

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

W. N. DOAK, Secretary

BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

ETHELBERT STEWART, Commissioner

BULLETIN OF THE UNITED STATES }
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS } **No. 563**

MISCELLANEOUS SERIES

**ASSOCIATION OF GOVERNMENTAL
OFFICIALS IN INDUSTRY OF THE
UNITED STATES AND CANADA**

[Formerly Association of Governmental Labor Officials]

EIGHTEENTH ANNUAL CONVENTION

BOSTON, MASS., MAY 18-22

1931



JANUARY, 1932

UNITED STATES
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
WASHINGTON : 1932

OFFICERS, 1930-31

President.—{ James H. H. Ballantyne, Toronto, Ontario.¹
W. A. Rooksbery, Little Rock, Ark.

First vice president.—(Vacancy.)

Second vice president.—E. Leroy Sweetser, Boston, Mass.

Third vice president.—Eugene B. Patton, New York, N. Y.

Fourth vice president.—T. E. Whitaker, Atlanta, Ga.

Fifth vice president.—Maud Swett, Milwaukee, Wis.

Secretary-treasurer.—Louise E. Schutz, St. Paul, Minn.

CONSTITUTION

Adopted at Chicago, Ill., May 20, 1924; amended August 15, 1925; June 3, 1927;
May 24, 1928; May 23, 1930

ARTICLE I

SECTION 1. *Name.*—This organization shall be known as the Association of Governmental Officials in Industry of the United States and Canada.²

ARTICLE II

SECTION 1. *Objects.*—To encourage the cooperation of all branches of Federal, State, and Provincial Governments who are charged with the administration of laws and regulations for the protection of women and children, and the safety and welfare of all workers in industry; to maintain and promote the best possible standards of law enforcement and administrative method; to act as a medium for the interchange of information for and by the members of the association in all matters pertaining to the general welfare of men, women, and young workers in industry; to aid in securing the best possible education for minors which will enable them to adequately meet the constantly changing industrial and social changes; to promote the enactment of legislation that conforms to and deals with the ever-recurring changes that take place in industry, and in rendering more harmonious relations in industry between employers and employees; to assist in providing greater and better safeguards to life and limb of industrial workers, and to cooperate with other agencies in making the best and safest use of property devoted to industrial purposes; to secure by means of educational methods a greater degree of interstate and interprovincial uniformity in the enforcement of labor laws and regulations; to assist in the establishment of standards of industrial safety that will give adequate protection to workers; to encourage Federal, State, and Provincial labor departments to cooperate in compiling and disseminating statistics dealing with employment, unemployment, earnings, hours of labor, and other matters of interest to industrial workers and of importance to the welfare of women and children; to collaborate and cooperate with associations of employers and associations of employees in order that all of these matters may be given the most adequate consideration; and to promote national prosperity and international good will by correlating as far as possible the activities of the members of this association.

¹ Mr. Ballantyne resigned in January, 1931.

² Name changed May 24, 1928.

ARTICLE III

SECTION 1. *Membership.*—The active membership of this association shall consist of—

(a) Members of the United States Department of Labor, United States Bureau of Mines, and the Department of Labor of the Dominion of Canada; such representatives of the bureaus or departments of the United States or Canada being restricted by law from paying dues into this association may be members with all privileges of voice and vote, but are not eligible for election to office. They may serve on committees.

(b) Members of State and Provincial departments of labor.

(c) Members of Federal, State, or Provincial employment services.

SEC. 2. *Honorary members.*—Any person who has rendered service while connected with any Federal, State, and Provincial department of labor, and the American representative of the International Labor Office, may be elected to honorary membership by a unanimous vote of the executive board.

SEC. 3. *Associate membership.*—Any individual, organization, or corporation interested in and working along the lines of the object of this association may become an associate member of this association by the unanimous vote of the executive board.

ARTICLE IV

SECTION 1. *Officers.*—The officers of this association shall be a president, a first, second, third, fourth, and fifth vice president, and a secretary-treasurer. These officers shall constitute the executive board.

SEC. 2. *Election of officers.*—Such officers shall be elected from the members at the regular annual business meeting of the association by a majority ballot and shall hold office for one year, or until their successors are elected and qualified.

SEC. 3. The officers shall be elected from representatives of the active membership of the association, except as otherwise stated in Article III.

ARTICLE V

SECTION 1. *Duties of the officers.*—The president shall preside at all meetings of the association and the executive board, preserve order during its deliberations, appoint all committees, and sign all records, vouchers, or other documents in connection with the work of the association.

SEC. 2. The vice presidents, in order named, shall perform the duties of the president in his absence.

SEC. 3. The secretary-treasurer shall have charge of all books, papers, records, and other documents of the association; shall receive and have charge of all dues and other moneys; shall keep a full and complete record of all receipts and disbursements; shall keep the minutes of all meetings of the association and the executive board; shall conduct all correspondence pertaining to the office; shall compile statistics and other data as may be required for the use of the members of the association; and shall perform such other duties as may be directed by the convention or the executive board. The secretary-treasurer shall present a detailed written report of receipts and expenditures to the convention; shall pay out no money until a voucher has been issued and signed by the president. The secretary-treasurer shall publish the proceedings of the convention within four months after the close of the convention, the issue to consist of such numbers of copies as the executive board may direct. The secretary-treasurer shall receive such salary as the executive board may decide, but not less than \$300 per year.

SEC. 4. In the event of a vacancy in any office, the executive board may elect a successor: *Provided*, The president shall be succeeded by the ranking vice president.

SEC. 5. The business of the association between conventions shall be conducted by the executive board, and all questions coming before the board shall be decided by a majority vote, except that of the election of honorary members, which shall be by unanimous vote.

ARTICLE VI

SECTION 1. *Finances.*—The revenues of the association shall be derived from annual dues determined on the following basis: (a) Federal, State, or Provincial departments of labor, when the department staff consists of 1 to 5 persons, \$10; 6 to 25 persons, \$15; 26 to 75 persons, \$25; more than 75 persons, \$50.

The executive board may order an assessment levied upon affiliated departments not to exceed one year's dues.

SEC. 2. The annual fee of associate members shall be \$2.

ARTICLE VII

SECTION 1. *Who entitled to vote.*—All active members shall be entitled to vote on all questions coming before the meeting of the association as herein-after provided.

SEC. 2. In electing officers of the association, State departments of labor represented by several delegates shall only be entitled to one vote. The delegates from such departments must select one person from their representatives to cast the vote of the group.

The various bureaus of the United States Department of Labor and the Department of Labor of Canada may each be entitled to one vote.

The rule for electing officers shall apply to the vote for selecting convention city.

ARTICLE VIII

SECTION 1. *Meetings.*—The association shall meet at least once annually at such time and place as the association in convention may select. The date of the annual meeting shall be decided by the executive board unless otherwise ordered by the convention.

ARTICLE IX

SECTION 1. *Program.*—The program committee shall consist of the president, the secretary-treasurer, and the head of the department of the State or Province within which the convention is to be held, and they shall prepare and publish the convention programs of the association.

SEC. 2. The committee on program shall set aside at least one session of the convention as a business session, at which session the regular order of business, election of officers, and selection of convention city shall be taken up, and no other business shall be considered at that session until the "regular order" has been completed.

ARTICLE X

SECTION 1. *Rules of order.*—The deliberations of the convention shall be governed by "Cushing's Manual."

ARTICLE XI

SECTION 1. *Amendments.*—Amendments to the constitution must be filed with the secretary-treasurer in triplicate and referred to the committee on constitution and by-laws. A two-thirds vote of all delegates shall be required to adopt any amendment.

ARTICLE XII

SECTION 1. *Order of business.*—

1. Roll call of members by States and Provinces.
2. Appointment of committees.
 - (a) Committee of five on officers' reports.
 - (b) Committee of five on resolutions.
 - (c) Committee of three on constitution and by-laws.
 - (d) Special committees.
3. Reports of officers.
4. Reports of States and Provinces.
5. Reports of committees.
6. Unfinished business.
7. New business.
8. Selection of place of meeting.
9. Election of officers.
10. Adjournment.

**DEVELOPMENT OF THE ASSOCIATION OF GOVERNMENTAL
OFFICIALS IN INDUSTRY ¹**

ASSOCIATION OF CHIEFS AND OFFICIALS OF BUREAUS OF LABOR

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

INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF FACTORY INSPECTORS

No.	Date	Convention held at—	President	Secretary-treasurer
1	June, 1887	Philadelphia, Pa.	Rufus R. Wade	Henry Dorn.
2	August, 1888	Boston, Mass.	do	Do.
3	August, 1889	Trenton, N. J.	do	Do.
4	August, 1890	New York, N. Y.	do	Do.
5	August, 1891	Cleveland, Ohio	do	Do.
6	September, 1892	Hartford, Conn.	do	Do.
7	September, 1893	Chicago, Ill.	John Franey	Mary A. O'Reilly.
8	September, 1894	Philadelphia, Pa.	do	Evan H. Davis.
9	September, 1895	Providence, R. I.	do	Do.
10	September, 1896	Toronto, Canada	do	Do.
11	August and September, 1897	Detroit, Mich.	Rufus R. Wade	Alzina P. Stevens.
12	September, 1898	Boston, Mass.	do	Joseph L. Cox.
13	August, 1899	Quebec, Canada	do	Do.
14	October, 1900	Indianapolis, Ind.	do	Do.
15	September, 1901	Niagara Falls, N. Y.	do	Do.
16	December, 1902	Charleston, S. C.	do	Do.
17	August, 1903	Montreal, Canada	James Mitchell	Davis F. Spees.
18	September, 1904	St. Louis, Mo.	Daniel H. McAbee	Do.
19	August, 1905	Detroit, Mich.	Edgar T. Davies	C. V. Hartsell.
20	June, 1906	Columbus, Ohio	Malcolm J. McLead	Thos. Keity.
21	June, 1907	Hartford, Conn.	John H. Morgan	Do.
22	June, 1908	Toronto, Canada	George L. McLean	Do.
23	June, 1909	Rochester, N. Y.	James T. Burke	Do.

**JOINT MEETING OF THE ASSOCIATION OF CHIEFS AND OFFICIALS OF BUREAUS
OF LABOR AND INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF FACTORY INSPECTORS**

No.	Date	Convention held at—	President	Secretary-treasurer
24	August, 1910	Hendersonville, N. C., and Columbia, S. C.	J. Ellery Hudson	E. J. Watson.
25	September, 1911	Lincoln, Nebr.	Louis Guyon	W. W. Williams.
26	September, 1912	Washington, D. C.	Edgar T. Davies	Do.
27	May, 1913	Chicago, Ill.	A. L. Garrett	W. L. Mitchell.

¹ Known as Association of Governmental Labor Officials, 1914-1927.

ASSOCIATION OF GOVERNMENTAL OFFICIALS IN INDUSTRY¹

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

No.	Date	Convention held at—	President	Secretary-treasurer
1	June, 1914.....	Nashville, Tenn.....	Barney Cohen.....	W. L. Mitchell
2	June-July, 1915.....	Detroit, Mich.....	do.....	John T. Fitzpatrick.
3	July, 1916.....	Buffalo, N. Y.....	James V. Cunningham.....	Do.
4	September, 1917.....	Asheville, N. C.....	Oscar Nelson.....	Do.
5	June, 1918.....	Des Moines, Iowa.....	Edwin Mulready.....	Linna E. Bresette.
6	June, 1919.....	Madison, Wis.....	C. H. Younger.....	Do.
7	July, 1920.....	Seattle, Wash.....	Geo. P. Hambrecht.....	Do.
8	May, 1921.....	New Orleans, La.....	Frank E. Hoffman.....	Do.
9	May, 1922.....	Harrisburg, Pa.....	Frank E. Wood.....	Do.
10	May, 1923.....	Richmond, Va.....	C. B. Connelley.....	Louise E. Schutz.
11	May, 1924.....	Chicago, Ill.....	John Hopkins Hall, jr.....	Do.
12	August, 1925.....	Salt Lake City, Utah.....	George B. Arnold.....	Do.
13	June, 1926.....	Columbus, Ohio.....	H. R. Witter.....	Do.
14	May-June, 1927.....	Paterson, N. J.....	John S. B. Davie.....	Do.
15	May, 1928.....	New Orleans, La.....	H. M. Stanley ¹	} Do.
			Andrew F. McBride ²	
			Andrew F. McBride.....	
16	June, 1929.....	Toronto, Canada.....	Maud Swett.....	} Do.
17	May, 1930.....	Louisville, Ky.....	Maud Swett.....	
18	May, 1931.....	Boston, Mass.....	John H. H. Ballantyne ⁴	} Do.
			W. A. Rooksbery.....	

¹ Known as Association of Governmental Labor Officials, 1914-1927.

² Mr. Stanley resigned in March, 1928.

³ Doctor McBride resigned in March, 1929.

⁴ Mr. Ballantyne resigned in January, 1931.

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BULLETIN OF THE U. S. BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

No. 563

WASHINGTON

JANUARY, 1932

PROCEEDINGS OF THE EIGHTEENTH ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE ASSOCIATION OF GOVERNMENTAL OFFICIALS IN INDUSTRY OF THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA, BOSTON, MASS., MAY 18-22, 1931

The eighteenth annual convention of the Association of Governmental Officials in Industry of the United States and Canada opened on Monday evening, May 18, 1931, at the Statler Hotel, where an informal dinner was tendered the delegates by the Commonwealth of Massachusetts.

E. Leroy Sweetser, commissioner of the Massachusetts Department of Labor, presided. Mr. DeWitt C. DeWolfe, secretary to the governor, and Hon. Joseph McGrath, acting mayor of Boston, extended words of greeting to the delegates. After the dinner a most interesting and unusual group of pictures, including views of historical places in Massachusetts, was shown the delegates and friends.

TUESDAY, MAY 19—MORNING SESSION

W. A. Rooksbery, President Association of Governmental Officials in Industry, Presiding

BUSINESS SESSION

Mr. John T. Scully, representing the mayor of Boston, presented an address of welcome to the association, after which General Sweetser, commissioner of the Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industries, welcomed the delegates and gave an informal talk in regard to the program. Mr. F. J. Plant, chief of the labor intelligence branch of the Department of Labor of Canada, presented the greetings of Canada.

Address of the President

By **W. A. ROOKSBERY, Commissioner Bureau of Labor and Statistics, Arkansas**

It has been a source of regret to me that every labor official in the United States and Canada has not taken advantage of the opportunity to attend and take part in the meetings of the Association of Governmental Officials in Industry. I find their failure has not been due to lack of a desire to attend, but in many cases the States or Provinces they represent refuse to make appropriations to cover expenses of their attendance.

I can emphatically state that these meetings have been worth every cent my State has expended in sending delegates to these conventions. Not only have I attended these conventions during my term of office, but my predecessors availed themselves of the opportunity. Ideas gathered from discussions on the floor of this convention and in association with other labor officials have been put into effect in my State, and in some instances have resulted in savings sufficient to pay more than the expenses of such trips. In addition to these ideas with reference to the enforcement of labor laws in an economical manner, valuable information in reference to labor legislation has been gained and these ideas worked into legislation for the benefit of our people. We have been able to come shoulder to shoulder with other officials of the United States and Canada, and in addition to the personal gain of the splendid friendships made we have found that in the transaction of business matters involving the citizens of my State which require the aid of officials in other States the task is more readily accomplished. These meetings really warrant the attendance of all labor officials, and I hope that those in authority in Canada and the United States will make it possible that all such officials may attend these meetings in the future.

It is my belief that during the next few years the labor officials of the United States and Canada will be in position to render valuable services to their country, and they should be in possession of all the information possible to render such service. As labor officials we occupy a strategic position. On account of our official position we are so situated that we can approach the employers of our States and Provinces, and we should also have the confidence of the laboring people. During this period of readjustment we should use our offices to the end that justice and fairness shall be the foundation upon which readjustment policies rest. If we exercise determination and frankness in accomplishing this, many labor difficulties may be averted. It has been my experience that the employer is just as subject to radicalism as the laborer, which, in either case, is often due to the lack of a proper viewpoint.

It will be up to us, as labor officials, to attempt to find the proper viewpoint and to have the determination to demand justice and fairness. We would be better prepared to do this if all labor officials would counsel together in just such an organization as the Association of Governmental Officials in Industry.

It has occurred to me that if at this convention we could adopt some plan to inform the governors of the various States of the United States and the lieutenant governors of the Provinces of Canada of the aims and objects of this association and the subjects discussed here, and then continually urge these officials together with the labor officials to take an interest in our work, we might increase the attendance and through added attendance have added interest. I would suggest that a steering committee—of all the membership or a part of it—be appointed for this work and actively begin work at once.

It is my opinion that this organization will add to the efficiency of all labor departments taking an interest in its activities, and also that the labor officials of this country and Canada are in a position to give more valuable service to their country during the next few

years than in former years, and so should be in possession of all the information obtainable. This association is one of the best means to help them. I hope that some plans to the end I have mentioned will be made.

(The secretary called the roll by States and Provinces. Reports of legislation will be found on page 10.)

(The secretary then read communications from Mrs. Kinney, of California; Mr. MacKenzie, of British Columbia; Mr. Urick, of Iowa; Mr. Cohen, of Illinois; Miss McFarland, of Missouri; Mr. Kitchen, of North Dakota; Mrs. Trumbull, of Oregon; Mr. Murphy, of Oklahoma; and Mr. Wood, of Louisiana. Telegrams from Hon. W. N. Doak, United States Secretary of Labor, and from H. R. Witter, mayor of Canton, Ohio, and former president of the Association of Governmental Officials in Industry, were also read.)

(The president then appointed the following committees:)

Committee on officers' reports.—Charles E. Baldwin, of Washington, D. C., chairman; James E. Reagin, of Indiana; Edward F. Seiller, of Kentucky; Miss Agnes L. Peterson, of Washington, D. C.; and M. H. Alexander, of Colorado.

Committee on resolutions.—John S. B. Davie, of New Hampshire, chairman; Henry McColl, of Minnesota; John Roach, of New Jersey; Miss Ethel M. Johnson, of Massachusetts; and Miss Alice Angus, of North Dakota.

Committee on constitution and by-laws.—Harry D. Immel, of Pennsylvania, chairman; Miss Maud Swett, of Wisconsin; and Charles A. Hagner, of Delaware.

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY

As provided for by resolution adopted at the 1930 convention of the association held at Louisville, the secretary wrote letters of thanks to the Kentucky Department of Agriculture and to the mayor of Louisville for courtesies extended during the convention. Furthermore, as provided for by resolution adopted at the convention, a letter of sympathy was written to Commissioner Hon. Newton Bright, whose illness prevented his attendance at the convention.

C. W. Dickey, associated with the E. I. du Pont de Nemours & Co., Wilmington, Del., applied for associate membership in the Association of Governmental Officials in Industry, June 10. As provided for in the constitution as amended in May, 1930, his request was referred to the executive board. By unanimous vote of the board he was elected to associate membership July 18, 1930. I am further glad to report that since that time Mr. Dickey has not only paid \$10 membership fee for year ending July 1, 1931, but has also paid for year ending July 1, 1932.

Letters containing announcement that the 1931 convention would be held in Boston, Mass., and inclosing statement regarding dues to the association for the year ending July 1, 1931, were sent out August 27. In cases where there was no response, second and third letters have gone out since that time, with the result given herewith in the statement of the treasurer.

November 19 page proof of the proceedings of the convention at Louisville were mailed to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, Department of Labor, Washington, to be printed. Considerable difficulty was experienced this year in assembling the proceedings, as an inadequate and incorrect report of the proceedings was made by the official reporter. The proceedings were printed as Bulletin No. 530 by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in November, 1930.

Article 9, section 1, of the constitution was amended in May, 1930, to provide that the program committee shall consist of the president, secretary-treasurer, and the head of the department of the State or Province within which the

convention is to be held. A meeting of the program committee was held in Chicago January 25 and 26, 1931. Mr. W. A. Rooksbery, president of the association, General Sweetser, Mr. Whitaker, of Georgia, Miss Swett, of Wisconsin, and Miss Schutz attended the program committee meeting, and tentative plans were drawn up which were later consummated largely through the efforts of General Sweetser and Doctor Patton, of New York. The credit for securing most of the excellent speakers on the program this year is due these two gentlemen.

Under date of January 19 communication was received from Mr. J. H. H. Ballantyne, who as Deputy Minister of Labor, Ontario, had been elected president of the association May 23, 1930, to the effect that he tendered his resignation as president to the executive board of the Association of Governmental Officials in Industry. Mr. Ballantyne says in part in his letter of that date:

I shall always value most highly my association and personal friendship with members of your association and I shall watch its further career with unceasing interest. I do hope that the forthcoming convention in Boston will be productive of the greatest possible good to all concerned and that the work of the association will continue to grow in size and expand in influence as the years go by.

In preparation for the convention, letters of announcement were sent out under date of February 6, April 7, and May 7 to approximately 200 persons in the United States and Canada who are now members of the association, potential members, or have shown a friendly interest in the association and its purposes. Final printed program was mailed out May 7.

Respectfully submitted.

LOUISE E. SCHUTZ, *Secretary-Treasurer.*

FINANCIAL STATEMENT OF TREASURER, MAY 15, 1930, TO MAY 15, 1931

BALANCE AND RECEIPTS

Funds on hand May 15, 1931:

Savings account.....		\$392. 65
Receipts for fiscal year ending July 1, 1930 (interest and dues):		
1930		
May 21. Tennessee.....		\$10. 00
West Virginia.....		10. 00
23. North Dakota.....		10. 00
Ohio.....		25. 00
Alabama.....		10. 00
July 9: Indiana.....		25. 00
Sept. 8: Connecticut.....		10. 00
Receipts for fiscal year ending July 1, 1931 (interest and dues):		
1930		
July 1. Interest on savings account.....		. 78
Aug. 4. Oklahoma.....		10. 00
7: Indiana.....		25. 00
Sept. 6. Arkansas.....		10. 00
8. Kentucky.....		10. 00
9. Federal Department, Canada.....		25. 00
Nova Scotia.....		10. 00
10. Virginia.....		15. 00
C. W. Dickey, associate member.....		10. 00
11. L. Magnusson, International Labor Office.....		10. 00
(honorary member)		
Minnesota.....		25. 00
12. Massachusetts.....		50. 00
Alberta.....		10. 00
15. Delaware.....		10. 00
19. New Hampshire.....		10. 00
20. Ontario.....		15. 00
24. Manitoba.....		15. 00

Receipts for fiscal year ending July 1, 1931 (interest and dues)—Contd.

1930		
Oct.	3. Interest on savings account.....	\$0. 90
	6. New York.....	50. 00
	13. Pennsylvania.....	50. 00
	18. Washington.....	25. 00
Nov.	1. Illinois.....	15. 00
	13. New Jersey.....	25. 00
	23. Wisconsin.....	50. 00
	Ohio.....	25. 00
1931		
Jan.	1. Interest on savings account.....	4. 03
Feb.	16. Georgia.....	25. 00
Apr.	1. Interest on savings account.....	5. 74
	24. Alabama.....	10. 00
Receipts for fiscal year ending July 1, 1932:		
1931		
Feb.	16. C. W. Dickey, associate member.....	10. 00
		<u> </u>
		\$656. 45
	Total.....	<u>1, 049. 10</u>

DISBURSEMENTS

1930		
May	26. Partial honorarium L. E. Schutz, secretary-treasurer.....	150. 00
June	12. Adelaide Hauser, official reporter, part payment.....	40. 00
	18. Stamps, telegrams, air mail, registered mail.....	1. 36
	Three telegrams to Louisville.....	2. 09
	19. Barnett Typing Service.....	5. 75
	Balance on honorarium secretary-treasurer.....	150. 00
	20. Expenses secretary-treasurer in Louisville.....	2. 20
	Stamps.....	3. 00
	24. Adelaide Hauser, official reporter, balance on bill.....	10. 00
	Betty Holstrom, stenographic work.....	15. 00
July	25. Chase Printing Co., 1,000 letterheads.....	13. 58
Aug.	19. Registered package to Washington.....	1. 08
Sept.	19. Chase Printing Co., receipt book.....	6. 50
1931		
Jan.	12. Stamps.....	5. 00
Feb.	16. Expenses, secretary-treasurer, trip to Chicago to attend executive board meeting.....	40. 86
	27. Stamps.....	5. 00
Mar.	7. Chase Printing Co., 1,000 No. 10 envelopes.....	7. 00
Apr.	5. Postal cards and stamps.....	5. 00
	7. Mimeographing postal cards.....	1. 65
	30. Stamps.....	5. 00
May	12. Betty Holstrom, stenographic service, June, 1930-May, 1931.....	25. 00
	14. Chase Printing Co., 700 printed programs.....	27. 00
	Total disbursements.....	<u>522. 07</u>
	Balance on hand, savings account, May 14, 1931.....	527. 03
	Total.....	<u>1, 049. 10</u>

President ROOKSBERY. That is a very good report. It is encouraging to know that we have money in the treasury. We will now have a continuation of a report made at the last convention on safety codes in the various States. Mr. Baldwin reported on that at the last convention, and the committee was continued to make a further study and to report at this convention. We will be very glad to hear from Mr. Baldwin at this time.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE APPOINTED TO STUDY THE RELATION OF THE ASSOCIATION OF GOVERNMENTAL OFFICIALS IN INDUSTRY TO SAFETY REGULATIONS, SAFETY CODES, ETC. (CHARLES E. BALDWIN, CHAIRMAN)

Your committee, appointed one year ago, to study the relations of the Association of Governmental Officials in Industry to safety regulations, safety codes, etc., was continued this year and was directed to make a report as to the status of safety codes in the various States. In accordance with that direction an inquiry was sent to the various States asking what had been accomplished along the line of adoption of safety codes. The result of that inquiry shows that a considerable number of industrial safety regulations have been adopted in the various States since the publication of the existing regulations (see Monthly Labor Review, March, 1929, pp. 103-115) submitted with the report to the convention one year ago. The additions consist in some cases of statutory provisions and in other cases of rules or regulations issued by the State authorities.

Among the outstanding changes reported is the adoption in 1930 by the Nebraska Department of Labor of a set of safety codes, covering 25 subjects, mostly national safety codes or projects, and providing that all cases not specifically covered by the Nebraska regulations shall be covered by national safety codes where such codes exist.

Other prominent changes include the adoption of new safety regulations by Indiana on 10 subjects, by Kentucky on 11 subjects, by Maryland on 15 subjects, together with general orders for a number of others, by Minnesota on 12 subjects, by Ohio on 11 subjects, by Pennsylvania on 9 general subjects and extension of others, and by Washington on 32 subjects.

According to the information received, no changes were made in regulations in 18 of the States, and 5 other States failed to furnish the data in time for inclusion in this report.

In several States changes to cover new conditions were made in the existing rules for specified subjects, and in some of them official codes were adopted in place of the former rules. In New Jersey, for example, a revised code for lighting of factories, approved as "American Standard" in August, 1930, was officially adopted. In Ohio a code was adopted for laundry machinery and operations, a new subject, but formal codes were also adopted for construction work, for protection of workers in foundries, and for woodworking plants, all previously covered by safety regulations. In Wisconsin original orders were issued for tunnel, caisson, and trench construction, while amendments were made to the existing orders for quarries and pits and for spray coating.

A list follows of the additional safety measures adopted by the States as reported, classified by subject of code or regulation. Safety provisions covering mines and mine operations have been omitted.

Additional Safety Regulations Adopted

Subjects Covered by Approved National Safety Codes

The following States have adopted rules, regulations, or orders covering the subjects indicated which have been approved as codes by the American Standards Association. This does not mean that the codes themselves have been adopted or even approved by the State named.

Abrasive wheels.—Maryland.

Aeronautics.—California, Delaware, Kentucky (in part), Massachusetts, Wisconsin.

Automobile brakes and brake testing.—California, Delaware, Massachusetts, Washington, Wisconsin.

Automobile headlighting.—California, Delaware, Massachusetts, Washington.
Building exits.—Kentucky, Minnesota, Nevada, Oregon, Washington (in part).
Colors for traffic signals.—California, Wisconsin.
Electrical installations.—Kentucky, North Dakota.
Elevators and escalators.—Missouri, Tennessee, Washington (in part).
Forging and hot-metal stamping.—Indiana, Maryland, Ohio.
Identification of gas-mask canisters.—Maryland.
Ladders.—Maryland.
Laundry machinery and operations.—Indiana, Maryland, Minnesota, Nebraska, Ohio.
Lighting of factories, mills, etc.—Maryland, Mississippi.
Lighting of school buildings.—Mississippi, Ohio.
Logging and sawmill operations.—Indiana, Maryland, Tennessee.
Paper and pulp mills.—Indiana, Maryland, Minnesota, Nebraska, Washington.
Power control, electrical.—Nebraska, Tennessee.
Power presses and foot and hand presses.—Indiana, Ohio, Washington.
Power-transmission apparatus.—Maryland.
Pressure piping.—Ohio.
Prevention of dust explosions.—Indiana, Kentucky, Maryland, Missouri (in part).
Protection of heads and eyes.—Indiana, Minnesota, Nebraska.
Protection of workers in foundries.—Indiana, Maryland.
Refrigeration, mechanical.—Kentucky, Maryland, Washington.
Rubber machinery.—Colorado, Indiana, Maryland, Nebraska.
Textile plants.—Washington.

Subjects Covered by National Safety Codes in Process of Development

The following States have adopted rules, regulations, or orders which are at present in process of development as codes by the American Standards Association:

Amusement parks.—Tennessee, Washington.
Construction work.—Arizona.
Conveyors and conveying machinery.—Nebraska, Washington.
Cranes, derricks, and hoists.—Ohio, Washington.
Exhaust systems.—Minnesota, Washington.
Floor and wall openings, railings, toe boards.—Minnesota, Mississippi (in part), Nebraska, Texas (in part), Washington.
Industrial sanitation.—Minnesota, South Carolina, Texas, Washington.
Plate and sheet-metal working.—Washington.
Power control, mechanical.—Minnesota.
Tanneries.—Wisconsin (in part).
Ventilation.—Kentucky, Minnesota, Mississippi, Nebraska, Washington.
Window washing.—Minnesota, Nebraska.

Subjects Not Included So Far in National Safety Codes

Definite regulations have been added by the States listed for the subjects indicated. These subjects are not at the present time under consideration by the American Standards Association for establishment of specific national codes, but the standardization of any of the subjects may be introduced at any time.

Bakeries.—Nebraska, Pennsylvania.
Boilers.—Delaware, Kentucky, Maine (in part).
Brewing and bottling.—Pennsylvania.
Canneries.—Pennsylvania, Washington.
Ceramics.—New Jersey.
Chemicals.—Washington.
Compressed-air work.—Maine, New York, Pennsylvania.
Dredges.—Washington.
Dry-cleaning and dyeing establishments.—Indiana, Minnesota, Nebraska, Ohio, Washington.
Engines.—Washington.
Explosives.—Kentucky.
Felt-hatting industry.—New Jersey.
Hand tools.—Washington.
Metal working.—Nebraska, Washington.
Milling industry.—Pennsylvania.

Oil drilling.—Washington.
Painting.—California, Washington.
Plant railways.—Pennsylvania.
Plumbing.—Kentucky, Ohio, Washington.
Potteries.—Washington.
Pressure tanks.—Nebraska, Ohio.
Pressure vessels.—Ohio, Wisconsin.
Printing.—Washington.
Protection from fire and panic.—Kentucky, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Tennessee.
Quarries and pits.—Tennessee, Washington.
Scaffolds and staging.—Kentucky, Minnesota, New Jersey, North Dakota, Washington.
Shipbuilding.—Washington.
Spray coating.—New York (in part), Ohio, Pennsylvania.
Steam shovels.—Washington.
Sugar factories.—Colorado.
Tunnels.—Maine, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Washington, Wisconsin.
Welding.—Ohio.

(On motion regularly made, seconded, and carried, the committee was continued for another year.)

President ROOKSBERY. Mr. Baldwin, your committee will continue your work and give us a report at the next convention.

As Mr. Ainsworth will not be able to be here until this afternoon, his address will be given later. However, the representative of this association who attended the National Safety Congress is here; we would be glad to hear from Mr. Immel at this time and have a report on the National Safety Council.

REPORT ON NATIONAL SAFETY COUNCIL CONGRESS (BY HARRY D. IMMEL)

A year ago I explained briefly to the Governmental Officials in Industry about the National Safety Council Congress, and to-day I am here to tell you that we had a very successful session in Pittsburgh last fall. When this matter was first broached there was some thought that it might interfere with the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions, but I think that has been dissipated by what has been done so far.

Our program last year covered some very important topics and was presented by some very representative men. That program included the topics of "Safety educational work of governmental agencies," "Making use of accident statistics in safety work," "Governmental relations with uniform safety agencies," and "Cooperation with governmental agencies and safety work." I see a few people here to-day who were with us in Pittsburgh and who could tell us of the impression they received.

Doctor Patton and Mr. Morley were on our program, and Mr. Ethelbert Stewart presided as chairman. Mr. Stewart was one of those who were skeptical about the undertaking, but who got up in the session and said he was fully convinced that it had a valuable mission to perform. That session does afford a medium of exchange between governmental agencies which have to do with safety, but, more important than this, it affords an opportunity for exchange of ideas between the representatives of those agencies and the people they serve.

This session was attended by representatives of the industries and of other outside agencies. Interchange of ideas between governmental associations is afforded by these organizations, but no other organization of national scope affords the opportunity for contact with the people we serve in the way that is afforded by the governmental officials' session of the National Safety Congress.

We intend to develop a program for the session at Chicago next fall in which program we propose to go further, if possible, in the development of this idea.

For example, we hope to have a representative of industry tell us what is the matter with factory inspection. We shall probably go into the relation of health, through regulation of governmental agencies, with respect to safety. There are a number of very important and valuable topics that can be discussed in this manner before an organization which brings together all the various people in the governmental safety agencies. That, of course, is distinctly a safety program; it does not go into the other phases of the labor problem.

I hope that, this year particularly, when people from a good many States of the West and the South have unfortunately been unable to come here, some of them may be able to get to Chicago and there get something of the benefit they might have gotten by attending this meeting. I suggest that Doctor Patton say a word about our program at Pittsburgh.

DISCUSSION

Doctor PATTON (New York). For two years I have opposed the creation of this section on the ground that the National Safety Congress is already better than a 5-ring circus; that is, there is so much going on that you can not see what is already in existence, let alone taking on something new.

Yet it is true that after the first program, as Mr. Immel pointed out, both Mr. Stewart and myself were convinced that there was a proper field for such a section. I think one of Mr. Immel's suggestions was very much to the point—that the program at future meetings of that section should distinctly aim at bringing into it, as well as into the participation and discussions generally, the representatives of industry, and not alone the official representatives.

My first feeling of opposition was due largely to the fact that when I did go to the National Safety Congress I did not want to talk to other people like myself—I wanted to hear something different. There is no gathering of any sort where that is more possible than at the National Safety Congress, because there is a larger representation of nonofficial agencies—nonofficial but at the same time the people who are actually burdened with carrying on industry—there than in any other place. So I think that Mr. Immel's suggestion for a program for next year and the coming years is good. There is a real field for such a section and I hope that this gathering will add the weight of its influence to such a feature.

President ROOKSBERY. Doctor Patton, I think that should be handled at the business session on Friday.

Mr. IMMEL. I do not know if there has been a formal indorsement from this association, but I know there has from the I. A. I. A. B. C. I think an official indorsement would be of great value to that session, if this association cares to give it.

President ROOKSBERY. If there is no objection, we will refer that question to the business meeting on Friday. That is a splendid report and I am of the opinion that it is going to be of great benefit to this association. I had the pleasure of attending the National Safety Congress in Chicago two years ago, and it was astounding the things that developed in that session. As Doctor Patton and others

say, it is almost impossible to see what is going on; but you must choose those things in which you are interested and by attending those sessions you will receive great benefit because the program is very constructive.

REPORTS ON NEW LABOR LEGISLATION

United States Women's Bureau (Miss Peterson).

The Women's Bureau can report a slight increase in appropriation, though there is danger that some of it may be taken away from us. We believe that the State departments are interested in most of our reports, but during the past year we have been working on reports that are of special interest to the States. We have now in press a bulletin pertaining to the regulation of drinking fountains, in which are presented such standards as exist in the various States, the standards recommended by the American Public Health Association and certain other organizations, and summaries of the bacteriological studies that have called attention to the defects of fountains.

The Secretary of Labor has requested that the engineers of the United States Public Health Service pass on the drinking facilities to be installed in the new building for the Department of Labor. As a result, the Treasury Department has written to the Surgeon General as follows:

FEBRUARY 26, 1931.

The SURGEON GENERAL,
*Bureau of the Public Health Service,
Treasury Department, Washington, D. C.*

SIR: By direction of the Secretary, I acknowledge receipt of your memorandum of the 4th instant, outlining 10 essential features which you suggest should serve as a guide in future installations both in Washington and throughout the United States.

In reply you are advised that specifications for drinking fountains to be installed in the future by this department will be in accordance with the essential features suggested.

Respectfully,

(Signed) FERRY K. HEATH,
Assistant Secretary of the Treasury.

We are working on two other studies of special interest to State departments, and I want to express our appreciation of the splendid cooperation given to us by the States, the prompt and full response that has been given us in regard to the material that we have called for. I refer to the data requested on the regulation of toilet facilities and in regard to the question of illumination in work places. We think that these bulletins will be of special value to the State departments of labor, but we should like to have them discussed and distributed quite generally among employers, because both of these reports when completed will carry information on the standards in force in the various States, some of which represent the results of careful consideration by engineers in this field. Consequently employers who seek acceptable standards on these subjects will find here a source of practical information on the best practices. We believe also that, for the same reason, these publications will be of practical value in States where administrative problems arise because of inadequate wording in the laws pertaining to such regulations.

Arkansas (by Mr. Rooksbery).

The 1931 Legislature of Arkansas passed a bill limiting the hours of service of bus and truck drivers, on busses and trucks hauling commodities or transporting passengers for hire, to 12 hours a day. This bill in its original form limited the hours to 10 per day, but was amended to 12 hours, and passed both houses with practically no opposition.

The 1929 legislature passed a bill designed to regulate building and loan associations, but it was found that this act attempted to amend the laborer's lien law in such manner as to give preference in matters of liens to loans made by building and loan associations over laborer's and material liens. The 1931 legislature so amended this act as to correct this provision. Laborers and materialmen now have preference where liens are filed prior to mortgages made for money borrowed for building purposes.

An act legalizing and protecting the organization and conduct of credit unions was passed by the 1931 legislature. It provides for the operation of such unions and limits the interest charges to 10 per cent per annum. The supervision and examination of such unions will be under the blue-sky department of the corporation department of the State government.

A court settlement compensation bill died on the calendar of the house.

A bill regulating the practice of law and prohibiting the practice of what is termed "ambulance chasing" passed the house, and would possibly have passed the senate, but the bill disappeared in the senate and was not found until after the legislature adjourned.

A bill for old-age pensions died on the calendar of the house.

The law regulating the employment of females was amended so as to exempt female railroad telegraphers from the provisions of the 9-hour law in order to have no conflict between the State law and the Federal regulations.

Delaware.

The only legislation we have had in Delaware pertaining to labor was that we succeeded, after about 14 years' effort, in amending in our child labor law a clause relating to the employment of children in canning houses. The law formerly read that children over the age of 12 years were not subject to the child labor law. This year we persuaded the Tri-State Canners' Association to accept 14 years as the age when children could legally be employed. The section now reads that the act shall not apply to children over the age of 14 years who may be employed in any establishment used for canning or preserving or in the preparation for canning or preserving of perishable fruits or vegetables. In accomplishing this we felt that we had done something worth while.

Georgia (Mr. Whitaker).

In Georgia our legislature meets in June. It has not met since our last session, except that there was an extraordinary session, but no labor legislation was discussed at that time.

Indiana (Mr. Reagin).

There has been no new labor legislation by our legislature. Our industrial board has that authority. There have been no State laws passed regarding our department. That is also left to the discretion of the board.

Kentucky (Mr. Seiller).

Our legislature has not met this year, so there has been no new legislation.

Massachusetts, 1930 (Mr. Meade).

There have been a number of amendments in connection with the workmen's compensation law which are the result of experience in administration, making it appear that laws should be perfected, rounded out, or adjusted to meet conditions arising from time to time.

Eight such measures were passed by the legislature of 1930. One was an act that clarified the law relative to the payment of workmen's compensation to a certain class of workmen and another had to do with the period during which

a lump-sum award might be made under the law in the case of a minor. Other amendments dealt with the payment of certain expenses for reviews in industrial-accident cases; the payment of workmen's compensation in case of the death of certain employees; judicial relief in case of failure to claim a review within the time set by the act; and the payment of compensation for certain injuries under the law. Those of you who are familiar with our law know that there has been a growing and systematic development in the workmen's compensation act in the last 15 years, and this policy has resulted in increase of the compensation to individuals for injuries resulting in permanent partial disability.

