintained there, the principal distributing offices being located at Wichita, Hutchinson, and Salina.

Men making the harvest in eastern Colorado usually work through Nebraska and into the northern fields. Approximately 3,000 laborers are needed in the Colorado district if favorable crop conditions prevail.

Nebraska usually needs about 8,000 outside men, and a good many men finish up work in Kansas in time to get a few weeks' employment in Nebraska. With normal weather conditions the harvest starts in that State in the southeastern counties July 15 to 23 and is well toward completion by the last of the month.

South Dakota requires about 10,000 outside hands in a normal year. Cutting closely follows completion of the harvest in Nebraska and usually begins not later than July 25. Sioux City, Iowa, is the gateway for the direction of men to the wheat fields to the north and northwest.

The leading spring-wheat State of the Union is North Dakota. Normally its outside requirements are about 20,000 men. Cutting usually starts in the southeastern counties about August 1. In North Dakota the demand for threshing labor is usually equal to that for harvest hands. Several thousand outside laborers are required to care for the harvest in Minnesota. We cooperate with the State employment offices in Minneapolis, St. Paul, and Duluth, and in recent years we have been able to bring about a more even distribution of harvest labor in Minnesota and the Dakotas than ever before. From 4,000 to 5,000 men are required from outside the State to meet the demands in Montana.

In the territory extending from the Rocky Mountains to the Cascade Range on the west and comprising parts of Idaho, Oregon, and Washington the wheat harvest is slightly earlier, as a rule, than in Montana and North Dakota. Usually cutting begins the latter part of July and continues through August, followed by threshing in September. Several thousand men are needed here each year.

We are constantly urging men not to start for the harvest fields until they have accurate information from the Employment Service. We attempt to keep in close touch with the situation in order, as above stated, to prevent useless travel or unnecessary expense on the part of the laborers and to prevent congestion in harvest centers in advance of the cutting dates or in excess of needs.

Each year since 1921 has shown a gradual development of this branch of the Federal Employment Service. The farmers in the wheat, cotton, and corn and fruit growing sections appreciate that the Federal Government, in cooperation with the various State departments of labor, is rendering valuable assistance by helping them to solve their labor problems.

## The Function of a Federal Government in a Coordinated, Nation-Wide System of Employment Offices

By A. J. ODAM, *Statistician, Employment Service Branch, Department of Labor, Ottawa*

ONE of the objects of your association, as set forth in its constitution, is "to bring into closer association and to coordinate the efforts of Government officials and others engaged or interested in questions relating to employment or unemployment," and if I deal rather intimately with the relations between the Canadian department of labor and the several Provinces in respect of this matter, it is in order that you may judge the extent to which this coordination has been achieved in Canada and the place that the Federal Government holds in the work of the employment service of the country.

As you are no doubt aware, the employment service of Canada was established under the employment offices' coordination act of 1918, an act "to aid and encourage the organization and coordination of employment offices." Under this act the Federal Government of Canada is authorized to make payments to each Province conditional upon an agreement between the Federal Minister of Labor and such Provinces as to terms, conditions, and purposes within the meaning of the act and for which the payments are to be made and applied. Agreements are now in force with all Provinces except Prince Edward Island, which, owing to its small population, has little need for employment-service facilities. Every office of the employment service offers facilities for both men and women who are seeking work in all occupations and for employers seeking any sort of help. Obviously it is neither practicable nor advisable to segregate the various functions of the offices at all centers; but when the volume of work warrants it and where the population to be served is of sufficient magnitude, such division of functions is made and men's and women's, skilled and unskilled, farm, factory, domestic, etc., divisions are separately operated. On the prairies, where farm labor is in brisk demand, it is common custom, particularly in Saskatchewan, to operate temporary offices. Without considering these temporary offices, there are at the present time offices situated at 64 centers—3 in each of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, 5 in Quebec, 25 in Ontario, 3 in Manitoba, 9 in Saskatchewan, 5 in Alberta, and 11 in British Columbia. For the purpose of coordinating the efforts of the various local offices, and to enable the transfer of any kind of labor from districts oversupplied to those where a dearth exists, provincial clearing houses have been established at Montreal, Toronto, Winnipeg, Regina, Edmonton, and Vancouver; and interprovincial clearing houses at Ottawa and Winnipeg.

I would now like to briefly describe our clearance operations, because it is one of the most important advantages derived from a coordinated system of employment offices. Each office has assigned to it a specific zone in which it shall operate. Every applicant for whom employment has not been secured locally and who is willing to leave the district and all orders which can not be filled locally are reported without delay to the provincial clearing house. If the provincial clearing house is unable to match workers and jobs from the information then in their possession, clearance notices giving full particulars of applications and orders are circulated to each office within the Province. If the provincial clearing house considers it improbable that the worker can be placed or the job filled, as the case may be, within the Province, the item is given interprovincial circulation, in a similar manner, through the interprovincial clearing house. Interprovincial items may, of course, be limited to either the eastern or western Provinces, and this is determined according to the particular circumstances connected with each item. In the case of orders, when the admission of labor from outside the country is requested, the order would be immediately given Dominion clearance, unless the provincial clearing house is practically assured that the required labor is available in its own Province. Each office carefully notes all clearance cards received, with a view to fulfilling the aim and object of clearance—the transfer of workers from points where they are unemployed to points where their services may be utilized. In the case of orders, when a local office can not supply any of the workers of the class desired from its own file of “live” applicants, it endeavors to secure suitable applicants by bringing the vacancy to the attention of local trade-unions and by a bulletin displayed in the office. This latter method of acquainting applicants with a vacancy frequently results in securing suitable workers from among those who are registered at the office under some other occupation. As clearance cards are considered confidential, any that are displayed in the office give no information as to employers’ name, place of employment, or other identifying data. This procedure makes a personal application at the counter necessary for all workers interested, and also prevents such applicants from communicating direct with parties for whom the clearance service is being provided. When an office has suitable applicants to fill a clearance order it immediately advises the office where the order originated, and if in the meantime that office has not already been notified that the workers are available at some nearer point, arrangements for shipment are immediately made. By this procedure workers are always procured at the nearest point available, and transportation costs, as a consequence, are reduced to a minimum. About 30,000 workers are placed each year in zones other than those in which they are registered, and of these between 1,100 and 1,200 are interprovincial transfers.