There are three matters that I think are of special interest to this association. One has to do with the resolve passed by the legislature providing for an investigation by the department of labor and industries of the purchase of stock in the so-called cooperative shoe shops. This investigation was concerned with a very vicious practice that has developed in the last few years; that is, utilizing the principle of cooperative ownership, but using it as a means of urging the employees to pay each week, out of their wages, a certain amount of money for a share of stock. Some of these concerns have operated for a certain time and then gone into bankruptcy, leaving no legal way for the employee holding the stock to recover his money. This practice assumed very serious proportions in the Commonwealth. Investigations had been made by the department on two or three different occasions before this resolve was passed by the legislature, so that when it was passed the department was ready to begin the work at once. We will be very glad to provide a copy of the resolve for any of the members who desire one, and will also be glad to give a report made by the legislature in this connection.

Another resolve directed the department of labor and industries to investigate unemployment, its causes and the remedies therefor. Of course, the question of unemployment has been considered many times in this Commonwealth, just as it has elsewhere, but I think this report has special significance, and those who are especially interested will get a great deal of interesting information in it as to modern conditions, at least in Massachusetts, as far as unemployment is concerned.

The legislature passed another resolve which required an investigation by the Massachusetts Industrial Commission of conditions affecting the textile industry. The report thereof is in progress, but not yet in print. A resolve was passed to investigate the laws relative to dependent and delinquent children and children otherwise requiring special care.

Outside of a large number of small matters that had to do with enabling acts, permitting cities and towns to do certain things for laborers and mechanics and for teamsters and chauffeurs in their employ, that is about all. Of course, all of these had to do with questions of regulating wages or conditions of employment, but they are not included here, for they pertain only to cities and towns.

Listed serially, the acts and resolves of 1930 of Massachusetts affecting labor are as follows:

Ch. 159. Act clarifying the laws relative to the payment of workmen's compensation as affecting their application to a certain class of workmen.

Ch. 181. Act relative to the period during which a lump-sum award may be made under the workmen's compensation law in the case of a minor.

Ch. 205. Act relative to the payment of compensation under the workmen's compensation laws for injuries received by employees while operating or using motor or other vehicles.

Ch. 208. Act relative to the payment of certain expenses of reviews in industrial-accident cases.

Ch. 293. Act relative to payment of workmen's compensation in case of death of the employee.

Ch. 320. Act relative to judicial relief in case of failure to claim a review within the time limited by the workmen's compensation act.

Ch. 330. Act relative to fees for physicians appearing before the department of industrial accidents.

Ch. 336. Act relative to the amount of compensation payable for certain specific injuries under the workmen's compensation law.

Ch. 410. Act establishing a division of necessaries of life in the department of labor and industries.

Resolve, ch. 16. Resolve enlarging the authority of the special commission established to investigate the laws relative to dependent, delinquent, and neglected children, and children otherwise requiring special care.

Resolve, ch. 30. Resolve providing for an investigation by the department of labor and industries of the question of the purchase of stock by employees in the cooperative shoe shops, so called.

Resolve, ch. 60. Resolve providing for an investigation by the department of labor and industries as to the causes of existing unemployment and as to remedies therefor.

Resolve, ch. 66. Resolve continuing the investigation by the Massachusetts Industrial Commission of the conditions affecting the textile industry.

Massachusetts, 1931 (Miss Johnson).

Although the legislature is still in session, a number of bills have been enacted, including several labor measures. Mr. Meade has told you about the labor laws enacted in 1930. It may be of interest to you to know about some of the current legislation.

A number of labor and social welfare measures were introduced at this session of the general court, some of which have already been enacted. Several of these have to do with unemployment. Several emergency appropriations have been authorized by the legislature on recommendation of the governor to provide for emergency employment. Additional appropriations beyond the budget figures were granted to some of the State departments to permit the employment of temporary workers. Nearly \$18,000 was assigned to the department of labor and industries for extending the statistical work in collecting information that would be of assistance in showing employment trends. Two measures carry the provision that persons employed in connection with the work outlined should not be subject to civil service.

Another act provides that the order of names in the laborers' list under civil service be waived temporarily in order to give preference to men with dependents.

One of the most important of the unemployment measures enacted is that providing a 2-year program for speeding up building-construction work in order to relieve the unemployment emergency. This provides an appropriation of \$2,759,000 for the construction of public buildings and improvements, the amount to be financed by short-term notes.

Several measures relating to the preference of citizens and veterans on public works have been enacted. One of the measures restricts the employment of aliens in the construction of public works, prohibiting such employment if citizens are available.

An interesting measure relating to the employment of women and children which has just been enacted is that imposing a penalty for requiring or permitting women or children to work without monetary compensation in industrial establishments. The measure, which was signed by the governor the other week, carries as penalty for violation a fine of not more than \$50.

The reason for the passage of this measure was the practice which went on, especially in some of the textile centers, of requiring women and children to work for a few weeks without compensation on the claim that they were being taught the operation. Because of unemployment and the depression in the textile centers, it was possible to secure women and children who were willing to work on this basis in the hope of securing permanent employment. In many instances after working without compensation they were discharged.

The measure enacted, although it will not prevent the payment of low wages which is one of the serious problems in connection with this situation, will doubtless help in dealing with the problem by focusing public attention on the situation.

A number of important labor measures are still pending, some of which will doubtless be enacted. One of the most important of these is that for the creation of a commission on stabilizing employment.

Minnesota (Mr. McColl).

At the recent session of the legislature no laws were passed affecting the industrial commission except the appropriation bill, in which \$20,000 was slashed from our annual appropriation, and we view that with considerable alarm.

New Hampshire (Mr. Davie).

An act relating to night work for women and minors.

An act relating to hours of labor, providing for 48-hour week.

Three amendments to compensation law.

Bill providing for real workmen's compensation law with board.

An act relating to collecting employment statistics.

An act to provide for the employment of residents of the State on public works.

An act determining the basic working-day on all public improvements as 10 hours.

All of the above bills were lost, with the exception of one amendment to the workmen's compensation law increasing the death indemnity from \$3,000 to \$4,500 where there were dependents, and increasing the burial expenses where there were no dependents from \$100 to \$200. This bill passed, to become effective July 1, 1931.

The bill providing 10 hours as the basic working-day on all public improvements passed, but was pocket vetoed by the governor.

New Jersey (Mr. Roach).

Employment.—Joint Resolution No. 4 (A. J. R. No. 5, Haines) continues the commission created pursuant to the provisions of Joint Resolution No. 6 of the legislative session of 1930 for the creation and establishment of a commission to investigate and study the matter of employment of migratory children in the State of New Jersey and conditions surrounding such employment.

Chapter 27 (S. 116, Reeves) provides that citizens of the State of New Jersey be given preference in employment upon public works.

Chapter 242 (S. 364, Yates) provides that, on contracts exceeding \$5,000 for public buildings, mechanics and laborers shall be paid wages prevailing in locality where the work is being done. It exempts existing contracts.

Chapter 305 (A. 250, Vollmer) amends chapter 104, Laws of 1930, which prohibits discrimination in public employment against a person over 40 years of age—members of police and fire departments and guards at penal institutions excepted—by further providing that the act shall not apply to teachers nor to any person eligible to membership in the teachers' pension and annuity fund.

Chapter 261 (A. 297, Hargrave) is an act to create a migrant welfare commission.

Inspection.—Chapter 168 (A. 87, Bradley) places boiler inspectors in department of labor under civil service.

Workmen's compensation.—Chapter 278 (S. 297, Reeves) amends paragraph 6, chapter 187, Laws of 1924, which has heretofore made it possible for an employee to file a petition beyond the 1-year period when an employer or his insurance carrier failed to make report to the workmen's compensation bureau as required by law. Owing to the fact that this made it possible for the filing of a petition many years after the occurrence of an accident, when an employer may find it impossible to present a valid defense, and in further consideration of the extending of the period for filing a petition from one year to two years, this paragraph 6 was amended by removing this extended privilege from the act.

Chapter 279 (S. 298, Reeves) amends paragraph 11 (X) of the statute which refers exclusively to disability resulting from hernia so as definitely to apply to inguinal hernia only. When originally enacted in 1919, this hernia clause was intended to apply only to hernia of this class, but some question having been raised regarding this fact, the word "inguinal" was inserted to clarify this paragraph. A further amendment to this clause relative to the giving of notice to the employer within 24 hours after the occurrence of the hernia provides that days when the business is not in operation, such as Sunday, Saturday, and holidays, shall be excluded from the 24-hour period. This chapter also amends paragraph 21 (F) of the act relative to the reviewing of a case previously settled by agreement or by award so as to extend the time within which a review may be had from one year to two years, and amends paragraph 23 (F) so as to provide legal authority to enable an employer or carrier to take action against a third party responsible for injury to an employee when said employee did not undertake to secure damages from such third party. Paragraph 23 (G) is amended so as to provide expressly that 5 days shall constitute a minimum week for purposes of compensation. The law previously indicated 5½ days as a minimum week. As the act now stands, compensation must be paid on the basis of a 5-day week regardless of the number of days that the employee actually worked per week.

Chapter 280 (S. 299, Reeves). Chapter 149 of the Laws of 1918, which statute created the workmen's compensation bureau, was amended as to paragraph 5, providing that a petition may be filed within two years of the date of the accident, or in case of an agreement, within two years of the date of the agreement, or in the event that a part of the compensation had been paid, within two years of the last payment. The act previously prescribed a limitation of one year. This amended paragraph further provides that a payment or payments made in accordance with the provisions of section 2 of the workmen's compensation act shall constitute an agreement for compensation. Prior to 1931, paragraph 19 of this law specified that an appeal from a judgment of a deputy commissioner of this bureau should be to the court of common pleas, based on the record made before said deputy commissioner. This has now been amended so that any judgment of the workmen's compensation bureau shall be reviewable by certiorari only. This amendment eliminates the common pleas court and requires appeals to be taken directly to the supreme court.

Chapter 355 (S. 284, McAllister) amends the compensation act to include all public employees, irrespective of salary received.

Chapter 33 (A. 101, Haines) changes the term "radium necrosis" to "radium poisoning" in the list of occupational diseases compensable under the workmen's compensation act.

Rehabilitation.—Chapter 70 (A. 1, Muir) makes permanent the Crippled Children Commission created by act of the legislature of 1926.

Pennsylvania (Mr. Horner).

Our legislature is still in session, and to my knowledge the amendment to the compensation law relating to compensation for minors is the only thing that has come up. That is the only bill which has thus far been passed. It provides double compensation for minors under 18 years of age if illegally employed. There are possibly a dozen or more bills that have been introduced permitting a change in the law, but they are still in committee.

Pennsylvania (Miss McConnell).

There have been two amendments to the school code passed in this session of the legislature which affect employed children. We have, as in New Jersey, the migratory child workers, and up to the present time it has not been legal for these children to enter Pennsylvania schools. These amendments will make it possible for these children to attend the Pennsylvania schools. Our legislature is still in session and a great number of bills are pending.

Ontario (Mr. Hudson).

1. An act to amend the department of labor act: This amendment grants the Minister power, with the approval of the Lieutenant Governor in Council, to make regulations deemed necessary for the safety and protection of persons employed in compressed air and in the construction of tunnels and open caisson work.

2. An act to amend the apprenticeship act: By this amendment the term "employer" is redefined in order to remove the possibility of misinterpretation in connection with assessment. Contrary to the intention of the amendment of 1930 providing for assessment, the claim has been made that it was not necessary for an employer to contribute to the apprenticeship fund unless he actually had apprentices. According to the new definition (1931) "employer" shall mean and include any person, firm, or corporation, or municipal, provincial, or other public authority to whom an apprentice is, or may be at any time, bound in accordance with this act by contract of apprenticeship in any designated trade.

3. An act respecting unemployment relief.

4. An act to provide for compensation to blind workmen for injuries sustained and industrial diseases contracted in the course of their employment.

These two acts do not come under the Department of Labor for purposes of administration. They were included, however, because of the interest to labor in their provisions.

DISCUSSION

Mr. PLANT (Ottawa). I think it is unfortunate that you have no representative from the Province of Quebec, for a real contribution was made there in legislation—a new workmen's compensation act. It is administered by the compensation board and is similar to the act in Ontario. I think that is one of the outstanding pieces of legislation passed, in this connection, at least. I think the delegates

here should know that it has been enacted, but that it has been enacted after a lot of agitation, the agitation for many years having been to get the Province of Quebec to bring its compensation laws into line with those of the other Provinces. The Province has established a separate department of labor. The law has been adopted so that instead of having labor linked up with public works it will be a separate department.

The labor people used to be of the impression that the labor end of it was made subordinate to the public works; and now they will not be able to make that complaint. Measures relating to the prevention of silicosis and to the earnings of unmarried women were also passed.

Miss PETERSON. I believe a department of labor, a bureau of labor statistics, has been created in New Mexico. That is an important piece of new legislation of interest to this organization. Also a new labor law in Oregon provides for a reorganization involving the consolidation of three agencies that enforce labor laws. The commissioner of labor statistics has therefore assumed the duties of secretary of the industrial welfare commission and the child labor committee, but the appropriation for the activities of the two last-named agencies has, I understand, been cut in half.

President ROOKSBERY. I am interested in this matter of cutting appropriations. It seems to be the great pleasure of our legislature, especially this last year, to prune our appropriations. I am also interested in some of the things that were brought out here this morning, especially those dealing with the types of law that protect the State's citizens or the workers.

Two measures were introduced in Arkansas in reference to that question and both were defeated, but at the same time Oklahoma and the surrounding States are using that as an argument against our State. They are pushing a \$72,000,000 highway program in Arkansas at the present time. Sixty-five per cent of the workers are from other States, and it is creating a very serious situation. In fact, there are a couple of strikes on now over the bringing in of these outside workers. The workers of our State are getting somewhat agitated and creating disturbances. This was one of the reasons why one of our members was not able to attend; he was trying to adjust difficulties in the State.

Is there any further discussion or business now?

Mr. MAGNUSON (Washington, D. C.). There is a study now in preparation in which I am interested. It has to do with a comparison of labor laws of different States of the Union and with the standards set out in the draft treaties of the international labor organization.¹ I hope I may be permitted to submit that to the members of this body and to ask each commissioner or bureau to look it over for those items, those references, that concern his particular State, from the point of view of accuracy of statement and the present existence of legislation in the State.

Mr. BALDWIN (Washington, D. C.). No report has been made for the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The only recent legislation that has been enacted which affects the Bureau of Labor Statistics is that

¹ See p. 172: Appendix B.—Foreign labor legislation, 1930.

generally known as the Wagner bill. While this law requires the bureau to do a great many things which it already had authority to do, it does not give authority to do anything more. We did not need that law, but it was helpful in this way, that it did aid in getting us additional appropriations, which was all that was needed to do the things the Wagner bill provides the bureau shall do.

I am speaking of this now particularly because a line of inquiry has been started which is very helpful and necessary, I think, and in which all the States can assist the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The great weakness of the bureau's trend of employment study is that it does not include employment in the construction industry, and that, of course, is a serious defect. We realized that, but heretofore we have never felt that we could take it up. However, the bureau has started the collection of statistics on employment in the construction industry, and the work is now under way in about 20 cities. The bureau is doing this work by cities and has kept entirely out of the States that are cooperating with it at the present time in the collection of employment statistics, with the hope that those States will also do that part of the work.

We trust that some of the other States will inaugurate a program by which they also can help. The bureau is obtaining this information for each month now from all the contractors in each of the cities that it covers throughout the country, and after a better sample is obtained, the bureau will have some information on the construction industry that, I think, will be quite helpful.

(Meeting adjourned.)

TUESDAY, MAY 19—AFTERNOON SESSION

Maud Swett, Field Director Woman and Child Labor Department, Wisconsin, Presiding

Chairman SWETT. A great many of us did not have the opportunity of going to the White House conference, but we are going to be privileged now to hear from Miss Anne S. Davis, director of the vocational guidance bureau, board of education, Chicago, who was also the chairman of the committee on vocational guidance and child labor at the White House conference.

Recommendations of the White House Conference With Reference to Child Labor

By ANNE S. DAVIS, *Director Vocational Guidance Bureau, Board of Education, Chicago*

I am going to speak to you on the report of the child labor committee of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection and the recommendations which that committee set up as essential in a program for the health and protection of children.

The report covered the child laborer in nonagricultural occupations, the employment of children in agriculture, hazardous occupations, industrial accidents, compensation for minors, and administrative problems with reference to laws affecting the employment of minors. The report, which is now being published, will be a volume of about 600 printed pages and will cover every phase of child labor.

In the last few years great strides have been made in child-labor legislation. Fifty years ago only 8 States had established a minimum age for factory work and 5 of these had adopted a 10-year age minimum for employed children; only 16 States had regulated the hours children might work; most of these had a 10-hour day or a 60-hour week, and 1 State limited the hours to "from sunrise to sunset."

As late as 1895 there were nine States that had no child labor laws at all, and only nine States prohibited children under 14 from work in factories. Educational requirements for entering employment were not specified in the laws of any State at that time.

To-day every State has a child labor law of some kind, but the laws vary greatly both in the adequacy of their provisions and in the stringency of their enforcement. They are very uneven in the amount of protection they extend to the child at work, and many employments are not covered. Occupations other than work in factories and stores are not so generally regulated, and the laws differ so much in the application of their various provisions to various types of employment that it is impossible to classify them satisfactorily. Five States set no minimum age for employment in any kind of work except in factories and certain dangerous or hazardous occupations, and two others set no minimum age for employment of any kind except in certain dangerous and hazardous occupations. Of the

remaining 41 States, 15 and the District of Columbia apply the minimum-age provision to a more or less comprehensive list of employments and occupations. The various kinds of domestic and personal service, industrial home work, agricultural work, and theatrical work are the employments most frequently unregulated by child labor laws. On the other hand, some of the occupations which are usually classified as domestic and personal, such as that of pin boy in a bowling alley or bell hop in a hotel, have been adjudged physically or morally injurious and are specially regulated.

In all except two States the minimum age for work, at least in factories and often in many other employments, is 14 years or higher, seven States having an age minimum of 15 or 16 years, but many exemptions are permitted and there are many limitations upon the application of the laws. Besides the minimum age for regular employment, most State laws also prohibit minors under specified ages—usually 16 or 18, but in some cases 21—from work in a number of occupations dangerous to life and limb or injurious to health or morals. All except 17 States fix a definite grade standard in their child labor laws. The educational standard for going to work in 16 States and the District of Columbia is completion of at least the eighth grade; in some other States the school attendance law requires completion of the eighth grade before a child of compulsory school-attendance age may leave school, but exemptions in these laws weaken their effectiveness as an educational requirement for going to work. All except 15 States have recognized the need of protection during the years of growth and development by making some legal provision in regard to a child's physical ability to go to work; 25 States and the District of Columbia have made an examination by a physician mandatory before a child may go to work, while 8 others authorize the requirement of an examination at the discretion of the certificate-issuing officer.

Thirty-seven States¹ and the District of Columbia prohibit the employment for more than eight hours a day of children of certain ages in at least one type of employment, most of them in both factories and stores, though some permit certain exemptions. In some of these States the 8-hour day covers work in many other employments, sometimes in all "gainful occupations." A 48-hour week is nearly always prescribed in States which require the 8-hour day; four of these—Mississippi, New Mexico, New York, and Virginia—have a 44-hour week. The prohibition as to hours may also apply to girls, or to children of both sexes, up to 18 years of age, and in a few States it applies to all females. Nine States still permit children between 14 and 16 years of age to work from 9 to 11 hours a day (of which 8 permit from 51 to 60 hours a week) and one does not regulate the length of the working-day.

The need for protection of children from the physical and moral dangers of employment at night has received fuller recognition in State laws than the need for hour regulations; nevertheless, three States have not yet provided this protection.² A number of those that have made such provision apply it only to factory work, a num-

¹ One additional State, Montana, prohibits altogether the work of children under 16 in factories.

² One of these, South Dakota, prohibits night work in mercantile establishments for children under 14. One other State, Montana, has no night work prohibitions, but prohibits altogether the work of children under 16 in factories.

ber permit exemptions, and the hours vary, so that in one State a child may be forbidden to work after 6 p. m., while in another he would be permitted to work until 10 p. m.

A number of States have undertaken to place some safeguards around the employment of boys and girls 16 and 17 years of age, and in some cases to the employment of young persons above those ages, usually by prohibiting their employment in occupations dangerous to life or limb or injurious to health or morals, or fixing maximum hours of labor, prohibiting night work, or requiring employment certificates as for younger workers.

General Administrative Problems

Although every State has a child labor law, the enforcement of child-labor legislation throughout the country is uneven and often inadequate, partly because the importance of effective enforcement is not realized. Many of the difficulties and complications in enforcing child labor laws come from lack of simple, clear standards which administrative officers, employers, parents, and children can easily understand. The most serious cause of complexity in these standards is in limitations upon the application of the laws, so that a minimum age of 14 for employment, for example, does not mean a minimum age of 14 under all circumstances or in all occupations.

Other difficulties arise from lack of recognition of the importance of the methods used in issuing employment certificates or work permits. Yet the employment certificate is the principal factor in preventing children from going to work before they have come up to the standards of the law and in keeping track of them after they go to work during the years when their hours and other conditions of work are regulated. The certificate also provides machinery for supervision of the young worker by a public agency, at least while he is subject to legal regulation, a highly important function if he is to receive any assistance in the difficult transition from school to work. A system which will keep children out of work who are not legally qualified for employment involves the working out of careful standards as to the most reliable kinds of evidence of age; a careful examination by a physician of the prospective worker; the production of evidence that such educational requirements as the law may set have been fulfilled; and the presentation of evidence that he will be legally employed.

Issuing officers in many places are not properly qualified for their work and are not interested in it, or are too overburdened with other duties to administer the system properly.

In many States the evidence of age upon which the certificates are issued is still inadequate under the law; in many localities it is difficult to obtain good evidence; and even where the law or the regulations require the best evidence obtainable, local issuing officers—because of ignorance, carelessness, and lack of supervision—often accept inadequate evidence even in cases where good evidence is available.

The United States Children's Bureau in a recent study of children employed in canneries found that 43 per cent in one State were under 14, the legal age for employment, 38 per cent of whom had work permits certifying that they were 14 or older. A large indus-

trial State, one of the few publishing figures on violations of its child labor laws as discovered through its industrial inspection staff, recently found that 20 per cent of the boys and girls found at work in factories and 63 per cent in stores were employed illegally, the great majority of whom had no employment certificates as required under the law.

Physical examinations, recent surveys show, are poorly and hastily given in most places. A study in 11 cities in 8 States, made for our committee by the National Tuberculosis Association, shows that in these places only one examining physician gave physical examinations which met the standards prescribed by the Children's Bureau committee on physical standards for working children. In another study recently made in 26 cities in Illinois the physical examinations given to children going to work were characterized as merely nominal in most cases, and almost no employment certificates were refused for physical defects.

The careful enforcement of school attendance of minors of school-attendance age up to the age when they may legally go to work and after that time if they are not actually and legally employed is basic to child labor law enforcement, since it automatically prevents employment during school hours of under-age children and of children of certificate age who have failed to obtain legal authorization to work.

Unfortunately, under some State laws there is incomplete correlation between the school-attendance and the employment-certificate requirements, which means not only that unemployed children are not obliged to attend school but that the machinery for enforcing school attendance can be used only in part or not at all to assist in preventing illegal employment. Even though the laws may be such as to make for the highest efficiency in administration, defective enforcement, due to lack of an adequate attendance service, often leaves open many avenues for illegal employment. Because of the complex individual and social adjustment problems involved in school absences, such a service to be successful should be a part of a unified social service department of the school system. Yet a study of school-attendance enforcement for the committee on delinquency of the White House Conference indicates a very general failure of school systems to provide adequate attendance service; qualifications and salaries are low and the officers are numerically inadequate, even in cities, and many rural communities have no attendance officers. In many places children may easily drop out of school to go to work, but spend their time neither in school nor at work.

Forty-five of the 48 States make some provision for inspection of work places. Although a few industrial States have established comparatively large inspection forces, a comparison of the factory inspection personnel in most States, with the number and size of establishments under the jurisdiction of the inspection departments and the laws to be enforced, indicates that inspectors obviously can not attain to any high degree of thoroughness. No attempt is made in most States to visit more than once a year work places where children are employed. As a result, children may easily be employed for long periods in violation of the law, and in some cases may not

be discovered until they are past the age when their labor should have been prevented or regulated.

A large section of the child-labor report of the White House Conference was devoted to hazardous occupations, industrial accidents, and compensation. Those States that have made studies of accidents to minors have emphasized again and again the extreme liability of the young worker to accident—partly a result of the natural curiosity, irresponsibility, and carelessness of youth—and his peculiar susceptibility to injury from poisons, vitiated air, and other unfavorable conditions in industry. Young people must be restricted to the “safe areas” of the working world, and that means exclusion both from occupations and industries that are hazardous for adults and from those which, though reasonably safe for adults, may be dangerous for the immature, such as work that involves undue physical strain or involves moral hazard.

Much more knowledge is needed before it can be said with exactness what is and what is not hazardous work for the adolescent boy or girl. Periodical physical examinations of working adolescents, studies of occupations and their demands, and analysis of data on work accidents and injuries may be expected to contribute. At present, evidence as to the dangers to which young workers are exposed in industry comes largely from industrial accident statistics, which are fragmentary and unsatisfactory and which seldom include injuries not due to accident.

Many thousands of boys and girls are injured in industry each year. Exactly how many these are no one knows, as less than a third of the States regularly compile statistics of injuries to minors. A rough estimate based on information available from 16 States, and believed to understate the actual number, would indicate that in these States between 20,000 and 25,000 young persons under 18 and approximately 3,000 under 16 are injured annually, while in 13 of these States reporting at least 1,100 young persons under 18 are killed or permanently disabled. In addition, harmful dusts and vapors, excessive heat or cold combined with dampness, cramping posture, and overfatigue are factors which affect far larger numbers of children than are affected by accidental injury, although their results are not so sensational as the loss of an arm or an eye.

Most of the States have attempted through legislation to give minors of certain ages protection against injury by prohibiting their employment in certain especially hazardous occupations. Such legislation falls far short of sufficiently protecting young workers from the hazards of industry. Too often it has little reference to modern conditions or to such knowledge of occupational hazards as is available. Provisions relating to hazardous trades often have been copied mechanically from older legislation on the subject without regard to whether they were adapted to the child-employing industries in the particular State enacting the legislation and without regard to possible changes in industrial conditions. Only during recent years has a somewhat more scientific approach to the problem been made in a few States, in which the actual accident experience of minors or the hazards inherent in certain occupations or processes in which minors are employed have been studied and made the basis of the prohibitions. A number of States still either pro-

vide no special protection of minors from hazardous occupations or have only a general prohibitory clause, which is of doubtful value in practice when not accompanied by specific prohibitions.

Legislative prohibition of hazardous employment, particularly as to employment on or about machines, is much less adequate for 16 and 17 year old workers than for those under 16; many States give little or no protection to this group, many of whom have just started to work and have no experience of work on power-driven machinery. The need for further protection for these workers has been demonstrated by the high accident rates among workers of this age group shown in recent studies, but not recognized at the time when the early laws were formulated, when 14 was a high minimum age for factory work, and for work in hazardous occupations a minimum age of 16 was a high standard.

Legal provisions for the compensation of children and young workers injured in industry are often unsatisfactory. In most of them the amount payable—at best inadequate to indemnify any injured person, adult or minor, for his wage loss—in the case of the injured child is pitifully small because of his low earnings, of which the amount of compensation is only a percentage.

Trend in Employment of Children

Some indication of the trend in the employment of children is given by statistics on work permits issued in different sections of the country, collected by the Children's Bureau since the year 1920. On the whole, they show decided decreases during the last 10 years.

During the decade 1920 to 1930 changes in State child labor and school attendance laws were made which would tend to decrease the number of employed children, but these changes can not be expected to have reduced the number of children at work as drastically as the much more basic changes that were made in many of the laws between 1910 and 1920.

Whether or not the 1930 census figure will show a decline in the employment of children similar to that reported in 1920, there is every indication that several hundred thousand are still employed in factories, stores, offices, and other work places.

The tendency, however, in many lines of work is not to employ minors under 16 years of age. Whereas in 1919-20, 7,228 Chicago firms employed children, in 1929-30 only 1,604 did so, a consistent decline in the number being recorded year by year during this period. These figures show not only that fewer Chicago firms employ children but also that many firms that were largely employers of children now employ few, if any. The number of children 14 to 16 going to work in Chicago in one year has decreased from 20,000 in 1919-20 to 2,640 in 1929-30.

A trend is discernible toward the establishment of a 16-year minimum for all gainful employment, a maximum working week of 44 hours, at least an eighth-grade requirement for 14 and 15 year old children, the requirement of physical examinations for employment certificates, greater restrictions on employment during evening hours, extension of the list of prohibited dangerous and injurious occupa-

tions, provision for extra compensation for illegally employed minors, the abolition of exemptions, and a general strengthening of administrative provisions. A few States seem to be making an attempt to attack the problem of street work and of agriculture, admittedly more difficult to control than some other kinds of child labor. Twelve States now require the attendance of young workers under 18 at continuation schools in communities where they are established.

Recommendations

In order that children and young persons may be protected against the dangers of premature employment and employment under adverse conditions, certain economic, social, and educational measures are needed, as well as adequate legislative restrictions and safeguards. Therefore, the child labor committee of the White House conference urged that special attention be directed toward the solution of such problems as adult unemployment, farm economics, and a living wage, since an income, earned by the chief wage earner of the family, sufficient to maintain a decent standard of living is basic to a normal solution of the problem of child labor as of other problems of child welfare. It urged an extension of mothers' pensions and increased State appropriations and scholarships for children to enable them to continue their education. It strongly urged an educational provision which would take into account individual differences and meet the needs of all types of children.

The committee proposed the following legislative standards:

1. An age minimum of 16 years for employment in any occupation. Children between 14 and 16 might be permitted to work outside of school hours and during school vacations in a carefully restricted list of occupations.

2. Attendance at school full time for at least nine months, and in any case for the entire period in which the schools are in session and between the age at which compulsory school attendance begins and 16 years, and up to the age of 18 years unless the minor is legally employed or is a 4-year high-school graduate.

3. Physical examination required of all children entering employment to determine whether or not a child is in sound health and of normal development for a child of his age. There should be periodic physical examinations of all working minors who are under 18 years of age.

4. An 8-hour day and a 44-hour and 6-day week for employed minors under 18. Since the 8-hour day is now the standard for large numbers of adults, the question of a shorter working-day for minors might well be considered. The prohibition of night work for minors under 18, and of work before 6 a. m. or after 7 p. m., except that boys between 16 and 18 might be permitted to work up to 10 p. m.

5. Prohibition of employment in places and establishments that do not conform to generally recognized standards as to cleanliness, sanitation, and safety.

6. Employment certificates for all employed minors under 18 years of age.

Special Problems of Agriculture

Although some regulation of the employment of children in agriculture by the child labor laws is advocated, the most effective approach to its control would seem to be the extension of school-attendance requirements for rural children. Special regulations in regard to schooling and living conditions of migrant agricultural workers are also necessary.

1. Rural children should be afforded educational opportunities equivalent to those afforded city children. The ages for compulsory attendance and the number of months' attendance required should be uniform throughout the State. Certain minor adaptations of the school term to the needs of farm work may be permitted as a method of improving attendance, but this must not decrease the length of the school term, which in no case should fall below 9 months. There should be no distinction in the enforcement of the school attendance law for resident and nonresident or migratory children.

2. No child under 16, resident or nonresident, should be permitted to be employed in agriculture, whether at home or away from home, during the hours that the public schools are in session.

Children under 14 should not be hired out for agricultural work, either independently or as part of a family group employed on a contract basis or otherwise, except that children 12 to 14 years might be employed outside of school hours in light agricultural tasks involving work for only a few hours a day during a short season.

The hours of work for children under 16 engaged in agricultural work, but not on the home farm, should be limited to an 8-hour day, when school is not in session and, when school is in session, to a combined 8-hour day for work and school.

Special attention should be given the subject of prohibition of employment about dangerous agricultural machinery. (*See Hazardous occupations.*)

Work permits, valid for the entire season, should be required for children under 16 engaged in agricultural work but not on the home farm.

Canneries.—The employment of children in canneries should be subject to all of the provisions of the regular child labor law. (*See also Report of the subcommittee on general administrative problems.*)

Young workers should be prohibited from employment in connection with the more dangerous types of canning machinery.

If the child labor law does not regulate the hours of work of minors up to the age of 18 in all occupations, the hours of workers in canneries up to that age should be regulated by special provision because of the unusually long hours common in cannery work. Special attention might have to be given also to the enforcement of legal provisions relating to hours, because of the difficulties of enforcing hour regulations in cannery employment.

A State agency should be vested with authority to make and enforce detailed and specific regulations for labor camps in order to prevent overcrowding and insanitary conditions.

The importation of families for cannery work in some States creates the problem of the migrant child worker. Attention should be given the subject of the general welfare of children in cannery labor

camp, whether or not they are workers, and special arrangements should be made under the public-school system for the school attendance of children in labor camps when the local schools are in session.

Special Problems of Industrial Home Work

The manufacture of articles in the home should be prohibited. When the home is converted into a workshop not only do young children work under unfavorable conditions but family life also suffers. Prohibition of home work was recommended by the New York Factory Investigating Committee in 1913, and the fact that the New York Commission to Examine Laws Relating to Child Welfare found, in 1924, that the only excuse for "not now recommending the immediate complete prohibition of home work in tenements"³ was that it had "become so deeply entrenched" in the industrial life of the State that gradual elimination was all that could be expected, is worthy of consideration by other States in which the problem is not now one of large proportions but in which the system of industrial home work may be beginning or on the increase.

Until home work is eliminated, all State labor laws should apply to industrial work of all kinds done in the home equally with that done in the factory. Responsibility for compliance with the laws should be placed upon the manufacturer. A system of licensing of home workers through the State department of labor is recommended.

Special Problems of Street Work

The child labor law should contain a regulation applying specifically to newspaper selling and other undesirable forms of street work, as the general child labor law is not usually successfully applied to street work. The work of newspaper carriers and of other wage-earning street workers should come under the provision of the child labor law regulating employment outside of school hours of children between 14 and 16.

Special Problems of Employment Outside of School Hours

The employment of children between 14 and 16 outside of school hours in a restricted list of employments should be so limited that the hours in school and at work shall not exceed eight a day. All other provisions of the child labor law should apply to such employment.

Because employment outside of school hours, especially in street work, is frequently resorted to because of inadequate recreational facilities, it is urged that the public provide recreational and leisure-time activities that will be available for all school children of compulsory school-attendance age.

Theatrical Exhibitions and the Like

More information as to the extent, kinds, and conditions of employment in theatrical performances and enlistment of public interest based on a better understanding of the facts are needed, and surveys

³ New York. Department of Labor. Report on Manufacturing in Tenements, submitted to the Commission to Examine the Laws Relating to Child Welfare, by Bernard L. Shientag, State Industrial Commissioner, March, 1924, p. 7.

and studies are recommended. So far as our present limited knowledge can be relied upon, there seems to be no reason why the standards for the employment of children in theatrical productions of all kinds should not be at least as high in regard to a minimum age, education, and the necessity of procuring employment certificates, as for other occupations. The enforcement of the law should be under the supervision of the agency that administers the child labor law.

Uniform legislation would appear to be especially desirable as regards employment in theatrical exhibitions because of the interstate aspect of the employment of children in traveling companies. An exchange of information on traveling children between law-enforcing and other interested agencies would be helpful in protecting the children and developing standards.

Special Problems of Hazardous Occupations and Compensation

In order to insure protection from occupational hazards for young workers, it is urged that in every State the agencies responsible for the administration of child labor and workmen's compensation laws develop a program for continuous study of all industrial injuries to minors under 18 years of age. Such a program should include compilation and publication of adequate annual statistics of accidents; investigation of the causes of at least all serious injuries; education of employers in the special importance of preventing injuries to minors; and education of the public in the importance, as measures of child protection, of suitable legislation dealing with the safety of all workers, of prohibition of the employment of young persons in dangerous occupations, and of compensation for injured minors.

That this program may be as effective as possible from the point of view of the country as a whole, it is recommended that the States compile their statistics of accidents to minors on a comparable basis, and that the Federal Government, through the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor, cooperate with the States by compiling and publishing annual statistics of industrial accidents to minors in the different States as is now done by that bureau for other statistics relating to children, such as statistics of employment certificates and of juvenile court cases.

For the further protection of young workers from industrial hazards, it is essential that power be given to State labor departments to determine dangerous and injurious occupations and to prohibit minors' employment therein. Our present body of knowledge of the hazards of the industries and occupations in which minors are employed is so fragmentary and incomplete that a careful and comprehensive study is recommended, both of occupations in which minors are engaged and of those in which industrial hazards occur, and also of possible safeguards in such occupations, in order that a scientific basis for such prohibitions may be found and that legislative prohibitions may be kept abreast of new industrial hazards.

In view of the wide scope of the problem, affecting minor workers throughout the country, it is recommended that a continuing committee be appointed, of which the members of the subcommittee on

hazardous occupations, industrial accidents, and workmen's compensation for injured minors might form a nucleus, to work in cooperation with the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor and State departments of labor in studying all phases of the problem of protection of minor workers from dangerous and injurious employments.

Minors injured in industry are entitled to more adequate compensation than is now afforded under most State laws. Basic to a State program for the adequate compensation of such injured minors is a workmen's compensation law which is liberal in its general provisions. With reference to provisions relating especially to minors, it is urged that in all States not yet having such laws legislation be passed providing—

1. That at least the employee's future earning capacity be considered as the basis on which compensation should be computed in the case of minors permanently disabled; and

2. That minors illegally employed when injured should not only be brought under the workmen's compensation law, but that, in addition, provisions should be made for the payment of extra compensation in such cases.

Administration of Laws

A system of issuance of employment certificates to minors should be developed which will insure that those not legally qualified to enter employment do not do so, but which is sufficiently simple and direct to enable those legally qualified to obtain such authorization without difficulty or delay.

The enforcement of school attendance should be sufficiently effective to keep in school all minors required by law to attend up to the age when they are legally permitted to work, and after that age until they are actually and legally employed, and should insure the attendance at classes of suitable content of temporarily unemployed minors of compulsory school-attendance age. Special attention should be devoted to the problems of school attendance of children in rural districts and of the education of the so-called migratory child workers.

Such clear and definite legal standards should be set up by both child labor and compulsory school attendance laws, without limitations and exemptions, and such correlation between school-attendance and employment-certificate requirements should be effected as to obviate the difficulties now resulting in many States from confused and defective legislation.

Inspection for the enforcement of all child labor laws, including those regulating the employment of children in mines or quarries, should be under the same department which should be empowered and required to inspect all places of employment. Except in States where special conditions or lack of precedent may make it particularly desirable that the enforcement of child-labor legislation be placed in the hands of a State child welfare or education department, or a special child labor board, inspection for child labor laws should be made by the State department which enforces the other labor laws of the State.

Labor departments, either through a special bureau devoted to problems of women and children or, if there is no such bureau, through some individual officer especially qualified, should carry on educational work designed to secure enforcement of the child labor law and should make special investigations of child labor and the problems connected with enforcement of child labor laws.

In States where the problem of child labor is sufficient in magnitude as to make it desirable, there should be a special division of the labor department devoted to the enforcement of laws relating to these workers. In States having no such provision, there should be one or more persons on the staff of the department assigned to the enforcement of laws relating to the employment of women and children.

These standards, in the opinion of the child labor committee of the White House conference, represent the least that in the light of present knowledge and understanding of the mental and physical needs of the child and adolescent should be done. They should be looked upon as merely a point of departure for higher goals, which, it is expected, will be revealed through the constantly growing contribution of scientific research. They represent the best-known practices in the regulation of child labor, for practically every recommendation has been carried out in some State and has proved of value; it is hoped that they will aid the States in establishing higher standards and in giving better protection to the youth of our country.

The control of child labor and the extension of education is one of the most important of the Nation's efforts to realize democracy, and as such it is of national importance and concern. With approximately 5,000,000 unemployed in the country, it is unfortunate that any State to-day permits young boys and girls to leave school to take work which should go to men and women.

DISCUSSION

Chairman SWETT. You will remember that the secretary asked you all to bring a brief statement, telling how you had tried to carry out the recommendations of the White House conference, so I will call on you in order.

Mr. ROOKSBERY (Arkansas). During the meeting of the parent-teachers' convention in Hot Springs, Ark., recently, Doctor Barnard, who was in attendance at this meeting, had a conference with Governor Parnell in reference to the program on child welfare as outlined at the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. As a result of the conference between Doctor Barnard and Governor Parnell, the governor will call a meeting of representatives of the various official agencies interested in child welfare and prominent individuals who have been interested in child welfare at an early date. At this meeting it is expected a state-wide program will be worked out and the needed legislation framed.