Before leaving the question of clearance, some mention must be made of the movement of harvest workers to the prairie Provinces, as from 20 to 25 per cent only of this movement is included in the before-mentioned figures—that is, the movement from British Columbia. The distributing point for all the movement of har-

vesters from the east is Winnipeg, where officials from Alberta and Saskatchewan, as well as Manitoba representatives, meet the trains and direct harvesters to employment in their respective Provinces. In view of the fact that these workers are not, apart from exceptional circumstances, recruited by employment offices in the east, they are treated as local placements by the offices concerned, and therefore do not figure in the total of interprovincial transfers. The employment service, however, plays a very large part in securing the necessary harvest help for farmers in the prairie Provinces. Each year anywhere from 20,000 to 50,000 workers travel on special excursions from the east, the numbers sent being determined from estimates made by employment office officials in the prairie Provinces. It is, however, unnecessary for me to go into any detail on this point, as the subject was very fully covered in a paper prepared by Mr. Walter Smitten and presented at your meeting in Montreal last year. You will realize, nevertheless, that this large movement of workers could not be handled expeditiously without the closest cooperation between the Provinces concerned and employment-office officials generally. As an indication of how the system works, I can not do better than quote the remarks of a western official in a recent communication with reference to the harvest movement this year. He said "operations have gone forward this year with even more clock-like precision than formerly."

Another feature in connection with the movement of labor is a reduced transportation rate, which has been granted by the railway companies each year since 1919. This reduced rate, which is equal to about three-quarters of the regular fare, is accorded to bona fide applicants at the employment service who may desire to travel to distant employment for which no workers are available locally. Anywhere from 30,000 to 50,000 workers benefit by this rate annually, and it is quite safe to say that this concession would not have been granted by the railway companies upon the representations of any one Province, and it has been secured only through the efforts of all Provinces coordinated by, and voiced through, the Federal department of labor and because the responsibility for the issuance of certificates, granting the bearer the reduced rate, is vested in an authority representing the employment service of the whole country.

A factor that contributes largely to the success of the service and the harmonious relations existing between the different Provinces, employers, and workers with regard to employment service work is the Employment Service Council of Canada, a body advisory to the Federal Minister of Labor and composed of representatives of these groups together with representatives of the railway companies. The annual meetings of this council permit of a full discussion of all employment and unemployment problems by representatives of those most concerned, and the free exchange of ideas which is so helpful in promoting that degree of coordination which is essential in the operation of an efficient employment service. Many of the recommendations of the council to the Minister of Labor have been brought to fruition as a result of action taken by him on account of advice received.

At the meetings of the employment service council and on other occasions the provincial superintendents are afforded opportunities for the discussion of problems in connection with the operation of the offices under their administration and through the interchange of experiences much experimental work is avoided and all benefit by the actual experience of one. As a result of such meetings a manual of procedure for the guidance of local officials in the performance of their duties has been drawn up and approved. In this manual may be found instructions as to the use of all forms and the procedure to be followed in all circumstances when dealing with applicants for employment and with orders from employers.

The device of paying subventions to the Provinces for employment office work means that suggestions aimed toward uniformity of methods in the several Provinces are not only listened to but invariably adopted. It is doubtful, however, that the methods of procedure could be made so standard were the forms in use in the several Provinces purely provincial. While it is possible to emphasize forms too much in our work, they do play an important part. Realizing this fact, and partly to assist the Provinces, partly to secure uniformity, all the forms used in the employment offices are printed by the department of labor and supplied free of charge to the Provinces. Some 30 of these forms are at present in use, and they cover practically the whole field of employment office work. The fact that eight Provinces would all agree upon the details of 30 different forms of itself is evidence of the close degree of coordination we have been fortunate in securing.

Uniformity of terminology is thus insured and entries at the office in Halifax mean precisely the same thing as similar entries at the Victoria office. This is of great advantage in the compilation of statistics and excludes the possibility of information published by the Federal Government seeming to conflict with that issued by any of the provincial governments. Statistics are compiled at Ottawa covering employment office activities for the whole of Canada. These figures were very ably reviewed and valuable deductions made therefrom by Prof. Gilbert E. Jackson, of Toronto University, at your last meeting, and it is therefore unnecessary for me to deal with this phase of the work. The value of the information obtained, however, is mainly attributed to its national scope. The statistics are compiled from reports received daily at Ottawa from each office. These reports are made out in triplicate by the local office, one copy being retained, one copy sent to the provincial superintendent, and one forwarded to Ottawa. From the last named, statistics for the whole service are compiled and through the centralization of this work it is found practical to use tabulating machinery, by which means large economies in time and expense are effected.

In addition to the daily report furnished by each local superintendent, a weekly letter on industrial conditions in the district covered by his office is sent to the provincial superintendent. These letters are combined in a bulletin for each Province and distributed to all the offices of the service. Local superintendents are thus promptly placed in possession of valuable information on employment conditions throughout the country. By this means workers are frequently prevented from traveling to distant points on the strength of news-

paper reports, which might state that large construction works or other projects were contemplated but fail to mention that the supply of labor locally was quite adequate.

Much of the success of the service as a whole is due to the splendid cooperation shown by employees generally, from the highest to the lowest. Very few changes in personnel have been made since its inception when compared with other organizations of a similar kind and a large percentage of the staff to-day is the same as when the service was established.