Mr. WHITAKER (Georgia). There has been nothing definite accomplished in our State, except several conferences between the League of Women Voters, the Parent-Teachers Association, and the State Federation of Labor. They are trying to formulate plans to intro-

duce into the next session of the legislature laws governing the ages of children in the industries. At the present time our State has only one child labor law, and that is in connection with the cotton mills—14 years—and they are going to try to extend that to all industries.

Mr. REAGIN (Indiana). Since the conference at Washington we have been visited by Mr. Kiper and Mr. Brown, who have attended meetings in almost every county in the State. That may sound far-fetched, but I am sure that it is quite true. There are very few counties that have not had their meetings. What has come from that, of course, we do not know, but I am sure that it will be quite beneficial.

We have held some 92 meetings on this conference. I was authorized by the governor to make that statement.

Mr. SEILLER (Kentucky). I think I can show what has been done in Kentucky by quoting a statement from Professor Nofficier, the head of the department of political science of Asbury College. He says this: "Kentucky has taken the lead in setting up a permanent council on child health and protection, carrying forth in this State many projects outlined by the recent White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. Dr. A. T. Barnard, national director, announced that he was greatly pleased with the progress that the State has been making. The Kentucky council has as its objective a campaign of education on the rights and needs of children. At the closing session of the White House conference, Miss Grace Abbott, Chief of the Federal Children's Bureau, asked the conference members to pledge themselves to work harder and more intelligently for the health and protection of children. The Kentucky council represents the efforts of this State to fulfill that pledge. No political action is contemplated by the council, and its membership will include all parties. Every existing agency will be utilized in an effort to bring home to the people of the State the rights of every child in the Commonwealth, and in ways of achieving those rights. As a general statement of the objectives of the council, the planning committee adopted for Kentucky the children's charter that had previously been adopted by the White House conference. The charter provides for the complete emancipation of the child, morally, spiritually, and physically. They will also take up separate platforms and recommendations that include caring for child health from birth, through the home, schoolroom, in labor, and to make whatever and everywhere available the protection of child health and welfare.

"The Kentucky council of the White House Conference for the Health and Protection of Children will include such representatives of all state-wide organizations as are interested in child welfare in any form. The council will have representative groups in each county of the State who will be concerned with the immediate task of child caring and protection."

I regret to state at this time that no member of our department is represented on this Kentucky council. Why we were left off I have not yet been able to learn. However, I hope we will be recognized and given a part in the Kentucky Child Welfare Council. We have several State agencies in Kentucky which operate independently for the care and protection of the child. I am hoping that the Kentucky

Child Welfare Council will promote the unification of child-welfare agencies in our State to place them under a central head which, I feel, will mean economy, greater efficiency in the work being done, and, not the least, greater opportunities and more adequate protection for the child who becomes the charge of the State or comes under the State's observation. It is for this reason, most of all, that I hope we shall be given membership on the Kentucky Child Welfare Council.

Mr. MEADE (Massachusetts). It certainly was very interesting to listen to the address of the lady representing the White House conference. It is interesting to know what standards have been set up, what standards are now in operation in different States, and what standards should be adopted. I am sure that when the document is printed, bringing together, as it does, the latest compilations of legislation, so far as the hours of labor and conditions of employment for minors are concerned, it ought to be a real contribution to the literature on that subject.

I think I see in that report a few things taken from our own Commonwealth, not specifically because we have them here but because they have proved to be very beneficial here. I have time simply to comment on one, with your permission. If you want to draw aside the veil of industry and ascertain just what the child is doing, investigate injuries to children. Those of you who are familiar with our reports will see that annually, for the last seven or eight years, we have done precisely what the White House conference suggests, namely, that all serious accidents to children be investigated. In that report each year there is a résumé and an analysis concerning permanent and partial disability and injuries to children under 18 years of age. Also, under causation for injuries, you will see that each one is assigned to a definite cause, and I think that in this way you can find, in the case of a minor, just what is going on in industry so far as children under 18 years of age are concerned.

However, what seems to have been done in Massachusetts, as to the White House conference, is that, first, the department of labor and industries cooperated in furnishing information to the committee on vocational guidance and child labor. Reports indicating the work done for the enforcement of the statutes to protect the child in Massachusetts were prepared at the request of Miss Frances Perkins, chairman of the subcommittee on problems of administration, for the committee on vocational guidance and child labor, and included a memorandum of the accident-prevention work of the industries in Massachusetts, with statistics of industrial injuries for a period of 11 years.

There was also a statement prepared and forwarded to the committee indicating the policy of the division of industrial safety with reference to its methods in dealing with violations of the law in connection with the employment of children.

The Commissioner of Labor and Industries of Massachusetts attended the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection in Washington, November 19 to 22, 1930. At this conference it appears that an estimated expenditure under compensation laws and for awards and medical benefits received was discussed at length. Reports were made concerning injuries arising out of and in the

course of employment and their effect upon the children and home conditions. Other questions concerning the welfare of the child received attention at this conference, including the mentally and physically handicapped child, medical service for the child, public-health service, and the administration and training of the child.

What Massachusetts is doing in regard to the problems incidental to children in industry, as suggested at the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, can be summarized as follows: First, Governor Ely has accepted the honorary chairmanship of the committee on the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. He has appointed a committee of some 12 members, of which Dr. George H. Bigelow, commissioner of health, is the chairman. This committee appears at present to be involved in the problem of ways and means. It is said that when these matters are settled a full-time secretary may be appointed.

I think perhaps that is one of the most important announcements, which indicates the actual work and the carrying out of the proposals of the White House conference. The idea of this committee is to organize for each of the four sections of the conference a group of authoritative speakers, in order that there may be brought back to the committees in the State the standards set up by the conference in the various fields of child welfare. It is planned to hold institutes in the fall, and regional conferences, as the other States have done, and, in addition to your speaker, to have very many interested groups take part in the different aspects of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. It is said that these groups will include women's clubs, service organizations, educational bodies, public welfare and social service agencies, labor unions, health organizations, churches, and other groups. Under these circumstances it is hoped that the standards developed through the White House conference may take root in the social and the industrial life of our people. From the available information, that appears to be the status at the present time.

Mr. DAVIE (New Hampshire). Reporting for New Hampshire regarding the extent to which recommendations of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection have been carried out, I will say that we have in the governor's chair at the present time a young man who is intensely interested in this great subject.

A conference on child health and protection, sponsored by Hon. John G. Winant, governor of New Hampshire, was held at the state-house, in Concord, April 30 and May 1. The general chairman was John H. Finley, LL.D., New York Times, editorial service, New York City, and the meetings were addressed by men and women of national reputation.

In opening the conference the governor said:

These next two days are dedicated to the child and the mother. We are gathered here in order to come to a surer understanding of the needs and the opportunities of childhood that the changing and crowding complexities of modern civilization present to-day and to accept the generous counsel of those who have given a lifetime of intense study and devoted service in order to touch life at its source and lift the level of human happiness. When President Hoover, in addressing the White House conference, said that "human progress marches only when children excel their parents," he put in a single sentence a

great fundamental truth that underlies all advancement in the evolution of mankind.

May I take this occasion to express to him and to the skillful and devoted friends of that conference and those meeting here to-day the gratitude of the citizenry of this State for their contribution in protecting the most precious possession of this Nation—the American child.

In years to come, long after we here have passed to the great beyond, when inheritance and environment insure to all children everywhere the strong minds and firm bodies and perfect spiritual contentment, those who have struggled and sacrificed that the will of Him who was the great friend of children may be done on earth will have their certain reward if, echoing down through the ages, they can catch the laughter of happy children in a reborn world.

These meetings were attended by 800 registered delegates, also by representative groups of citizens from all over the State.

Mr. ROACH (New Jersey). I hoped that Mrs. Summers, the director of the women's and children's bureau, would be here to make this report on what has been done for the working children in the State, but I do not see her. I might try to give you some idea of what has been done, although the work is entirely in her care. I know that she has held a number of conferences of social workers, trade-unions, and a number of other interested citizens throughout the State.

From what I can remember about our laws, I think the legislature has passed legislation that is probably as broad as it is in any of our northern industrial States, in that the commissioner of labor, as the chief executive of the department in administrative matters, does prescribe definite occupations that, in his judgment, are hazardous to the physical well-being of children under 16 years of age. That has been done in a large group of occupations where it was thought that children working in those occupations might suffer more in health than an adult.

I have always been curious to know whether or not as a general thing that is true. I know I am running counter to the general trend of thought that prevails among social workers in even suggesting it, but I am wondering what the primary cause of accident to the worker might be and if it is immaturity. Of course, we want to give every child a right to life and limb and health and happiness, but we want to do that for adult workers as well. While it is a good thing to emphasize the social responsibility—yes, the moral responsibility—that rests upon the grown man and woman to protect child life, we do not want to get into that state of mind where, when we pass restrictive and prohibitive legislation which will prevent young persons from engaging in service in a dangerous occupation, we think we have done our part. Our hope has been to make industry safe for competent men and women.

Our record of child-labor accidents has been studied. Our statistician has prepared a splendid summary of all the accidents that occurred to minors during the year, and I am not sure that, from my knowledge of what the statistics teach, I can draw any useful lesson from them which would sustain for me, at least, the theory that adding to restrictive legislation, or advancing the age, is in itself enough.

I asked our statistician to answer a group of questions relating to what we know about child labor in the State. I was a bit surprised to find that maybe we did not know as much sometimes as we might

have thought we knew. In our accident-prevention work generally we try to proceed on well-established premises, and so far as we can, to abandon guesswork and speculation.

(Mr. Roach concluded by discussing the questions and answers prepared by James A. T. Gribbin, statistician of the New Jersey Department of Labor, which follow:)

Q. 1. Does the State of New Jersey prepare records of minors that show the number of minors employed in industrial groups?—A. While the factory inspection sheets show for each individual establishment the number of adult and minor male and female employees, no tabulation of such figures has ever been made. We are now gathering that information in connection with the revision of our Industrial Directory of New Jersey and will then be able to show the number employed by industry group and by municipality.

Q. 2. Do the United States Census figures in any way whatsoever show the number of minors employed in New Jersey?—A. The 1919 United States Census of Manufactures shows the number of employed minors (14–16 years of age), by industry group.

Q. 3. Is there any way in which we can estimate the number of minors employed in the industries of New Jersey?—A. No way, except based upon the 1919 United States Census figures.

Q. 4. Is there anything to show that children injured on machines between 14 and 16 years of age were injured because of their immaturity?—A. Nothing.

Q. 5. If the age limit on machine occupations were raised to 18 years of age, do you think the same number of accidents would occur to those above 18 years of age that now occur to those that are under 18 years of age?—A. The number of accidents would probably be in proportion to the exposure, viz., the number of operators employed.

Q. 6. Do your records show the causes of accidents to minors?—A. Yes; annual report; September Bulletin.

Q. 7. Were the causes: (a) Lack of safeguards on machines?—A. No. (b) Lack of training?—A. No. (c) Lack of supervision?—A. No. (d) Carelessness or disregard of safety rules by the minors?—A. No.

Q. 8. Would it be possible from our records to find the number of children employed in our industries?—A. Yes, by checking up our factory inspection records.

Doctor PATTON (New York). I had not expected to make this report. I think that the program of the White House conference has been largely attained in New York State. By that I do not mean to say that we are doing everything we can for children, but some things have been done, among others an annual tabulation of our compensated accidents to minors, by age.

In connection with that I want to point out something which seems to me to have an important bearing. For instance, in New York we see how many accidents there are to minors, but that does not begin to give us any information whatsoever about the accident rates to minors. We do not know how many children are employed. For two years we published an industrial directory, similar to the one Mr. Roach spoke about in New Jersey, and in that there was tabulated the number of children employed at the time of inspection. But, as we all know, children are not employed so continuously from January 1 to December 31 as are adults. An employer may have a dozen children to-day and for the next three weeks and then none at all for the next three months. Their employment is more casual and sporadic. Until we have the exposure hours of these children we will not get very far in determining accident rates.

Even if we knew the number of these children we would not know whether they were employed for one hour to run errands or on an 8-

hour day. Until you get the number employed you can not get a frequency rate, and until you know the number of hours they are employed you can not get a severity rate. In other words, it is a part of the general accident problem. We do not know the accident rate for all employees, adults included, nor do we know the frequency and the severity rates of any single State. We do know the accident rate of an increasingly large number of concerns that devote special attention to such matters, but when we speak of the accident rates for a given State we ought to include the poor as well as the good. We need to lay insistence on finding out those with poor records as well as those with good accident records.

New York is one of the States that has tried double compensation for minors injured in illegal employment. That particular group of cases is analyzed much more carefully than are accidents as a whole, but as Mr. Stewart pointed out at the New Orleans meeting, we have not yet proved that double compensation has reduced children's accidents. On that we have to take the position that certainly double compensation is no incentive to accidents; but so far as it has any influence, we have to assume that it tends to reduce the number of illegally employed children.

One of the matters that Miss Davis spoke of was the securing of the employment certificates. That has been the thought of New York State. Formerly there were three departments charged with the issuance of employment certificates. It is now all centralized in one department. I regard the chief weakness in the New York law, as regards accidents to children, to be in the obsolete and inadequate provisions as to prohibited employments, which it has. They have been in effect for a long time, and everybody that has anything to do with it recognizes that they are inadequate, and for at least two years efforts have been under way to revise them. But on that I have come to the same conclusion that I have in regard to workmen's compensation laws in general; that is, that it would be more easily enforceable to have a blanket prohibition rather than a specific list of occupations, or machines, which are prohibited.

Less than two weeks ago a case of double compensation for minors came to my attention and, in the proceedings before the referee, the attorney for the employer pointed out that, although metal cutting and stamping machines were on the prohibited list, metal-forming machines were not and, therefore, the employer should not have an award made against him. It seems to me that, with the rapid development that is going on in industry, if you attempt to-day—May 19, 1931—to draw up a list of prohibited machines, surely by next year some new device, some bit of machinery, will have been developed that forms metal but does not stamp metal; and to keep up, you will have to amend your law every day and every time some bright inventor gets to work. It seems better to make the prohibition more in the nature of a blanket coverage than to attempt to keep up with a specific list of machines.

The home-work inspection in New York I know has been very intensive. Every effort has been made to strengthen the home-work inspection, but it will continue for some time to come, at least,

to be a serious problem in New York State. I am quite sure that Mr. Gernon could tell you better than I can of the work of the last two years in regard to the enforcement of the laws in canneries.

Mr. GERNON (New York). Before I say anything about canneries I would like to touch on one point that Mr. Roach made. We are all wrong in this child-labor business, as regards regulating the child's working conditions and prohibiting him from doing certain things. The sooner we realize it the better for the child. At least, I can say this after many years' experience and having seen a range of industries that are probably as numerous as they are in any State in the Union.

To-day we have a condition where a child can not learn anything that is worth while or anything whereby he can make a living. Don't get the idea that I am not in sympathy with child labor laws; I think my past performance proves that. New York regulates child labor as much as any State in the Union. In the first place we have too many people who try to make legislation without conferring with the people who know something about the problem. That is a rather broad statement, but it can not very well be disputed; we need no better illustration of that than section 146 of the New York labor law, which makes an effort to mention machines on which children can not work. Whoever drew it up never conferred with me, nor with anybody else in the department who knows anything about machinery; and the result is that in this section machines that nobody knows by name or description are specified and the machines that are considered hazardous are not in there, or there is such a small proportion of them that it is hardly worth while printing any of them.

Doctor Patton and Mr. Roach touched on the fact that the people who object to prohibiting the use of certain machines do so because they are the group which is trying to teach children something. Two years ago I examined many of the schools in New York State, and I found that they never teach a child anything about a machine nor do they teach it the vocation which they are trying to teach, because the methods they are using are out of date. What should we do? In my estimation we should teach children something in school that will fit them for a useful occupation in their after life. By this I do not mean to fit them for a particular occupation or vocation, but to give them the things that would help them. If we would do this, the children whom they claim they can not keep in school would probably stay.

When you prohibit a machine from being used by children you prohibit a child from getting a job, because these machines are being used; and when we say that a child can not go to work on a certain machine we simply close that occupation to that child. There are three things which we should do. To be brief, the curriculum in the school should be changed to allow the child to learn something that is useful. It is being proved in New York State, and in almost every other State, that the children who go into industry are not fitted for anything and the employer doesn't want them; the result is they do not employ children until they are over 18, and then they are worse than they were when they were 16,

because they have knocked around at a lot of things where nobody helped them. Nobody took them into the industry and taught them the discipline and the parts of the craft—things they should know.

If you are going to teach a boy anything in industry you must first teach him discipline. He has to know how to do a thing and how to do it in an exact way, because most of the things he does are things that must be done in the right way. When we prohibit the machine being used by children, we prohibit the child in that industry where the machine is used, and we do the child a lot of harm. So the second thing we should do is not to permit a child to go to work until he is 16, and when he is 16, if he is in the schools and the schools can not teach him anything more, let industry have its chance.

Let the child fit into industry, no matter how hazardous the machine is—let him work at it. That does not mean that the machine should not be guarded. If you will examine the records of the New York State Department of Labor you will find that machinery is fairly safe. Machinery is not the most hazardous thing in New York State; it can be made reasonably safe, because there is a method of operation on a hazardous machine that will make it safe. We must realize that it is not the accidents that happen that we are talking about—most of them are not accidents, they are injuries. If we can only keep that in mind we will probably clear up the situation.

It is important that the child should have a chance, and I think—well, I know—that when you take the children in New York State to-day, they can not get jobs in a real decent industry. In the first place, they must have certificates. The employer is perfectly willing that the child have a certificate. If you say that the child has to leave that industry at a certain time to go into a continuation school, the employer does not want him. This is a handicap to the child. I do not know if there is anybody here who is connected with continuation schools, but I want to say this: The continuation schools are only a means to furnish jobs for certain people in educational work. The work that they are doing is not worth talking about. It does not fit the child for anything.

Miss ANGUS (North Dakota). I really have nothing to report on the child-labor situation in North Dakota, because in the first place we have no factories, so we do not have the question of hazardous employment. Besides that, we have a compulsory school attendance law which requires children to attend school until they are 16 years of age or until they have completed the eighth grade, and that seems to take care of the situation as far as child labor is concerned. It is not a problem at all, and to-day, the only question we have to deal with is keeping them in school, instead of allowing them to go out on the farms and stay out of school for that purpose.

Miss McCONNELL (Pennsylvania). I think it is extremely difficult to say what is happening to bring the recommendations of the White House conference into actuality at this time in the State. There have been certain pieces of legislation which have come into existence, not altogether in answer to the White House conference. They came because the need for them has been felt in the past. How-

ever, the two amendments to the school code which have to do with school attendance of migratory children carry out one of the recommendations.

Another one we have is the amendment to the workmen's compensation laws that provides for double compensation for illegally employed children, and that represents one of the recommendations of the White House conference.

Chairman SWETT. Some of the measures recommended by the White House conference we have in Wisconsin; but there are two we are working on now. One of those is to bring the children, who perform work, more under the supervision and under the standards of the child labor law. We are also working over the list of prohibited employments, realizing that our list is antiquated, just as all the other States are realizing it, and that it does not do what we want it to do. To help us in this we have an advisory committee that is composed of an equal number of representatives of labor and of employers and several representatives of the public, and already a bill has been reported to the legislature which has been reported back to the legislature favorably by the committee. We do not know whether it will pass or not; the chances are pretty good that it will this time.

The commission itself, during past years, has been trying to get the bill across, but with the help of the advisory committee we are in a much better position to get it passed.

In the matter of prohibited employments, we are trying to work out something with the industrial classification rather than with the particular thing within the industry. I do not know just where we are going to land on that. We have had one or two meetings, and we are now dividing the main committee into a series of sub-committees—people who are familiar with the given industry.

As Mr. Meade and Mr. Roach and some of the others have said, you can not protect the children unless you know what is happening to them. Some of the States have been making studies as to what the accidents show is happening to children. Pennsylvania is one of the States that has done something along that line, so Miss Beatrice McConnell, director of the Bureau of Women and Children of Pennsylvania, will now talk to us on "What accident reports indicate is happening to minors in hazardous occupations."

What Accident Reports Indicate Is Happening to Minors in Hazardous Occupations

By BEATRICE McCONNELL, *Director Bureau of Women and Children, Department of Labor and Industry of Pennsylvania*

The White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, in emphasizing the need for a closer study of the problems of employed children in hazardous occupations, touched upon a vital point in the movement for the more adequate protection of the working child. The past few decades have witnessed a great change in the public's conception of the State's responsibility for employed children. A glance at the history of child-labor legislation shows that in the early

days efforts were directed largely toward the establishment of standards for hours of work, minimum age of employment, and educational qualifications, and little or no attention was paid to the type of work in which the child might engage.

The first restriction as to occupation for minors in Pennsylvania was on the ground of moral hazard. The indifference which existed toward the need for the protection of the health and safety of the working child is illustrated in the act of 1879 which prohibited any minor under 18 years of age from appearing in a theatrical performance but permitted a child 12 years of age to be employed in a coal mine. Work inside a mine, however, was the first occupation prohibited to minors because of the physical hazard involved. This prohibition was incorporated in the act of 1885 and not until the passage of the general factory act of 1889 was any other hazardous occupation prohibited. There was apparently no general acceptance of the need for protection from hazardous occupations of employed children until 1909, when the first Pennsylvania child labor law was passed which prohibited a considerable number of hazardous occupations. The present child labor law enacted in 1915 placed a much greater emphasis on the restriction of hazardous occupations, particularly in relation to machinery, and empowered the department of labor and industry through its industrial board to prohibit such other occupations as might be determined prejudicial to the health and safety of the employed child.

That the purpose of legislation which restricts the employment of minors in certain occupations is to protect the health and safety of the young industrial worker will not be questioned. What accident records indicate as to the efficacy of this protection is the subject which I have been asked to discuss with you to-day. What do our accident statistics show of minors' accidents? What data are available on which to base a constructive and intelligent accident-prevention plan and further to protect the young worker from hazardous occupations?

Accident statistics in Pennsylvania show us that the number of minors under 18 years of age injured in industrial accidents has not dropped below 4,000 in the past five years and that about 90 per cent of these accidents are incurred by 16 and 17 year old boys and girls. Our figures show that in general minors' accidents tend to increase or decrease in proportion to all industrial accidents, but curiously enough while there has been a general downward trend during this 5-year period for accidents to minors 16 and 17 years of age, the proportion of accidents to minors under 16 has remained practically stationary. In addition to the number of minors' accidents, we know in what industries they occur most frequently. In 1930 one-half the minors under 18 injured in industrial accidents were employed in manufacturing industries. More of these minors were injured while working with metal and metal products than in any other industry. Mining, an industry closed to children under 16 years of age, was responsible for one-fifth of the accidents to the group 16 and 17 years of age. Trade, both wholesale and retail, showed a great many accidents, particularly for the 14 and 15 year old children.

In an analysis of compensated accidents to minors made by the bureau of statistics for the year 1924, more specific information regarding minors' accidents was made available. It was found that the most serious accidents, those resulting in permanent disability, were incurred for the most part by minors employed in manufacturing establishments and in mines. The proportion of accidents resulting in permanent disability was twice as great for 16 and 17 year old minors as for those 14 and 15 years of age. This study showed also that machinery, vehicles, and handling objects caused nearly three-fourths of the accidents reported. It was significant that the proportion of accidents caused by machinery was nearly twice as great for minors as for adults, and this in spite of the fact that the operation of many machines is forbidden to minors because of the hazard involved.

Since its inception in the Pennsylvania Department of Labor and Industry, the bureau of women and children has been vitally interested in the movement for the prevention of children's accidents. Since 1926 all accident reports for minors under 18 have been reviewed by the bureau and special analyses made as a basis for accident-prevention work of the department. In 1928 nearly one-fifth of all accidents reported for minors under 18 were caused by working machines. In the detailed analysis of these machine accidents made by the bureau, the line of demarcation for occupations prohibited for 14 and 15 year old minors was clearly shown, only a little more than 10 per cent of the machine accidents being incurred by 14 and 15 year old children. Textile and metal working machines were responsible for nearly two-thirds of the accidents. In this study an effort was made to get specific data regarding the occupation of the injured minor. In 86 per cent of the cases the injured minor was the operator of the machine which figured in his accident. More than one-half the accidents occurred at the point of operation while the minor was operating his machine. Many accidents took place while the machine or the work was being adjusted. Too frequently this was done without shutting off the power and the result was a hand or finger caught in the moving machinery.

Very briefly, then, this is the picture of children's employment at hazardous occupations as revealed by Pennsylvania accident statistics. We know the number of minors' accidents and the ages of the injured minors. We know what industries are responsible for these accidents, but with no information as to the number of minors employed in a given industry we have no scientific means of determining where the accident risk is greatest. We have no data as to occupational risk, except such scattered facts as have been brought out in special analyses of accident reports. We do not know to what extent children are exposed to health hazards of dust, poisonous fumes, and dangerous chemicals. The health hazard to the young worker of bad posture, of over-fatigue and high tension superimposed by the speed and mechanization of modern industry is as yet an unexplored field. And what is true in Pennsylvania is for the most part true for the rest of the country. A few States compile more comprehensive statistics regarding minors' accidents than Pennsylvania, but many have even less information available. It

seems perfectly evident that the lack of uniform detailed data on the subject of minors' accidents is the outstanding finding of a survey of accident statistics in relation to the employment of minors in hazardous occupations.

The situation is a challenging one. Industrial conditions are ever changing. The increasing speed and mechanization of industry today brings with it new operations and new hazards. The introduction and increasing importance of dangerous chemicals in modern industrial processes opens up new and greater hazards for the immature worker. If the safety and welfare of our boys and girls who enter industry at an early age are to be effectively safe-guarded, these changing conditions must be known and acted upon. It seems only logical that the responsibility for developing an active and constructive program for more adequate protection of the working child rests on the State. Such a program should include the compilation of accident statistics separately for minors under 18 years of age. These compilations should give information as to industry, cause, severity of injury, and manner of occurrence of the accidents. These fundamental data, supplemented by special investigation and study where the need is indicated, will provide the most intelligent basis for recommendations as to the further regulation of hazardous occupations for minors.

But legislation and regulations, no matter how effectively drawn up and enforced by the State, can not make industry wholly safe for the working child. No program for safeguarding the condition of employment for the young industrial worker can be considered complete without the understanding and interest of industry itself. It must then be a part of our program to help industry to realize and to accept its responsibility for the welfare and safety of the young worker and so to develop its organization and plans of supervision that the hazards of employment for the working child are minimized.

Chairman SWETT. In response to the request for a brief summary, a paper was sent from Illinois. Since they showed enough interest to send this paper even though they could not be here, we feel that consideration should be given to the Illinois report, and we are asking Miss Davis to read this report.

What Illinois Is Doing to Protect Children Under 18 Years From Dangerous Employment

By the ILLINOIS DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

(Read by Miss Anne S. Davis)

Present Protection

The present child labor law of Illinois, either expressly or as interpreted by the Illinois Department of Labor, regulates the employment of children up to 16 years of age in practically all occupations except agriculture, domestic service, as "independent merchants" (usually meaning newsboys), as golf caddies, or in work under the sole direction of the child's parent. It forbids the employment of children under 14 years of age in any of the occupations deemed under the jurisdiction of the child labor law. For children 14 and

15 years of age it requires that an employment certificate be issued for the job on which the child is to work, that the hours of work shall be limited to eight in any one day (including hours spent in school on the same day), and that the days per week be limited to six. It prohibits night work for children 14 and 15 years old between 7 p. m. and 7 a. m. It also specifically forbids children 14 and 15 years old to work at the following employments:

Adjusting belts to machinery.

Oiling or assisting in oiling, wiping, or cleaning any machinery.

Sewing belts.

In any capacity in preparing any composition in which dangerous or poisonous acids are used.

In any capacity in the manufacture of paints, colors, or white lead.

Operating or assisting to operate the following machines: Band saws; boring machinery; circular saws; corrugating rolls, such as are used in roofing factories; cracker machinery; dough breaker; elevators, freight or passenger; emery or polishing wheels used for polishing metal; laundry machinery; planers; punches; rolling-mill machinery; sand-paper machinery; shears; stamping machines in sheet-metal and tin-ware manufacturing; stamping machines in washer and nut factories; steam boilers; steam machinery or other steam-generating apparatus; washing, grinding, or mixing mill or calender rolls in rubber manufacturing; wire or iron straightening machinery; wood joiners; wood shapers; wood-polishing machinery; and wood-turning machinery.

Places in which the law expressly forbids the employment of children under 16 are bowling alleys, mines and quarries, and theaters, concert halls, or other places of amusement in which intoxicating liquor is sold.

The law also forbids the employment of girls under 16 years where they are required to stand during their work.

Besides these employments, the department of labor is given authority to prohibit the employment of minors under 16 years "in any capacity whatever in any employment that [it] finds to be dangerous to their lives or limbs or where their health may be injured or morals depraved."

Under this discretionary power, the department of labor, through its division of factory inspection, which enforces the child labor law, has prohibited the employment of children under 16 years in the following occupations:

All work on or near power-driven machinery. (This includes taking work away from the machine as well as operating it. Exceptions: Some harmless office devices and some machines of very low horsepower.)

Work on scaffolding or in buildings under construction. (Exceptions: Nonhazardous work in buildings which are practically finished.)

Work in garages, filling stations, and automobile repair shops.

Cranking automobiles or motor trucks.

Handling gasoline.

Work in tunnels.

Work in places where there are noxious gases.

Work with dyes.

This is not an exhaustive list of employments forbidden under the department's discretionary power. One difficulty with preparing a definite and exhaustive list of occupations in Illinois is that, according to an opinion of the attorney general rendered in 1925, the department of labor must consider each case as an individual case rather than as one of a class of cases. The present Illinois child labor law does not provide for a procedure for public hearings as to which occupations are dangerous, and the responsibility for the decision in each case rests on the department of labor alone. Experience, however, has proved to the division of factory inspection that all of the employments which have just been named are potentially so hazardous that no exception should be permitted in the case of any child; therefore all of these employments are prohibited for all children under 16 years of age.

The only employment forbidden to minors under 18 years of age is not written into the child labor law, but is part of the motor vehicles act, which provides that no person under 18 years of age shall be licensed to be employed as chauffeur for a motor vehicle. This provision is in the interest of the safety of the public rather than of the minor employee.

On the basis of the 1920 census it has been estimated that about 79 per cent of all employed children 10 but under 16 years of age in Illinois are under the jurisdiction of the present child labor law. If occupations in agriculture and domestic and personal service and newsboys are excluded, however, the percentage of children under the jurisdiction of the law is 99.7. While these proportions may have changed in 1930, the figures are not yet available to determine where the changes have taken place.

An incentive toward observance of the child labor law is provided in the Illinois workmen's compensation act, which requires that a minor under 16 years of age who is injured while illegally employed shall be paid 50 per cent additional compensation. While this percentage of additional compensation is not so high as in most other States where it exists, it does serve as a deterrent to violation of the child labor law.

What Illinois Finds has been Happening to Minors under 18 Years

Statistics is the measure used by the Illinois Department of Labor, through its bureau of statistics and research, in trying to determine whether the present child labor law protects minors sufficiently from hazardous employments. For five years the bureau has compiled several types of statistics on work accidents to minors under 18 years of age.

When laws regulating dangerous occupations for minors have been passed, they have usually been copied from some other State more or less uncritically. In 1930 the Illinois Committee on Child Welfare Legislation requested that a study be made from industrial-accident records in Illinois to see what facts were available regarding hazardous occupations as shown by actual injuries to minors. This study was undertaken by the bureau of statistics and research and covered 2,819 cases, representing a large part of the experience of the preceding three years. The study dealt with three age groups—under 16 years, 16 years, and 17 years.

It is often assumed that an occupation should be deemed hazardous if it shows a large frequency of accidents. But accident frequency alone does not take into account the seriousness of an injury. It may happen that an employment has few accidents, but that those accidents which do occur are more likely to cause death or severe disability than do more numerous accidents in other employments. By using a statistical device for translating fatalities, permanent and temporary disabilities into severity days, the bureau was able to work out average severity rates per accident according to each age group, according to cause of accident and according to industry. Some interesting results were obtained.

For children under 16 years—that is, in the age group now under the jurisdiction of the child labor law—accidents due to automobiles and other motor vehicles had a far higher severity rate than had machinery (including elevators), though machinery accidents outnumbered accidents caused by automobiles. The employment of children between 14 and 16 years on machinery and elevators is forbidden under the present child labor law, yet more hazardous employments, namely, those subject to traffic hazards, such as delivery boys riding on trucks, are permitted.

Another interesting result of this study was that the average severity of disability was greatest for the children under 16 years, next greatest for minors 16 years, and considerably less for those of 17 years. Since severity of accident was not studied for the age groups above 17 years, it is not possible to tell how these rates would compare with rates for older minors or with adults.

The highest severity rate in any industry in any age group in this study was in trade in the group under 16 years of age. This rate (366.5) was far higher than the severity rates for either construction or coal mining (notably dangerous industries) in the older groups. This fact goes contrary to the general impression that trade is less dangerous than other employments for children under 16 years. It is also instructive that, among accident causes, automobiles and other motor vehicles had a severity rate for children under 16 years of 551.5, a rate higher than any other severity rate for any cause in any age group, and that each of the severity rates by cause of accident in this group was considerably higher than the rate for any accident cause in any other age group.

In trade (retail and wholesale), which was the industry with the highest severity rate for children under 16 years, the highest number of total severity days, as well as the greatest number of accidents, were in accidents caused by automobiles and other motor vehicles. The same was true of retail trade only. In manufacturing (the only other industry for which a severity rate was calculable in this age group) the total severity days were highest in accidents due to machinery and to vehicles of various kinds.

The total severity days chargeable to each cause of accident may be analyzed according to the total severity days attributable to each industry. This will reveal that for children under 16 years of age the total severity days chargeable to automobiles and other motor vehicles were for the most part distributed, in descending order, among retail trade, manufacturing, express, storage and forwarding, and telegraph and cable. Total severity days for machinery (all kinds) were highest in manufacturing, retail trade, and laundries.

Total severity days for vehicles (all kinds) were distributed chiefly among retail trade, manufacturing, telegraph and cable, and express, storage, and forwarding. Severity days chargeable to working machines only were highest in number in manufacturing, laundries, and retail trade.

To what age should minors be specially protected?

Although in Illinois the child labor law does not protect minors between 16 and 18 years from dangerous work, a bill proposed in the general assembly this year sought to provide some protection for this age group. It was tabled in the senate and probably will not pass, but it brings up the question: At what age may minors be permitted to enter industry on the same terms as adults?

Some opponents of the higher age limit say that for psychological reasons it is wrong to restrict minors beyond the age of 16 years. A better case for regulation up to 18 years might be made if it could be proved that minors 16 and 17 years old are subject to appreciably greater hazards in industry than are adults. This has not yet been proved by statistics, though the Illinois figures do imply that minors 16 years of age apparently suffer more severe disability on the average than do minors 17 years of age. This matter of comparing the hazards for minors with the hazards for adults calls for intensive exploration.

For the purposes of discussion, however, let us assume that minors do need special protection up to 18 years. In what industries or occupations do the records in Illinois show that these minors incur special dangers?

The special study just mentioned brought out the following points:

In no single industry and in no single cause of accident for which severity rates for each age group were available did the severity rate for minors 16 or 17 years of age equal or surpass that for children under 16 years in the corresponding industry or cause classification. However, for several industries and for several causes of accidents, severity rates for children under 16 years could not be calculated because there were too few cases, whereas they were calculated for the older minors. Therefore a complete comparison of rates is impossible.

The general average severity rate for 16-year-old minors (133) about equaled the general rate for all minors under 18 years (133.1). That for minors 17 years old was much lower (96.9).

Since it was impracticable to compute and study severity rates for injured workers 18 years of age and over, it has not been possible to determine whether the severity rates for 17-year-old minors were higher or lower than would have been found in higher age groups or for adults. The tendency revealed in this study, however, is that average severity rates decreased as the age increased.

Among those comparable industries for which average severity rates have been obtained, all but services not otherwise classified showed a higher severity rate for minors of 16 years than for minors of 17 years. Although in services the 17-year-old minors showed a higher rate than the 16-year group, in each of these age groups the severity rate for services was much lower than the general average severity rate for the same age group. Compared with other industries, therefore, services did not experience a high degree of severe injury.

Construction showed the highest severity rate for both the 16-year and 17-year age group. Coal mining had a high severity rate for the 17-year-old group, but a coal-mining rate could not be computed for the 16-year group because the base was less than 50. All the other industries in each age group showed a severity rate which was lower than the general severity rate for the same age group.

Among causes of accidents, vehicles presented the highest severity rate both for 16 and for 17 year old minors. Besides vehicles, higher severity rates than the average were apparent for machinery (all kinds) in each of the two age groups. Falling objects was a special hazard for the 17-year-old group because of their employment in coal mines. The kinds of vehicles which caused the most severe injuries differed, however. For the 16-year-old workers, automobiles and other motor vehicles showed a higher severity rate (251.6) than any other single cause in this age group. For 17-year-old workers, however, while vehicles (all kinds) had a severity rate of 223.5, automobiles and other motor vehicles showed a rate of only 177. This difference was due to the fact that, in the 17-year group, some vehicle accidents with a high number of total severity days occurred in construction in connection with vehicles not classified as automobiles and other motor vehicles.

Analysis of the total severity days for minors 16 years of age shows the following distribution, according to the important causes of severe injury, in those industries in which the severity rate was fairly high: *Construction*—working machines, automobiles, and other motor vehicles; *manufacturing*—working machines, elevators (controlled), falls of persons, handling objects, hand tools; *trade and finance (all kinds)*—automobiles and other motor vehicles, all other vehicles, handling objects; *retail stores*—automobiles and other motor vehicles.

Analyzed according to industry, by those accident causes which showed a fairly high severity rate, the total severity days for 16-year-old minors were chiefly distributed as follows: *Automobiles and other motor vehicles*—trade and finance (especially retail trade), telegraph and cable, construction (especially street and highway); *vehicles (all kinds)*—experience similar to automobiles and other motor vehicles; *machinery (all kinds)*—manufacturing, construction; *working machines only*—manufacturing, construction; *falls of persons*—manufacturing, construction.

For 17-year-old minors a similar analysis of accidents with a fairly high severity rate by industry according to cause, gives the following picture: *Construction*—vehicles (especially "all other vehicles," not including automobiles and other motor vehicles), hand tools, falls of persons; *coal mining*—falling objects (not handled by injured), "all other vehicles" (including mine cars and motors); *mining and quarrying (all kinds)*—falling objects (not handled by injured), "all other vehicles" (including mine and quarry cars and motors), handling objects; *manufacturing*—machinery (all kinds, but especially working machines), vehicles (all kinds, but especially automobiles and other motor vehicles), falls of persons, handling objects, stepping on or striking against objects or persons, hand tools, explosions, electricity, fires, hot substances, falling objects (not handled by injured); *retail stores*—automobiles and other motor vehicles.

By those causes of accident which showed a fairly high severity rate, the total severity days for 17-year-old minors in each industry ranked as follows: *Vehicles (all kinds)*—construction, manufacturing, trade and finance (especially retail stores), laundries, coal mining; *automobiles and other motor vehicles*—trade and finance (especially retail stores), manufacturing, laundries; *falling objects (not handled by injured)*—coal mining, manufacturing; *working machines*—manufacturing, restaurants, laundries; *machinery (all kinds)*—manufacturing, trade and finance, restaurants, laundries; *hand tools*—manufacturing, construction (especially street and highway), agriculture; *falls of persons*—manufacturing, transportation, construction, trade and finance.

In general, the conclusions from this study are:

1. Severity of injury, as indicated by the average severity rate, was greatest among children under 16 years of age, most of whose employments are covered by the child labor law, and decreased as age increased.

2. The average severity rate for children under 16 years of age was highest in trade and next highest in manufacturing. Trade, therefore, can no longer be considered a less hazardous industry than manufacturing for children under 16 years.

3. Average severity of injury for children under 16 years was greatest in accidents caused by automobiles and other motor vehicles and next greatest in accidents caused by machinery. The former was a special hazard of employment by retail stores, by factories, by express, storage, and forwarding firms, and by telegraph and cable companies.

Occupations which are exposed to traffic hazards or to the dangers which accompany riding in motor vehicles have not been forbidden under the child labor law, either expressly or by interpretation of section 10. Occupations exposed to machinery hazards are already forbidden to children under 16 years of age. The fact that machinery accidents occur to children in this age group is due in large part to violation of the child labor law.

4. Minors 16 years of age suffered more severe injuries than minors 17 years of age in all comparable industries except services not otherwise classified. They also suffered more severe injuries in all comparable accident-cause groups except vehicles (all kinds) and stepping on or striking against objects or persons.

5. Minors 17 years of age suffered the least severe injuries of any of the three age groups studied. Their most severe injuries occurred in construction. Coal mining and mining and quarrying (all kinds) were second and third, respectively. The severity rates for manufacturing and for retail trade, which were almost equal, were somewhat below the general severity rate of this group. Since the tendency apparent in this study was that the average severity rate decreased as the age increased, it is possible, if not probable, that minors 17 years old suffered more severe injury than minors 18 years of age or older. This supposed tendency remains to be verified by further study.

6. In the two higher age groups the severity rate for construction industries was even greater than that of coal mining. The construction of buildings is notoriously hazardous, but in the 16-year

group the total severity days for street and highway construction were almost two-thirds as high as for building construction. Most of the hazard in street and highway construction was due to vehicles.

7. In each of the three age groups studied accidents due to vehicles of one sort or another showed the highest severity rates. Machinery, however, had a high severity rate in each age group, though in the case of 17-year-old minors its rate was lower than that for falling objects, which is a common hazard of coal mines.

Needless to say, an occupation which is hazardous for an older age group, if it is to be forbidden for this group, should automatically be forbidden for younger workers. If, for example, work on or near vehicles or in exposure to vehicle accidents is dangerous for minors 17 years old, it should also be forbidden to younger minors. In Illinois not even minors between 14 and 16 years of age are protected from vehicle hazards. It may be that the mechanization of vehicles has reached such a point that a motor vehicle should be considered as machinery and that minors protected from machine hazards should also be protected from motor-vehicle hazards.

Children Outside the Child Labor Law

In a study, just completed, of accidents to minors reported in Illinois from 1926 to 1930, it is found that compensable accidents to children under 16 years whose occupations are outside the jurisdiction of the child labor law have been increasing relatively to the total number of accidents to children under 16 years. The chief occupations affected are those of the newsboy, whose main danger is the common vehicle hazard, and the golf caddy, whose chief hazard is that of being struck by golf balls. It was found that while no fatal or permanent injuries were reported in 1930 to children under the child labor law who were working legally, two children in work not protected by the child labor law were killed, and at least three sustained some permanent injury or disfigurement. The total number of reported injuries to children in occupations outside of the child labor law was 22 in 1930.

The newsboy's exact status is difficult to determine. He may be considered an independent merchant under the child labor law, yet the fact that he sometimes receives workmen's compensation for injury indicates that for purposes of compensation he is sometimes regarded as an employee. Not all of the injuries to newsboys reported in the latest study were regarded as compensable, however. Some of them were reported, not by employers or insurance companies, but by civic or welfare agencies.

As for the golf caddy, the Illinois Supreme Court has decided that this employment is "temporary and harmless," and therefore legal for a child of any age if school is not in session. The employment of children as golf caddies is usually defended as more sport than work. Nevertheless, sport has its casualties, and golf caddies have sometimes been fatally injured in the course of their employment, however temporary and harmless it may be in theory.

Incidentally, we find that our statistics on age would be very misleading if we did not attempt to verify the age given on the accident report. We have found that the great majority of children injured

who are illegally employed are reported on the accident reports as more than 16 years old. This is not always the deliberate fault of the employer but is often the result of his neglect to demand evidence of age. As it is, we succeed in obtaining evidence of age in about two-thirds of all cases of accidents to minors reported as under 18 years. Last year we found that the ages of a larger proportion of minors reported as 17 years old were wrong than of minors reported as 16 years. This may be due to the fact that in Chicago continuation-school attendance is required of minors up to 17 years. Therefore a larger proportion of minors who actually may be 16 years or younger claim that they are 17 in order to get a job without having to go to continuation school.

What We Wish We Knew about Hazardous Occupations in Illinois

We know only a fragment of the industrial accident experience of employments not included automatically under the jurisdiction of the workmen's compensation act. We know almost nothing about industrial accidents in agricultural pursuits, in domestic service, and in the so-called street trades, because the compensation act does not cover these employments unless the employer elects to come under the act, which is not usually the case. The National Safety Council in recent years has found that accidents in the home are as important a safety problem as accidents in industry, and it may be that minors employed in domestic service are suffering injuries of which there is no record.

Since the workmen's compensation act applies to very few kinds of occupational diseases, we have comparatively few records of these diseases.

We do not know how many minors or adults are engaged in the industries or under the conditions which cause compensable injury, nor do we know the length of their exposure to these hazards. Therefore, we have no sure way of relating the number of accidents and the severity of injury to a fixed base in such a way as to determine which industries and conditions are really the most dangerous.

Classifying occupations from industrial accident reports is impossible, in our State at least. The identifying information given on the report is insufficient, and it is perhaps not too much to say that it never will be given automatically. The identification of each of the particular jobs named on accident reports would call for an amount of intensive investigation which it would be prohibitively expensive to include in the routine reporting of accidents. Yet if we are to know exactly what occupations and processes in any given industry are extrahazardous, complete knowledge of the job on which each accident happens and the relationship of the accident to that job is essential.

Although the Illinois child labor law does not at present protect minors between 16 and 18 years of age from hazardous employments, Illinois is endeavoring to develop statistics on the subject which may shed some light on what sort of action the accident situation requires.

DISCUSSION

Mr. MAGNUSSON (Washington, D. C.). There are some questions I would like to ask Miss Davis about the White House conference, because it seems to me that the conference is very important and there has been a great deal of publicity as a result of it. Such meetings as have been mentioned by Mr. Davie and others have aroused American opinion on the subject.

Besides considering recommendations that could be enacted into legislation in the different States, was there any discussion as to follow-up and application of these recommendations to our Federal structure of government? It seems to me that the most important feature of social legislation in the United States is, how is one going to get progress without taking into account our Federal structure and its relation to the State structure? Desirable as it is, how is one going to get the national point of view into our social programs of action?

With immigration cut off, we must educate our workers for industry, and produce our own social welfare. You heard this morning as to how workers from one State would not be hired in another. The nonresident worker in a State is in a sorry plight. One wonders whether or not he is an American citizen, so great is the apparent lack of any national social consciousness. Was anything done in the White House conference with this specific problem of follow-up and maintenance of standards once they are adopted?

Miss DAVIS. A continuing committee was appointed, and this committee is trying to get the various States to hold conferences as a follow-up of the White House conference, at which the recommendations made at the White House conference which would apply to the particular State and to its own problems might be discussed. A number of States have already had such a conference and there are a great many of them who are going to hold such conferences in the fall. In this conference they try to have some one representing the Federal Government to discuss the special problems that the State is most interested in. Does that answer the question?

Miss JOHNSON. I would like to suggest that one very important contribution that was made toward adopting the recommendations of the White House conference was through the work of the Massachusetts Children's Code Commission. We were fortunate in having a splendid commission on laws relating to children. Some of the members of that commission served on the White House conference; the chairman was a member of the White House conference. That, I think, explains some of the similarity between the recommendations of the White House conference and the recommendations of the children's code commission.

This commission made its recommendations to the legislature this year, submitting 60 requests for legislation. The greater part of these recommendations dealt with social welfare problems, with the protection of dependent, defective, and delinquent children. It recommended greater care for children in boarding homes, more protection for illegitimate children, better care for juvenile delin-

quents, better probation work, and the extension of the juvenile courts. But the commission did not confine its attention to social-welfare problems in the narrower sense. It considered also child-labor problems, although, because of the limitation on time, the commission could not go into the field to any extent.

However, it did consider some of the serious problems connected with the employment of children and presented three child-labor recommendations which are in line with the recommendations of the White House conference. More effective health certification for children entering employment was recommended. From the discussions at the child-labor section of the White House conference it was, I believe, recognized that this work should be performed by an authorized physician. That was one of the recommendations of the children's code commission here.

Several other recommendations were made in the bill regarding certification matters. These had to do with strengthening the requirement for the proof of age for employment certificates, requiring the consent of the parent or guardian before an employment certificate is issued, and providing more safeguards in the case of children released from school for employment without the educational requirements for a certificate, because they are incapable of meeting those requirements. The most important of the recommendations, however, was the one with regard to health certification.

The commission also recommended better protection for children on the stage. Its most important recommendation with regard to child labor was that relating to protection of children in industrialized agriculture, so that such children will be brought under the protection of the child labor laws. In Massachusetts, as in most of the other States, children employed in industrialized agriculture are not included within the scope of the child labor laws. We have, of course, the school attendance laws here that apply while the schools are in session. There is a general prohibition of young children working before 6.30 in the morning or after 6 o'clock at night.

There is authority vested in the department to exclude children from any kind of employment of a hazardous nature, and there is provision in the statutes excluding children from employment on or in connection with hazardous machinery. But aside from this there is practically nothing in connection with safeguarding children in agriculture. The children's code commission recommended that there should be definite provisions for safeguarding children in industrialized agriculture. I think it is significant that it considered this one of the most important of all of its recommendations, that children in industrialized agriculture should be brought under the protection of the child labor laws. It was recommended that the same provision should apply there as in factory work.

The commission recommended that children under 14 should be prohibited from employment in that work, and that older children, that is, those from 14 to 16 years of age, should be given the same protection with regard to hours of labor and night work as applies to children in factories. It was difficult to draft legislation that would protect children from employment in the commercialized type of agriculture and yet not interfere with employment on the home farm. We tried to get some definition of industrialized agriculture. We wrote to the Federal Children's Bureau, which replied that it

had never made a definition of the term. We made a definition of our own as follows: "Industrialized agriculture is an agricultural enterprise conducted primarily for commercial purposes and employing more than 10 persons other than members of the family of the operator."

It was not expected that this recommendation would pass this year, since this was the first year it was introduced, and since it represented a proposal radically different from the labor legislation now in existence.

The measure regarding the employment of children on the stage passed both branches of the legislature; but owing to unfortunate amendments that were attached to it in the senate it had to be recalled from the governor and is now before the senate committee on bills in the third reading. Whether it will fail of passage or be put through in another form I can not say. Since the session is so near an end, it is possible that the measure will be referred to the next annual session. But a distinct beginning has been made, and the work of the children's code commission will supplement the work of the White House conference very definitely.

Chairman SWERT. I think that I owe Mr. Reagin an apology. He was to lead this discussion, but somehow we got started off on answering questions.

Mr. REAGIN (Indiana). I had something I wanted to say. I do not know whether this word "discussion" means what it implies, but I am in favor of what Mr. Gernon has said. There has been much said here about the shortcomings of our factories. How about our schools? What about the schools which are using dangerous machinery? Some of the most serious injuries in industry have come from our schools—injuries that come from cut-off saws, mortar saws, and that class of work.

I will venture to say that if the schools would pay as much attention to the welfare of the schools as do the industries they would probably help some of their own. The other day I went into a school in western Indiana and saw a square head joiner—any man here that has ever worked around wood knows what a square head joiner is—and the worst part is that it was one made in the school. There was no safety device of any kind. If there is any machine in the world more dangerous than a square head joiner, we would like to know where to find it.

I can recall two schools in our State where in the last month boys' hands have been severed. The men teaching these boys different crafts—making footstools, bread boxes, and bread boards, or whatever you call them—do not seem to take much interest in seeing that the machines are guarded. I said to one man a week ago, when a boy lost his hand, "Where were you?" He said, "I was in the other room." I asked, "Where was the guard?" He replied, "The guard was not on the machine." I said, "You ought to be discharged." I think that if the parents, who are probably back of this movement of cleaning up the factory, would go into some of the basements of the schoolhouses and see some of the machines

there that are not protected, they would find a lot of work to do there they have never thought of before.

We had in Indiana last year 463 cases of injuries to minors reported to the industrial board. Out of those 463 cases, 120 were cases of illegal employment. We found one boy who lost two hands, or the fingers of his hands, in industry. We found that many of these accidents were from falling objects, and not to be charged to machinery. In the Indiana law illegal employment is not compensable. I think that is far better than the double indemnity, but I am not going to quarrel about that. All our courts have been so hard on any man who had a child under age in his employ that it is working out well. I can cite 10 cases in which there have been \$10,000 damages. I know of one case recently of \$7,500 damages.

It seems that manufacturers in Indiana, with the cooperation and the information that they get from the insurance companies, keep the boy illegally employed away from dangerous occupations without much help. This boy who lost his finger happened to be from Kentucky. He did it on a foot-power machine in a little soap factory. He came to my office, and I told him there was no recovery under the compensation law and the thing to do was to go to see the juvenile judge. He went there, and out of the meeting with the judge sprang a case. The judge in giving his decision said, "In view of the fact that this boy is from another State, the Indiana common law does not apply to him." Of course, the labor department in Indiana took issue with that and this case has been carried to the appellate court, and we are hoping that the case will be sent back to the lower courts.

I don't know much about factories in other States, but I do know a great deal about the factories in my State—at least, I think I do—and there has been a concerted effort among the employers to keep the young child away from dangerous occupations. I would like to see some committee, whether the White House conference or not, get after the basements of some of our school buildings.

Miss DAVIS. I think it is up to this group and to the safety council to educate the school people. All of the schools—practically all of them—are now teaching safety; and I think that if you could get out instructions and send into the schools of your States to see what they are doing for the safety of the children, you would find the superintendents only too willing to cooperate in this movement.

In our city (Chicago) we had some one come into our schools and inspect our machinery. I think that if the schools were made to realize that the machines are dangerous they would be glad to work with the labor department of the State and the safety council on this very thing. I agree entirely with what you said, and I believe that those machines should be protected and we should all work to that end. While it does not come under the department it seems to me that almost any department of labor in any State would be willing to cooperate with the schools in the State where machines are established in their shops. It would not mean many inspections, and although it is not compulsory, it seems to me that it certainly should be done.

Mr. REAGIN. We have tried repeatedly to get the cooperation of the school officials, and if you have ever gone about trying that, you

would find it was a hard job. If I talked about buying equipment for the basketball or football team, that was fine; but when you go in and talk about safety you might just as well not go. I am not stating that as a relative condition, but you can not get enough of them interested. I would like to see the day when safety is taught in school.

Miss DAVIS. That is being done now.

Mr. REAGIN. Where?

Miss DAVIS. In Chicago.

Mr. REAGIN. Well, I am talking about my own State. In Chicago you are setting a fine example.

Doctor PATTON. I know of a case in New York where they insisted on that. We went around to visit a school one day, and the principal went into the shop with us. The first thing that my eyes fell upon when I entered the room was a band saw, absolutely unguarded, not even a wire mesh there. I asked the principal who used that saw, and he said that the children used it. I said to him, "Aren't you very much afraid that some boy or girl is going to lose a hand or arm some day?" He said, "I am scared to death every day." I said, "Then why don't you do something about it?" He said, "I can't. I wish the labor department would force somebody to put a guard on it."

That was the general situation until a few years ago. Then the division of vocational education in New York requested that an inspection be made of all vocational schools in the State, or the schools using machinery, and report be made on what recommendations should be made if those schools were actually under the jurisdiction of the labor law. An inspection was made by a regular inspector of our department. I can not say that the recommendations were carried out completely, but there was a very general spirit and attitude of cooperation. I am thoroughly convinced of the great hazard in those schools, and the method of handling and teaching the use of such machinery; but I am also confident that a great deal can be accomplished, even though there is no legal coverage of such schools under the labor law, by getting the school officials together and getting a response from the respective labor departments. At least, it is so in New York State.

There is one other point that Mr. Reagin has mentioned and that is the matter of double compensation. One of the earliest decisions under the New York compensation act turned on the question whether a child illegally employed was entitled to compensation or whether he had the right to sue under the liability law. The court laid down the flat dictum that all accidents occurring in industries covered by the compensation laws were covered by that law and the child had no recourse under the liability law. Certainly if that decision stands—and I presume that it is the decision in most States—then it is up to us to see that illegally employed children do get something more than the ordinary compensation provided, whether 50 per cent additional, 100 per cent as in New York, or 200 per cent for certain types of cases as in Wisconsin.

I remember one boy in New York City who got a job with a bakery the next day after his elementary school closed. The Italian in the

building bought his machinery on credit and mixed his dough in the basement. A woman came in to buy 6 pounds of dough. The man sent the boy down in the basement to tell the man who operated the dough mixer to give this woman 6 pounds of dough. The dough mixer was busy and told the boy to get it himself. The boy put his hand in the mixer and it was torn off. An award was made for ordinary and for double compensation. The fact was, however, that the employer had bought the whole outfit on credit and his assets if sold at auction would not realize more than 5 cents on the dollar. The creditors, including the owners of the machinery, made an offer that if the boy would take 20 cents on the dollar they would wait and let the man continue his business.

In any event, the guarding of machinery, and general protection to children in the vocational schools, it seems to me, can best be handled not by giving the labor department jurisdiction over them, but by striving to bring about greater cooperation between the schools themselves and the labor department.

Mr. GERNON. About 15 years ago I served on one of the vocational commissions of the vocational schools, and what we learned about the schools would not be fit to print. They do not seem to fit the boy for anything, and there is much more regarding their work that we can not put in the record.

Injuries to Minors Under 18 Years of Age in Massachusetts

By JOHN P. MEADE, *Director Division of Industrial Safety, Department of Labor and Industries of Massachusetts*

No greater responsibility rests upon a labor department than protecting the working child. Through legislative requirement his work place must be made safe for him. His security in this connection is provided for not only in those special acts which are designed to protect children in industry but also in the provisions for the prevention of injuries to employees arising out of and in the course of employment. The certification of minors with its requirements to protect the young child and the regular and efficient inspection of factories are designed to prevent his exposure to the dangers of modern industry.

To accomplish this result, approximately 60,000 inspections of Massachusetts establishments are made each year. Supervision is given to power-transmission equipment and safeguarding at the point of operation in machine processes; to the requirements for general and local ventilation in plants where dust, fumes, and gases may arise in the course of employment; to the installation of adequate local and general lighting facilities; and to the enforcement of the statutes preventing excessive hours of employment and restricting the child's work to safe environment. Systematic work of this kind in the industrial establishments of the State by the inspector held responsible for maintaining compliance with law in his district is the means by which the enforcement of these laws is best achieved. And, then, investigation of work injuries is the best

system by which it is determined if the inspection service is efficient and if compliance with law is maintained. Here the causal relation between employment and injury may be established.

Especially is this practice effective in the case of children between 14 and 16 years of age. It affords opportunity to check up on the certification requirements for the employed child. The law in Massachusetts provides that children between 14 and 16 years of age may be released from school and permitted to work in, about, or in connection with factories, workshops, manufacturing, mechanical, or mercantile establishments, and in other types of employment if the person employing them procures and keeps on file an employment certificate for each child. The person issuing this employment certificate has an important function to discharge, and the statute imposes this duty upon the superintendent of schools of the city or town where the child resides, or a person authorized in writing by him to do so.

This legislative provision is so closely related to the welfare of the employed minor that it deserves to be presented in detail, for it is in this procedure that the Commonwealth begins its work to restrict his employment in safe work places and under circumstances that will not be injurious to his health or his physical well-being. Before the superintendent of schools can issue this employment certificate, he must "receive, examine, approve, and file four papers duly executed." Among these papers is the promise of employment, which is a statement signed by the employer or his authorized representatives, setting forth the character of the specific employment, the number of hours per day during which the child is to be regularly employed, and the name and address of the employer. In this pledge the employer agrees that the child shall be employed in accordance with all the requirements of the labor laws and he promises to return the employment certificate to the office of the superintendent of schools when the child ceases to be in his employ. Now, one of the outstanding provisions in this promise of employment is the requirement to state the specific nature of employment to which the child is to be assigned. This means that the work must be designated in detail and that general terms used in this connection fail to comply with the law. Its purpose is to keep the child in a safe work place and away from the trades and occupations prohibited by statute. This guaranty on the part of the employer is an important one in the interest of the child, for it means in substance that he must not be exposed to machinery dangers or conditions likely to cause physical injury. Here we come to one of the prominent duties in factory-inspection work in Massachusetts. Not only are the certificates on file in the establishment examined by the inspector to determine that there is compliance with the law, but the investigation includes the work of comparing the certificate with the type of employment in which the minor is engaged. Although the certificate of a boy under 16 years of age may indicate that he is employed in sweeping the floor, through this practice it may be discovered that he also operates a freight elevator, which is unlawful employment for him.

The accidents occurring under these circumstances are nearly always fatal. This work becomes especially important in tenantry buildings where no general operator is in charge and almost

anyone employed by the various concerns may operate the elevator at his pleasure. No employer will agree that he hires or permits a boy under 16 years of age to do this work, and yet it is necessary for inspectors to be alert in the exercise of their duty to prevent such employment of the child in buildings of this type. This experience illustrates the value of requiring, in connection with the issuance of employment certificates, a provision in the law for the specific nature of employment to which the child is to be assigned. The most effective work done by the division of industrial safety in the enforcement of the law to protect the child is accomplished through this practice. It becomes extremely valuable in the case of investigating accidents to children and promotes interest among the industrial establishments of the State in preventing the children's employment at prohibited trades and restricting their work to safe places. Existing figures indicate a gradual reduction in the past decade in employment injuries to children under 16.

In the year ending June 30, 1921, 808 injuries were sustained by children under 16 years of age, including 5 fatal and 13 permanent partial injuries. In the year ending June 30, 1930, the total number of injuries in the same age group fell to 385, of which 2 were fatal and 6 of the permanent partial disability type. Neither of the fatal cases in 1930 occurred in a factory or a workshop or an establishment where machinery was used.

Although the certifying of minors above 16 years of age does not require a promise from the employer in Massachusetts to file a specific declaration concerning the work he is going to give such a child to do, the law prohibits his employment at certain dangerous occupations. He can not be employed in the operation or management of hoisting machines or around blast furnaces; in oiling or cleaning hazardous machinery in motion; in the operation or use of any polishing or buffing wheel; in operating motor vehicles of any description; in or about establishments where gunpowder, nitroglycerine, dynamite, or other high or dangerous explosive is manufactured or compounded, and certain other kinds of work. Here again efficient factory inspection, together with investigation of injuries, unites to stimulate and maintain interest in accident-prevention work for this age group.

The safeguarding of machinery and the control of health hazards at the point of origin by the removal of dust, fumes, and gases has done much in recent years to protect these employees from the dangers of modern industry. In 1925 the Commissioner of Labor of Massachusetts directed that a special study be made of the fatal and permanent partial injuries occurring in the year previous to employed children, and this has continued as an annual practice. Each year approximately 4 per cent of all the tabulatable injuries in Massachusetts occur to children under 18 years of age. This includes accidents arising out of and in the course of employment in street trades or at other work permitted under the statutes. Conditions are carefully examined in cases where it appeared that the employed was in proximity to hazardous machinery or in violation of the certifying requirements.

Classified by age and nature of injury, the permanent partial disability injuries in this age group are as follows for 1930:

Permanent partial injuries to children 14 and 15 years of age

There were six such injuries in this age group, and all were boys. These were as follows:

Industry	Number	Nature of injury	Number
Textile -----	3	Loss of 1 phalange, 1 finger-----	2
Shoe-----	2	Loss of 2 phalanges, 1 finger-----	1
Errand boy in students' rooming house-----	1	Loss of 1 finger-----	1
		Loss of use of 1 finger-----	1
		Loss of 1 eye-----	1
Total-----	6	Total-----	6

Permanent partial injuries to children 16 to 18 years of age

There were 43 in this group—36 boys and 7 girls—classified as follows:

Industry	Number	Nature of injury	Number
Shoe and leather-----	11	Loss of phalange, 1 finger-----	20
Textile-----	12	Loss of 2 phalanges, 1 finger-----	7
Foundry-----	6	Loss of 1 phalange, 2 fingers-----	1
Paper-----	4	Loss of 1 phalange, 3 fingers-----	1
Food products-----	3	Loss of 1 finger-----	2
Woodworking-----	3	Loss of 2 fingers-----	2
Electrical-----	1	Loss of 3 fingers-----	1
Printing-----	1	Loss of use of 1 finger-----	4
Rubber-----	1	Loss of arm-----	1
Miscellaneous-----	1	Partial loss of use of both arms--	1
		Loss of sight of 1 eye-----	2
		Knee permanently stiff-----	1
Total-----	43	Total-----	43

Outstanding in the degree of severity in these cases were four:

In one a boy 17 years of age, who was helping a machine tender run on a belt in a dyeing and bleaching establishment, was caught in the shafting and whirled around, causing his left arm to be torn off between the elbow and shoulder.

The amputation of several fingers and a badly crushed hand were sustained by a boy 16 years of age while operating a punch press. This machine was not safeguarded as required by law, and several days before the accident occurred orders were issued by the department of labor and industries requiring compliance with the statutes in this connection. Prosecution was undertaken and the concern was heavily fined on two counts.

In a candy establishment a boy operating a printing press while wearing a ring caught it on a spring used to keep paper on the bed of the press. He could not withdraw his hand before the press closed, and it was crushed between the bed and the platen, incurring the loss of use of three fingers at the second joint of the right hand.

Employed in the manufacture of elastic webbing, a girl 17 years of age, while removing threads from a quiller, used a pair of scissors which became deflected in the course of her work, penetrating the left eye and resulting in permanent loss of sight.

Analysis of the history in each case shows the important factors in the causation of injuries to be these: Holding stock against machinery, when hand slipped; removing articles from machinery in motion; tripping machine with hand in the danger zone; lacerating hands on end of loom, causing infection; picking cotton waste from inrunning gears; fingers caught between rolls while skiving inner

soles; cutting yarn off quiller, scissors broke, striking employee in the eye; fish wrapper caught his finger on tin can, infection setting in and causing loss of use; in trying to keep paper on bed of press, hand crushed; removing chips from bed of plating machine; fingers jammed in elevator door.

In the 43 establishments in which specific injuries occurred to these children, 38 occurred in plants where first-aid rooms were maintained and were available for the injured employees. In the other places medical chests were provided and supplies for first-aid treatment made accessible to the employee. Records on file indicate that in the plants where the accidents happened, regular inspection took place. In most of these plants machinery was safeguarded as required by law and sanitary facilities were furnished. General compliance with labor laws was the rule in these establishments.

As to the employment of children under 18 years of age and in proximity to employment in which industrial poisons are used or in connection with exposure to the inhalation of irritant dusts, our investigation of work injuries indicates that very few cases of this kind occur. In 1929 there were 554 cases of occupational diseases investigated, and out of this number there was 1 case of gas and fume poisoning, 1 case of benzol poisoning, and 18 of dermatitis to children under 18 years of age. In 1930 there were 389 cases investigated, of which 19 were dermatitis, 2 lead poisoning, and 1 gas and fume poisoning in this age group. The lead-poisoning cases included a boy nearly 18 years of age, who worked with his father, installing a drying oven in a storage-battery workshop. He was not required to handle lead compounds. He was incapacitated for a period of five weeks. In the other, a girl in her seventeenth year painted metal, china, and glassware with colored paints containing white lead. She was incapacitated for a period of seven days, and the insurance carrier refused to pay for medical attendance on the ground that her illness was not contracted in the course of her employment.

The attitude of the courts in the payment of compensation for industrial injuries sustained by the child in the course of illegal employment is now a settled matter in this Commonwealth. This was determined in the case of a fatal injury to a boy 17 years of age, which occurred a few years ago in an establishment engaged in the manufacture of fireworks. The boy was carrying a tub of compound into the mixing room and arrived there just as an aluminum-dust explosion occurred. He was knocked down and apparently stunned, being fatally injured in the fire which followed the explosion. Action was brought against the concern in court on the ground that the minor was employed in violation of section 62, chapter 149 of the General Laws, which prohibits the employment of children under 18 years of age in establishments where "gunpowder, nitroglycerine, dynamite, or other high or dangerous explosive is manufactured or compounded."

The Massachusetts Supreme Court reviewed the facts in this case when appeal was made on the question of compensation for fatal injury. On the ground that this minor was not lawfully employed, the insurer refused to acknowledge liability under part E of section 32, chapter 152 of the General Laws, which provides for conclusive presumption of total dependency by "a parent upon an

unmarried child under the age of 18 years provided that such child was living with parent at the time the injury resulted in death." In defining the purpose of this law as it applied to such injured minors, the supreme court said:

As respects the rights of minors under the act we do not perceive any reason to differentiate between those who are lawfully employed and those employed as a consequence of the employer's illegal conduct. In both instances the minors are free from any statutory inhibitions; the contracts as to themselves are free from the taint of illegality; in each case they are entitled to similar benefits and to an equivalent amount of protection. The parties were possessed of capacity to establish the relation of master and servant, notwithstanding the contrary obligation which the statute imposed upon the employer. The contract is not of that type which is wholly void and from which no enforceable rights can arise.

The violation of the statute subjects the employer to the penalties mentioned in the statute; but it does not prevent the relation of employee and employer from coming into existence, nor affect the rights incident to that status which accrue to an employee who, himself, is free from wrongdoing. (267 Mass., 208)

This decision is important because of its bearing upon the rights of children in relation to the payment of compensation for incapacity resulting from injuries arising out of and in the course of illegal employment. It leaves the department of labor and industries free to prosecute in cases of this kind without jeopardizing the rights of the child under the provisions of chapter 152 of the General Laws.

There is reason now to believe that factory inspection work in recent years has stimulated interest in protecting the child in the course of his employment. This is manifest in the annual reports of the various industrial States and the growing interest in conserving the welfare of the child. With smaller districts and adequate inspection force, more could be accomplished in protecting the child. In this field the harvest indeed is great, but the laborers are few.

DISCUSSION

Chairman SWETT. I notice that Mrs. Summers, of New Jersey, has come in and I wonder if she has anything to add to this discussion. What have you done about migratory children?

Mrs. SUMMERS (New Jersey). During the year that has intervened between the last conference and this, the migratory child survey commission, of which I told the members of this body last year, has been actively at work. We feel we have done a big job in that we have compiled statistics and data covering almost the entire field of migratory workers who came to us. We found, as has been the case in the past, that they came mainly from the State of Pennsylvania, and we discovered 508 families, over 2,200 people, including 1,400 children.

Our questionnaire covered all of their activities, just what they did all day long, and where they slept, what kind of food they got, the quarters they lived in, the hours of work, and every conceivable thing. A copy of this questionnaire is included in the report of the commission. The commission was not able to finish its work in time to prepare legislation, because the field work was carried on from the 1st of April, when the first families came in last year, right up to the week of October 20, when the last family left for home. Our legislature meets in January and the compiling of this data naturally took a number of months.

We were, however, able to ascertain that there were three specific bills necessary—one covering housing and sanitation; one covering the plan of education to be worked out later; and the other covering various and sundry matters pertaining to migratory children, such as the hours of labor, etc. We made our report to the legislature and I am very happy because of the manner in which it was received. We have not received a single condemnation. We received a lot of encouragement, and I have written to each of our men to back this up next year, when it will be presented in the legislature. I do feel most encouraged and am seriously of the mind that the migratory-child problem is tending toward a solution in New Jersey.

All of the forces which have the power to use arbitrary force have cooperated with us and gone along in a splendid way. I believe that in the future we are going to be able to work out this problem in a splendid way. With respect to the discussion which I heard just now, I might say that during the past few months there was brought to my attention a situation similar to that spoken of by some of the delegates here, that of the improper safeguarding of machinery in vocational schools. So many of these reports came to me that I decided, even though we had no authority in the matter, that every child was our responsibility no matter where he was placed. I took the matter up with our assistant commissioner of education in charge of vocational education and he promised me he would make a very careful survey of all of these schools and wherever necessary see that the machinery was properly safeguarded. Although I know that he is a busy man, I am willing to take his word that he is going to do it. However, I am going to do a little follow-up, here and there, to remind him that he has promised to do something. Then in respect to the White House conference, we in New Jersey are a little proud of the fact that we were one of the first States to take action on the White House conference. I had the privilege of being one of the delegates and came home bursting with enthusiasm and a desire to see something done about it.

The question that stood out in my mind constantly was the keynote struck by Senator Davis, from Pennsylvania, who was then the Secretary of Labor, when he said in effect that the conference would be of benefit to no one, save as a matter of history, if the recommendations were not carried back into the various States and put to work. I carried that thought home with me to our commissioner of institutions and agencies, William J. Ellis, who was chairman of one of the subcommittees of the conference, and we talked about it a great many times after we came back to New Jersey. We finally decided to ask Governor Larsen to get to work immediately and call a follow-up conference in New Jersey.

Our governor gave us his permission to go ahead and hold the conference, whenever and wherever we pleased, and said he would see that money to carry it out would be appropriated. The legislature gave us an appropriation, and under the guidance of our biggest social-welfare organization, the New Jersey Conference of Social Work, this follow-up conference was held at our Women's College. It was a 3-day conference, filled with inspiration, and was one of the finest I ever attended in my life. Everybody was instructed that

they were not to come with any more recommendations. We had more recommendations than we knew what to do with. What we wanted were concrete things—things for each department to do.

Each group in this conference was made up almost exactly the same as the White House conference, with a group of subcommittees of labor, health, education, etc. Each one of these was to bring in definite things for each of the groups to do, and we did have a great many things brought up. We decided that one of the first things to be done was to see that someone followed up these concrete suggestions. Out of this group that called the conference together, the planning committee and the chairmen of the various subcommittees were formed into a continuing committee which has met twice since the New Jersey conference.

We have given each of the departments certain specific instructions as to what to do and have asked them to appoint committees immediately to do them, and then we are going to meet regularly from time to time and see that these instructions are carried out. We have also decided to make the New Jersey conference a permanent organization by making the organization a subcommittee of the New Jersey Conference of Social Work. We are going to get extra money in order to have the necessary secretaries, clerical help and stenographers, etc., to keep this work going constantly, and we hope by next year to be able to report that many of the recommendations of the White House conference are actually working in the State of New Jersey.

Our "child's bill of rights," we think, is better than the White House charter—the children's charter—because we have had the benefit, we feel, of the White House conference and our own as well, and the two together have given us a very definite piece of work to do and we are going to try very hard to do it.

Mr. REAGIN. I think that it is a very splendid spirit when each State in the Union strives to be ahead of all of the others. I would like to see everybody have the same story to tell.

Mr. SELLER (Kentucky). We have had two papers here to-day. We have been meandering around aimlessly all of the afternoon. What conclusion have we come to? What phase are we going to take up? We have just rambled and pulled at each other and nothing was definitely said or done.

President ROOKSBERY. I am of the opinion that everything that has been said here has brought out some splendid points and I am sure that those who listened to them very carefully are going to find something to take back that will keep them busy for the next six months.

I have found things that were brought out in this discussion that will give me something to talk about for a year. It is rather surprising to hear some of the things, and if you have any recommendations to make, or suggestions, or a resolution, or something along that line, I am sure that it would be in order in our business session on Friday.

(After some discussion it was decided, by motion duly seconded and carried, that the matter of considering the recommendations of the White House conference be referred to the resolutions committee to draft a resolution embodying the sense of the convention and the progress achieved.)

Mr. DAVIE (New Hampshire). I felt a great deal of interest in what my brother from Indiana said, but it seems to be just the opposite in New Hampshire. We have had personal invitations from the heads of the vocational schools to come there, even though we have no authority in that respect. We have fine cooperation from the heads of the different schools and from the penal institutions, like the State prison which manufactures furniture, the school for the feeble-minded, and the inspectors are welcome to come at any time to offer any suggestions.

I agree with him that it has taken a whole lot of education to bring that about, and I agree with the gentleman from New York who finds a lot of things that are not fit to print, but I wanted to add this little optimistic vein after all that we heard this afternoon.

Mr. REAGIN. I am afraid that I have been misunderstood. When our inspectors go into many of our schools we send the orders to the department head. He will write back and want to know what organization, or lawyer, or person may be indorsing this; and it raised a little question as to whether we were welcome. I am glad to know how it is with you. I am not saying that is prevalent in Indiana. We have some very hard ones to handle. They immediately ask exactly what law we want enforced. When they talk that way you might as well let them alone.

President ROOKSBERY. There have been some splendid things brought out in this conference and I am sure it is going to prove of benefit to the representatives who are here.

(Meeting adjourned.)

NOTE.—Mr. Plant, chief of the labor intelligence branch, Federal Department of Labor of Canada, submitted to the secretary-treasurer a bulletin, published in December, 1930, by that department, entitled "The Employment of Children and Young Persons in Canada." In the introduction to the bulletin the statement is made that considerable information regarding the employment of children and young persons in Canada is rendered available for the first time by the publication in 1929 by the Dominion Bureau of Statistics of the volume on occupations from the census of 1921. "The Department of Labor has received numerous requests for information as to the extent of the employment of children and young persons in Canada, and there has been also a great demand for information as to the laws governing such employment. The work of the International Labor Conference under the League of Nations has increased the need for information of this kind from all countries. The present publication is designed, therefore, to furnish information as to the extent of the employment of children and young persons in all the Provinces of Canada and the laws regulating such employment."

WEDNESDAY, MAY 20—MORNING SESSION

Eugene B. Patton, Director Bureau of Statistics and Information, Department of Labor of New York, Presiding

EMPLOYMENT SESSION

Chairman PATTON. Our first speaker this morning needs no introduction to Boston or a Boston audience. Mr. Smith served on the State unemployment commission of Massachusetts which was appointed by General Sweetser, and has been busy in many ways and many places in connection with this topic, and we are glad to have him with us this morning.

The Problem of Stabilized Employment

By EDWIN S. SMITH, *Director of Research, Research Committee on Employment Regularization*

In these times of depression there is one group of workers that is continuously employed and whose number is added to daily by new arrivals. This is the growing army of economists, both professional and amateur. These members of our population are working overtime and at feverish haste. As they dig deeper and deeper into the great heaps of economic statistics and the formidable mounds of economic theory, the results of their labors are spread before us in a fascinating but bewildering array. It is probably a safe assertion that there is no major social ailment concerning which so much is known as unemployment. The unfortunate thing is that with all our digging and delving we do not yet know what to do about it. We are still in the stage of analysis, awaiting the word of a great coordinator and prophet.

When, through the eyes of experts, we examine the development of the present depression in the different countries of the world we are struck both by the diversity of contributing causes and the fatality of their conjunction.

We find that certain nations have been suffering from a shortage of gold. This has stimulated their export trade to a point where overproduction and resultant lowering of prices has produced economic distress. The decline in the price of silver has caused a marked reduction in shipment of goods to the Orient. Overpopulation has played its part in some sections of the world. In one country it is alleged that wages have risen faster than productivity of labor and so has driven capital elsewhere; in another, wages are declared not to have increased fast enough to absorb the rising tide of consumers' goods. Everywhere tariff barriers, which may have benefited certain groups of suppliers, have in general restrained the free and profitable exchange of goods between nations. Probably more fundamental than all these phenomena is the distressed

state of agriculture, to which business too often tries to shut its eyes, but which nevertheless exacts its toll in decreased purchase of the goods which industry produces.

Many other factors, immediate and remote, have contributed to the depression, but the effect of all of them is to be interpreted in terms of the old economic stand-bys—oversupply and underdemand. Whether there is a shortage of gold or a surplus of silver, whether wages are too scanty to purchase the goods placed in the market or too high to enable profitable manufacturing to be carried on, whether the industrialist's income grows at the expense of the farmer's or the farmer's income at the expense of the wage earner, all these tendencies are constantly undermining the equilibrium of supply and demand and making more difficult the sale of commodities at a profitable price. In each country the factors leading to overproduction relative to profitable demand may have varied, but the results have been similar.

The existence of international trade on its present broad scale necessitates the fact that depressions, produced by whatever cause, in one country accelerate the changes already making for depression in other countries. In a monograph prepared for the recent meeting of the International Chamber of Commerce, Prof. Ernest Wagemann, of Berlin, traces the spread of the present depression from the slump in Germany at the close of 1927, coupled with price declines in the countries producing raw materials. The change in business conditions beginning in the United States in the summer of 1929 contributed to the further fall in prices in raw-material-producing countries by cutting down demand for their products. This in turn has reduced demand for the products of industrial countries. Thus in this as in previous crises the wave of business recession has become cumulative and world-wide.

The foregoing analysis would make it appear that since the whole world is involved in the cyclical swings of business any curative action must be undertaken on an international basis. This is true, but does not exclude the proposition that by setting its own economic house in order each country can greatly minimize the impact of depression on itself. Witness the comparative immunity of Russia from the contagion of the present world crisis, a lesson in economic preparedness to which I shall refer specifically later.

Each country has both a foreign and a domestic market. Within limits it can keep its internal economy in a fairly healthy equilibrium, even though it must share the common burden of international economic maladjustment.

The fact that the farmers in the United States have suffered enormously from the lowered export prices, due to world overproduction, need not have prevented American industry from trimming its sails in accordance with the decreased demands of American farmers for industrial goods. If American industry from 1925 on had been gifted with sufficient knowledge to foresee the shrinkage in its domestic market as well as its foreign trade, American prosperity might at the present moment be something more than a dim memory of a historical past.