## Uniform Methods in Management of Employment Services

By O. W. BRACH, *Chief Ohio Division of Labor Statistics, Columbus, Ohio*

**T**HE subject to be presented by me is, I feel, one of a difficult nature, realizing that locations of offices in different States bring forth many problems that must receive immediate attention. Problems confronting one locality may not be the same in another. I believe that before any uniform methods in management of employment services can be adopted the theory of public offices and their purpose should be made known everywhere. Public employment offices present for discussion three important considerations—the theory on which they are based, the principle of their practical administration, and their use as agencies for dealing with unemployment. Our main attention, however, needs to be given to administrative principles. It has been found that public employment offices have failed in their purpose because little attention is devoted to problems of administration. Laws are passed after long campaigns of education to arouse the public to a realization of their importance and to an understanding of their theoretic principles. This done, those having been most active in studying the subjects drop the matter and give way to the management of persons who have taken very little, if any, time to study the principles of employment services. Usually the administration or management of the service is placed in the hands of persons appointed for political reasons.

It is 36 years since Ohio established the first State free employment offices in the United States. Since that time 41 States operating 183 separate offices have followed example. Yet nothing like a body of scientific administrative principles has been collectively adopted. While there has been a cooperative spirit shown between the State departments and the United States Employment Service, no definite policies of uniformity in their methods have been established. Going further into the details of management, an accurate system of record keeping is essential. The temptation is ever present to minimize the importance of records and to say that the securing of employment is the chief function. But it is not possible to run an employment service properly without a careful system of records any more than any other business can be conducted without showing accurate existing conditions. Uniformity of reports of all existing employment offices should show the exact conditions prevailing in every State.

We may use the description of purposes as defined by the language of the annual appropriation act of the United States Employment Service, which is as follows:

1. To foster, promote, and develop the welfare of the wage earners of the United States, including jurors legally employed.

2. To improve working conditions.
3. To advance their opportunities for profitable employment by regularly collecting, furnishing, and publishing employment information as to opportunities for employment.
4. Maintain a system for clearing labor between the several States.
5. Cooperating with and coordinating the employment offices throughout the country.

All of the above-defined purposes can be considered as a basic principle by everyone interested in the employment service and can be readily complied with by every State in the United States. On this basic principle uniform methods can be worked out to an extent that records on registration, help wanted, number referred and placed in employment correspond with every State. The many benefits derived from this uniform method are beneficial not only to officials of the employment service but to other organizations interested in economic conditions and to employers who depend upon supply of the labor market.

It is unfortunate that all States do not report alike, which does not give a clear understanding just as to the actual conditions existing, especially that of number of applicants applying. Let me urge that uniform statistics, procedure, etc., in every State is very essential. Realizing its importance, there should be action of a committee to carefully study the methods now in operation in the various offices in the United States and Canada and to recommend uniform methods of procedure, registration, etc., to be followed by all public employment services, cooperating with the United States Employment Service.

I have endeavored to review the different features of our problems, and hope that out of the discussions that will take place some suggestions and records of experience will be given that will assist us to meet the situation in the future.

## Promoting Good Will

By B. C. SEIPLE, *Superintendent State-City Employment Service, Cleveland, Ohio*

**I**N analyzing the subject "Promoting good will" I first sought a clear definition of the word and find that Webster defines "good will" as "benevolence; kindly feeling; friendly disposition; the value a business has over and above stock in trade." From this definition it becomes apparent that to promote "good will" for our service we must strive not only for a general spirit of friendliness on the part of those who may have occasion to use our service, but, more particularly, for a disposition of helpfulness and cooperation.

Certainly we must court a friendly attitude, but this alone will never make for full success. We must go much farther and secure a real interest in the problems of our service with a fine sense of sympathy for its aims and ideals. To illustrate, an employer may be personally friendly to us as individuals or as an organization and yet not be disposed to step even slightly out of his way to promote our progress. He may even say "Seiple is a fine fellow, I like him very much," but never think to call our office regarding his employment problems or to recommend our service to his friends.

The last phase of the definition of "good will" seems worthy of some analysis; "the value of a business over and above stock in trade." In our service what can we interpret as "stock in trade"? In most businesses it is the product being offered for sale or barter. In our work it can probably best be defined as the ordinary natural demands for employees, a certain amount of which we get through the general law of averages. Any one of our offices is bound to get some business even if for no other reason than the force of necessity, inquisitiveness, or experiment on the part of employers.

I fear that in too many public employment offices the persons in charge have been content to depend almost solely upon this law of supply and demand, and therefore are not only failing to make proper progress but are actually proving to be a deterrent force to the general advancement of the public employment service. In this connection I wish to offer my own personal opinion that it is far better that no office be established than to create one without providing a strategic location, proper quarters, and adequate funds to offer a reasonable chance for success or to fail to employ a supervisor who has a proper conception of the responsibility of his position and an earnest and sincere desire to be of service to his fellow men.

Reports from many sources indicate that too often a public employment office is opened in some city to satisfy the demands of an ambitious politician seeking publicity or to provide a convenient "job" for some political "lame duck" who just "must be taken care of." In such instances the office seldom rises above the regular

“stock in trade” and gradually dies for want of nourishment. If this were the end it would be bad enough, but such failure also creates a source of opposition which serves to retard the service, not only in that particular city but everywhere.

I hope you will pardon me for diverging somewhat from my subject, but it has been my experience that our task of “promoting good will” has been made many times more difficult because of the impression which has been created in the minds of many people that a public employment office is practically valueless and simply a loafing place for a certain class of men and women who do not really want to work but are seeking short, easy jobs that last only a few days and pay every night. In fact, too many people still believe that the public employment service appeals only to the most menial class of common labor and is incapable of furnishing competent applicants for positions requiring highly trained clerical, professional, technical, or executive experience.

I am sure that I can not overemphasize the importance of public opinion in the progress of our work or the necessity of consistent effort on the part of public employment officials to correct any adverse opinions which may still exist because of previous failure on the part of any branch of this service.

You will note that thus far I have confined my remarks mostly to promoting a friendly, constructive, and cooperative attitude on the part of employers or, in other words, rising above our regular “stock in trade.” I have done so because I realize that justification of expenditure of public funds depends upon our ability to render a real public service primarily to the man or woman who is out of employment or those who are in a “rut” and need assistance in advancing their status in society, and also because I realize that this in turn depends entirely upon the cooperation of the employing classes. Any employment service, either public or private, has two fundamental requisites—jobs and applicants—and of the two it is invariably true that the former is the more difficult to secure, and therefore becomes the major problem to the service.

Applicants will be more apt to seek our assistance because of the fees charged them by private employment agencies, but since these agencies do not charge the employer he is not so reluctant to seek their assistance, and if we are to secure his business we must render at least equally prompt, courteous, and efficient service and do something to checkmate their advertising and publicity campaigns.

It has been the experience of the Cleveland office that employers in our city are susceptible to arguments regarding the objects and purposes of the public employment service, and most of them, when approached, will indicate a desire to patronize the public employment service in preference to a fee-charging agency provided their orders receive the prompt and intelligent attention given them by private employment agencies. Of course, in a large city it is difficult in a limited space of time to approach in appreciable number a percentage of our employers, especially by a personal interview.

I believe it is an important function of our service to interview personally, in their own office or factory, if possible, all employers who may become patrons of the service, starting of course with the employers requiring the greatest number of employees or those whose turnover is likely to be the greatest and following through until we

have brought a personal message and explanation to every employer in our district. You will readily recognize that the proper personal follow-up can not always be maintained, and I therefore advocate the expenditure of a certain amount of our appropriation for the issuing of interesting periodic bulletins, news letters, reports, etc., to be distributed to all employers regularly through the mail. Such publications become, not only "a silent salesman," but serve to keep our service fresh in the minds of a greater number of persons than could otherwise be done.

I am certain that some of you are saying "this is all very well if we had sufficient appropriation to provide for personal plant and office visitation and the issuing of such bulletins, but is not possible in my office where our appropriation and office force is very limited." To this I would reply with all the emphasis at my command that, regardless of the amount of your appropriation and the number of employees in your office, time and money *must* be found to do these things for your service if it is to progress and become greater and more valuable than it is now. How can you ever expect to receive further consideration from those who have responsibility for fixing appropriations if you can not bring attention to your service and the value of it from some source other than your own personal request, and how are you to secure such outside assistance if you neglect to secure the good will and cooperation of your patrons?

This is the age of publicity, and while it is true that good service is the best possible publicity, I do not believe that this alone will be sufficient to influence legislative bodies and finance committees to appropriate additional funds for our support unless it can be presented by some competent authority outside of our own immediate office force. It has been my experience that a few words from employer, labor, and welfare organizations has had greater weight than anything which I could personally say in securing consideration of my requests relative to increased appropriations or other necessary requirements.

So much for all of that, and I certainly hope it will be taken seriously because I am convinced absolutely that it is essential to our program "In promoting good will and securing business for our service." Now let us turn to the more important consideration which is the proper concept of the big task and responsibility confronting us in our work as public servants in charge of the public employment service.

The first requirement in this connection is that the men or women in charge must have a thorough understanding of employment and economic problems, particularly as they apply to their local situation and generally to the country at large. Certainly no supervisor can convey a convincing message to his subordinates or imbue them with the proper attitude toward their work unless he himself thoroughly understands their problems and has a very definite idea for their solution. I would therefore suggest to everyone occupying an executive position in the public employment service that he resort to a rigid self-analysis and if not firmly convinced that he is thoroughly capable of functioning in his position, that he immediately begin making such studies or surveys as are necessary to become thoroughly competent.

Once this has been accomplished and you are thoroughly satisfied as to your own ability to lead and direct your work (but not until then) you are in a position to map out and outline, as far as is possible in this kind of service, a definite plan of departmental procedure. No business can possibly succeed permanently beyond the ability of those in charge to visualize and plan its progress, and certainly the public employment service is no exception.

In planning your work and methods of departmental procedure, however, do not make the mistake of assuming an arbitrary attitude. Any efficient and self-respecting staff worker has a right to expect consideration of his ideas relative to the service and should be consulted regarding the inauguration or change of any policy affecting his particular department.

I am a firm believer in the efficacy of regular periodic staff meetings where anything pertaining to the service as a whole may be openly and generally discussed, which should be supplemented by more frequent personal interviews and consultations with individual members of the staff. At any or all of these meetings there are certain fundamental and necessary requirements for real efficient public employment service which should be constantly and repeatedly stressed. In my opinion, the first requisite for all employees in the public employment service is courtesy, including tact and diplomacy, which must be used at all times with both applicant and employer.

The second is intelligent and conscientious effort. All employees of your service must understand that applicants are to be selected and referred, first, upon the basis of their ability to meet the requirements of the position offered as outlined by the employer, and secondly, with due regard to their need of employment. Everyone should be taught that the public employment service is not primarily a charitable institution; and that if the method of procedure just mentioned is reversed and applicants given preference solely upon the basis of their need of employment, the employer, whom we have decided is the most important factor to our successful operation, will certainly be alienated and all of our efforts to secure his cooperation will have been without avail.

The third important requirement to be impressed upon your office staff is expediency. Every matter coming to the attention of the public employment service should be attended to at the earliest possible moment, and especially is this true regarding orders received from employers. I do not believe there is any one thing that will bring us greater credit than to demonstrate to employers seeking our assistance that we render prompt and efficient service, which, of course, involves punctual and regular attendance to duty on the part of office employees.