The purpose of this paper is to hazard some suggestions as to how America may expect in the future to redeem its former mistakes.

What are the profitable avenues of escape from the devastating rhythm of the business cycle, in so far as one country can maintain its own stability, and what are the blind alleys in which American business can no longer afford to wander?

Can business prevent our capitalistic economic order from running off into periodic inflations of goods, credit, or money which breed the inevitable "morning after" headache? Or, to put the question in the form of the specific interest of this meeting, can business prevent the periodic unemployment of millions of capable, willing persons whose only request of the industrial system is that it learn how to function on a stable basis for its own good as well as theirs?

In the light of past history one would certainly be tempted to answer these questions in the negative. There does appear, however, ground for at least a qualified optimism. Most helpful is the fact that business is beginning to recognize that it is the victim of its own excesses. To realize that the profit margin is constantly endangered by too great or too costly a production of goods is in itself an important forward step. For the individual business man to know when and how to apply the brakes to production, when profit margins are in danger of serious impairment, is a more difficult matter.

Even if we had much more accurate indexes than we now possess of approaching overproduction, the proper course for the business man as an individual to pursue is by no means clear. Signs of hard times come to light in a period when there is still plenty of good times ahead. Even if the business man were convinced that the national economic system was hovering on the brink of a depression, he might well conclude that slowing down his own factory would not stay the general crash. In fact he is quite likely to decide that he had better get what he can while the getting is still good.

His original fault, like that of his competitors, came in overestimating the market for his product and enlarging his plant to a point where demand could not long sustain its full operation. But he is probably not much to be blamed for this, because how should he know what his competitors were doing or how large the future market for his particular commodity might prove? Once having indulged in this expenditure for plant and equipment he will naturally make every effort to sell sufficient goods to cover interest charges and upkeep on his investment. He will keep on doing this even in the face of overproduction and loss of profit until general business depression calls a halt on him and his competitors together.

It is doubtless too much to expect that the individual business man will voluntarily curtail production while his fellows are continuing to manufacture up to the hilt. We may hope, however, that with more knowledge of the trend of consumer demand in general and for his own particular products he will be not only willing but anxious to buy his raw materials, supplies, etc., on a less speculative basis. This would be a great gain for business stability.

What individual business men would find it difficult to do, business men acting collectively might do. If a single manufacturer will not restrict production while his competitors are gathering in the harvest, perhaps some form of curtailment might be exercised by all competitors in an industry acting collectively. This proposition, of course, raises a series of questions which can barely be referred

to here. The gathering of statistical information by trade associations, which might serve as a basis for limiting production, seems clearly allowable under our antitrust laws. On the other hand, deliberate parceling out of production among competitors would encounter legal difficulties and also resistance from public opinion, based on fear of price control.

Even if these hindrances in the way of collective checking of over-production were removed, another obstacle remains. Let us suppose that mounting commodity stocks, rising costs of business, and credit inflation betoken to the eyes of informed industrial groups the danger of depression. Admittedly the depression may be some distance off, perhaps several months; meanwhile the public is still in a buying mood. What industry, then, will volunteer to be the first to save the sinking ship by itself curtailing production? Will the textile industry stand aside so that the automobile industry may tap a still deeper stratum of consumer willingness to buy? Will the radio industry give ground before the shoe manufacturer? These questions supply their own negative answer. Yet short of a form of interindustry control which would impose its decrees on all industries it is quite necessary for each individual industry to decide whether it shall take the first step toward curtailment. This, out of deference to its stockholders and its employees, any industry will hesitate to do.

A retrenchment of production in a boom period would have to take place against a background of great business optimism. If our refinements of statistical procedure and our knowledge of the significance of statistics were such that we could tell exactly how far off disaster was, it would perhaps be not difficult to persuade business to go slow even in prosperous times. Lacking such definiteness of forecast, we may well be doubtful that industry will go far in imposing voluntary checks on itself.

There exist possibilities for control of the business cycle which involve a definite element of compulsion as contrasted with our national prejudice in favor of laissez-faire individualism. More rigid control of credit is such a possibility.

The period preceding the present depression was characterized by credit expansion on a grand scale. Billions were poured into urban real estate mortgages, billions into corporate bond issues, and still other billions into installment sales. Bank credit was freely used to finance the unprecedented stock-market speculation as well as the issuing of corporate securities in excessive quantities. Stocks of raw materials mounted rapidly from 1928 to 1929. All this piling up of present indebtedness, based on hope of future return, represented an overexpansion of capital equipment and of goods, staged against a background of rising sales costs, a fairly static commodity price level, and factory pay rolls that failed to rise as fast as factory production.

Here was inflation which the banks, as agencies of credit, should have checked before it reached such large proportions. What the individual bank in competition with other banks would hesitate to do the Federal reserve system might be expected to accomplish. As a matter of fact the Federal reserve system did move in this direction, but too slowly to be effective. From the spring of 1928 on it began the sale of Government securities, thus reducing the funds available for speculation; at the same time the discount rates moved

upward and some warning statements were issued to member banks against inflationary activity. Nevertheless borrowings by member banks continued to mount and no substantial barrier was imposed against the wave of speculation.

One of the cornerstones of Federal reserve policy has been the preservation of regional autonomy and of the autonomy of member banks. The Federal reserve system has been permitted to assume the responsibility of influencing the expansion or contraction of the quantity of credit but with scant reference to the uses to which credit is put. The system has assumed the aspect of a reflector of changes in the money market rather than an initiator of such changes. If the Federal reserve system is to become an effective instrument for prevention of the speculative overexpansion of business because of stock-market inflation, undue extension of installment sales, unwise flotation of securities, etc., it will have progressively to adopt a policy of greater centralization of responsibility for credit conditions; in short, to become more autocratic in its behavior. It will have to talk to member banks more like a Dutch uncle and less like a vaguely cautionary preceptor. Is America ready to depart from its traditional economic policy and move in the general direction of credit dictatorship in the interests of business stability? It hardly seems likely, yet the business cycle can not be handled successfully with gloves.

One suggested form of restraint on industrial expansion which appears to be becoming increasingly popular with business men is modification or abrogation of the antitrust laws. If combinations and price agreements were made legal, the argument runs, we would do away with cut-throat prices which result from the reckless race of competitors for sales volume, which leads inevitably to overproduction. The problem of the business cycle is unlikely to yield, however, to such a simple solution. From the social viewpoint, production should be carried on up to the very limit which the market will profitably absorb, this limit being continuously raised by reduction in the cost of the product. This is not the philosophy of the trust, which seeks rather to restrict quantity of production in the interest of higher prices and stockholders' profits. Under competition there is a constant urge to reduce unit costs, which in turn leads both to lower prices for the product and to higher wages. This state of affairs assists the wage earners to absorb the products of industry and so helps to stave off overproduction. Under monopoly conditions the line of least resistance is to raise prices rather than reduce costs. With prices of commodities in general increasing faster than wages the difficulty in disposing of even a reduced volume of industrial product would grow and the danger of overproduction dog the steps of industry just as it does under competitive conditions. The worker, of course, would be much worse off under such a régime and industry generally in a condition of relative stagnation.

A more drastic approach to the problem of overproduction is the one followed by Soviet Russia. Measured by the amount of employment which Russia has been able to maintain in the face of the world-wide depression, here would seem to be the most successful approach yet tried. However, the Russian way imposes restrictions on eco-

conomic behavior which are in diametric opposition to our American tradition. It is difficult to know how far their approach can be absorbed into the capitalistic system without completely altering that system. Just at present Russia stands as a serious challenge to capitalism, a challenge which is being acknowledged by even conservative business men.

What Russia aims to do is to control production by controlling demand. To be sure the products of Russian industry are purchased with money and the individual has a choice as to what he will buy. However, the whole country is on such a low subsistence level that it should not be difficult for those in control of industry to gage the demand for necessities with fair accuracy. Also if one industry is overproduced its losses can be absorbed by other industries and unemployment insurance benefits paid out to take care of the displaced workers. There is no incentive, as under the profit system, for industry to overbuild in the first place and, having overbuilt, to resort to overproduction in order to pay its overhead costs. Despite the fact that industry is thoroughly monopolized, the profits are collective, not individual, so there is no temptation to raise prices as would happen under monopoly in this country. It is, of course, too early to judge the success of the Russian experiment. Russia is enjoying something of the boom which always comes to a country when it is first opened up industrially, when the opportunity for capital expansion seems limitless. Whether later it can adjust capital equipment and production to the growing and varied needs of its people remains to be seen.

At least we should learn from the thoroughgoing approach of Russia to the problem of industrial planning how inefficient our own attempts in this direction have been. We are now beginning to talk more or less vaguely about a national planning board. If such a board is established and is expected to be effective in modifying the business cycle, it will have to exercise a far more autocratic control over the operations of industry and the credit mechanism of the country than it is likely to be allowed to do, at least in the early stages of its existence.

Perhaps if it succeeds in focusing attention of business on the fact that a mad scramble by a dozen persons to climb to the top of a fence which will hold only three or four is sure to end disastrously, it will not have been established in vain.

A major difficulty in our approach to the problem of coordinated industrial planning is psychological. The attitude of the public toward industry in the United States has been largely concerned with affording the utmost latitude to competition in order that the consumer might be protected against price exploitation by monopoly. Such protection is highly important, but we are gradually coming to realize that protection against insecurity of employment is also of first importance. To prevent unrestrained competition from catapulting industry into overproduction, deference must be paid to the need of checking unwise industrial expansion. This is a bitter pill for a people to swallow, who have been trained in the belief that industry is economically and socially in a healthy state only when the smallest barriers are opposed to individual initiative and judgment.

I have already indicated that I do not think erection of monopolies would be an effective cure for the troubles brought about by

the business cycle. Rather, I think, we should encourage production and encourage the reduction of costs of production by permitting the normal operations of competition up to a certain point. There is, however, a fairly definite point beyond which creation of new capital facilities, production of more goods, extension of consumer credit, etc., become definite menaces to the prosperity of business and the security of employment. When this time arrives some agency must step in and say to industries and individual units of industry, "Thus far and no farther."

Perhaps such an agency is to be found in the Federal reserve system, perhaps it should be furnished by a group of business men clothed with authority voluntarily granted them by industry and approved by government, perhaps government itself should pronounce the authoritative words. Admittedly, the problem is one of utmost difficulty, but in approaching it we must remember that the situation to be met is itself of the utmost gravity.

More knowledge of foreign economic conditions and of their effect on our own economy, better planning by industry, by banks, and by government, plus adequate financial provisions for the inevitable residuum of unemployment, are the necessary planks for a business platform which can venture to call itself truly civilized. In attaining these objectives much that has become almost sacred in the American tradition of freedom of action for the individual business man will have to be thrown overboard. The ultraconservatives will pull hard in the opposite direction, and the temptation to return to our former easy-going irresponsibility will be great once the present crisis is past. Business would be unwise to forget, however, that, in the familiar melodramatic phrase, capitalism is really on trial. The Russian economic system may collapse, but, as Dean Donham has pointed out, this is a dangerous assumption to make. At present the Russian challenge to capitalism on the score of unemployment is a severe one. Business can not meet it by grumbling nor by half-hearted efforts. Plenty of thought, plenty of unselfishness, and plenty of courageous action are required if the American industrial future is to be a bright and shining one for both the business man and the industrial wage earner.

Chairman PATTON. I think that we ought to go ahead with the three papers now and have discussion later, so we will hear now from Doctor Foster.

Fundamentals of Sustained Prosperity

By WILLIAM T. FOSTER, *of the Pollak Foundation for Economic Research*

The earliest advice I have found regarding business cycles is by the great preacher, the Son of David, king in Jerusalem. It is all recorded in the book of Ecclesiastes: "In the day of prosperity, be joyful; but in the day of adversity, consider." Unnecessary advice, as far as we are concerned, for it is only in the day of adversity that we ever do consider.

The Son of David, it seems, was the first man to declare that business cycles are the result of natural law. What goes up, he said,

must come down. "The sun also ariseth, and the sun goeth down, and hasteth to his place where he arose." "All the rivers run into the sea, yet the sea is not full. Unto the place from whence the rivers come, thither they return again. The thing that hath been, is that which shall be; and there is no new thing under the sun."

But can't we create something new? Can't we establish the fundamentals of sustained prosperity? Can't we foresee a depression, and prevent it? "Not at all," says the Son of David. "God hath made prosperity side by side with adversity, to the end that man should not find out anything that shall be after him." Fair warning to those who engage in the extrahazardous occupation of business forecasting.

As for attempting to iron out the curves of the business cycle, "Consider the work of God," says the Son of David, "for who can make that straight which He hath made crooked?"

This was the Biblical warning, I assume, which prompted a United States Senator to declare: "I would rather postpone a panic until the time when God brings it than to have Hoover intrusted with this power and get the panic a year sooner. We had better let God run it, as in the past." This is the economics of original sin. It has been expounded by doctors of despair ever since the time of the Son of David. It is, indeed, a dismal science. Shall we escape from it through study of the real causes of depressions? Or shall we, for another 3,000 years, put all the blame on God?

To-day, as in every day of adversity, business is like a traffic jam at the crossroads, with the red light against it. Long lines of cars are held up; cars with powerful engines and plenty of fuel. The drivers are eager to go ahead. They are craning their necks to see what the matter is. Presently one of the drivers, losing his patience, honks his horn. Impatience is contagious. All the drivers begin honking horns. The louder the noise the greater the impatience. The din becomes terrific. But it has not the slightest effect on traffic. The red light holds its own and the cars stay where they are.

All winter the drivers of business have been eager to go ahead. They have had powerful machines and plenty of fuel. They have been craning their necks in every direction to find out what the trouble is. They have been holding one unemployment conference after another. Unemployment conferences are contagious. Everybody has made a lot of noise. Congress has fully done its part. But all this noise has had little effect. Business is still stalled. How can we turn on the green light?

The whole world is perplexed by these periodic traffic jams. Concerning the causes, there is much confusion of thought. Concerning the remedies, there is, therefore, a confusing conflict of advice. Clearly, it is useless to try to agree upon remedies until there is agreement as to causes.

Other perplexing problems, the solution of which depends on a knowledge of facts, have yielded to intensive study. But with regard to the great problem of periodic depression, there is a chaos of thought and a Babel of noise. If all the discussions of unemployment were laid end to end, they would not reach very far. Most of them would curl up and finish about where they started; namely, with the assertion that the way to cure unemployment is to put men to work.

Even concerning the direction in which we should seek a solution there is no agreement; yet the very first step toward learning significant facts is the choice of the right line of attack.

Already there is agreement among us—I assume—that changes in the quantity of money have something to do with changes in the price level; and that an extreme change in the price level is a dominant feature of every business depression. Whatever may be the cause of these extreme changes, it is evident that, if they continue, we shall continue to suffer from periodic slumps in trade and employment. In other words, a stable currency—a dollar which changes only slowly in purchasing power—is one of the fundamentals of sustained prosperity.

Now it is common knowledge that a stable currency is impossible if the volume of paper money which is printed and the volume which is retired bear no fixed relation to changes in the volume of business. Everybody knows the danger of fiat paper money. Everybody knows what happened when a deluge of paper money poured forth from the printing presses in Germany and in Russia. Prices kept on rising and holders of money were eager to turn their money into goods.

What happens, on the other hand, when the volume of paper money contracts faster than the goods volume of trade is equally well known. Since prices keep on falling, everybody is eager to retain his money, rather than to turn it into goods. Production is discouraged; employment falls off; trade thereby suffers a further decline; prices sink further; and so on.

Such a spiral of deflation is well understood. Everybody now expects that large changes in the volume of paper money will be accompanied by large fluctuations in prices, trade, and employment. But such fluctuations actually have taken place in the United States recently, although there have been no large changes in the volume of paper money.

It is well known, however, that above 90 per cent of our volume of trade is transacted, not by paper money but by checks on bank deposits—what we may call “bank-check currency.” It is possible that an agreement might be reached that one dollar of business, done with bank-check currency, has the same effect on volume of trade, prices, and employment, as one dollar of business done with paper money. Such an agreement might lead to the further agreement that changes in the currency which is used in more than 90 per cent of our business may cause greater disturbance than changes in the currency which is used in less than 10 per cent of our business.

As a matter of fact, the volume of bank-check currency does increase greatly at times, and decrease greatly at other times. Not only does the volume change greatly, but it is now well known that the rate at which it is used also changes greatly. That is to say, there are marked changes in the proportion of the deposits subject to check which are daily checked out.

Increased turnover, however, does not compensate for decreased volume, because it is precisely when the volume shrinks that the turnover slackens. Each dollar of individual demand deposits was used about five times, on the average, in prosperous 1929, for every three times a dollar was used from 1919 to 1925; but by the end of 1930 the

velocity had slowed down to the 1919-1925 average. This decrease in the use of bank-check currency appears to be roughly equivalent to a reduction of 40 per cent in the volume.

It has long been assumed that the volume and turnover of bank-check currency changes, automatically, in close relation to changes in the goods volume of business. Possibly this assumption is not in accord with the facts. It may be that there is not, necessarily, any fixed relation between changes in money and changes in the work which money is called upon to perform. If that is found to be the case, a basis of fact might be laid down upon which agreement could be reached that the chief cause of business depressions is changes in the volume and in the rate of turnover of bank-check currency.

If such an agreement were reached, the problem of sustaining prosperity would then become chiefly the problem of taking into account changes in the volume and use of bank-check currency beyond the requirements of business, and offsetting the influence of such changes.

Chairman PATTON. Miss Van Kleeck is going to talk to us on "Employment Statistics."

Employment Statistics

By MARY VAN KLEECK, *Chairman Committee on Governmental Labor Statistics of the American Statistical Association*

In speaking to-day on behalf of the committee on governmental labor statistics of the American Statistical Association, I would first point out that the official representatives of the committee at this convention are Dr. Eugene B. Patton, of the New York State Department of Labor, and Mr. Roswell F. Phelps, of the Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industries. My warrant for speaking instead of one of them is that as chairman I must obey their orders in the committee. But the material which I have to present grows out of the experience of the membership, which includes statisticians in State and Federal bureaus collecting statistics of employment. I greatly appreciate this, the second opportunity which I have had to speak to this association on its program for governmental labor statistics. In view of your resolution of last year regarding the plan of coordinating the collection by State and Federal bureaus of labor statistics, with which the committee's program is in complete harmony, I believe that the subject which I should stress to-day is the uses of employment statistics rather than the detailed methods and procedures for collecting them.

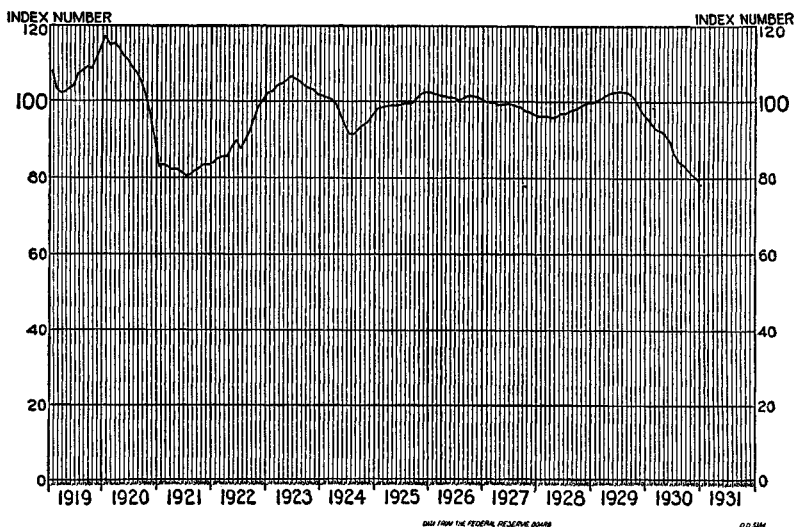
My first opportunity to speak on this subject came five years ago, at your convention in Columbus in June, 1926. Looking over that address in preparation for this meeting brought vividly to mind the difference in the economic situation. May I read part of the first two paragraphs:

We meet at a time when all the nations of the world look with envy upon the United States as the most prosperous country on the face of the globe. We are supposed not only to have millionaires aplenty, who pay large taxes and give money to education and charity, but we are also regarded as an industrial country with no unemployment and with the highest wages in the world. Is it true that we have no unemployment, or at least none that is serious or long continued? If it is true, are we making any plans to continue that desirable condition? If it is untrue, are we doing anything effective to insure regular employment?

The fact is that for the past five years the economic machinery of the United States has been in fairly smooth running order; that the opportunity to keep it so by intelligence and good management is exceedingly promising, but that prosperity is not proof against careless management and heedless speculation * * * and that we can not escape the effects of economic depression in foreign countries.

The situation at and before that time is shown in a chart drawn for the President's Emergency Committee on Unemployment, based on data from the Federal Reserve Board, which in turn derived its material from State and Federal statistics for an index of factory employment adjusted for seasonal variations between 1919 and 1931. Observing that chart, we note that at the time of the 1926 convention of the Association of Governmental Labor Officials employment seemed to be on a somewhat even keel. In fact, after the rise from the low point in 1921, except for a rather severe dip in 1924, deviations from the index number of 100 (which was taken as the monthly

INDEX OF FACTORY EMPLOYMENT, ADJUSTED FOR
SEASONAL VARIATIONS
MONTHLY AVERAGE, 1923-1925=100



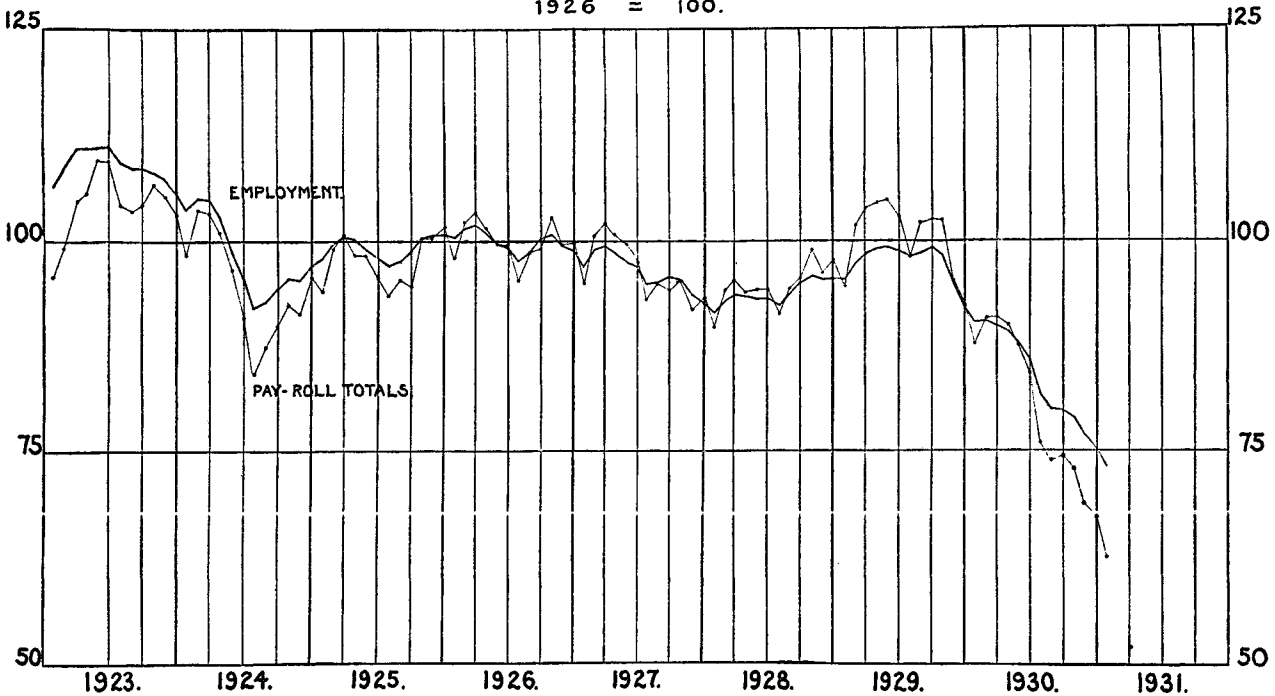
average from 1923 to 1925) were not severe, up to the period of 1929, when the present precipitate fall began.

The picture may be further amplified by a chart compiled by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, giving monthly indexes of employment and pay-roll totals in manufacturing industries from 1923 to 1931, with 1926 as 100. Though the difference in base makes the curve different from that of the Federal Reserve Board and the seasonal variations affect it, nevertheless the two series show this important fact: Whereas the severe drop of 1921 was preceded by a very sharp increase in employment and in pay rolls, the drop of 1929 was preceded by a fairly steady adherence to an average in number of employees and total wages paid. We seem to have learned from 1921 the lesson that a sharp increase in production may mean a

severe drop afterward. We did not so greatly increase production, except for such increases as came about through increased per capita output, in the period preceding 1929. And in so far as these figures

MONTHLY INDEXES OF EMPLOYMENT AND OF PAY-ROLL TOTALS IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES.

1926 = 100.

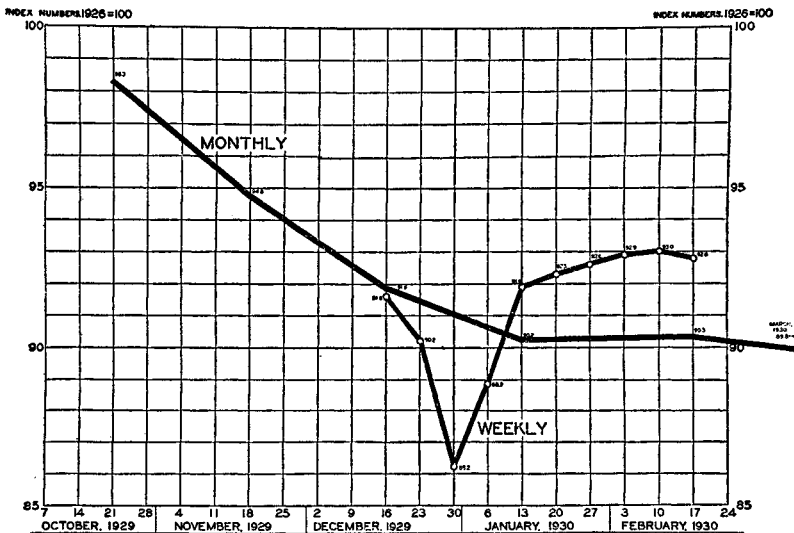


COMPILED BY U.S. BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

show anything, we may assume that erratic production during that period was not primarily responsible for the fall. We may therefore be prepared to agree with Doctor Foster's statement that banking

policies and speculation had a primary part to play, and perhaps we may add governmental policies as having an influence.

Whatever the cause, the significance for our discussion to-day lies in the fact that these indexes of employment and pay-roll totals give a picture not only of employment but of the condition of business, employment being a sensitive index of production and of prosperity generally. But how accurate has been the index of employment during the present period of depression? What significance have the controversies had which arose between the Federal administration and the New York State Department of Labor, for example, as to whether the worst was over early in 1930 or whether employment at that time was still declining? It is in no partisan spirit, but in order to throw light upon the significance and value of the present employment statistics collected by State and Federal Governments, that I wish briefly to analyze the Federal data secured during that period.



COMPARISON OF BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS INDEXES OF EMPLOYMENT ON A MONTHLY AND WEEKLY BASIS

In December, 1929, the President asked the Bureau of Labor Statistics to collect weekly figures from the same firms which report monthly. Among these reports are, of course, those obtained in the dozen States which cooperate with the Federal bureau. In those States the reports have always been made to the State department of labor and from there transmitted to Washington. To save time, however, for these weekly reports the Bureau of Labor Statistics wrote directly to these companies. It was almost like starting a new series, therefore, and frequently first reports are somewhat erratic. In any event, there was a very sharp decline from the week of December 16 to the week of December 30, which might have been expected for that period of the year in manufacturing establishments. The next week, January 6, showed a marked increase, and January 13 a still sharper rise.

The results were transmitted to the President, who issued a statement quoted in the United States Daily of January 22, 1930, as follows:

President Hoover was advised by the Secretary of Labor * * * at the regular meeting of the Cabinet, January 21, that for the first time since the stock-market depression the tide of unemployment in the United States had undergone a change in the right direction. * * * From the time of the stock-market depression to December 25, the President said, there was a continued decrease in employment. "Now, however," he stated, "the tide seems to have turned the other way, with a substantial increase in employment."

A week later, on January 29, the United States Daily reported: "Industrial employment in the United States for the week ended January 13 increased 3.3 per cent over the preceding week, it was stated orally, January 28, by President Hoover."

At the same time the Committee on Governmental Labor Statistics obtained telegraphic reports from the various States collecting employment statistics in answer to an inquiry as to what their figures for the week of January 15 showed. California, Illinois, Iowa, Maryland, Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin all reported that the figures which were then in process of tabulation showed a decrease in employment. In New Jersey the January figures were not yet available. No State reported an increase. In all of these States except Iowa and Pennsylvania, it is the State which collects the data for the Federal Bureau of Labor Statistics, and it was significant of a defect somewhere that, with all of these industrial States reporting declines, the weekly reports, in which the same firms were included in the new series for the Federal bureau, should have shown so great an increase as to justify the President's statement that the tide had turned. Moreover, the situation was further complicated when the regular monthly report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics became available for the week of January 15 and showed a decline on that date as compared with the December report.

Efforts to secure the details of the weekly reports showing the data by industries or by localities, so as to make possible an independent examination of the returns, brought the response that these reports were not published. Merely the interpretation of them was issued by the President. Later, however, it was reported that of the 12,000 firms in manufacturing regularly reporting to the Federal bureau or to the State department of labor, only 8,000 responded with weekly reports. It is quite possible that in view of the appeals which were then being issued to business men to keep employment as stable as possible, those firms which were succeeding in this respect answered more readily than those that were laying off workers. At any rate, it seemed that the smaller sample reporting weekly showed a more encouraging trend in employment than the larger number making the regular monthly reports. Looking back and comparing with other figures, we may say that these regular monthly reports have pictured the situation with a fair degree of accuracy.

Again in no partisan spirit, but with a desire to view objectively the advantage of statistics in retrospect over this period, we may say that comment by the Executive branch of the Government has in this instance been unjustified by the Government's best data, but that at the time, unfortunately, the fact that only comment and not basic information was published was a serious disadvantage. In

planning statistics of labor which may at any moment become controversial, we may well insist that the full data be promptly published, so that the integrity of the scientific work of the statisticians in Government departments may be protected. Comment by those responsible for leadership is then subject to check by the statistics themselves. Facts about trends in employment are too vital to run the risk of partisan interpretation of them, which may mislead those responsible for programs of action in business and in Government, and it becomes of urgent importance that the objective precision of statisticians in bureaus of labor statistics be safeguarded.

Briefly stated, the program which the Committee on Governmental Labor Statistics advocates and which, as already stated, is in essential conformity with the principles expressed by the Association of Governmental Officials in Industry in its resolution of 1930, calls for the initial collection by the State of reports from the important branches of industry and business, showing for one week each month the total number on the pay roll and the total wages paid. The State would then transmit to the Federal Bureau of Labor Statistics such reports as are needed for a fair sample of the Nation's industries. Moreover, the Federal bureau becomes the recipient of reports from other bureaus which administratively are in touch with particular industries, as, for example, the Interstate Commerce Commission for the railroads. It is unnecessary in this group to point out the advantages of this kind of coordinated collection of statistics which avoids duplication and makes it possible for each State to know the conditions within its own borders.

Within this general scheme the committee is concerned with several important things to make statistics of employment and earnings more adequate in this country. These were outlined in a report submitted to the National Conference of Governors at its meeting in 1930.

First, it is desired that the 30 or more States not yet collecting statistics of employment should begin to do so in accordance with the uniform plan agreed upon and followed substantially by 12 States in cooperation with the Federal Bureau of Labor Statistics. Second, we would stress emphatically the importance of breaking down these figures to show conditions in different cities, and in turn building them up to show conditions in large regions. Moreover, facts should be shown for different industries, and the recent extension of these statistics beyond manufacturing is of great importance, as definitely provided in the Wagner bill, which was enacted into law, affecting the Federal Bureau of Labor Statistics. Notably, the Federal bureau and several of the States are now adding the building trades to their list, as has been advocated for several years by the Committee on Governmental Labor Statistics. Careful study of all these divisions by industries, regions, States, and cities reveals the importance of thus showing differences in the condition of employment in order to show the condition of employment in different industries, communities, and regions.

At this point, since we are meeting in Massachusetts, it may be appropriate to pay tribute to the work done by the Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industries, which is represented in the Committee on Governmental Labor Statistics by Mr. Phelps. In all of

the phases of the committee's program for extension to new industries and for refinement of figures for different localities, Massachusetts has been ready to make useful experiments, and, as a result, the information to-day collected is useful to other States, as it must also be illuminating to the people of Massachusetts.

The committee, moreover, believes it very important that State bureaus of labor statistics should begin now to collect data on man-hours experimentally. This has been done in some States, notably in the construction industry, as, for example, in Massachusetts. We are relying at present upon statistics of employment and total wages. The total number on the pay roll does not show part time and the wage data are affected by changes in wage rates. The volume of employment is best shown in man-hours, and the collection of such data is the next step toward more precise measurement of trends in employment.

Current discussion of the depression as showing primarily a lack of balance between production and consumption has called attention to the great importance of keeping purchasing power in line with productive capacity. Therefore much more adequate data are needed on actual earnings. Information gathered on wage rates is insufficient. The Committee on Governmental Labor Statistics has a subcommittee at work studying the best procedure for the collection of significant current facts about earnings, and we bespeak the cooperation of statisticians in State and Federal bureaus in developing a uniform procedure for data on wages and earnings, comparable with the procedure on employment statistics.

As a further need to show the facts concerning employment and earnings, there is the recommendation that statistics should be gathered separately for men and women. I have here a statement from the Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor, drawing on studies made by the bureau, which indicate that unemployment and irregular employment are affecting women in industry differently from men. It is, of course, obvious that the earnings of women are at different rates from the earnings of men, and grouping the two together may give a false picture and prevent the kind of analysis of the problems involved which makes action possible. The position of the Committee on Governmental Labor Statistics on this subject has been in general that the current monthly figures should be kept as simple as possible, but that at fairly frequent intervals special studies should be made. Among these the committee would rank high the separate analysis of employment and earnings of women in industry.

Finally, the committee urges particularly at this time the need for statistics of employment in Government—both direct work for the Government and employment on contract for the Nation, the States, and the municipalities. At this moment, when emphasis is being put upon the expansion of public works as a stabilizing influence, it is highly important that we should know the actual extent of employment furnished through such appropriations. At present we are without any data except experimental figures which are quite inadequate to give a general picture.

It is of course clear that these current monthly reports from State and Federal bureaus come from only a sample of establishments in any one industry. If these samples are to be tested from time to

time in the light of the actual growth of industries of different types, it is highly important that the Bureau of the Census should make available the necessary data from the various branches of the census—manufacturing, population, and distribution. The need for data regarding labor conditions and employment, as of equal importance with data on production and trends in business, should be emphasized in order that sufficient appropriations may be available for the Bureau of the Census to gather and to publish this type of material.

As to the census on unemployment taken in April, 1930, with a further sampling in January, 1931, it is only possible to mention it here as one of the important developments in statistics of employment during the past year. Time does not permit an analysis of the data or of the method of securing it. The Committee on Governmental Labor Statistics has made a special study of it. The difficulties involved in collecting the information have been, of course, very great. Nevertheless it stands as providing the only base line which we now have as to the approximate extent of unemployment in different occupations and different parts of the country at a given time, and will continue to serve as a useful check upon statistics of trends in employment.

An unprecedented and challenging opportunity faces Federal and State departments of labor to-day to give current and adequate information regarding conditions of employment and earnings in this country. The present depression, coming at a moment of enormously increased productive capacity in this country and in other lands, has a significance with which departments of labor are primarily concerned. Apparently the purchasing power of the people has not been maintained to enable them to buy the goods of modern industry. In other words, this is a problem of raising standards of living to keep pace with the utilization of economic resources. Not only for the sake of wage earners is information vital regarding employment and earnings, but the whole industrial mechanism can not be kept in balance and in running order unless this information be constantly available. We are concerned not with the average wealth of the country, but with the standards of living of all the people, their adequacy, and their security. The ultimate test of economic policies of business and government is in these standards of living, and of all the branches of government the departments of labor are primarily responsible for applying this test.

DISCUSSION

Chairman PATTON. Now we would be glad to hear from all of you.

Miss JOHNSON (Massachusetts). I was very much interested in what Miss Van Kleeck said in her address. She said, among other things, that the responsibility of State labor departments to collect facts and give them out is one of their most important functions. I think we would all agree with that as a general proposition. It is when it comes to the concrete application that there might be divergence of opinion.

I was also interested in her suggestion of collecting information on the wages of women as distinct from those of men. I think that is an important thing, because there is a marked difference in the

wages of men and women in industrial employment, and there is a difference in the matter of effect of unemployment on women as compared with men. Women are largely employed in unskilled and unorganized branches of industry. Unless there is special investigation, we are not likely to secure an accurate picture of the conditions of their employment.

Here in Massachusetts we secure wages classified by sex for all industries only in alternate years. Monthly returns on this basis, it is true, are received from a selected list of firms. The firms, however, that cooperate voluntarily in supplying this current information that comes to the department are apt to be the more progressive ones that have the better labor policies. Returns are also secured from organized labor, but these represent returns of wages for the higher-paid wage earners. Woman workers in industry are very largely in the unskilled and poorly paid trades. Information that we have secured from time to time through the minimum wage investigations and inspections during the period of the depression shows that the wages of women are being cut, although the wages of men in the organized industries are apt to be kept up.

We have found increasingly during the past year that the wages of women and girls in low-paid industries were being cut, a cut of 10 per cent or more being commonly made. Then, in addition to that, are the very low wages that are being paid to women and girls in some branches of unskilled industries. In some instances firms that have come from outside the State have taken advantage of the depressed conditions in the textile centers and are paying wages that bear no relation to the earnings of the workers or the cost of existence. This is creating a very serious problem.

I am wondering if Miss Van Kleeck, in her suggestion of collecting separate statistics as to the wages of women and men, would suggest collecting them from different sources than those from which they are ordinarily taken. That is, would she try to get them outside of the more progressive firms and from the firms that are organized in order to try to get a picture of the wage situation in the unorganized industries, and would she include in addition some study of the wages of men in the unskilled industries; because they, too, are feeling the wage cuts and the low wages much more than those in the organized branches of industry. For instance, in the case of a firm where we got the pay roll a few weeks ago, we found that men and boys were receiving for full time employment rates of \$9 and \$10 a week. I think that is something for serious consideration, and I would like to have Miss Van Kleeck speak on that if she would.

MISS VAN KLEECK (New York). In a word, I might say that the statistics that we do collect are supposed to be a fair sample of the industry. They are not limited to the organized industry for either men or women, and certainly what we would advocate would be that any collection of figures would take due account of all those situations and reflect all of the groups, not just the better-paying groups.

CHAIRMAN PATTON. I might say on that point that about 1,200 of the 1,700 and more firms that report monthly in New York State have reported separately since June, 1923. They report the earnings of men and women separately and they so publish them. It might

be well to point out that when any State begins to do that you have criticism. We were charged openly in an editorial the first month that we published those figures as having in mind the laying of a background for the establishment of minimum wages for women. Nothing was further from our minds. All that we wanted to do was to secure the facts.

However, the opposition to it has long since ceased. Miss Van Kleeck made the statement that the Southern States had made no monthly collection of these statistics. I would like to ask Mr. Baldwin whether or not the Federal bureau considers the figures that come from Texas, Maryland, Virginia, and Oklahoma as representative enough in their character partially to offset Miss Van Kleeck's statement. I am interested because I happened to be born in the South and I happen to have an interest in that subject.

Mr. BALDWIN (Washington, D. C.). I will say that the statistics being received from the State of Maryland now are quite satisfactory. They have developed the collection of data there to a point where it is entirely satisfactory. The data received from Texas we get through the Research Bureau of the University of Texas, and it is more or less satisfactory, but we have some difficulty in getting the returns. We are receiving no data from Oklahoma, and so we do not include Oklahoma in our study.

Mr. HUDSON (Ontario). Miss Van Kleeck touched upon two or three points that are of particular interest to me and I would like to touch upon them in a word or two. One had to do with the relationship between the Association of Public Employment Officials and the statistical association which she represents. I want to thank Miss Van Kleeck and the committee for the work they are doing in cooperation with us to obtain information as to employment statistics.

Another point was in regard to the amount of work provided by these emergency relief appropriations. We have learned that in the United States you are in some doubt as to the amount of work provided, but I am very glad to be able to say that in Canada a record has been kept of the actual days worked by men employed in the public employment emergency relief. I think that it is a wonderful thing to spend public money at a time like that for road building or for any other public work.