The fourth absolute essential in obtaining satisfactory results in your work is thorough cooperation among your office employees. It is well to have each one feel the responsibility of his particular position and to be reasonably jealous of his department. However, this jealousy must not be allowed to reach a point where it interferes with or jeopardizes the work of any other department. In this connection the golden rule can be applied and the idea of "one for all and all for one" should be insisted upon. If we do not have thorough cooperation in our own family group, how can we possibly expect to

receive it from outside sources. There are many points which I might make relative to the inner workings of each office department which are essential to its successful operation, but these seem, in my mind, to be of greatest importance, and in view of the fact that we have an important business session pending I will leave it to your imagination and good judgment to supply the others.

Having secured the proper precept yourself and duly impressed your subordinates, you are now ready to present the proper attitude and a united front in "promoting good will" from the general public, which, as I have briefly outlined, must be done through the mediums of prompt, intelligent, and courteous service rendered and proper publicity. This in turn will inevitably lead to better support and more consideration on the part of those in authority over you, and consequently advance the possibilities of your ability to progress in your work.

In conclusion, I would like again to call your attention, as in the beginning, to the desirability of securing the larger viewpoint. The public employment service at the present time is thoroughly popular only in a limited number of communities, and in self-defense and in the interest of further progress everyone must strive for greater success in all offices. We can not expect to continue our advancement beyond a certain point so long as such a great number of offices are operating at less than a reasonable degree of efficiency. We must be mindful of the fact that the success or failure of any public employment office reflects either credit or discredit, as the case may be, upon every other public employment office, and I therefore plead for a closer understanding and cooperation between cities, States, and Governments relative to the great work in which we are engaged.

I can not at the present moment think of any better method for securing this closer connection and promoting the attitude of working shoulder to shoulder in the common good of the service than through the medium of intelligent discussion brought about through this association. I sincerely hope that the time is not far distant when the International Association of Public Employment Services will be able to effect a closer organization, providing for a more definite means for the exchange of ideas, experiences, and conclusions relative to the solution of our common problems than is now possible in these brief annual conventions.

Possibly the answer to this ambition is to be found in more frequent State and provincial conventions, where the delegates to this association can deliver to the representatives of the smaller organizations a definite message from this international body, which will make each and every employee in the public employment service throughout the North American Continent feel a kindred touch with every other employee of the service and a thrill of exultation to know that he is connected so closely with a body of men and women of high ideals and intelligence, working loyally in the interests of our common society.

May the time soon come when an employee of the public employment service will feel himself to be, and be recognized as, one who has been afforded the special privilege of rendering a distinct and personal service to his fellow men. This can and will be accomplished if we all strive loyally, intelligently, and persistently to promote a general feeling of public "good will."

## LIST OF BULLETINS OF THE BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

The following is a list of all bulletins of the Bureau of Labor Statistics published since July, 1912, except that in the case of bulletins giving the results of periodic surveys of the bureau only the latest bulletin on any one subject is here listed.

A complete list of the reports and bulletins issued prior to July, 1912, as well as the bulletins published since that date, will be furnished on application. Bulletins marked thus (\*) are out of print.

### **Conciliation and Arbitration (Including Strikes and Lockouts).**

- \*No. 124. Conciliation and arbitration in the building trades of Greater New York. [1913.]
- \*No. 133. Report of the industrial council of the British Board of Trade on its inquiry into industrial agreements. [1913.]
- No. 139. Michigan copper district strike. [1914.]
- No. 144. Industrial court of the cloak, suit, and skirt industry of New York City. [1914.]
- No. 145. Conciliation, arbitration, and sanitation in the dress and waist industry of New York City. [1914.]
- \*No. 191. Collective bargaining in the anthracite-coal industry. [1916.]
- \*No. 198. Collective agreements in the men's clothing industry. [1916.]
- No. 233. Operation of the industrial disputes investigation act of Canada. [1918.]
- No. 255. Joint industrial councils in Great Britain. [1919.]
- No. 283. History of the Shipbuilding Labor Adjustment Board, 1917 to 1919.
- No. 287. National War Labor Board: History of its formation, activities, etc. [1921.]
- No. 303. Use of Federal power in settlement of railway labor disputes. [1922.]
- No. 341. Trade agreement in the silk-ribbon industry of New York City. [1923.]
- No. 402. Collective bargaining by actors. [1926.]
- No. 468. Trade agreements, 1927. (In press.)

### **Cooperation.**

- No. 313. Consumers' cooperative societies in the United States in 1920.
- No. 314. Cooperative credit societies in America and in foreign countries. [1922.]
- No. 437. Cooperative movement in the United States in 1925 (other than agricultural).

### **Employment and Unemployment.**

- \*No. 109. Statistics of unemployment and the work of employment offices in the United States. [1913.]
- No. 172. Unemployment in New York City, N. Y. [1915.]
- \*No. 183. Regularity of employment in the women's ready-to-wear garment industries. [1915.]
- \*No. 195. Unemployment in the United States. [1916.]
- No. 196. Proceedings of the Employment Managers' Conference held at Minneapolis, Minn., January 19 and 20, 1916.
- \*No. 202. Proceedings of the conference of Employment Managers' Association of Boston, Mass., held May 10, 1916.
- No. 206. The British system of labor exchanges. [1916.]
- No. 227. Proceedings of the Employment Managers' Conference, Philadelphia, Pa., April 2 and 3, 1917.
- No. 235. Employment system of the Lake Carriers' Association. [1918.]
- \*No. 241. Public employment offices in the United States. [1918.]
- No. 247. Proceedings of Employment Managers' Conference, Rochester, N. Y., May 9-11, 1918.
- No. 310. Industrial unemployment: A statistical study of its extent and causes. [1922.]
- No. 409. Unemployment in Columbus, Ohio, 1921 to 1925.

### **Foreign Labor Laws.**

- \*No. 142. Administration of labor laws and factory inspection in certain European countries. [1914.]

### **Housing.**

- \*No. 158. Government aid to home owning and housing of working people in foreign countries. [1914.]
- No. 263. Housing by employers in the United States. [1920.]
- No. 295. Building operations in representative cities in 1920.
- No. 469. Building permits in the principal cities of the United States in [1921 to] 1927. (In press.)

### **Industrial Accidents and Hygiene.**

- \*No. 104. Lead poisoning in potteries, tile works, and porcelain enameled sanitary ware factories. [1912.]
- No. 120. Hygiene of the painters' trade. [1913.]
- \*No. 127. Dangers to workers from dusts and fumes, and methods of protection. [1913.]

### Industrial Accidents and Hygiene—Continued.

- \*No. 141. Lead poisoning in the smelting and refining of lead. [1914.]
- \*No. 157. Industrial accident statistics. [1915.]
- \*No. 165. Lead poisoning in the manufacture of storage batteries. [1914.]
- \*No. 179. Industrial poisons used in the rubber industry. [1915.]
- No. 188. Report of British departmental committee on the danger in the use of lead in the painting of buildings. [1916.]
- \*No. 201. Report of committee on statistics and compensation insurance cost of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions. [1916.]
- \*No. 207. Causes of death, by occupation. [1917.]
- \*No. 209. Hygiene of the printing trades. [1917.]
- \*No. 219. Industrial poisons used or produced in the manufacture of explosives. [1917.]
- No. 221. Hours, fatigue, and health in British munitions factories. [1917.]
- No. 230. Industrial efficiency and fatigue in British munition factories. [1917.]
- \*No. 231. Mortality from respiratory diseases in dusty trades (inorganic dusts). [1918.]
- \*No. 234. Safety movement in the iron and steel industry, 1907 to 1917.
- No. 236. Effects of the air hammer on the hands of stonecutters. [1918.]
- No. 249. Industrial health and efficiency. Final report of British Health of Munition Workers' Committee. [1919.]
- \*No. 251. Preventable death in the cotton-manufacturing industry. [1919.]
- No. 256. Accidents and accident prevention in machine building. [1919.]
- No. 267. Anthrax as an occupational disease. [1920.]
- No. 276. Standardization of industrial accident statistics. [1920.]
- No. 280. Industrial poisoning in making coal-tar dyes and dye intermediates. [1921.]
- No. 291. Carbon-monoxide poisoning. [1921.]
- No. 293. The problem of dust phthisis in the granite-stone industry. [1922.]
- No. 298. Causes and prevention of accidents in the iron and steel industry, 1910-1919.
- No. 306. Occupational hazards and diagnostic signs: A guide to impairments to be looked for in hazardous occupations. [1922.]
- No. 339. Statistics of industrial accidents in the United States. [1923.]
- No. 392. Survey of hygienic conditions in the printing trades. [1925.]
- No. 405. Phosphorus necrosis in the manufacture of fireworks and in the preparation of phosphorus. [1926.]
- No. 425. Record of industrial accidents in the United States to 1925.
- No. 427. Deaths from lead poisoning. [1927.]
- No. 427. Health survey of the printing trades, 1922 to 1925.
- No. 428. Proceedings of the Industrial Accident Prevention Conference, held at Washington, D. C., July 14-16, 1926.
- No. 460. A new test for industrial lead poisoning. [1928.]
- No. 466. Settlement for accidents to American seamen. (In press.)

### Industrial Relations and Labor Conditions.

- No. 237. Industrial unrest in Great Britain. [1917.]
- No. 340. Chinese migrations, with special reference to labor conditions. [1923.]
- No. 349. Industrial relations in the West Coast lumber industry. [1923.]
- No. 361. Labor relations in the Fairmont (W. Va.) bituminous-coal field. [1924.]
- No. 380. Postwar labor conditions in Germany. [1925.]
- No. 383. Works council movement in Germany. [1925.]
- No. 384. Labor conditions in the shoe industry in Massachusetts, 1920-1924.
- No. 399. Labor relations in the lace and lace-curtain industries in the United States. [1925.]

### Labor Laws of the United States (Including Decisions of Courts Relating to Labor).

- No. 211. Labor laws and their administration in the Pacific States. [1917.]
- No. 229. Wage-payment legislation in the United States. [1917.]
- No. 285. Minimum-wage laws of the United States: Construction and operation. [1921.]
- No. 321. Labor laws that have been declared unconstitutional. [1922.]
- No. 322. Kansas Court of Industrial Relations. [1923.]
- No. 343. Laws providing for bureaus of labor statistics, etc. [1923.]
- No. 370. Labor laws of the United States, with decisions of courts relating thereto [1925.]
- No. 408. Laws relating to payment of wages. [1926.]
- No. 444. Decisions of courts and opinions affecting labor, 1926.
- No. 467. Minimum wage legislation in various countries. (In press.)
- No. 470. Labor legislation of 1927. (In press.)

### Proceedings of Annual Conventions of the Association of Governmental Labor Officials of the United States and Canada.

- \*No. 266. Seventh, Seattle, Wash., July 12-15, 1920.
- No. 307. Eighth, New Orleans, La., May 2-6, 1921.
- No. 323. Ninth, Harrisburg, Pa., May 22-26, 1922.
- No. 352. Tenth, Richmond, Va., May 1-4, 1923.
- No. 389. Eleventh, Chicago, Ill., May 19-23, 1924.
- No. 411. Twelfth, Salt Lake City, Utah, August 13-15, 1925.
- No. 429. Thirteenth, Columbus, Ohio, June 7-10, 1926.
- No. 455. Fourteenth, Paterson, N. J., May 31 to June 3, 1927.