Another point, which will take only a minute to speak about, is the collection of employment statistics and their use in Canada. I am happy to say that we have a uniform system throughout the Dominion and the closest cooperation exists between the Provinces and the Federal Government, and the pictures are presented in full, regardless of any consideration whatsoever at any time, no matter what administration is in power. The results are published in a publication that might be of interest to you and of which Mr. Plant could speak more freely than I could. It is the "Labor Gazette."

Doctor ANDREWS (New York). I was interested in what Mr. Foster had to say about what would happen in this country if everyone was to start their plants full blast. In two weeks the depression would be over. But Miss Van Kleeck gave me the impression that all of the foreign countries that consume our goods would have to go along.

Is it not true that we need some foreign consumption as well as our own?

I should like to ask Mr. Smith something. You said that you think perhaps the employment situation has been caused by some plants overextending themselves—that is, by adding equipment that was not needed for the ordinary output. Have you given any thought as to how we are going to give the employees that have to be shifted a chance to move into something else in some other part of the country? I know that situations occur in Massachusetts where the one plant in the town has shut down and the workers have to take their families and go elsewhere. Now what can we do about that?

MR. SMITH (Massachusetts). What you are referring to is a phase of technological unemployment. Just what can be done about it I am not prepared to say. I think it is important that everybody connected with the problem should think about what can be done about it. It is rather interesting to consider this in relation to technological unemployment—that whenever a manufacturer brings out a new product he is very careful to see that the old product in the hands of the dealers is satisfactorily disposed of before he launches the new merchandise. You have a restraining influence operating when a manufacturer introduces a new process or anything that happens to cause technological displacement of labor.

It seems to me that the reason for that is that, although in the aggregate all manufacturers lose money by the dislocations that are caused by technological unemployment, so long as they have workers out of employment they are not buying goods of any manufacturer, but in the case of a particular manufacturer the goods that he may have, or the money that he may save by letting a hundred of his workers go, far outweighs in his mind what he may lose in sales, as far as the purchasing power of what those workers represent is concerned, in so far as they contribute to his own sales. Now, that being the case, if the individual manufacturer does not feel the impulse to control technological unemployment, we have to look for some form of social control of the problem. That, to my mind, lies largely through the instrumentality of public employment offices and perhaps vocational rehabilitation, again exercised through some State agency.

Chairman PATTON. I am sure that if I were down on the floor that I would be on my feet, so let us have some more questions.

Doctor ANDREWS. I asked two questions. I asked Miss Van Kleeck if she could tell us what she thinks of the needs of foreign consumption?

Miss VAN KLEECK. I would like to talk a long while on that. I can only say briefly that back in 1921, when the conference on unemployment was meeting, a statement was issued which said that, although our exports amounted to only 10 per cent of our products, nevertheless, the sale of that 10 per cent at a fair price, or the failure to sell it, affects the whole of the remaining 90 per cent. It seems to me that that remains the keynote of our situation. Despite the fact that we have a large market of our own, that we do sell a large proportion of our products in this country, we have a margin which is

for sale abroad, and it does not seem to me that we can possibly face or look at the problem of technological unemployment without considering the fact that the purchasing power of the people all over the world has to be considered also.

It is not possible for any country, and least of all for a country with a surplus production, like the United States of America, to balance production and consumption by limiting ourselves to our own markets and saying that we can stabilize in two weeks in the United States if we just get over our psychological fears. It seems to me that the realities are the terribly large number of unemployed in Germany, the number of unemployed in Great Britain, and the situation in the Far East, to which we give far too little attention. Then we have India and China and the effect upon them of industrialization. I think we have to consider all of those things.

I heard a Russian economist say during the past winter that if you raised the wages in India from 4 to 5 cents a day that you would increase the purchasing power of that nation 25 per cent. Well, that is just touching upon it. I am personally convinced that we can not, in the United States of America, consider only the situation within our own borders, and that is not in any sense theorizing or pleading for internationalism. It is a plea for economic common sense. With our rapid transport, and especially with the flow of goods into every part of the world and the flow of money, the problem is not a national problem.

Mr. PHELPS (Massachusetts). Miss Van Kleeck is such an enthusiastic missionary in the matter of the collection of statistics that those of us who are associated with her in this work get all pepped up and do not know where to stop.

There is one thing that I want to say in regard to the work in the State of Massachusetts and it is to the credit of the governor. He got an appropriation for us of over \$17,000 for the extension in the scope of our work. We are hoping now that we can extend our work all the way down the line. We have already undertaken to collect figures in relation to public employment in cities and towns and counties. If we can we will use this fund to advantage in reference to the number of people employed on the emergency public works. I make this statement because I wish to have it understood that Massachusetts desires to continue in this work, to go along pioneering in this work, and to keep on under the guidance of Miss Van Kleeck.

Mr. GERON (New York). I wonder if the program of this committee means that we will collect statistics of unemployment from all sources. If we select certain firms, are we not apt to select the best of them or the largest of them in certain groups? How will we ever know what the picture is unless we can tell every employer to report? I think that this depression is of enough significance for this organization to take the attitude that every employer should report those conditions. If they did that, we would then know what we were talking about, which we do not know now.

Then the criticism that is usually leveled at these figures is that they are taken from certain firms and not from others. Now the

facts are that some of the statistics in certain States are taken from firms that do not pay the highest wages. The largest firms do not pay the highest wages in every industry. The smaller firms pay a higher rate than the larger ones, so unless you take all of the firms you do not have all of the information.

MISS VAN KLEECK. I would say that I agree with Mr. Gernon that we must make the figures more comprehensive. I think the great difficulty is to find how many industries we are leaving out. We have the necessity of keeping a more or less uniform report. The entrance of a new firm is, of course, statistically very upsetting, when you try to work out an index number, but it is also upsetting to the man out of work. It does seem to me that we need a much more comprehensive method of collection.

That was the point that I was trying to make about the census, that we should have more complete and more adequate material and then we will be able to go much further than we can now. But I would like to say here, since Mr. Gernon asked the question, it seems to me that in the State departments we ought to have a much closer tie-up of factory inspection and labor statistics collection. I believe by a closer tie-up that we would be able to get a more complete picture in the different States, and that is why it is so important to have these things collected in the first instance by the States.

MR. BISTRUP (Massachusetts). I would like to take this opportunity to testify to my appreciation of the figures that are obtained by the Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industry, particularly in respect to employment and manufacturing. The question which has come up seems to suggest the policy as to whether an effort should be made to obtain figures from all manufacturers or from a fair sample of them.

In Massachusetts I think we have about 10,000 concerns that are classified as manufacturing concerns in the Government census figures. My observation is that about a fifth of those can not be found, that is, they are too small to be of consequence. The observation and the studies which I have made of the figures which are supplied from the concerns who contribute to the monthly figures on employment and earnings supply a fairly accurate story of present current employment in our manufacturing establishments. I should hate like everything, I think, to have Mr. Phelps charged with the responsibility of getting from every manufacturer, from every employer, the figures of employment. I think it would clog the works so that we would get nothing.

I think that if the efforts he is making could be extended to other kinds of employers we would get a sufficient amount of data to be of great significance, and to complete the picture we now have. We are talking about unemployment. I do not know how we can measure that. It is a difficult thing. We can measure employment fairly accurately and that may lead to a measure of unemployment, but we certainly need more figures to round out the picture than we now have.

MR. BALDWIN. There is one matter that I would like to touch upon. The Bureau of Labor Statistics has felt that the greatest weakness in its employment statistics was that it did not include any statistics

of the building construction industry. We have been very loathe to begin that because of the difficulty, as we thought, of collecting the information. We felt that we should have to have a large sample in order to reflect the real conditions in that respect. But quite recently we have been trying it out, and have started the collection of construction employment statistics in a few cities. By the end of this month we will have statistics from about 20 cities in different States throughout the country.

We are collecting these statistics frequently from the employer. We have not attempted to include any city or any State in which we cooperate on the other statistics. We find that it is not difficult to get contractors to reply to the questionnaire, and have no more difficulty than we do in the manufacturing industries. For instance, we started with Washington, right at home, and are collecting data from 444 contractors in that city. We have statistics from Providence, R. I., and many other places. We are taking them all and looking them over, and trying to see whether or not employment does fluctuate there just the same as it does in the other industries and other lines. We feel that we will have a fair sample and that we can get a pretty good idea of the conditions as a whole.

Chairman PARRON. I think that in one respect the building figures are better than the manufacturing, in that we get the man-hours. The building contractors pay their help on the basis of the hours they work, and we can figure much better that way.

(Meeting adjourned.)

WEDNESDAY, MAY 20—AFTERNOON SESSION

H. C. Hudson, General Superintendent Ontario Government Employment Offices, Presiding

EMPLOYMENT SESSION

Chairman HUDSON. We have quite a lengthy program this afternoon, but I am going to take this opportunity of talking just a little along the line that I have been asked to present to the association, merely for your information and for the comments you may care to make on it. We have read in Canada and in the United States about the different methods of meeting the unemployment situation, the different remedies. As far as we are aware in Ontario, no attempt has been made, outside of the city of Toronto, to educate the unemployed workers along technical lines or more along what you might call cultural lines.

There has been formed in Toronto, however, an organization known as the Unemployed Educational Association, and this group is endeavoring to provide facilities for giving the man out of work a chance to learn a trade—the rudiments of a trade—or to increase his skill in whatever line he has been following. The criticism which has been directed at this organization is that it is not much better for a man to be out of work when he is trained as a carpenter than it is to be out of work when he is an unskilled laborer, and opposition has accordingly arisen from certain directions and from men who are trained and who fear that their numbers will be augmented by the additional training of unemployed.

The idea, however, I think, basically has enough to recommend it to mention it to you. I am not indorsing it or in any way supporting it, except through the facilities of the office, where we are giving some little assistance to the prime movers in the new plan. If there has been any attempt made along this line of educating men and women who are out of work during their periods of enforced idleness, I would appreciate it very much if those of you who know about such experiments would tell me, not necessarily now, but before I leave on Friday night. I did promise the man behind the movement in Toronto that I would bring with me a questionnaire which it is part of the plan to send to 500 cities and towns, not only in Canada and the United States, but also in Europe, to find out if any action has been taken along these lines, and if so, what the results have been. I will just pass it around for anyone who cares to look at it.

Along with the plan there was a registration form, printed by one of the local newspapers and distributed among the unemployed, to indicate what they felt about obtaining training. The questionnaire, or the form, asked for the man's name and address, how long unemployed, how long a resident in Toronto, in what lines of work he had the most experience, and how many would like to attend classes in the following subjects: Reading, writing, and arithmetic; English

grammar and composition; public speaking and salesmanship; architecture and designing; building trades; automobile repair and driving; bookkeeping and other office work; stenography and typewriting; household or domestic science; dressmaking and millinery; farming and gardening; dairying and stock raising.

If they would rather go into some other line or have some other special training, we left a place for them to tell us about that also. The responses that we got to these were very encouraging, and I am going to distribute some of them because they have the name of the man who is behind the movement. I have pleasure now in calling on Miss Gilson, who is with the Industrial Relations Counselors, who will tell us something about financial relief of unemployment in the United States and in Europe.

Financial Relief of Unemployment in the United States and Europe

BY MARY B. GILSON, of the *Industrial Relations Counselors (Inc.)*, New York

It would be absurd to describe to an audience like this the privation and anxiety existing to-day in millions of homes all over the world. Surely here, if anywhere, one may assume an understanding of the human misery attendant upon unemployment. It is also to be taken for granted that no far-reaching methods of preventing unemployment have as yet been devised and that even in times of prosperity and plenty there have always been large numbers of persons suffering from the results of unemployment. We shall proceed at once, therefore, to outline some of the methods used to relieve this distress, eliminating public works and other ways of providing work, and covering only the dispensing of money and goods to keep the worker from destitution when he is involuntarily unemployed.

It would be impossible, however, to distinguish the involuntarily from the voluntarily unemployed in describing our dispensing of charity in the United States for we may justly be accused of a good deal of indiscriminate giving of doles "and no questions asked." It is well to keep this in mind when one hears foreign systems of unemployment insurance condemned. They at least provide for far more methodical ways of checking the worthy than we have in our individualistic, bread-line country.

Whatever may be our theories concerning the individual assumption of risk, we see all about us to-day evidence that it is fatuous to hope that people can save enough in times of prosperity to tide them over the lean years, especially if the lean years stretch on indefinitely. It is a fact, however unpleasant, that thousands of wage earners do not earn a "saving wage," in the United States as well as in Europe, and it is an equally unpleasant fact that many wage earners who have been well paid during periods of prosperity have had illness or other misfortunes which have eaten into their reserves and left them with no protection during periods of depression. The man who is out of a job in the United States and who has no reserve to fall back on and no relatives who can and will house and feed him is therefore in nearly all cases, up against the necessity of accepting charity.

And this is regardless of the fact that he may have been a faithful and efficient worker for years, unwillingly idle because of an industrial system which he can in nowise control.

All the recurring depressions in the United States have resulted in no antitoxin, no cure. A makeshift system of public employment offices has been established, but no adequate Federal system which would promote effectively the mobility of labor. Local charity has been our means of salving wounds too deep to be more than superficially healed by such palliative methods. It is platitudinous to repeat that the man who is able and willing to work loses his independence and self-respect in the course of time if he is forced to continue to resort to charity. Eventually he becomes a willing pauper, his morale broken.

The immense charitable sums expended on food and clothing for the unemployed during the depression we have been and still are experiencing, the 82 bread lines during the winter of 1930-31 in New York City alone, the despair of social agencies swamped with demands they can not fill, the chaotic and confused dispensing of relief to any and all comers in many communities, and the despair of the self-respecting worker who would rather suffer hunger and privation than accept charity—all these and other considerations are leading thoughtful people to inquire into orderly methods for providing help to the involuntarily unemployed worker.

No legislation has as yet been enacted in this country to provide benefits to unemployed workers, so our experience is confined to voluntary plans. We shall not take time to describe the trade-union out-of-work benefit plans, the first recognition of unemployment as a hazard the worker could not meet unaided. Before the present depression only 13 company plans were in existence. Three companies, the Columbia Conserve Co., Crocker-McElwain, and Procter & Gamble virtually guarantee full wages for a year, the first two on a 52-week basis, the last on a 48-week basis with half pay for any day in the remaining four weeks in which a man is involuntarily unemployed. Length of service, type of work, family responsibility, and other factors affect the benefits paid out in nearly all of the company plans. The plans are often flexible. For example, last year, because of the heavy drain on the unemployment fund, the Dennison Manufacturing Co. had to establish a maximum of \$24 a week for employees with dependents and \$18 for those without dependents, instead of following the usual procedure of paying benefits on the basis of 80 and 60 per cent, respectively, of the average weekly wage. Only a few companies have actually set aside funds for the payment of unemployment compensation. Since the beginning of the present depression the General Electric Co. has installed an unemployment compensation plan, the only company unemployment fund to which workers contribute. All the other company funds are supported wholly by employers. Other interesting developments of the present depression are the pooling of contributions to an unemployment fund by 14 Rochester firms and an agreement entered into by 5 companies in Fond du Lac, Wis., to hire workers laid off by any of the companies, whenever possible, and, when this proves impossible, to pay an unemployed worker 65 per cent of his average wage for not over 100 working days.

Besides company plans there are also a few set up by agreement between trade-unions and industry. The oldest and best organized of these joint plans is that of the men's clothing industry of Chicago. About 15,000 workers in this industry are eligible for unemployment benefit for a proportion of the time lost by them through involuntary unemployment. The unemployment fund consists of 4½ per cent of the pay roll of the industry, 3 per cent of which is contributed by the employers and 1½ per cent by the employees. Over \$6,000,000 was distributed in benefits to union members between May 1, 1924, the date of the first benefit payment, and December, 1930. It was found possible, by means of adjusting rules governing administration to the exigencies of the situation, to use the unemployment funds not only to cover seasonal and cyclical unemployment, but also for quite substantial dismissal bonuses to workers who had permanently lost their jobs. Clothing workers, even in periods of general prosperity, have an unemployment rate of over 15 per cent, so the experiment which has been so successfully carried out by the men's clothing industry is of particular significance in pointing to the possibility of universal adoption of some such plan by American industry.

But "where there's a will there's a way" implies the existence of a will, and the slow development of both company and joint plans in the United States gives no earnest of such purpose on the part of any but a microscopic minority of employers. Therefore, while every plan in existence has its value and while every employer who has pioneered in this direction deserves credit, at the present rate of progress it would require something like a thousand years to cover all workers by such plans. The average firm is too unwilling to put itself at a competitive disadvantage to assume the burden involved in establishing an unemployment fund. This accounts very largely for the fact that less than 200,000 workers in the United States are to-day given any measure of protection when involuntarily unemployed.

Acknowledging, then, the impracticability of industry, through voluntary experiments covering the hazard of unemployment for the involuntarily unemployed worker, it is not to be wondered at that the number of people becoming interested in some sort of legislation which will provide for such coverage is on the rapid increase. More and more the conviction is growing that unemployment is a responsibility of industry, and that if this responsibility is not assumed voluntarily it must be given validity by law. Proposed legislation in Connecticut, Massachusetts, Minnesota, New York, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin prior to the present depression was of two general types. In Massachusetts in 1916 and in New York in 1921, bills were modeled after the British unemployment insurance plan, providing that all benefits should be paid out of funds subscribed to by employers, workers, and the State. The other bills, modeled after the Wisconsin or "Huber" plan, provided for contributions to be paid only by the employer and for the placing of full responsibility on his shoulders. A total of 15 bills were presented in legislatures of the States mentioned, up to the time of the present depression, all of them being fruitless except for arousing and educating public opinion. The present depression has brought forth more effort to

pass legislation and efforts are being made to introduce other bills in Wisconsin, Indiana, California, Ohio, New York, Connecticut, Massachusetts, Michigan, and Pennsylvania. Some of these bills provide for contributions of workers and some do not.

Senator Wagner introduced a Federal unemployment insurance bill which would require the United States Government, through Congress, to make an initial appropriation of \$100,000,000 for the creation of a fund to be administered by the Department of Labor. Any State establishing a satisfactory unemployment insurance plan would receive from the fund annually a sum not to exceed one-third of the amount appropriated by the State or provided by a municipality or by private contributions.

It would be too time consuming to go into all the details of the various bills now before State legislatures and the Federal Governments of the United States and Canada. But there is no doubt that the very active groups pushing these bills mean business and that that in itself is significant. As we have suggested, there is growing discontent with the soup-kitchen, bread-line, apple-selling methods of handling unemployment, and an increasing number of thoughtful people are seeking a more systematic and dignified way of taking care of the unemployed. It is beginning to be recognized as good business to store up reserves in times of prosperity to tide workers over periods of depression, just as it is good to store up reserves to pay dividends.

A natural outgrowth of discontent with American dole giving and bread lines is thoughtful inquiry concerning methods of relieving unemployment used in foreign countries. Indeed, if the depression and unemployment of the past two years have done nothing else, they have at least stimulated intelligent and sympathetic inquiry into the actual operation of systems of compulsory unemployment insurance throughout the world.

In 1919 the International Labor Organization, at its first conference, recommended "That each member of the International Labor Organization establish an effective system of unemployment insurance, either through a government system or through a system of government subventions to associations whose rules provide for the payment of benefits to their unemployed members."

At the beginning of that year only about four and one-half or five million workers were insured against unemployment, the majority of whom were covered by the British scheme, which was the only national compulsory scheme then in existence and which at that time covered a small proportion of British workers.

Since 1919 nine more countries have adopted a compulsory system of unemployment insurance. They are Australia (Queensland only), Austria, Bulgaria, Germany, Irish Free State, Italy, Poland, Switzerland (9 Cantons), and Russia. In these countries and Great Britain and Northern Ireland a total of approximately 44,630,000 are covered by compulsory schemes.

Countries with voluntary unemployment insurance schemes are Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Finland, France, Netherlands, Norway, and Switzerland (14 Cantons). Adding the workers covered by voluntary schemes (about 2,840,000) to those covered by compulsory schemes, approximately 47,500,000 workers are now covered by unemployment insurance.

Financial organization of the funds, amounts and duration of benefits, and classes of workers covered vary from country to country because of different needs and circumstances. Eligibility for benefits relates to various things; for example, to the payment of a stipulated number of contributions preliminary to drawing benefits, to a waiting period after a worker becomes unemployed, to a checking of "genuine" involuntary unemployment, and to varying provisions defining involuntary unemployment.

Most of the compulsory unemployment insurance systems provide for the participation of employers, workers, and Federal or local public authorities. The voluntary systems, which are methods of subsidizing organizations of workers, are usually financed by workers and public authorities only.

The most important example of voluntary unemployment insurance is that of the Netherlands, established in 1916 and amended at various times since then. Wage earners in all trades are potentially covered, as any trade-union whose members wish to establish a scheme of out-of-work benefits may receive State subsidies varying from an amount equal to that paid by insured members to twice that sum. The communes reimburse the State for half of the subsidy paid out. Employers contribute nothing to the fund and the contributions of workers vary from fund to fund.

It would be impossible in the scope of this paper to describe the systems of unemployment insurance in all foreign countries, so we shall center on the two largest and most important schemes, those of Germany and Great Britain. It might be interesting, however, to take a mere glance at Russia. The labor code adopted by the Soviet Republic in 1922 is the basis for the system of unemployment benefits installed at that time. Employers are the sole contributors to the fund, but as a large number of industrial establishments are nationalized this amounts in such cases to a State contribution. A bi-monthly system of rotation on public works is used to provide work for as large a number of the unemployed as possible.

The scheme is compulsory for all workers, who are divided into three classes, with benefits varying accordingly. The benefit must be not less than one-sixth of the average local wage, but, together with the family allowances, it may not exceed 50 per cent of the wage earned by the worker during the three months preceding his unemployment. Duration of benefit may be 9 months per year and 18 months for every period of unemployment for two consecutive years. Under an order of the Commissariat of Labor of the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics, dated October 9, 1930, all unemployment insurance benefit was suspended until further notice, and the credits for this branch of insurance were removed from the social insurance budget. At the same time the Government drafted all unemployed persons for existing vacancies, regardless of inclination or previous experience.

A system of social insurance in Germany, covering health, old age, and other hazards in the life of the worker, was extended to cover unemployment on October 1, 1927. Social insurance in Germany was originally designed to stifle industrial unrest. The necessity for assuming social responsibility is its underlying motive. The various types of German social insurance, covering sickness, accident,

invalidity, old age, unemployment, and maternity and life insurance benefits amount to about 12 per cent of the total annual wage bill. The German health insurance scheme covers about 20,000,000 persons and the unemployment insurance scheme about 18,000,000, out of a total of approximately 32,000,000 gainfully employed.

A greater degree of coordination of social services is provided by the German than by the British scheme as contributions are paid to the sickness insurance fund and are turned over to the office administering unemployment insurance. At the time unemployment insurance was introduced the already established national system of employment exchanges was tied in with it. Prevention and relief are closely related and Germany is unrelaxing in her expenditure of thought and effort on placement of workers and on constructive measures to prevent their unemployment.

Ten years of Federal experience and about 20 years more of experience on the part of local communities and States preceded the establishment of unemployment insurance in Germany. Eleven wage groups form the basis of benefit payments, the benefits being in inverse ratio to the average wage over the three months preceding payment. An additional allowance is provided for dependents. Duration of benefit is 26 weeks and "emergency" relief may be granted for 16 additional weeks to workers who have not been able fully to qualify for unemployment insurance or who have exhausted their right to benefit. Unemployed workers over 40 years of age may draw benefits for 45 weeks. Such emergency relief is limited to certain industries and to localities exceptionally hard hit.

Eligibility for unemployment benefits is based, in general, on capacity and willingness to work, involuntary unemployment, 26 or more weeks of work and of contributions to the unemployment insurance funds during the previous 12 months, and on periodic registration at the employment exchange. The waiting period before benefits are paid is one week.

Just as in the British scheme, the requirement that a worker report regularly at the exchange serves to prevent a person from drawing benefits when he is working and to check on his willingness to accept an available job. The exchange makes every effort to place him in his accustomed occupation during the first nine weeks of his unemployment; at the end of that time he must accept anything offered him. Physical and mental fitness for the job are of course taken into consideration in placing. Geographical mobility is promoted by assisting a worker to find work in another locality even to the extent of making provision for his family in such circumstances.

Funds are provided by the unemployment insurance scheme of Germany for retraining a person for another trade or occupation and for vocational guidance for juveniles under 18 years of age. Some of the exchanges provide guidance for highly technical and professional work. Thus unemployment insurance, placement, and vocational guidance are closely coordinated.

The unemployment insurance fund is wholly supported by employers and workers, who pay an equal amount. Originally they paid jointly 3 per cent of the basic wage, each paying half of this amount, but in December, 1929, the contribution was raised to 3½ per cent of the basic wage and in September, 1930, to 6½ per cent

of the basic wage. Crisis or emergency benefits are provided by the Government. If Government grants do not meet the emergency needs they are met either by increasing contributions or restricting benefits. Extraordinary emergency relief is met by the public authorities, four-fifths by the Federal Government, and one-fifth by the communes.

Out of the unemployment insurance fund not only are unemployment benefits provided but also the expenses of administering employment exchanges and of furnishing placement service and vocational guidance.

Severe and prolonged unemployment in Germany has resulted in a heavy financial drain. With a view to reducing the deficit of the unemployment insurance fund various proposals have been made. These include the raising of the rate of contributions; the prolongation of the period during which contributions must have been paid as a condition for receiving benefits, subject to the granting of reduced benefits equivalent to emergency benefits after a period of 26 weeks; and the exclusion from benefit of all unemployed persons under 16 and over 65 years of age.

Workers earning more than \$856 a year are excluded from the compulsory scheme as are nonmanual employees earning more than \$1,999. Both of these groups may insure voluntarily, however. Agricultural and certain groups of casual workers are also among the classes excluded from the compulsory scheme.

In February, 1931, there were about 4,756,000 unemployed in Germany. All but 800,000 of these received assistance in some form, at an annual cost of \$630,000,000, a large proportion of this expense being borne by the taxpayers and the rest by workers and employers. At the time mentioned 2,400,000 received unemployment insurance benefits, 700,000 lived on the emergency fund provided for in the Federal budget, and 630,000 were supported by the welfare departments of the cities. The villages probably extended help to about 150,000 unemployed. The remaining, numbering approximately 900,000, did not receive any assistance. Although the majority of the unemployed have, up to the present time, been supported by insurance, the recipients of emergency and welfare doles are constantly on the increase.

Exactly a year after the German scheme was launched the serious depression in the fall of 1928 would have wrecked it if the Federal Government had not granted large loans. By April of 1930 the insurance fund was indebted to the Reich about \$150,000,000 and was in a state of chronic deficit. The disproportion between expenditure and revenue was enormous. A total of \$450,000,000 was spent in 1930, of which about \$20,000,000 went into the cost of administering benefits. The revenue was only \$250,000,000, which was \$200,000,000 less than the expenditure. In July last year contributions were materially raised and benefits were reduced and in October contributions were again raised. This was aimed to put the fund on a self-supporting basis. Emergency doles, however, or doles paid to those who have exhausted their right to benefits, are an ever-present drain on the Federal Government, which appropriates \$100,000,000 annually for the emergency fund. Moreover, a constantly increasing percentage of unemployed workers who have exhausted their claim on insur-

ance and emergency doles fall back on the municipal-welfare contribution, which varies from city to city, but usually amounts to about 50 per cent of the insurance benefit. A great number of the cities are on the verge of bankruptcy and the reform of municipal-welfare service is essential. In any case new Federal funds will have to be provided for emergency unemployment relief.

Unemployment insurance and prohibition are two among many subjects about which certain individuals entertain so many preconceptions and prejudices that it is difficult for them to "stop, look, and listen" for the examination of facts. The present unemployment insurance scheme in Great Britain is usually in a welter of controversy because it is constantly subject to the spotlight of criticism and because postwar conditions have been so muddled that many persons have attributed the evils attendant upon long-continued trade depression to unemployment insurance instead of to unemployment. Moreover, those persons who are intent upon discrediting the British scheme have a habit of quoting out of context certain criticisms directed against the eradicable weaknesses of the scheme instead of against the scheme itself. An example of this sort of misrepresentation is found in quotations from drastic criticisms of Sir William Beveridge, who has held up to pitiless censure the faults of the scheme due to the constant extension of benefit to people who have exhausted their right to it. But, as a matter of fact, Sir William Beveridge was one of the originators of the British scheme and has always supported the principle of unemployment insurance. The person who inveighs against the British unemployment insurance system must in all honesty do one of two things. He must either give sufficient time to an arduous and painstaking examination of ancient and unsatisfactory methods of caring for the unemployed in Great Britain before unemployment insurance was introduced, of all the features of the present unemployment insurance scheme and of the obstacles imposed upon it by Britain's postwar depression, or he must be willing to accept the verdicts of such authoritative and unpartisan bodies as the Blanesburgh and Balfour committees. There is a rich fund of factual and statistical material and of authoritative opinion. On such evidence judgments should be formed.

Space and time forbid even a brief review of the history of the British unemployment insurance scheme from the first act of 1911 to the present time. A few facts may serve to paint some of the difficulties the scheme faces.

Great Britain was the first country to adopt a national compulsory system of unemployment insurance. This she did in 1911, a year after she had established a national system of employment exchanges. The Government, employers, and employees contribute to the unemployment insurance fund and a man who is out of work through no fault of his own may, by fulfilling certain conditions, draw 17 shillings (about \$4.14) and a woman 15 shillings (about \$3.65) a week. Younger workers get less according to age and sex classifications. Certain groups of workers, including agricultural and domestic workers, are not eligible to benefits. Unemployment insurance should not be confused with the gift or out-of-work donation which the Government distributed out of national taxation to demobilized

soldiers, munitions workers, and others after the war. This amounted to over \$300,000,000.

Because of the acute industrial depression and consequent unemployment which Great Britain has been facing for so many years she has from time to time extended benefit to workers who have exhausted their right to it through the contributions they have paid into the fund. This has meant that the fund has had to borrow money from the Government and that it is badly in debt at present. A royal commission is now examining ways and means of putting it on an actuarially sound basis. But even though many people have exhausted their right to benefit and are not really entitled, technically, to the money they are receiving, the employment exchanges have methods of carefully checking up all recipients of benefit and discovering whether men are really involuntarily unemployed and whether they need benefits. That has proven far more satisfactory than the old haphazard methods which were used before unemployment insurance was introduced and which consisted of doling out charity in one form or another. One should therefore be careful to call a dole something which is handed out to people without a systematic check of their willingness to work and without their right to it by a legally accepted plan. We Americans, given to bread lines and soup kitchens, too often speak in superior terms of Britain's "dole" when we are really the past masters in distributing doles.

One of the weaknesses in both the German and British schemes of unemployment insurance is that they do not furnish sufficient incentive to the employer to stabilize his plant or his industry. American plans for unemployment insurance which are now before State legislatures in the United States attempt to remedy this defect by exacting contributions to the funds in proportion to the rate of unemployment.

It is a very easy thing to say that no one should have relief unless he does some work for it. I can only say that it behooves those of us who think this is an easy solution of the problem of unemployment to examine the history of public works and relief work and make-work schemes in other countries. Long-range planning of public works does not belong in the same category with many of the make-work-quick schemes which so many people advocate as a cure-all.

Previous to the war, unemployment in Great Britain ranged from 3 to 8 per cent of the industrial employable population, a proportion originally used as the actuarial basis for the insurance plan, but during the decade following the armistice it ranged from 8 to 20 per cent, averaging about 12 per cent and amounting to as high as 21 per cent of insured workers in March of this year (1931). This postwar average is more than double the percentage the present scheme can carry on an actuarial basis.

The total cost of Great Britain's social services during the fiscal year 1927-28 was about £377,954,000, or \$1,839,313,000. These social services include, in addition to unemployment benefits, workmen's compensation, poor-law relief, old-age pensions, widows' and orphans' pensions, public education, workers' housing, public hospitals, and maternity and child welfare. As against \$1,839,313,000 spent for all these social services, about \$2,700,000,000, or approximately one-third more than this sum, was spent in 1929 on obligations resulting

from past wars and preparation for future wars. Thus may be compared the cost of constructing and keeping human beings fit as against the devastating cost of destroying them.

Great Britain's unemployment insurance benefits from January, 1919, to the end of November, 1930—that is, for 12 postwar years—amounted to £487,000,000 or about \$2,370,000,000. In addition to this, about £300,000,000, or \$1,460,000,000, was spent during that period for out-of-work donations and various other kinds of relief extended to those unable to find employment, such as public works, maintaining training establishments, gratuitous passage or “assisted” passage overseas and a new start in the Dominions, outdoor relief, and “extended” benefit paid to those who remained unemployed after exhausting their period of “statutory benefits” to which they were entitled by virtue of the contributions they had paid.

At present the demands on the British unemployment fund, because of the prolonged depression, have resulted in its paying out about twice as much as it gets in. Already it is in debt to the National Exchequer about \$300,000,000 and the debt is constantly mounting. In addition to the amount it has borrowed it receives about \$70,000,000 in contributions from workers, about \$80,000,000 from employers, and \$75,000,000 as its regular contribution from the Government, the total income amounting to about \$440,000,000. But the estimated demand for 1931 is \$550,000,000, even with an average number of 1,800,000 unemployed, which is far below the actual number out of work to-day. It is evident that without a State loan the normal contributions from State, employers, and workers would amount to only about \$225,000,000 to meet the estimated outgo of \$550,000,000. The royal commission now examining the scheme has therefore a real problem on its hands to devise means by which the insurance fund may be restored to solvency when unemployment is heavy and prolonged.

The cost falls very unevenly on different industries and this fact in itself is the cause of dissatisfaction with the present unemployment insurance scheme. The more prosperous industries, whose employees draw but little from the unemployment insurance fund, to which employers, employees, and the Government contribute, are carrying the burden for the depressed industries. The Government is now assuming the responsibility for the constantly mounting debt to the National Exchequer by paying benefits to “transitional cases” or those who have exhausted their right to benefits through the contributions they have paid into the fund.

The outlook for the depressed industries is dismal indeed. Eighty per cent of Great Britain's population is urbanized and that percentage is so dependent on foreign trade that the disturbance to her foreign markets during the war dealt her a disastrous blow. In 1913 Great Britain had 16.5 per cent of the total world trade and in 1926 this share had fallen to 13.5 per cent. World-wide substitution of oil and water power for coal, revolutionary developments in the textile field, and the reduction in armaments have been largely responsible for unemployment in coal, textiles, and shipbuilding. Industrial expansion in other countries during and after the war, aided by their currency inflation in contrast with Britain's deflation, and the latter's

lagging pace in amalgamation and "rationalization" of her industries have contributed to the general decline in foreign trade. Expansion of employment in the newer industries has not been sufficient to absorb the surplus workers in the declining ones.

The industries suffering most from heavy and prolonged unemployment, then, are the old export industries, such as coal, iron, steel, engineering, shipbuilding, and textiles. These industries employ about 4,000,000, or one-third of the insured population, consisting of over 12,000,000 workers out of about 17,000,000 gainfully employed. About 400,000 constitute a hard core or the so-called "permanently" unemployed, who stand little or no chance of regaining a foothold in industry because of the conditions of their industries or qualities inherent or acquired which have made them into "unemployables."

Many employers are using the unemployment insurance scheme as a cushion. In collusion with their workers they arrange a chronic short-time schedule—three days of work and three days of benefit paid out of the State unemployment insurance fund. As a worker is entitled to benefit if he is unemployed three days out of six consecutive days, it is easy to arrange such a schedule. In the cotton textile industry in Lancashire this custom is particularly prevalent. It amounts, in effect, to a subsidy to industry. Casual workers, such as dock workers, are responsible for an exceptional drain on the unemployment insurance fund. From October, 1923, to April, 1926, 8,000,000 out of a total of 11,500,000 insured workers drew no benefit at all, and of the remaining 3,500,000 only 1,000,000 drew benefits for more than 100 days during the 2½-year period. A revision of the present scheme so that it would constitute a tax on unemployment instead of on employment would correct such abuses to a very large extent. It stands to reason that the more prosperous industries will not continue to bear the burden for the chronically depressed ones without increasing protest.

In examining the many loose charges of malingering one should be careful to distinguish between the widespread demoralization caused by unemployment and that caused in a negligible number of cases by paltry sums paid out in unemployment benefits. Naturally, there are always persons who would rather live on the bare subsistence level than work for a higher standard of living, but these persons form a small minority.

The proportion of cases of disallowed claims for unemployment benefits does not indicate that unjustified claims are numerous. Moreover, sample studies made from time to time show a very small percentage of malingerers, generally about 4 or 5 per cent. As for the charge that workers have lost interest in providing for themselves, a recent investigation showed that the aggregate savings of small investors were being maintained and that there was no evidence that "the advent of State schemes for social insurance had led to a slackening of individual effort to provide against the chances and changes of life."

Many critics of unemployment insurance confuse it with poor relief, which in past years has often been dispensed by boards of guardians without proper checks. This was evidenced by a charity organization confession to the Blanesburgh Committee that many

young men idling about pool rooms, whom it was supposed had been financed by unemployment insurance, were in fact being supported by poor relief.

As for the effect of the unemployment insurance scheme on the mobility of labor, it is quite true that in so far as unemployment insurance has furnished a cushion to employers who have adopted a chronic short-time schedule, the scheme has removed pressure from regularization of employment and thus impeded the release of workers who stand no chance of full-time employment. But employment exchanges are a vital factor in promoting mobility and in preventing aimless wandering in search of jobs. The 417 employment exchanges and 752 branch offices have played a very large part in redistributing labor throughout the land, although it is unfortunate that most of the time of the exchange officials is occupied by work involved in paying unemployment insurance benefits instead of in interviewing and effectively placing workers. The impression is widely prevalent that workers may be very high handed in accepting or refusing what the exchange offers. The fact is that they do not have to accept any job at any pay, regardless of working conditions; still they do have to accept a job in another occupation than that to which they are accustomed (if one in their own can not be found), as long as the wages and conditions are not substandard.

That a certain amount of migration is actually taking place is evidenced by the constantly decreasing number of insured workers in the more depressed industries and corresponding increases in the number of insured workers in the more prosperous industries. The shift from coal mining, shipbuilding and ship repairing, iron and steel, and the textile industries, concentrated chiefly in the north and in Wales, to the newer industries in the south is proof of this. An active policy of transferring workers was undertaken by the Government after the report of the British Industrial Transference Board in 1928, but there are definite limits to such transference. Psychological factors, housing limitations, and the fact that every locality in Great Britain already has a percentage of unemployed are among the chief difficulties encountered. Efforts to transfer juveniles have met with some success, as have also efforts to train certain more promising individuals for various trades and occupations and for overseas work on farms.

Emigration as a "way out" of Britain's difficulties is no easy solution. The dominions and colonies have their own unemployment problem and they do not wish it aggravated by unemployed workers who may undertake farm life for a time but may eventually drift into the cities. Moreover, miners, for example, whose fathers and grandfathers have lived in the cottages they occupy, find it difficult to sever home and neighborhood ties. Out of a fund of over \$100,000,000 appropriated to aid emigrants by the empire settlement act of 1922, less than one-fourth was spent during 1922-1929, only 38,000 persons having been assisted by this fund. Lately the dominions and colonies have been erecting more barriers against "assisted" migrants.

It is not to be supposed that any one of the existing schemes of compulsory unemployment insurance is perfect. Each has its weaknesses. Demands on the funds of both Germany's and Great Brit-

ain's unemployment insurance schemes have grown beyond any possible forecasts. Borrowing has had to be resorted to, to save them from insolvency, but the mounting volume of unemployment due to world-wide industrial depression could not have been foreseen. In any case, although England has been suffering from heavy unemployment ever since the war, the health of her people has continued to improve, the figures of school attendance have gone up, and the figures for lawbreaking have continued to decline.

We in the United States are in the fortunate position of watching other countries proceed by the trial and error method and of being able to profit by their mistakes. Neither we nor they have yet found the ideal system, but it is about time for us to do some experimenting ourselves. It is about time, too, that we realized that the reason so many countries adopted national compulsory unemployment insurance schemes is because they found the ordinary means of charity and relief unsatisfactory and inadequate. Their long history gave them an opportunity to test the futility of scrambling together "emergency" methods of relieving the unemployed with each succeeding depression. With Bernard Shaw, we in the United States must acknowledge that, "If there is one thing that history teaches us it is that history does not teach us anything" unless we profit by the experience of other countries. And we can not do this if we persist in saying, "Our country is different," like the unprogressive business man who uses the slogan "My business is different" when he wishes to escape responsibility for effecting improvement and change.