### Proceedings of Annual Meetings of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions.

- No. 210. Third, Columbus, Ohio, April 25-28, 1916.
- No. 248. Fourth, Boston, Mass., August 21-25, 1917.
- No. 264. Fifth, Madison, Wis., September 24-27, 1918.
- \*No. 273. Sixth, Toronto, Canada, September 23-26, 1919.
- No. 281. Seventh, San Francisco, Calif., September 20-24, 1920.
- No. 304. Eighth, Chicago, Ill., September 19-23, 1921.

**Proceedings of Annual Meetings of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions—Continued.**

- No. 333. Ninth, Baltimore, Md., October 9-13, 1922.
- No. 359. Tenth, St. Paul, Minn., September 24-26, 1923.
- No. 385. Eleventh, Halifax, Nova Scotia, August 26-28, 1924.
- No. 395. Index to proceedings, 1914-1924.
- No. 406. Twelfth, Salt Lake City, Utah, August 17-20, 1925.
- No. 432. Thirteenth, Hartford, Conn., September 14-17, 1926.
- No. 456. Fourteenth, Atlanta, Ga., September 27-29, 1927.

**Proceedings of Annual Meetings of International Association of Public Employment Services.**

- No. 192. First, Chicago, December 19 and 20, 1913; second, Indianapolis, September 24 and 25, 1914; third, Detroit, July 1 and 2, 1915.
- No. 220. Fourth, Buffalo, N. Y., July 20 and 21, 1916.
- No. 311. Ninth, Buffalo, N. Y., September 7-9, 1921.
- No. 337. Tenth, Washington, D. C., September 11-13, 1922.
- No. 355. Eleventh, Toronto, Canada, September 4-7, 1923.
- No. 400. Twelfth, Chicago, Ill., May 19-23, 1924.
- No. 414. Thirteenth, Rochester, N. Y., September 15-17, 1925.

**Productivity of Labor.**

- No. 356. Productivity costs in the common-brick industry. [1924.]
- No. 360. Time and labor costs in manufacturing 100 pairs of shoes, 1923.
- No. 407. Labor cost of production and wages and hours of labor in the paper box-board industry. [1926.]
- No. 412. Wages, hours, and productivity in the pottery industry, 1925.
- No. 441. Productivity of labor in the glass industry. [1927.]
- No. 474. Productivity of labor in merchant blast furnaces. (In press.)
- No. 475. Productivity of labor in newspaper printing. (In press.)

**Retail Prices and Cost of Living.**

- \*No. 121. Sugar prices, from refiner to consumer. [1913.]
- \*No. 130. Wheat and flour prices, from farmer to consumer. [1913.]
- \*No. 164. Butter prices, from producer to consumer. [1914.]
- No. 170. Foreign food prices as affected by the war. [1915.]
- No. 357. Cost of living in the United States. [1924.]
- No. 369. The use of cost-of-living figures in wage adjustments. [1925.]
- No. 464. Retail prices, 1890 to 1927. (In press.)

**Safety Codes.**

- \*No. 331. Code of lighting: Factories, mills, and other work places.
- No. 336. Safety code for the protection of industrial workers in foundries.
- No. 350. Specifications of laboratory tests for approval of electric headlighting devices for motor vehicles.
- No. 351. Safety code for the construction, care, and use of ladders.
- No. 375. Safety code for laundry machinery and operations.
- No. 378. Safety code for woodworking plants.
- No. 382. Code of lighting school buildings.
- No. 410. Safety code for paper and pulp mills.
- No. 430. Safety code for power presses and foot and hand presses.
- No. 433. Safety codes for the prevention of dust explosions.
- No. 436. Safety code for the use, care, and protection of abrasive wheels.
- No. 447. Safety code for rubber mills and calenders.
- No. 451. Safety code for forging and hot-metal stamping.
- No. 463. Safety code for mechanical power-transmission apparatus—first revision.

**Vocational Workers' Education.**

- \*No. 159. Short-unit courses for wage earners, and a factory school experiment [1915.]
- \*No. 162. Vocational education survey of Richmond, Va. [1915.]
- No. 199. Vocational education survey of Minneapolis, Minn. [1917.]
- No. 271. Adult working-class education in Great Britain and the United States [1920.]
- No. 459. Apprenticeship in building construction. [1928.]

**Wages and Hours of Labor.**

- \*No. 146. Wages and regularity of employment and standardization of piece rates in the dress and waist industry of New York City. [1914.]
- \*No. 147. Wages and regularity of employment in the cloak, suit, and skirt industry. [1914.]
- No. 161. Wages and hours of labor in the clothing and cigar industries, 1911 to 1913.
- No. 163. Wages and hours of labor in the building and repairing of steam railroad cars, 1907 to 1913.
- \*No. 190. Wages and hours of labor in the cotton, woolen, and silk industries, 1907 to 1914.
- No. 204. Street-railway employment in the United States. [1917.]
- No. 225. Wages and hours of labor in the lumber, millwork, and furniture industries, 1915.
- No. 265. Industrial survey in selected industries in the United States, 1919.
- No. 297. Wages and hours of labor in the petroleum industry, 1920.
- No. 356. Productivity costs in the common-brick industry. [1924.]
- No. 358. Wages and hours of labor in the automobile-tire industry, 1923.
- No. 360. Time and labor costs in manufacturing 100 pairs of shoes, 1923.
- No. 365. Wages and hours of labor in the paper and pulp industry, 1923.
- No. 394. Wages and hours of labor in metalliferous mines, 1924.
- No. 407. Labor cost of production and wages and hours of labor in the paper box-board industry. [1925.]
- No. 412. Wages, hours, and productivity in the pottery industry, 1925.