The most depressing thing about the present deplorable state of affairs is not that we have as yet failed to evolve any satisfactory methods of relieving the unemployed, but that none of our economists and industrialists have shown any ability to think a way out of the mess we are in. We are inclined to believe that all these piffing suggestions to "fire married women first" or "spread work" or "put a lock on the cellar door and a maid in the kitchen" will be even more tragically comic in years to come than they are to-day. Not that we expect to find a panacea. But we must not continue to hunt needle-in-haystack remedies. Perhaps the most depressing thing of all is that we are still, in the main, isolationists in background and outlook, and as long as we do not see international implications of our present predicament we shall probably continue to flounder, and deservedly so. Surely we must soon realize that if depressions are world-wide their causes are also world-wide and that we must be as interested in the success and well-being of other countries as of our own if we are to achieve prosperity ourselves. Above all, we must boldly face facts relating to debts, reparations, tariffs, and monetary policies and not hide our heads in the sand. We must beware of laying too much stress on the further assembling of tons of facts and figures concerning the experiments of foreign countries at the expense of action. It is by bold experimentation, by trial and error, that the really significant steps in human progress have been taken. Is it not about time that we used the knowledge we already have of the successes and failures other countries have encountered in dealing with unemployment instead of appointing innumerable commissions and gathering more tons of figures concerning them? Surely we know

enough now to plot our unemployment insurance schemes, avoiding the bogs and pitfalls which have been pointed out clearly by countries which have already blazed trails.

Chairman HUDSON. In the Association of Public Employment Services I have had the pleasure of being associated with Mr. Fred Croxton, our next speaker, and I think he needs no introduction to an audience made up so largely of people from the United States. I have pleasure in asking Mr. Croxton to speak to us on the work of the President's Emergency Committee for Employment.

Work of the President's Emergency Committee for Employment

By FRED C. CROXTON, *of the President's Emergency Committee for Employment*

Last fall about 15 or 20 of us were drafted for a difficult task. Some of these men were borrowed for three months, some could be spared from their work for 4 or 5 months, and some of us could be spared for longer. This group of 15 or so men and women formed the President's Emergency Committee for Employment, under the chairmanship of Col. Arthur Woods.

Most of the members of that group had had long experience in one or more of the problems which confronted us at that time. No one, however, had had experience such as was demanded, owing to conditions which confronted us. We had an unknown number of people who were unemployed, some of them had been unemployed for a long period, certainly many of them for months. The most widespread drought within recollection also extended throughout a considerable area in a number of States. Farmers in other States did not have the consuming power which they had had in previous years; even though crops had been produced, the prices were lower. All of those things, therefore, conspired to make the task a very difficult one.

The committee rather naturally divided itself up into these three lines of undertaking: First, contact with the Federal departments in Washington; and, second, contacts with associations and groups such as the industrial trade associations and the various womens' groups throughout the country; and then finally, the contact with the governors and with the State committees throughout the United States. My own work had to do with the 10 States that we think of as the North Central States, running from New York, although that is a little bit out of the territory, as far West as Minnesota, including Minnesota and Iowa to the west of the Mississippi, and West Virginia and Kentucky south of the Ohio River. Some of the things that I have to say will relate more definitely to that territory.

The field of activity of the committee was, first, to promote employment; that is, by private activities as far as possible, by encouraging industry to go forward in every possible way, encouraging industry to maintain the wages, encouraging industry to divide the work, not for a long-time solution but to meet the immediate situation. We encouraged the shortening of the days and the shorten-

ing of the weeks. Then, on public works, the effort was to push forward as rapidly as possible necessary public works, both on the part of the Federal Government, on the part of the State governments, and on the part of the local governments. Semipublic work was also pushed forward. Casual jobs were also encouraged in every possible way.

In addition to the promotion of employment, such as I have indicated, it was also necessary to give a great deal of attention to the promotion of relief work.

You know that there has been a different approach to employment problems throughout this depression than we have seen before. You know that while wages have not been maintained in some establishments there has nevertheless been a general tendency to maintain the wages and that that has been a part of the economic policy of many industries. A few years ago we discussed very seriously whether it was better to divide work or to drop a part of the employees, so that they might find work elsewhere. At this period, with conditions as they were, there seemed to be no argument. There was just one thing to do and that was to divide up the work among the employees.

With reference to special or relief work instead of charity, there were some pitfalls. In one or two cities they had established this special work some time before at a reduced wage scale. We did not believe that was sound. We thought that was taking advantage of the distress of the citizens of the communities and that it certainly would have the effect of pulling down the general wage scale. Therefore in all cases an effort was made to maintain the prevailing wage for this special work. As so-called "made" work has been handled in some places it is employment, but as it has been handled in many places it is relief and oftentimes in an expensive form.

It was our feeling as we approached the problem of organization that the most effective work would be done if we could place the responsibility as far as possible upon the community. I happened to grow up farther west, where we had McGuffey's Reader. We had the Bible, too, but more people are familiar with McGuffey's Reader in some of those sections than even with "Heart Throbs," which I found in my room. McGuffey's carried the story of "The lark's nest in the field of grain":

A farmer said to his sons one morning, "We will invite our neighbors in to-morrow to cut the grain that is ready to be cut." The young larks overheard that and when the mother returned to the nest they told her that they were anxious to move and she said, "We don't need to move yet." The morrow came and the neighbors did not come and then the larks overheard that day the old man say to his sons, "The neighbors failed to come; we will invite in our relatives to help to cut the grain to-morrow." The young larks reported to their mother and they were anxious to move. She said, "We don't need to move yet." The morrow came and the relatives did not come. Then the farmer said to his sons, "Our neighbors did not come, our relatives did not come, and we will cut the field of grain ourselves." When they reported that to the mother bird she said, "We move."

We believed that if effective work was to be done it would be done by the localities meeting their own responsibilities as far as was possible.

That has particular reference to promoting employment, but it does not cover the whole field and it has even more especial reference to the relief situation.

One year ago last February and March I happened to be in charge of organizing the State of Ohio, county by county, excepting the larger cities, for just one purpose and that was to promote employment. We thought we could see the end; we thought we could see the line rising in at least 90 days. It did advance for two or three months and then it struck the toboggan. By last fall we had to have another element in our organization in that State, and that was the relief element and the more months that passed the greater part must relief play in the whole program.

I have a friend, a minister in a mid-western city, who preached a sermon last winter on unemployment. He had given a great deal of study to it. He was fairly well satisfied with his sermon because he had given it such careful thought. After the sermon one of the members of the congregation came up and said, "Doctor B—, were you ever out of a job and did not know where you were going to get one?" And he said, "No, I never was." The man continued, "Were you ever hungry and had no food in the house and had none for your family and did not know where you were going to get any?" The minister replied, "No, I wasn't." And the member of his congregation said, "I thought not."

This last winter many who had never before known what it was to be unemployed and in need were receiving relief. In many localities from 35 to 80 per cent of those being helped had never before received charitable assistance.

An active local committee means a great deal. First, it is close to the problems, and, second, it represents the leaders of the community in industry, in commerce, in agriculture where that was a factor, and in labor; the morale of the unemployed was maintained to a very much greater extent by reason of the fact that the leaders of the community were interested. Where it was said that nothing could be done, there discouragement was greatest.

Believing in the development of local responsibilities, both social and economic, we worked through the governors of the States. In some of the States committees were already in existence; in other States it was necessary to cooperate with the governor in organizing the State committees. In all cases the State committees included the various groups such as labor, industrial management, commerce, and agriculture, if an agricultural State. And then through the State organization the localities were organized.

I might say in passing that out of the 10 States with which I contacted, the governors changed in 5 of them in midwinter—in January. We had the finest cooperation, however, from those governors—both the outgoing governors that had but a short time to serve and the new governors coming in.

The committee, through its members who were skilled in the problems of industrial relations and through its members who were skilled in relief problems, maintained contact with trade associations

and with the larger employers throughout the country and with the more progressive groups of employers. The committee also served as a medium for exchanging helpful information between the several States and the many localities.

The committees working together in these localities and in the States have placed a new emphasis upon the interdependence of groups of people. This meeting is pretty far away from the industrial mid-west. But in the mid-west the farmers, as early as a year ago this spring, felt the unemployment situation in a new way, in that those who were unable to secure work in industrial centers had come back home without jobs and could not get them there. Some had come back to their own homes and some to the wife's home and they are still there. So that with this backward movement to the farms and with poor crops in many cases the unemployment situation is emphasized in rural areas.

In addition to the movement from urban communities to the farm there was a movement which took place very noticeably in many localities and that was a movement of the less fit to the urban localities in the belief that there was an advantage in being within reach of organized relief agencies.

In some sections of the mid-west there was a decided reduction or change in the economic status of the farm folk—the wage earners, the farm hands, became the recipients of charity in many rural communities where the drought was an important factor. The renter became a farm hand and the farm owner became a renter after losing his farm.

The first time that I had occasion to work through the South I was surprised to find that the cotton farmers did not have gardens, and they called my attention to the fact that they could raise cotton and were not interested in gardens. They could buy their vegetables and other food. In just the same way in many sections of this country the farmers have not given attention during the last few years to the care of their gardens and orchards. It will be necessary again to give attention to some of those things in order that the individual may become more nearly self-sustaining. In many industries it seems probable that the normal week will be shortened in the future and, therefore, we have set about to consider with industry and with agriculture in certain States the problems of industrial employment combined with family food production. In West Virginia there are thousands and thousands of gardens that have been promoted by the coal companies this summer. What they can raise on those gardens will be an important factor in relieving the situation this coming winter. As we have gone into the localities we have been confronted with such questions as these. In some of the territory in which I have worked we have a very serious problem of retraining where industries have been overexpanded or have moved out. In the bituminous coal sections you have creeks that have been abandoned, with scores of families in some of these settlements who are practically unable to better their economic condition. Under better conditions they were absorbed in industry, perhaps, but under present conditions they can not be absorbed without help.

Will you look forward with me just a bit to this fall and summer and next winter, which the committee faces? If we have five or six

millions out of employment this winter we will have cause to face plans in a more serious frame of mind so far as relief is concerned than we have ever faced a winter since the nineties, and we have no record of what the nineties meant—some of us know what they meant but we do not have the records of the conditions they faced. Now, I am just discussing the question of distress alone at this moment. The private givers are not in as good position to give as they were last winter. Corporations in some localities give liberally and in others not so liberally, and some have been in red ink and can not secure from their directors gifts with the same freedom as before. Those who have been dependent upon their income from investments will not be in as good shape to give as before because of reduced dividends. The wage earners as a group gave unusually liberally last winter but an increased number will not be in position to make contributions on a similar scale by reason of reduced earnings. Many of those who have accumulated wealth have heretofore been liberal givers but greatly increased amounts will be necessary from that group.

About 70 per cent of the family relief comes out of public moneys. Taxes in the mid-west are delinquent in a measure that we have not known for years and it is with difficulty that they are raising the money to pay salaries in some localities. Now, that is the situation we are facing for next winter so far as relief is concerned, and the committee this summer will be pushing as hard as it knows how to push in cooperation with associations throughout the United States in organizing localities to meet the relief situation wherever localities can. In some cases they may not be able to meet it.

We must build for the future and there are some responsibilities of government that we should face. Miss Van Kleeck touched on a part of it this morning and that is adequate information. We need information of two kinds in so far as employment is concerned—on employment and on unemployment. We need it badly because in good times we are governed by our hopes and in bad times we are governed by our fears. The chances of serious depressions would be greatly reduced if we had the facts and faced them. This is a responsibility of government—to see that we have adequate information, without bias. It should be the responsibility of government to retrain and to assist in readjusting some of these men and women who are left outside of the industrial currents. And then, too, the government should have a share in encouraging the stabilization of industry in every way possible. Stabilization rests largely with industry and with management, but without government aid it can not be effectively done.

Government should be responsible for the establishment of effective employment offices. There is very little conception of how important a part the employment office can play in a community. In one city in Ohio we find that in one industry between February 15 and March 15, 1929, the number of men employed in one plant increased by 268 and in another it was reduced by 246. That was in the same industry and in the same locality. In another establishment there was a reduction of 33 in the number of men employed and in a fourth establishment an increase of exactly 33 in the num-

ber of men employed during that 30 days. Those men did not change from one place to another quickly, but they walked the streets from gate to gate until they found their jobs; some found them quickly and others were a long time finding jobs. That was the condition in good times.

We will have little conception until we have figures, in addition to those now available, of the number of workers, men and women, who are out of employment even in good times.

Government also has a definite responsibility for developing public works in such a way as to dovetail if possible into industrial conditions.

Out of all this suffering and loss during the present depression there certainly must come some benefits. There is a determination on the part of management to overcome the extreme fluctuation in employment. That determination may arise from any one of three causes: First, as a matter of humanity; second, as a matter of good business; or, third, as a matter of the better way out because of fear that we may have ill-conceived legislation which will not fit the situation. But whatever it may be there is a determination on the part of management that better days shall come and they are turning their attention very seriously to stabilization.

We hope there is a determination on the part of the Government that there shall be an effective employment system, that there shall be accurate information concerning conditions available at all times, and that out of all this there may come a better day for our children and our children's children than that through which we have gone.

Chairman HUDSON. I would like the president to make an announcement in regard to the next speaker on our program.

President ROOKSBERY. Secretary of Labor Doak has sent Mr. Brunson of the Department of Labor here to represent him, and at this time Mr. Brunson will give us some of the facts pertaining to the set-up of the Federal and State Employment Service that has recently been inaugurated by Secretary Doak.

Employment Service of the United States Department of Labor

By H. L. BRUNSON, *of the United States Department of Labor*

I am privileged to bring to you the official greetings of the Secretary of Labor, the Hon. William N. Doak, and of his special assistant in direct charge of the Employment Service as its supervising director, the Hon. John R. Alpine.

It was not until immediately before my departure from Washington to bring these greetings that the Secretary found that important official duties would prevent his attendance, and about the same late hour the hopes of Mr. Alpine in that direction were surrendered under pressure of demand for his time and attention to administrative matters in connection with the development of the Employment Service.

Because of the unavoidable absence of these officials, you have to tolerate a substitute, which means, as during the World War, "take

what you get without complaint." I am with you, however, to make up, in a measure, some of the loss you sustained because of the circumstances; to give you whatever information I have relating to the functioning of the Employment Service; to offer to you, and through you to the several States and municipalities from whence you come, the fullest measure of cooperation, and to ask in return your active assistance in developing a worth-while employment service, nationwide in its scope.

This meeting is being held at a time when the whole world is suffering from the ills of an unprecedented and prolonged industrial depression, one of the tentacles of which is still firmly entwined about the apparently helpless form of our prostrated prosperity.

Throughout the land workers of every class and type are searching and pleading for the opportunity to exchange their labors for the necessities of life. Verily it is a time when most serious consideration and undivided effort must be given to the whole question of unemployment, or, conversely stated, to the matter of gainful employment for the masses.

The extent to which any public employment service can relieve unemployment is obviously limited to available employment opportunities and to the collection and issuance of helpful information in connection therewith.

The purposes of the United States Employment Service, as stated in the appropriation act, are "to foster, promote, and develop the welfare of the wage earners of the United States; to improve their working conditions; to advance their opportunities for profitable employment by regularly collecting, furnishing, and publishing employment information as to opportunities for employment; maintaining a system for clearing labor between the several States; cooperating with the Veterans' Administration to secure employment for veterans; and cooperating with and coordinating the public employment offices throughout the country."

In order to carry out these purposes, the following plan of organization has been adopted and is now in effect:

Acting under the immediate supervision of the Secretary of Labor, the administrative officer of the service is the supervising director. He is assisted by a director general, an assistant director general, and the following staff: Director of information, director of veterans' service, director of farm labor, seven superintendents of industrial activities, a State director of employment in each of the several States and the District of Columbia.

The director of the information service is responsible for the correlation of all employment information and for the preparation and issuance of such information to the public, through bulletins and otherwise, as may be useful to those seeking such information.

The director of the veterans' service gives special attention to the service rendered to veterans through the several employment offices, whether operated under the direction of, or in cooperation with, the employment service.

The director of the farm labor service gives special attention to the needs and requirements of agriculture in respect to the kind, type, and quantity of labor required in the various sections of the country for planting, tending, or harvesting of the various crops and directs

such surveys as may be considered necessary to develop such facts. He also acts as a clearing officer for the general direction of farm labor to the various sections of the country through the various offices—both directly operated and cooperative—to the end that information given to farm-labor applicants will be so directed by these various offices as to avoid maldistribution or the massing of an excess of labor where not required.

The superintendents of specialized industrial activities study the needs and requirements of the particular trade and occupational groups to which they are severally assigned, with a view to determining how adequately the work of various employment offices meet the best interests and requirements of the respective groups.

The benefits of these studies will be available to State organization and cooperating offices through our State directors.

State directors have been appointed in all but three of the States and appointments will be made in these States shortly. They are the representatives of this service in their respective States, with supervisory authority over all Federal employment offices therein, and represent the Federal Employment Service in all cooperative agreements with State and municipal employment services. They also collect and furnish the administrative office with employment information covering the industries in their respective States.

It is the purpose of the Employment Service to continue to maintain the present cooperative relationship with States and municipalities and to extend such cooperative activities as rapidly and as thoroughly as possible, tendering to the ranking officer of each cooperating office an appointment as special agent of the Federal Employment Service, which will entitle his office to the franking privilege for official employment service purposes and all the regular standard forms; letterheads and penalty envelopes will be furnished for like purposes.

The Employment Service of the United States Department of Labor has therefore something to offer in return for the cooperation it asks and is justified in expecting. The problem confronting the several States and the Federal Government is big enough and important enough to put aside all detracting questions and matters of minor importance in order that its solution may have the united efforts of all.

It is a problem full of economically sound humanitarian considerations, calling for the best that can be given. The Federal Government has put its hand to the plow and will not turn back.

The organization now in the building is not a temporary device, but a permanent institution—not for emergency, but for all time. All State, municipal, and civic organizations are earnestly implored to lend their help in the completion of the task. Through united endeavor and understanding cooperation, it can and will be done.

Suggestion is invited, wholesome criticism will be accepted, and challenge is not feared.

In the name of the Secretary of Labor you are invited to visit our administrative offices when in Washington and to address any inquiries to the supervising director of the service, Mr. John R. Alpine.

President ROOKSBERY. We have another speaker here this afternoon, who will make a report that was on yesterday's program. At this time we will be very pleased to hear from Mr. Ainsworth, assistant secretary of the American Standards Association.

REPORT ON THE STATUS OF SAFETY CODES (BY CYRIL AINSWORTH)

A9 (1929).—Building-exits code.

Representative, John Campbell, department of labor and industry, Harrisburg, Pa.

No new sections or revision of existing sections have been developed during the past year. There have not been sufficient criticisms of the 1929 draft to warrant extensive revision of this code up to the present time.

The sponsor, the National Fire Protection Association, has requested a change in statement of scope which will be submitted to the standards council of the American Standards Association for consideration at its next meeting on June 4. This new scope is as follows:

This code covers the construction, arrangement, and use of exit facilities necessary to provide safe means of egress from structures, together with such features of construction and protection as have bearing on safety of egress.

A11 (1930).—Code of lighting: Factories, mills, and other work places.

Representative, Charles H. Weeks, department of labor, Trenton, N. J.

A revision of this code was completed during the past year and was approved by the American Standards Association as American standard in August, 1930.

This code has been extensively distributed throughout the United States and copies have been sent to all regulatory bodies. The code contains a discussion of the necessity for good lighting as well as giving recommended values and minimum requirements for illumination for various classes of industrial buildings, work places, and for various operations.

There is an additional point of interest relating to this code which should be called to your attention. An inspector's manual is in course of preparation. This manual is designed to give assistance to inspectors in interpreting and applying the technical provisions of the code. It is easy enough to train an inspector to use a foot-candle meter, but if a good job of lighting is to be done, knowledge of the fundamentals of good lighting is also essential. It is hoped that the manual will assist in providing the inspector with these fundamentals.

A12.—Safety code for floor and wall openings, railings and toe boards.

Representative, E. J. Pierce, department of labor, New York, N. Y.

About a year ago a tentative draft of this code was widely distributed for the purpose of securing criticism. Very little criticism was received, however, either from industry or regulatory bodies.

The committee has held two meetings during the past year in order to prepare the final draft, which has been sent to letter ballot of the sectional committee. This letter ballot is about 75 per cent complete and it is expected that the sponsors, the National Safety Council, will submit this code to the American Standards Association for approval in the very near future.

A17 (1925).—Safety code for elevators, dumb-waiters, and escalators.

Representative, John P. Meade, department of labor and industries, Boston, Mass.

During the past year the sectional committee completed its work of revision of this project. This revision is primarily based on extensive research work conducted by the committee through the employment of a research associate.

at the United States Bureau of Standards. The research work centered principally in car safeties and buffers.

The new code is now before the sponsors for approval and it is expected that the code will be submitted to the American Standards Association for approval as American standard during the month of June.

A22.—Safety code for walkway surfaces.

Representatives, John Campbell, department of labor and industry, Harrisburg, Pa.; Harry E. Mackenzie, department of labor and factory inspection, Hartford, Conn.

The report rendered on this code a year ago indicated that the completion of the project might be anticipated during the year. This has not been possible due to the fact that without practical information concerning accidents due to faulty walkway surface construction and to the frictional resistance of walkway surface materials, a draft which will be enforceable and practical for use by regulatory bodies and architects can not be developed.

A tentative draft is now being prepared with the intention of having it printed and distributed with the recommendation that regulatory bodies, architects, building contractors, and manufacturers of walkway surface materials will endeavor to follow the requirements and submit the results of their findings to the code-drafting committee.

The period for practical application of the code will be for approximately two years, after which time a further attempt will be made to develop a final draft which can be approved by the American Standards Association.

B9 (1930).—Safety code for mechanical refrigeration.

Representative, M. H. Christopherson, New York State insurance fund, New York, N. Y.

This safety code, approved October, 1930, is one of the most important to be approved by the American Standards Association.

Copies of the code have been sent to all regulatory bodies and a special promotional booklet was developed for the purpose of promoting the use of the code throughout the United States. The booklet was distributed to city governments of all cities of over 30,000 inhabitants, to all technical trade magazines, and to the principal newspaper offices throughout the country. Requests for copies of the booklet and the safety code have been coming in steadily since the code was approved and many cities are now considering its adoption in their city ordinances.

A special subcommittee of the sectional committee has been appointed as a committee on interpretation. This is especially important to the regulatory bodies as questions are likely to arise concerning the proper interpretation of the requirements. All such questions should be referred, through the American Standards Association office, to this subcommittee. Decisions will be rendered in much the same way in which they are handed down by the boiler code committee of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers.

Questions of interpretation will form the basis for future revisions of the code.

B20 (1930).—Safety code for conveyors and conveying machinery.

Representative, John P. Meade, department of labor and industries, Boston, Mass.

Very little progress toward the completion of this project can be reported for the year 1930. Many of the sections of this code prepared by subcommittees have been completed but the preparation of the final draft of the entire code can not be undertaken until subcommittees of the remaining sections have finished their reports.

B30.—Safety code for cranes, derricks, and hoists.

Representative, Eugene B. Patton, department of labor, New York, N. Y.

Various sections of this code, prepared by subcommittees, have been completed but it will be impossible to undertake the preparation of a final draft until all of the subcommittees have submitted their reports. Very little progress has been made on this project during the past year.

Z4.—Safety code for industrial sanitation.

Representative, T. C. Eipper, department of labor, New York, N. Y.

The sectional committee for this project has been completely revised and the sponsor, the United States Bureau of the Public Health Service, has prepared a tentative draft which is expected to form the basis of the discussion by the committee. Sectional committee meetings will be called just as soon as the Bureau of the Public Health Service has completed some investigations which it has under way concerning various phases of this project.

The personnel of the sectional committee has been approved by the American Standards Association and the scope will be submitted to the next meeting of the Standards Council on June 4.

Z12.—Safety codes for the prevention of dust explosions.

Representative, W. J. Burke, fire department headquarters, Boston, Mass.

Two new sections of this code were completed during the year 1930. They are: Installation of pulverized fuel systems and prevention of dust explosions in coal pneumatic cleaning plants. Copies of both of these sections have been sent to all regulatory bodies.

This sectional committee is a permanent committee which will consider from time to time the development of new sections on the general subject of the prevention of dust explosions.

Z13.—Safety code for amusement parks.

Representative, T. C. Eipper, department of labor, New York, N. Y.

Considerable progress has been made in the completion of this project during the past year. Many of the subcommittees have submitted tentative drafts of various sections and these are being edited and correlated by the staff of the American Standards Association. The officers of the committee are hopeful that the code can be completed during the next six months.

The personnel of the committee has been approved and the following scope will be submitted to Standards Council for final approval at its next meeting on June 4:

Specifications and recommendations for the construction, operation, maintenance, and inspection of grounds, buildings, structures, devices, apparatus, and equipment to insure the protection of the lives and persons of patrons of amusement parks and amusement devices and the employees engaged in the operation of such parks and devices; but not to include the traveling carnival using portable equipment.

*B24 (1927).—Safety code for forging and hot metal stamping.**B28.—Safety code for rubber machinery.**Ca (1927).—National electrical safety code.**K13 (1930).—Code for identification of gas-mask canisters.**Li (1929).—Textile safety code.**X2 (1922).—National safety code for the protection of the heads and eyes of industrial workers.**Z8 (1924).—Safety code for laundry machinery and operations.*

The sectional committees of the above-named committees are inactive, as no revision of the projects have been found necessary.

Safety code correlating committee.

Representatives, T. P. Kearns, industrial commission, Columbus, Ohio; John H. Hall, jr., department of labor and industry, Richmond, Va.; John P. Meade, department of labor and industries, Boston, Mass.

A meeting of the safety code correlating committee was held last September in connection with the National Safety Congress at Pittsburgh. At this time consideration was given to reports of the executive committee, scope committee, and the committee on the promotion of the use of safety codes in industry.

Most of the work of the safety code correlating committee is carried on by these three subcommittees. All of the safety codes submitted to the American Standards Association for approval during the past year were referred to the executive committee of the safety code correlating committee in order that they might consider each one of the following points and make final recommendation to the Standards Council as to whether or not, in their belief, the code warranted approval by the American Standards Association:

1. The adequacy of representation of the various interests concerned on the sectional committee, with respect to the subject of this report.

2. The regularity and degree of unanimity of the action by which the new standard was adopted by the sectional committee and approved by the sponsors.

3. Any other facts, considerations, or background which seems to you to have an important bearing on the question of approval by the American Standards Association.

4. The desirability of submitting the revised code to letter ballot of the Standards Council for approval as American standard, based on your consideration of the above points (not on the technical details of the code).

All personnel lists and scopes have also been submitted to the executive committee in order that the recommendation of the committee can be sent to the Standards Council.

Of greatest interest to this association is probably the work of the subcommittee on the promotion of the use of safety codes in industry. This committee, under the chairmanship of Mr. J. A. Morford, of the National Industrial Conference Board, has been very active in bringing to the attention of a large number of trade associations, individuals connected with various classes of industrial establishments, and other special groups. For instance, a special meeting of the Queensboro (N. Y.) Chamber of Commerce was held last November, in which the whole program was devoted to the standardization work of the American Standards Association, with special emphasis on safety codes.

Arrangements have been made for several addresses delivered before various groups by the American Standards Association staff on the general subject of the use of national safety codes and as a result of this activity there seems to be a more general acceptance of the fundamental ideas back of the national safety code movement. This has been shown by the large number of requests coming in for information concerning the particular codes or the program as a whole.

In regard to the construction safety code, you will remember that the report rendered a year ago did not hold out much hope that the committee would be able to go very far. It is pleasing to be able to report that the committee is now actively at work. A chairman has been appointed, and six subcommittee chairmen experts in the line have been chosen to develop tentative drafts on the various sections and the project is going ahead for the first time in six years. This activity seems to have dissipated the objections that have been coming from various sources which have been the "nigger in the

woodpile" in preventing the development of this most important safety code. I think we can be hopeful that within a year something of real value will be developed.

There is a special point in reference to the development of American standard safety codes that I desire to bring to your attention at this time. I have discussed the national program with several of your representatives and find that there is a misunderstanding concerning the starting of projects under American Standards Association procedure. The American Standards Association does not initiate any projects. The program is entirely dependent upon the requests for the development of projects which come in from such associations as this, from trade associations, insurance groups, individual manufacturing companies, or individual persons. The national safety code program is coming very close to completion as far as the present projects are concerned. The expansion of this program is dependent upon requests for revision of present American standard safety codes or for the development of new ones. From this you will see that through your interest in accident-prevention work you have a responsibility both as an association and individually in making known your thoughts as to ways and means of further developing the national program.

DISCUSSION

Chairman HUDSON. I am going to ask your worthy president if he will preside from now on and take charge of the discussion and meeting in general.

President ROOKSBERY (Arkansas). We have had a wonderful program this afternoon and I am sorry we had to break in at this point, but Mr. Ainsworth has to leave here to-night, I am informed, and it was the only opportunity for this report.

I am going to ask Doctor Andrews, of New York, who is very familiar with the employment conditions and studies there, and I believe he is just the right one to get us back on the track of this unemployment program this afternoon, to start the discussion on that.

Doctor ANDREWS (New York). The subject that Mr. Ainsworth has just covered is to my mind a much neglected one still. We have now had about 20 years of important development of the administrative order system, which to a very considerable extent has taken the place of the old statute labor laws in this country, and until comparatively recently we have had no well-organized statement of what has been accomplished by that exceedingly important system of legislation. It is fortunate indeed that the American Standards Association has men well qualified to do the day-by-day work of following through with formulation and advertising of the standards that should be adopted more widely.

There is one phase of it that some of us have been working on rather intensively in the last three years, and that includes the procedure and the formulation of the orders, which some of us believe is important not only for the proper understanding of this new law by the employers and by the workers, and by the lawyers who represent the employers and the workers, but we also think it may be important later on, when perhaps some of these regulations come to

run the gauntlet of the courts, that the procedure be very carefully outlined and religiously followed, with a record properly made out for the future.

Of course it is unemployment which has overshadowed everything in this country in the last year and a half and that has placed burdens on all of us in addition to the burdens that we ordinarily have to carry. I think that you have had here to-day in the forenoon and afternoon sessions a remarkable foundation for understanding and discussion of what is to be done next. Personally I am very much interested always in what are the next steps, and here you have had the Federal Government representatives, State representatives, and the experts dealing with employment statistics outlining the development of this great problem and the machinery, the strategy, and the technique for handling it more intelligently during the coming years.

You all know, I believe, that we are not going to get so far ahead by repeatedly counting the unemployed under our present facilities, just as accident statistics got further along by having a universal system of insurance and reserve funds and comprehensive records of the problem. I remember that in New York State, where Dr. Leonard Hatch of your association was the very conscientious and able labor statistician for many years, he got as high as 90,000 industrial accidents reported in 1913 and we commended him very highly for that. The next year the compulsory accident compensation law went into operation and during the succeeding year we found that we had, not 90,000, but something like 225,000 accidents reported. So when we get a comprehensive system of health insurance or unemployment insurance we will be amazed at what we did not know about the problem before.

Mr. PLANT (Ontario). I would not like this session to adjourn without saying a few words in regard to the action taken by the Government of Canada in connection with unemployment relief. Two months after the election that was held in Canada last summer a special session of the Canadian Parliament was called for the purpose of making provision for the unemployed, and the Government appropriated \$20,000,000, \$4,000,000 of which was for direct relief and the remaining \$16,000,000 was for work which was to be undertaken and paid for jointly by the Dominion, by the Provinces, and by the municipalities. I want to give you just a few figures in connection with this problem and to show you the conditions under which the appropriation was made.

When the act was passed and following that, conferences were held between the Minister of Labor and the governors of the various Provinces, and agreements provided for in the regulations were executed with regard to expenditures for direct relief and public work and undertakings for the purpose of providing work for the unemployed. The agreements provided, in accordance with the legislation, for the payment by the Dominion Government of one-third of the relief undertaken by municipalities, the Provinces agreeing to contribute amounts equal to that paid by the Dominion. The agreements further provided that the Dominion pay one-half the amounts paid by the Provinces in unorganized districts. The agreements

also provided that there might be paid by the Dominion 25 per cent of the cost of public work and undertakings carried on by the municipalities to provide work for the unemployed, and the Provinces would provide like amounts for such undertakings.

The agreements further provided that the Dominion Government would pay one-half the cost of provincial public work carried on to provide suitable work for the unemployed.

As you know, there has been some agitation for years to have a highway across Canada, and they thought this was a favorable opportunity to extend that project. I might say in connection with wages, the Dominion Government has what it calls a fair-wage policy—that on all public work or work assisted by public funds the prevailing rate of wages must be paid to the workers; if there is nothing that can be considered a prevailing rate, then the Minister of Labor has the power to set what he considers a fair and reasonable rate—and of course the regulations provide for that.

Out of that \$4,000,000 that was set aside for direct relief, the Dominion was only called upon to spend something less than \$900,000—that was one-third—the Provinces and municipalities contributing like amounts.

The total cost of public work as a result of this \$20,000,000 appropriation amounted to over \$70,000,000, so that you can see that there was a lot of work carried on. This gave employment to 272,000 individuals up to the 14th of this month (May), and the number of days' work was 5,651,576. So you see that the Dominion endeavored to assist in the unemployment situation.

I might say, too, that the Dominion Government, of course, did not set up any committees to carry on the work of expending this money, but it undertook to use the established agencies such as the provincial parliament, which is an elective body, and the municipalities. In that way there was supervision over the work by the Provinces and also by the municipalities, so that I do not think we have made a very bad showing in the way of relieving the unemployment which was so acute during the past winter.

Some of these works, I might say, are not yet completed. The money was allotted but it has not yet been used. In the city of Ottawa we have an extensive sewer project which is now under way and will be for a few months yet, so that the money has not lapsed but all that has been allotted, or rather the amount that has been allotted, is less than the amount that was appropriated by Parliament.

(Meeting adjourned.)

THURSDAY, MAY 21—MORNING SESSION

E. Leroy Sweetser, Commissioner Department of Labor and Industries of Massachusetts

INDUSTRIAL SAFETY SESSION

Chairman SWEETSER. The program to-day is one of great interest to the Department of Labor, as it deals with men, women and children, and industry. It is a subject that I presume always will have great interest for us, but one to which we have to devote our best efforts if we are to prevent accidents and injury.

In this connection your committee decided to have one speaker that represented the manufacturer or the employer of labor and the department secured one of those employers of labor who are in earnest to protect their workers from injury. I may add that we have many employers in this Commonwealth who work hand and glove with the department to that purpose.

Unfortunately Mr. Tinsley, due to a sudden call to New York, could not be here in person; but he has sent his chief engineer who, he says, has a great deal to do with making their plant safe. I take pleasure in introducing as the first speaker, Mr. Nickerson, the chief engineer of the Crompton & Knowles Loom Works, Worcester, Mass. He has Mr. Tinsley's paper and he has added some things of his own to it.

Mr. NICKERSON. In the first place I might say that we manufacture looms for every type of woven fabric. That calls for quite a complete manufacturing establishment, so we get into all phases of the industry. For instance, we have a foundry with about 300 employees at the present time. Then we have a machine shop and press-work, woodworking—and in the woodworking department we have about 75 or 80 employees. In the whole shop at Worcester, including the office, there are about 732 people. That will give you a little idea of our problems.

Industrial Safety by an Employer of Labor

By HAROLD L. NICKERSON, of Crompton & Knowles Loom Works, Worcester, Mass.

To-day the manufacturer and governmental officials in industry have a common viewpoint, which is best expressed by a quotation taken from Lewis A. De Blois's book, "Industrial Safety Organization":

The purpose of the industrial safety movement is that the workman shall live to enjoy the fruits of his labor; that his mother shall have the comfort of his arm in her age; that his wife shall not be untimely a widow; that his children shall have a father, and that cripples and helpless wrecks who were once strong men shall not longer be a by-product of industry.

Governments and manufacturers had to pass through long periods of development before this community of interest resulted from their experiences. History is often helpful in showing how we arrived at our conception of conditions as they exist at present.

At one time nearly every want of man was supplied by his own hands or by bartering those things of which he had an excess beyond his needs for those things that others made beyond their requirements. This was true up to the beginning of the factory system in the sixteenth century. Under such conditions there was no responsibility for the safety of an employee, because there were relatively few employees other than slaves over whom the owner had the power of life or death. Conditions changed somewhat with the start of the factory system. This factory idea spread rather slowly, yet to such an extent that the health hazards created called forth the first textbook on occupational disease in 1710. Until the close of the eighteenth century practically no power-operated machinery was used. The last two decades of the eighteenth century saw the invention of machinery for spinning and weaving cotton, incident to the application of steam power, which was almost immediately made to the cotton machinery. In England, where these inventions and discoveries were made, an immense impulse was given to industry and caused a very rapid increase in the number of factories and enlargement of existing ones. This rapid development, which was naturally unregulated, resulted in many accidents and much occupational disease. The hours were long and children and women were given preference in employment.

While it was some time later before factories were started in our country, they drifted into the same dangers as did those of Europe. As time passed the dangers to life and limb attracted attention and it was recognized that something needed to be done. To remedy these conditions, laws were placed on the statute books limiting the number of hours that children might work; the age at which children might be employed; and the hours of work for women. Later on certain provisions for sanitation and safety were required, together with provisions for enforcing these laws. To-day we can judge the progressiveness of a State by the protection it affords its workers and by the practical limitations placed on the employment of women and children.

American factory industry is only a little over a hundred years old. When you look at the distance it has traveled since that time up to the present with its almost inconceivable production, the reason for the somewhat slow appreciation of importance of the human element becomes clearer.

The minds of men were coping with vast problems that clamored for solution and would not be denied. Steam, electricity, chemistry, rapid communication and transportation, immense natural resources, the pioneering instinct predominated in a great development in which the individual as such received small consideration.

The first organized effort to prevent accidents was made in Alsace Lorraine in 1867. The idea found immediate favor in the more progressive European countries, so that in 1910 one of these, at least, had completed a quarter century of organized accident-prevention work.

In America the first notable effort to prevent accidents was undertaken by the United States Steel Corporation in 1907. At the time of its organization in 1900 it inherited from the H. C. Frick Coke Co. the slogan, "Safety the first consideration," which had been an operating rule of the Frick Co. for a score of years by order of its president, Thomas Lynch. In 1910 the railroads commenced "Safety first" campaigning to bring within reasonable bounds the appalling accident toll from that source.

The safety movement started to assume a national scope in 1911 when a group of electrical engineers connected with the iron and steel industry met in Milwaukee to discuss the dangers to workmen in industry.

The workmen's compensation act was put into effect in this State in 1912. Massachusetts was one of the first States to provide for the protection of the workers in industry. This act has been revised from time to time as experience has shown that changes were necessary.

Having given you the history of the progress of the accident-prevention movement, I want to devote a few minutes to its practical application in our plant—the Crompton & Knowles Loom Works. Our way of handling the problem differs in some ways from the methods used successfully by other companies. We have found our method productive of good results in reducing the number and severity of lost-time accidents and in developing a safety consciousness in our employees.

First, let me state that I do not believe you are ever going to eliminate all accidents from a factory. This statement is based on the fact that practically every accident in our plant in recent years has been caused by the man's failure to observe due care. Human behavior can not be standardized like a machine operation.

There are two fundamental requirements in any successful accident-prevention program: (1) The management must be completely sold on the importance of the safety of the employee and the employee must know it. We have the absolute backing of our manager, Mr. Tinsley, who brought to us his knowledge of accident-prevention work as carried on by the United States Steel Corporation. (2) The responsibility for the safety of his men must be put on the shoulders of the head of the department in such a way that he can not fail to realize it if an accident occurs.

We have a unique method of charging the foreman for his accidents in the report for the performance of his department which is compiled at the end of each year. He is penalized in the section which rates him on his ability to handle men, and again in his costs by the compensation charges. To go more fully into how this is handled would require more time than I have at my disposal. Another thing we have found is that the ordinary shop safety committee interests itself more in bringing out minor shop housekeeping defects than it does in checking up for safe working practices, and in spreading safety education. Therefore, we have a central safety committee composed of the superintendent of the foundry, the plant engineer, the service manager, a general foreman, a foreman, and your speaker. This committee has four permanent members, the foreman and general foreman being changed each year.

The plant is divided into sections and one member of the committee inspects each section. Every two months the members are reassigned to new sections so that in a year we have six different opinions on conditions of equipment, guards, sanitary facilities, and following of safe practices in each section. This works out very satisfactorily.

We have very few safety rules. These are general in nature and are fundamental regulations that apply in any part of the plant. We expect the foreman to see that his men follow safe methods in doing their work. That is his responsibility and we do not let him share it with anyone. This prevents any alibis.

We investigate all lost-time accidents and other accidents where we believe there is some lesson to learn. Frequently we use the court of inquiry method whereby all those having any knowledge of an accident meet, go over it in minute detail, fix responsibility, and find out what can be done to prevent a similar accident from happening in the future.