### Wages and Hours of Labor—Continued.

- No. 413. Wages and hours of labor in the lumber industry in the United States, 1925.
- No. 416. Hours and earnings in anthracite and bituminous coal mining, 1922 and 1924.
- No. 435. Wages and hours of labor in the men's clothing industry, 1911 to 1926.
- No. 438. Wages and hours of labor in the motor-vehicle industry, 1925.
- No. 442. Wages and hours of labor in the iron and steel industry, 1907 to 1926.
- No. 443. Wages and hours of labor in woolen and worsted goods manufacturing, 1910 to 1926.
- No. 446. Wages and hours of labor in cotton-goods manufacturing, 1910 to 1926.
- No. 450. Wages and hours of labor in the boot and shoe industry, 1907 to 1926.
- No. 452. Wages and hours of labor in the hosiery and underwear industry, 1907 to 1926.
- No. 454. Hours and earnings in bituminous-coal mining, 1922, 1924, and 1926.
- No. 457. Union scales of wages and hours of labor, May 15, 1927.
- No. 471. Wages and hours of labor in foundries and machine shops, 1927. (In press.)
- No. 472. Wages and hours of labor in slaughtering and meat packing, 1927. (In press.)
- No. 476. Union scales of wages and hours of labor, 1927. Supplement to Bul. 457. (In press.)

### Welfare Work.

- \*No. 123. Employers welfare work. [1913.]
- No. 222. Welfare work in British munitions factories. [1917.]
- \*No. 250. Welfare work for employees in industrial establishments in the United States. [1919.]
- No. 458. Health and recreation activities in industrial establishments, 1926.

### Wholesale Prices.

- No. 284. Index numbers of wholesale prices in the United States and foreign countries. [1921.]
- No. 440. Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1926.
- No. 453. Revised index numbers of wholesale prices, 1923 to July, 1927.
- No. 473. Wholesale prices, 1913 to 1927. (In press.)

### Women and Children in Industry.

- No. 116. Hours, earnings, and duration of employment of wage-earning women in selected industries in the District of Columbia. [1913.]
- \*No. 117. Prohibition of night work of young persons. [1913.]
- No. 118. Ten-hour maximum working-day for women and young persons. [1913.]
- No. 119. Working hours of women in the pea canneries of Wisconsin. [1913.]
- \*No. 122. Employment of women in power laundries in Milwaukee. [1913.]
- No. 160. Hours, earnings, and conditions of labor of women in Indiana mercantile establishments and garment factories. [1914.]
- \*No. 167. Minimum-wage legislation in the United States and foreign countries. [1915.]
- \*No. 175. Summary of the report on conditions of woman and child wage earners in the United States. [1915.]
- \*No. 176. Effect of minimum-wage determinations in Oregon. [1915.]
- \*No. 180. The boot and shoe industry in Massachusetts as a vocation for women. [1915.]
- \*No. 182. Unemployment among women in department and other retail stores of Boston, Mass. [1916.]
- No. 193. Dressmaking as a trade for women in Massachusetts. [1916.]
- No. 215. Industrial experience of trade-school girls in Massachusetts. [1917.]
- \*No. 217. Effect of workmen's compensation laws in diminishing the necessity of industrial employment of women and children. [1918.]
- No. 223. Employment of women and juveniles in Great Britain during the war. [1917.]
- No. 253. Women in the lead industries. [1919.]

### Workmen's Insurance and Compensation (Including Laws Relating Thereto).

- \*No. 101. Care of tuberculous wage earners in Germany. [1912.]
- \*No. 102. British national insurance act, 1911.
- No. 103. Sickness and accident insurance law of Switzerland. [1912.]
- No. 107. Law relating to insurance of salaried employees in Germany. [1913.]
- \*No. 155. Compensation for accidents to employees of the United States. [1914.]
- No. 212. Proceedings of the conference on social insurance called by the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions, Washington, D. C., December 5-9, 1916.
- \*No. 243. Workmen's compensation legislation in the United States and foreign countries, 1917 and 1918.
- No. 301. Comparison of workmen's compensation insurance and administration. [1922.]
- No. 312. National health insurance in Great Britain, 1911 to 1921.
- No. 379. Comparison of workmen's compensation laws of the United States as of January 1, 1925.
- No. 423. Workmen's compensation legislation of the United States and Canada as of July 1, 1926.
- No. 477. Public-service retirement systems, United States and Europe. (In press.)

### Miscellaneous Series.

- \*No. 174. Subject index of the publications of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics up to May 1, 1915.
- No. 208. Profit sharing in the United States. [1916.]
- No. 242. Food situation in central Europe, 1917.
- No. 254. International labor legislation and the society of nations. [1919.]
- No. 268. Historical survey of international action affecting labor. [1920.]
- No. 282. Mutual relief associations among Government employees in Washington, D. C. [1921.]

**Miscellaneous Series—Continued.**

- No. 299. Personnel research agencies: A guide to organized research in employment management, industrial relations, training, and working conditions. [1921.]
- No. 319. The Bureau of Labor Statistics: Its history, activities, and organization. [1922.]
- No. 326. Methods of procuring and computing statistical information of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. [1923.]
- No. 342. International Seaman's Union of America: A study of its history and problems. [1923.]
- No. 346. Humanity in government. [1923.]
- No. 372. Convict labor in 1923.
- No. 386. Cost of American almshouses. [1925.]
- No. 398. Growth of legal-aid work in the United States. [1926.]
- No. 401. Family allowances in foreign countries. [1926.]
- No. 420. Handbook of American trade-unions. [1926.]
- No. 439. Handbook of labor statistics, 1924 to 1926.
- No. 458. Health and recreation activities in industrial establishments, 1926.
- No. 461. Labor organizations in Chile. [1928.] (In press.)
- No. 462. Park recreation areas in the United States. [1928.]
- No. 465. Beneficial activities of American trade-unions. (In press.)