One of the big advantages of our system is that we are organized to take immediate action of any serious hazard that arises. As I walk about the plant, workmen will come to me and point out hazards. This is immediately brought to the attention of the plant engineer who has the hazard eliminated in a short time.

We have a report from the hospital each month on all minor accidents that are treated. We study this for any indications of conditions that need correction. These are taken up with the foreman.

Our doctor cooperates with us and recommends men whose physical condition has reached a point where they should be transferred to a more suitable job. We have physical examination upon entrance into our employ and yearly or more frequent examinations of all employees over 35 years old. This is a great benefit to the man and to us in keeping him safely employed.

We use bulletins, talks to the men on the job, and safety articles in our employees' magazine, the "Loom Pickings," to help educate our employees in safe practices. We do not believe in campaigns or interdepartmental competition. We have tried them and have always found serious aftereffects in the form of infections from unreported injuries.

We follow up every case of a man reporting to the hospital for treatment whenever the injury was not reported immediately after it happened. We do this through the foreman. This gives him a chance to give the man safety instruction.

All new employees receive safety instruction from the service manager and from his foreman before he starts to work. The foreman follows this up by keeping in close contact with the man during his learning period.

I have given you the main points in our plan, which has secured good results for us. In 1923 we had 242 lost-time accidents. In 1930 we had 16 lost-time accidents—a reduction of 94 per cent. We started our records in 1918. The first three years we averaged 202 lost-time accidents per year. The next five years this average was reduced to 148, and in the last five years ending January 1, 1931, we have brought the lost-time accidents to an average of 36 per

year. In other words, in 10 years we have reduced our average for a 5-year period 82½ per cent. I believe that those figures are proof that our plan is producing good results in our plant.

The elimination of physical hazards in all progressive plants has been brought to such a standard that the latest figures show less than 10 per cent of the accidents have the machine as a contributing cause. Therefore, the problem of the safety organization is principally concerned with gaining the cooperation of every employee by educational means and in some cases by disciplinary measures. Of course, it is almost axiomatic that guarding against physical hazards must go on continually.

This brings us to the point where we come into contact with the industrial safety division of the Department of Labor and Industries of Massachusetts. We are not insured under the workmen's compensation act, but handle all accidents in accordance with the regulations of the act. Thus we do not have the advantage of frequent inspections by an insurance company's engineers. Therefore, we especially welcome the visit of the inspector for the State. Familiarity with conditions often acts to dim your appreciation of the hazards connected with the operation or process. Consequently, to aid us in our safety efforts, we get the opinion and counsel of the State inspector who is constantly visiting all kinds of manufacturing plants. We do not look upon the inspector as a spy or police officer, but rather as a valuable friend who has the same interest in the safety of our workmen as we have. I believe that this is and should be the viewpoint of every manufacturer.

I have given this rather lengthy description of the history of the accident-prevention movement and of how this work is handled in a modern manufacturing establishment, so that all of us will have the same understanding of what the history of this movement has been and how it works under actual shop conditions. I want you to have this information so that you may more easily follow the reason for my choice of points that I would look for in a factory if I were a State inspector, which it was suggested that I bring out in this paper.

The attitude of the management toward the safety of its workmen is one of the first things that I would want to determine. This is clearly shown by progress that is being made in the reduction of the number of accidents which I could check up from the record of accidents. I should want to see a brief history of each accident. From this I would note those in which a machine was involved and would ask to have the machines pointed out to me as I went through the plant to make sure that they were satisfactorily guarded.

The next thing I should check would be to find out if employment certificates were kept on file for all minor workers. Then I would check up the hours of work for women and minors. Naturally, as I went through the departments where women or minors worked, I would ask to see if the hours of work were posted and would watch for any violations.

Having secured the information mentioned previously, I would be ready to go through the plant to make a physical inspection. I should be interested to see that all machinery was guarded in accordance with the regulations which the departments such as you represent have ordered. In this same classification would come shafting

and belting, as well as the projecting set screw which can do so much serious damage. I should be on the watch for new hazards not covered by regulations to bring to the attention of the commissioners.

Places where a workman might come in contact with electric current, especially where voltage is as high as 220 volts, would be another point that I should be on the watch for at all times. I have found that machinery manufacturers do not always provide starting and stopping mechanism on motor-driven machinery which assures the safety of the workman from electric shock.

Another thing that I should want to investigate is the condition of the toilet and washing facilities to see that they were clean, in good repair, properly lighted, and properly ventilated. I should want to be sure that there were enough of these conveniently located to the working areas.

Ventilation is another subject that would interest me. This is an important point in any room where people work, but especially so in those places where dangerous fumes are present. To-day there are two dangers from fumes—those which are injurious to the health and those, such as the fumes from the volatile liquids and the lacquers, which are dangerously inflammable.

Good housekeeping is important in a plant from the safety viewpoint. Clean plants generally have the best accident records. Therefore, I should watch out for dangerously piled material; accumulations of rubbish, broken boxes, chips, and sawdust; wet, oily, and defective floors; and similar hazardous conditions.

The following of safe working practices by the employees would be another thing that I should be following as I walked through the plant. If I knew that the management of the plant had the right safety attitude, I would be doing him a favor by pointing out employees that were not obeying his safety instructions. If he did not have the right attitude, these would be additional ways of showing the need for taking the proper interest in the safety of his employees.

The use of personal safety equipment such as goggles, respirators, sand-blast helmets, leggings, safety clothing, welding shields, etc., should be checked by any inspector. Most modern plants provide every safety device that is necessary, but frequently workmen neglect to use them, feeling themselves immune to injury. By pointing out these cases you give the plant safety engineer an additional lever to use in converting them to ways of safety.

No doubt the regulations that you have in effect now cover the field quite fully, as you have probably noted these points which I have made are right in line with them. That is true because this inspection of factories has reached a standardized condition. However, we are traveling fast in the developing of new methods and processes, new machines and new methods of transporting material. Higher speed is constantly demanded. These all bring their problems which must be met. I believe that I am safe in saying that the machinery manufacturers are giving us machines which are more completely guarded to-day than ever before, with the guards an integral part of the machine, making unnecessary those cages of iron and wire mesh that so detract from the looks of a department. It is to these rapid changes, however, that I believe we must give our greatest attention if we are to prevent the serious calamities, such

as the hospital fire in Cleveland, the shoe finding plant in Lynn, and the Briggs Body Plant in Detroit.

In closing I want to take the opportunity to state that our contact with the inspector of the State department of labor and industries, Mr. John D. Hassett, has been most pleasant. We have found him ever willing to cooperate with us in our efforts to make our plant a safe one in which to work. He has frequently given us information or told us where we could get information to help solve our problems. I am sure that we have him to thank for some of our progress.

Chairman SWEETSER. We have enjoyed the paper by Mr. Nickerson very much. It is an example of plant management that believes in safety. We have had the additional information from him of what he should do if he were a sanitary inspector. Of course, the value of those words is more appreciated by inspectors, and that is the reason the commission has taken advantage of the subject to-day by having all our industrial inspectors present.

The next speaker does not need any introduction to those of us who are members of this association. He is one of the outstanding men in this country, and I am glad Miss Perkins is here to hear what he has to say in regard to the enforcement of labor laws, especially those relating to safety, industrial safety, and the safeguarding of the men, women, and children. His whole life has been devoted to that subject; he has the splendid experience of having been in charge of the inspectors of the great State of New York. He is practical and hard-headed. I heard Ethelbert Stewart say at one of our conventions that there are three outstanding men in this country in the enforcement of labor laws in a common-sense, practical way. These are Mr. Gernon, of New York; Mr. Roach, of New Jersey; and Mr. Meade, of Massachusetts.

To take advantage of the presence of Mr. Roach and Mr. Gernon, a special meeting is to be held to-day, at which I asked them to talk to my industrial inspectors and to say anything to them except praise them.

Almost 12 years ago when I was appointed to this position I wanted the best information I could get. I went to Mr. Gernon and I went to Mr. Roach. They gave me all the time and attention that I needed and they have done so ever since. If you ever want any information on any subject those two men will be glad to help you and assist you at any time. New York has always been willing to help every State in the Union. I take great pleasure in introducing Mr. Gernon of New York, who will talk from an employer's standpoint.

Mr. GERNON. The previous speaker said a few things that were very interesting, and before I read my paper I would like to cover them to show what we are doing along the same line as he, in one instance.

He spoke of the machine that was delivered by a manufacturer and not properly guarded. Fifteen years ago we conceived the idea of having all of our inspectors report every new machine they found in industry—that is, a machine that was installed after the last inspection made in the plant. If that machine was unsafe, he had to

make a special report to me, and I wrote to the manufacturer. I can not tell you how many thousands of letters I have written in those 15 years, but it is encouraging to say that at the present time I do not have to write 500 letters in a year. The way in which the manufacturers have responded is remarkable. In only three instances in the 15 years have the manufacturers taken exception to our questioning of the machine. Then we sent them a second letter in which they were politely informed that our law was sufficiently strong so that should they not make their machine safe, and should they install any more in the State of New York, we would put the "unsafe" tag on the machine. That usually brings them around.

It must be said to the credit of manufacturers of machinery in this country that they are willing to do the things that the law requires. It is remarkable that men develop machines as efficient as many of them are, and still we have factories in an unsafe condition, because the genius that developed the machine was not applied to the safety of it.

The previous speaker talked of man failure. If I sensed his talk right, he seems to feel that you can not correct man failure. I do not agree with him. I believe man failure in industry can be remedied to a great extent, and it is man failure that is multiplying our industrial injuries. But do not blame it all on the man who gets hurt—that is the point we must keep in mind. This man failure may be on the part of the foreman, the superintendent, the owner, or the man himself. In addition to suffering all the pain and penalty in connection with industrial injury the poor unfortunate usually has to take the blame as well. The insurance companies tell us that it is carelessness; but, it is not always carelessness.

The schools to-day are failing to give the child enough education in the use of its body to make it safe anywhere. Should the child leave the school and go into industry, it does not know how to use its body so as to be safe; and this does not stop with the child, as the previous speaker demonstrated, but it goes on through his adult life and into the factory. His company, very wisely, instructs employees in the hazards of the operation. However, my contention is that the instructions do not go far enough to teach the man that there is a hazardous point on the machine that he must reach in a certain way to avoid overstrain. It is my belief that until we approach industrial injuries and their prevention in the way outlined in my paper, we are not going to reduce them in the groups other than machinery.

What I Would Do, Based on My Experience, to Make Work Places Safe Were I Employer or Owner

By JAMES L. GERON, *Director Division of Inspection, New York State Department of Labor*

If I were an owner or employer with the experience that has been acquired from enforcing safety and sanitary laws, I would know that if my employees were trained in the proper method of creating the products manufactured, it would reduce injuries and that such a policy would be to the best interests of the business, especially if the

employees were properly instructed in the correct and safe methods of performing their various duties.

Believing in the necessity for proper instruction and training of employees to promote safe conditions, naturally I would exercise intelligent effort relative to the arrangement and equipment of the working places in and about the plant in order to provide safety, comfort, and real welfare for those employed. At least I would give as much attention and consideration to the selection, training, and comfort of the employees as I would to the manufacturing equipment, the purchasing of raw material, and the sale and distribution of the products manufactured.

In the work which we as enforcing officers are doing we have some varied experiences relative to the different types of manufacturing and mercantile establishments, and while we have the opportunity of seeing and observing all kinds of establishments, varying from good to bad, we know most of them should be financially successful. It makes one marvel that many of them are as successful as they are when there is every evidence of their failure to conduct their businesses in a manner that would promote the best interests of the employer and employees.

In our efforts to secure proper industrial safeguarding or sanitary conditions, we have all heard the worn-out arguments such as "We are not making money," "We can not afford the cost," and other statements too numerous to mention. Everybody desires that employers make money, but even if they are not making money or if they are unable to afford the cost of proper industrial conditions, they have no right to conduct an industrial establishment in such a manner that the health, safety, or comfort of the employees is placed in jeopardy.

If industry has learned anything in the last decade it is that the cost of equipment to provide for the health, safety, and comfort of employees is money well invested, for it provides an increase in production and larger profits.

What would I do as an employer to provide safe and healthful conditions of employment? First, make my plant safe and sanitary so as fully to protect employees; second, carefully select my employees for the various types of work; thoroughly train employees in the proper methods or technique of their respective duties in the scheme of production; carefully instruct employees as to the hazards to which they are subjected by reason of the industry carried on, and of the necessity for observing safety rules and methods of working so as to protect themselves and the other employees.

By carefully selecting employees I do not mean physical examination of employees as a condition of employment. In many industrial establishments the policy of physical examinations is farcical if not vicious as it is conducted. In numerous instances capable employees are rejected while inexperienced or incapable recruits are accepted. But it is both farcical and vicious to require physical examination as a condition of employment and then to make no effort to apply corrective medical treatment of employees. It is more than vicious for employers to claim the right of selecting the most physically fit among prospective employees by means of physical examination while they maintain conditions in their plants which are neither safe

nor healthful, but are a menace to those employed, and they are exposing employees to physical ailments for which they are rejecting new applicants for employment.

After I did all the things relative to plant safety and the selecting and training of employees, I would make it a practice when any inspector came to my plant to welcome him as cordially as any business associate having business there, and instead of turning him over to some other person I would take time to accompany the inspector as he visited the different parts of the establishment. In this way I would observe at first-hand the things which the inspector considered needed correction; and if there were any good reason why the conditions could not be corrected, I would discuss them then and there. If the changes were necessary, I would take immediate action to correct conditions.

Employers should realize that the inspector, when properly enforcing the law, may cause changes to be made which will mean the expenditure of a large amount of money, and because of this authority the inspector is as important an individual as many persons who visit the plant. The practice is far too common with plant owners and executives of failing to accompany the inspector through the plant. Some owners and executives would learn much about their plants if the practice of going through the plant with a trained inspector were more general. If this were done some of these owners and executives would learn of conditions which they would not tolerate—at least they would not if they were real business managers.

Many employees are injured because of their failure to master the art of performing the hazardous work at which they are engaged. You may say, what art is there to such work that employees need instructions? Please remember that there is a technique to even what is called common labor—if there be any such thing—and if you do not know the art or technique of the work you are subject to injury. Therefore, proper instruction is essential. It may include correct posture or the proper movement of the body. Injury may be due to lack of training, or to the worker having defective vision, insufficient strength, or over-fatigue, or it may be the result of improper flooring, poorly stored or stacked material, or defective tools. These are but a few of the many basic causes responsible for injury which are too often attributed to carelessness of employees.

What plant owners and executives of the present day should know is what is really causing the industrial injuries in their plants. They should not be satisfied with a report that an employee fell and was injured, but rather, why did he fall—was it the condition of the floor, or was it the condition of the man's feet, or was it due to the condition of the shoes he was wearing? After they know the real cause of injuries they will be in possession of information which will enable them to adopt proper preventive measures. Knowing the real causes of injuries they should be humane enough to provide the proper means to reduce them to the minimum.

Each foreman should be required to submit a complete report of of each industrial injury to demonstrate if it were really an accident or carelessness in failing to carry out instructions. These reports should be examined critically by the owner or executive to determine if the injury were avoidable. Were the working conditions proper or did the foreman fail to direct the work properly?

The executives can not escape their responsibility, but they are helpless without the aid and cooperation and assistance of the supervisory force under their direction. They must depend on them to see that the employees generally do their part. If owners and executives do their part completely in promoting safe and healthful working conditions they will secure the cooperation of the employees; and should any employee fail to cooperate with the management in maintaining safe and healthful conditions such person is a menace to himself and to the other employees, and his services should be dispensed with until he learns to perform his part in a well-conducted industry.

What is causing injuries in industry? It would be difficult to answer this, because even in States where the records of injuries are complete the information furnished in the reports of injuries is not sufficient to determine properly the correct cause of the injury.

We do know the number of cases and the cost of compensation paid, and for our purpose the figures of New York State will illustrate what is occurring in industry.

Number and cost of compensated accident cases closed in the year ending June 30, 1930

Kind of disability	Number of cases	Number of weeks awarded	Amount of compensation
Death.....	1,308		\$8,040,626
Permanent total.....	40		696,202
Permanent partial.....	22,394	967,007	17,664,583
Temporary.....	86,106	517,880	8,842,292
Total.....	109,848	1,484,887	35,243,703

Increase in compensated accidents, by cause groups

Cause of accidents	Number of cases closed in the year ended June 30—		Per cent of change, 1929-30 compared with 1925-26	Compensation, 1929-30		
	1926	1930		Total amount	Average cost per case	Average weeks per case
Handling objects and tools.....	35,145	39,103	+11	\$7,433,458	\$190	4.9
Handling objects.....	27,575	31,188	+13	5,687,278	182	5.3
Hand tools.....	7,570	7,915	+5	1,746,180	221	3.4
Falls of workers.....	18,278	21,813	+17	9,158,560	430	8.7
Falls to a different level.....	9,024	10,210	+13	6,172,074	605	11.1
Falls on the same level.....	9,254	11,103	+20	2,986,486	269	6.8
Mechanical apparatus.....	16,326	17,140	+5	7,040,833	411	5.3
Machinery, prime movers, etc.....	13,555	13,836	+2	4,848,705	350	4.1
Elevators, hoists, and conveyors.....	2,771	3,304	+19	2,192,128	663	10.7
Vehicles.....	8,932	9,686	+8	5,001,265	516	6.7
Falling objects.....	6,447	6,824	+6	2,477,660	363	7.9
Dangerous and harmful substances.....	5,456	6,032	+11	2,162,758	359	5.0
Electricity, explosives, heat, etc.....	4,019	4,366	+9	1,673,135	383	4.3
Harmful substances.....	1,437	1,666	+16	489,623	294	6.7
Stepping on and striking objects.....	4,273	5,187	+21	640,409	123	3.7
Other or indefinite.....	4,816	4,563	-5	1,328,790	291	5.1
Total, all causes.....	99,673	109,848	+10	35,243,703	321	6.0

These New York figures are clearly indicative of what is occurring in each State of the United States.

What do the New York State figures demonstrate? They show that machinery is responsible for but 17,140 of the total of 109,848 injuries, while four other groups show the following:

Handling objects and tools.....	39, 103
Falls of workers.....	21, 313
Falling objects.....	6, 824
Stepping on and striking objects.....	5, 187
Total.....	72, 427

These four groups are causing 65 per cent of the total number of injuries, while machinery is causing but 15 per cent. There is some significance in these figures, for when we realize the vast amount of machinery used in New York State, and apprehend that this is a machine age with more work done with mechanical power than ever before, we must awaken to the fact that attention should be given to the correction of conditions which are causing the injuries. It is in these four groups where great reductions in accidents can be made. And there will be a reduction in these groups and in all others when industry has intelligence enough to maintain their industries properly and to instruct or teach their employees how properly and safely to perform their duties.

I wish it were possible to cover more fully the subject of teaching and training employees, but it can not be done in the time allowed me.

What is occurring in these four groups clearly demonstrates that industry has a real job on hand if it will do it, and it may be that before it will do what it should the State will have to give greater power to enforcing officers to correct conditions in industry which are causing a very large percentage of the injuries indicated in these four groups. Unfortunately in many instances there is no law which will empower an inspection force to correct many conditions which are the primary or basic cause of industrial injuries. To illustrate one condition, there is not ample power to require the spacing of machines, tools, raw or finished products. Overcrowded conditions are responsible for injuries in all four of the groups named above, but there is no limit to what the plant owner or manager can do to promote safety and sanitation, and thus improve working conditions.

I am not advocating that inspectors be given more power, but we must realize that some employers do not know all they should about safe methods of working. Others will not do things to improve working conditions until compelled to do so, but this is not true of the large majority, who are willing to do things which are required by law. But this is not enough. What is happening in industry is an indictment of industrial management as a whole. Particularly is this so in the industries which have avoidable injuries. Personally, I would prefer to have industry teach the proper methods of performing the work of the particular industry. This is important, for after all is said and done the people conducting the industries should know the technique of the work of their industry better than anyone else, and are therefore the proper people to assume the task. It is their responsibility and they are remiss in their duty to humanity if unnecessary injuries occur.

The record of industrial injuries is a challenge as to their ability properly to conduct industry. The question arises: Will they do the job or must the State make them do it? As good business men they should change the records, for we all concede that present industrial injuries cost too much money, to say nothing of the suffering and misery they cause.

One of the first things we should insist upon is that a better method of reporting industrial injuries be instituted so that we shall at least learn the real cause of the injuries. This will enable industry to learn just what are the responsible causes for industrial injuries. With this knowledge we will be in a better position to apply the remedial measures to reduce them in those groups of injuries which furnish a fertile field for success.

Chairman SWEETSER. I know the people here appreciate very much Mr. Gernon's paper in which he represented the other side of the question. It has been the policy of the Department of Labor of Massachusetts in its industrial safety work to take advantage at all times of all outside help that it could get to prevent injuries and to educate the people. We keep in touch with all safety committees; with all manufacturer organizations; with labor organizations as well as insurance organizations; and also with safety councils. We receive a great deal of help from all these organizations and especially from the Massachusetts Safety Council, which does some wonderful work toward the prevention not only of accidents in industrial plants but also of automobile accidents and accidents in the home.

Mr. MacBrayne of that organization is going to talk to us about what it is doing and what it has accomplished as far as industrial safety is concerned, the object being to call to the attention of the governmental officials in those States which do not have safety councils or that do have safety councils and do not take full advantage of them to do so.

I take pleasure in presenting Mr. Lewis E. MacBrayne, secretary of the Massachusetts Safety Council.

How the Massachusetts Safety Council Assists the Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industries

By LEWIS E. MACBRAYNE, *General Manager Massachusetts Safety Council*

Noting, as I began the writing of this address, the many States represented on your program for this convention, it occurred to me that not all of our State capitals are located in the cities where there is a safety council affiliated with the National Safety Council. A word of prelude may be necessary, therefore, to make my talk intelligent to all of you.

The Massachusetts Safety Council is a voluntary organization, comprising the leading industrial and public-service corporations of the State and also several thousand individual members. It has been at work for 10 years on the three problems of accident hazards in industry, in public places, and in the home. Its program is built upon the premise that most accidents occur through a lack of knowledge of a hazard, or lack of individual responsibility, in facing a

known accident situation. We are interested in statistics only as an indicator of what is happening. Our endeavor has been to dramatize the accident in its relation to the man, woman, and child. The hazard, as we see it, is not a fixed object that you can approach and remove readily. Nor is it an act of God or of chance. It is something to be studied in its relation to the ever-changing conditions of flow of traffic on the highway, of new processes in industry, of the new inventions brought into the home. It is something to be studied in relation to the human element involved; the person of slow mental reaction, of perpetually careless habits, of physical defect.

With this general statement of purpose, you can readily see what our relation should be to our department of labor and industries. Our purpose as a safety council, clearly stated in our by-laws, is to "stimulate and coordinate safety activities throughout the State." When we began our work these activities, so far as industry was concerned, were limited to inspections made by men and women sent into the plants by the department, safety work carried on by insurance company engineers, and the efforts of plant safety committees in some of the larger corporations. I am free to say that 10 years ago the average works manager looked upon the State inspector as a necessary evil, the insurance engineer with some suspicion, and the safety committee as a doubtful experiment. To-day this has changed. These groups have been meeting for years now at the monthly industrial dinner meetings of the Massachusetts Safety Council. We know the State inspectors by their first names. They, in turn, have seen foremen and overseers travel from 40 to 60 miles, after the day's work, in order to hear the discussion on some new accident problem. The insurance engineer, technically trained, has made his contribution to the general fund of information. We have all learned the relation of our own work to that of the other fellows, and have understood the advantage of giving them our cooperation.

Throughout the 10 years of our existence as a council, the commissioner of labor and industries has been an active member of our board. There is no political aspect to this relationship. We do not take part in legislative discussions. We recognize in this department something permanent and important to the welfare of the State. It asks no favors of us and we in turn work on the joint constructive programs to which all of our members can subscribe.

Let me illustrate this with the story of the state-wide interplant contest, in which nearly 200 corporations, employing in good times about 100,000 workers, are reporting their accidents to us monthly, in an effort to lower their 1931 accident records. This is the third year of this contest, which with cooperating agencies in the central and western part of the State has a total registration of 317 corporations and 140,000 workers. The first organization meeting, for each contest, is always held at the statehouse on a call sent out by the commissioner, who presides. All of the insurance companies writing industrial business are represented at this meeting and constitute the follow-up committee that gets to work after the enrollment blanks have gone out to the corporations. We all talk of the value of this contest to industry while it is being organized. The department points out the decrease of 700 accidents last year among the plants entered, and stresses its own interest in making working conditions safer for the Massachusetts worker. The insurance engineers argue

the value of competition with a group that has an equal hazard; for the plants entered are given one of five classifications, so that the chocolate plant does not by any chance find itself competing with the foundry. The safety council promises to issue a monthly bulletin with analysis of the accident reports, a monthly banner to group leaders, and other material to plants operating without an accident.

These monthly reports are of great value to the contestants, because they serve to show the trend of accidents in the State. Let us take the report for last month (April), for example. The corporations reporting averaged 14 accidents per million hours worked and about a half day lost for each thousand hours worked. This was the highest frequency rate for three months, but the lowest severity rate. There were 64 corporations that had completed three months without a lost-time accident. But the most important item in this report was the statement that back strains and hernia had increased from 32 to 43 in a month's time. This was the tip to all safety committees in the contest to watch out for this type of accident, which increases during a period of industrial depression. Unless it has compared its own record with those of similar plants, an industry may be quite satisfied with itself, and believe that its experience, however poor, is the average. This has been the attitude of many corporations as your own inspectors have gone into the plant and ordered changes. Usually this type of industry has measured accidents only by fatalities, and where these have not occurred, they have not attributed much importance to the order given by your man to correct conditions that may result in an accident. To a certain degree, your department, in whatever part of the country it may be, is handicapped by the fact that it can not pause to create public opinion in support of its own policy. It can prosecute where there is a serious violation of State regulations, but the larger results as we all know are to be obtained where industry has confidence in its State departments, and cooperates with them.

It is in creating this opinion that the safety council can be of practical service to you. Suppose that we learned of a plant manager who did not consider safety work necessary in his shop because nobody had been killed in three years. We would be able to show him—and possibly at one of our meetings to which he had been invited without knowing our real purpose—that the total cost of a series of nonfatal accidents would far exceed in cost the occasional fatality. But more than that, we would manage somehow to make known to him that were he a foreman in several of the leading industries to-day, and in line for promotion to works manager, his department accident record would be scrutinized closely when his name was up for consideration, and if it was found that he did not attribute much importance to safety work, this fact might prevent his advancement.

I could name one corporation operating in four States, and known to you all, that conducted an interplant contest of its own last year. All its shops began to show an improvement except one. At the end of three months its high accident record stood out conspicuously, though this fact did not worry the plant manager. At the end of six months, however, he received notice from a vice president in charge of safety operations that his accident record would come down or there would be a new manager. It came down.

The safety council, because it is able to study this problem from an angle slightly different from your own, is able to sell the idea to management on the ground of good management or of reduced production costs.

A rather interesting study was recently made in the State of Connecticut, based on the reduction of highway accidents for two years. The serious accidents go up and down in proportion to all accidents as they do in industry. The point of attack is not that we had so many killed this year or that because we had fewer killed we are so much better off; it is that general conditions are causing an increase or decrease in accidents. Of course, that is exactly the problem in industry.

It seems to be a part of our job as a council, when we are advised by the insurance companies that there is a need for creating public opinion, to get into the game and try to inform the public about it.

Last year we discovered a marked improvement in the number of accidents; they seemed to be going down. We became suspicious and found that in the counties they were concealing some of the accidents. They said, "Our man was in no way responsible"; consequently, they did not want to call it an accident. I think the prize one was where a man hit a post and knocked it down, damaging his machine slightly. They said the post was rotten, and that if it had been a perfectly sound post it would not have been knocked down. We said, "Supposing it was a pedestrian; we would say nothing about his being a sound pedestrian or a weak pedestrian"; and they agreed that just as he had hit the post he might have hit a pedestrian.

We found one corporation that thought it was very good, as it was averaging about 28 per cent above others with the same hazards. We went in there, and it reduced its accidents, which were already below normal, entirely by bringing the drivers in and discussing with them why accidents happen. There was a milk company in Connecticut which said last year, "We are going to deliver our milk at 4 in the afternoon and you will always have the morning cream on it." This was abandoned in three months because of the increased cost of accidents which wiped out all the profits. The delivery men had been driving when nobody was on the highway; thereafter they came in the afternoon in the most congested traffic and finished at 5.30, and their accidents showed a great increase.

Not long ago I made a study of the accident experience of several of our textile plants. If you know anything about the cotton and woolen industry, I need not tell you that it has been through desperate times in the past few years.

When I had compiled the figures on this study I found two distinct groups. The plants with a low-accident experience were operating with a reasonable degree of success; those with a high accident rate were running on part time and at a loss. Those that could not afford to pay for any accidents, for example, were having plenty of them, thereby adding to the cost of production.

Recently I examined the year's accident record of a corporation that had just gone into the hands of a receiver. Its accident costs had been far above the average for its class. A closer study of its problem disclosed the fact that no money had been spent to carry out recommendations made by its safety committee to prevent accidents.

This failure in one single instance had caused two additional accidents resulting from a physical defect. Here was a sinking ship, so to speak, that had refused to stop its leak for fear it might sink.

What are your State inspectors learning about industry in relation to its accidents in this year of serious business depression? Not as much as the safety council is learning, I will wager.

Industry can not afford to spend a cent this year for anything that can be postponed. It will be excessively polite to you for that reason. It will beg to be let alone. But we know of industrial nurses who have been discharged to save expenses; and we know this to be false economy. We hear about safety committee chairmen who have ceased to make recommendations, though we know what this cost the corporation that went into the hands of a receiver. Our job this year is to redouble our efforts, knowing that the problem is beyond your inspector's jurisdiction. A few days ago we held in this hotel our largest State safety conference in 10 years, and we built the program about the question "Should we reduce plant safety work in a year of industrial depression?" The chairman of your session to-day presided at our most important session. His State inspectors were in the audience, and mingled later with the representatives of industry. So I need not argue further concerning the relation of my own safety council to our State department of labor and industries. We see eye to eye in this matter; and we work side by side.

At the present time the situation in industry owing to the depression is such that I question whether the inspector can give direct help, yet it has increased the council's opportunities for service. A number of my staff went into a plant only last week and found a girl who had been in charge of personnel now in charge of safety work and personnel and a third division. This girl was on the verge of a breakdown; she could not sleep nights. This plant, which is losing money, had begun to discharge people and it said to this particular young woman, "You do her job and her job"—possibly the two could be combined into one job, but not a third. I am afraid we are going to find this condition in other places where they are so frightened at the losses that they are cutting, and then cutting again, leaving people not only in a nervous state but making them liable to more accidents.

There is a definite point of efficiency and, if you go below that, you are going to wipe out all you saved on one side of the pay roll by losses on the other. I know one corporation that let a highly efficient nurse go. Our staff member knew that that girl had the confidence of the employees and was preventing accidents. In the three months which followed her dismissal, the accidents increased in cost two or three times over the salary of the girl. Then we went to the management and said, "As a friend of yours and as a service to a member, put her back in charge of this work. You might as well send your fire-prevention committee or stop using hose. If an emergency arose there would be no one there to take care of it." Such a situation is going to give us an upward trend in accidents. On the other hand, we have found many plants with a lowered record during the past six months because apparently the job has

become more desirable; the people are now anxious to hold their positions. We are watching these things, and the hazards we are working under are more difficult, but with intelligent cooperation we will be able to get results. Frankly, few industries are willing to spend money this year. Yet it is your job and mine to convince industry that economy is not in the dollars that are being paid out but in those that are being saved through decreased losses.

DISCUSSION

Chairman SWEETSER. If there are any delegates who desire to ask questions or say anything upon these subjects on which we have been addressed, they may do so now before we hear the next speaker.

Mr. IMMEL (Pennsylvania). I wish to say that we have gone right ahead in Pennsylvania and further developed the committee on educational work and safety inspection. We do not agree with the notion about the foreman being the key man in industrial safety. It is certain that if by "key man" is meant the one man who in industry could open the door to safety, that man is the owner and plant manager rather than the foreman. The foreman occupies the position of sergeant in the army, and while occasionally you will find a sergeant with a sufficient degree of initiative and responsibility to carry on without the commander to direct him, it is comparatively rare.

The other day in a Pennsylvania city a prominent manufacturer, who a few years ago had one of the worst safety records in the State, on his own initiative called together at a dinner 65 representatives of industry in that community. There was not a man in that group who held a lower position than that of general manager. Many owners of plants were there. He told them what safety had done for him in the few years past and there inaugurated a branch safety council for that city. The point I want to make is that that owner, that employer, had safety sold to him by the bureau of inspection of the Pennsylvania Department of Labor and Industry and it is by selling safety to chief executives that we make our greatest progress.

We, of course, try not to neglect any of the enforcement responsibilities that are imposed upon us. We are very conscious of them. In Pennsylvania last year, in addition to doing that we found time to apprehend and convict a group of swindlers operating under the guise of State factory inspectors, whom New York, New Jersey, and Ohio had all been anxious to get. We believe fully in this department of safety education, and through the bureau of inspection its functions are extended to teaching management the importance of safety in Pennsylvania. And we predict, General Sweetser, that in a year or two we will probably come to you for ideas, as we know of the splendid work you are doing up here.

Mr. GERNON. It would be foolish to have a foreman as key man if the head of the plant was not sold to safety. There is no reason why the foreman should assume all the responsibility, but I will tell you what we are coming to and of course we move slowly. The time will come when either the owners or the foremen or somebody will have to be responsible for the conditions in industry which are causing injuries.

There are unsafe conditions that exist in plants which are properly guarded—there are conditions of work that can not be guarded; you can in a few minutes make a condition that is hazardous to everybody.

Take building-construction work—we have a new code on building construction in New York. The other day the members of the general committee met and said they would provide a rule that the work must be done under proper supervision. As an enforcing officer I asked what that meant and they said, "Just what it reads." "Well," I said, "you might as well take it out, it does not mean anything; it does not say who is responsible." So they followed the language of the law which provides that the owner or the contractor—the employer—is responsible. We must realize that the employer may be a very busy man and that he may not be on the job, but under our law he is responsible for the action of his employees. If I were running an industry, I would say to the foreman, "Here, Mr. Supervisor, you are supervising the employment of 20 men; unless you protect these men, you can't work for me." That is the way I would put the responsibility on him. I have been a foreman in my time and that was my responsibility. I have seen men discharged because they were injured, because they would not use guards provided for the work. We have the power in New York State to prosecute an employee for failing to use a guard that is provided. If we did that we would be in court all the time, because the foreman will let the man operate the machine without the use of a guard.

What is a foreman's duty? Why do they hire him? They hire him to direct the work. If he is not capable of directing the work he is not capable of being a foreman, and the directing of the work is a protection to these men just as much as it is to the making of the product. If I were a foreman I should feel remiss if a man got hurt through my failure to see a hazard. Now there are things that are not preventable.

We continue calling these injuries accidents. The only accident that I remember which could be called an accident happened in New York State the other day. They are building a tunnel there 20 miles long; it is 500 feet below the surface of New York's streets. They are going through solid rock except when they hit bad pockets and that is where most of the trouble comes—the earth pressure cracks this stone. There may be some carelessness on that job, but the accident happened and I will vouch that everybody thought they were absolutely safe and following safe tactics. This tunnel, when lined, will be 20 feet in diameter, that is, when the concrete is in. They drove a heading and missed fire on some holes. They realized this and went back to fire them. The men moved back 1,200 feet from the face of the heading. They figured that they were absolutely safe, that nothing could come up and touch them. A stone, 2 feet square and 6 inches thick came through the face, shot up the tunnel, hit a man, cut him in half, threw half his body against another fellow, knocked him down, fractured his skull, and killed him. That is what I call an accident. We are calling many of these injuries accidents when they are criminal negligence; that is all they are, and foremen are responsible for some of them.

A foreman should not have too much supervision; he should not have too much to do, but when he is directing men he should at least protect them against the hazards. These men who are working in plants may have a great deal of vision and see many things, but they do things which they know are unsafe. Now, if men do not have their own interests in mind and do those things of their own volition, that is one thing; but many times they do them because they are directed to do them. You can not get away from the fact that if every man were as capable as the foreman and exercised as much care as the foreman you would have an ideal condition. But what is the use of this man exercising good judgment when the employer will not buy him the wherewithal to make the place safe.

Chairman SWEETSER. The State of New York has always taken a great interest in this organization not only for its own benefit but for the benefit of the different States. New York has always sent to the conventions a number of delegates, who have always been ready to give us of their knowledge and their experience, which necessarily is greater than in any other State. To-day New York State has sent to us its commissioner of labor, Miss Frances Perkins, and I am sure the delegates would be glad to hear a few words from her.

Miss PERKINS (New York). I want to say that it has been a matter of great regret to me that in the last two years I have not been able to get to the meeting of this organization, which has such a long and valuable record and which has made so many contributions to the administration of labor laws throughout the United States. It is a great pleasure to have been able to be here to-day and to have derived the amount of help which I have from the very realistic discussion and papers we have had this morning. This little folder [indicating] is full of penciled notes that I have made of ideas that have come to me from the papers and discussions you have had.

I think that this sort of organization, with its interchange of ideas, is undoubtedly extremely valuable in stimulating all of us not only to copy each other's work but to adopt in our own States the ideas that have been successful in other States. One thing that stands out in the discussion this morning is the fact that we are all aware that good inspection work over a period of years in this country has undoubtedly reduced the accidents caused through machinery. Everyone who has had anything to do with the labor department can be proud of that. Nevertheless we have a constant rise of industrial accidents due to other causes than machinery, and the time has undoubtedly come, not for us alone but for communities generally, for the people of all the industrial States to take cognizance of this rise in other than machinery accidents.

You know, of course, as well as I do, that in all the great building and construction trades there is for the most part no adequate supervision and inspection. Has not the time come when we must all push for the same kind of supervision in those trades as there has been for many years in the more closely organized factory trades? Of course the accidents due to the increase in the United States of motor vehicles have been very striking; and this, it seems to me, is a matter that has been handled rather from the ordinary citizen's point of view than from the industrial viewpoint. I feel that sooner or

later, if we bring to the problem of accidents through motor vehicles the same thought and attention that we have given to factory regulation, we shall see better results. By that I mean the regular and systematic inspection of the machines themselves and the ordering out of service, by some responsible governmental official, of certain machines when they have obviously gone beyond the point where their operation is safe for the driver or the pedestrians on the streets.

I approve Mr. Gernon's suggestion about the education of young people and the young industrialists, and in that direction I think lies the work of the next 25 or 30 years. Perhaps we can, in this respect, borrow a page out of our Russian brethren's progress and recognize that what we do for the younger generation in regard to individual training is going to be more important than what we do for this generation. Every teacher knows that it is almost impossible to instill new ideas and new habits into adults. It is difficult to get them to do things in a new and different way. But you can take young people up to the age of 18 or 20 and train them to a great variety of new habits. They are susceptible to training. I think we must train our young people in the schools, not in the essentials of making them machinists or shoemakers or something of that sort, but for the improvement of their bodies and minds in industrial and machine work. If you watch the ordinary pedestrian dodging automobiles you will realize how badly we have been trained to use our bodies. Our coordination is poor. I know my own is poor in the face of honking automobiles, and I dare say that a great part of the human race has that same slow primary action. In other words, when young enough we were not trained to regulate our motions easily and systematically, and rhythmically to do the things that we have to deal with in our adult life.

In dealing with our children our whole system should be viewed as an age in which a large part of them are going to earn their livings in some kind of contact with, or in some relationship to, machinery. I do not mean that we should teach girls to walk properly and not have them attend high schools. What the school must do is to teach the boys and girls to use their bodies in a systematic and rhythmic manner, and build up in them a quick-time reaction to danger. You know you can do it in dogs, and those of you who have trained dogs realize how quickly a dog responds to a certain tone of voice or to sound or to a certain motion that has come to mean something. If the educators and the teachers will put their minds on this, I think we can develop in the younger generation a kind of automatic safety control of their own which will greatly improve their hazardous situation in the modern world. Perhaps it is going to be the function of this organization to suggest to our friends in the educational world that it is their duty to cooperate with us in the building up of such programs. Because, after all, we are the leaders in this situation. They may know how to teach but we know what they should teach, although they may have much better ideas than we have about the technique.

I hope that for some future program of this organization we may be able to invite people who have the educational point of view and who will work with us in finding out the methods of making people safe in industry.

In New York State we have tried a little experiment in the last two years, before involving the labor movement in the safety campaign. At the last meeting of the New York Safety Council the president of the State federation of labor, one of the principal speakers, reported upon this activity in the labor unions of New York State, which has now become such that at every meeting of every local they have a 15-minute report from the chairman of the safety committee. In other words, we are trying to bring realistically to the minds of these people in the local unions just what are the causes of the accidents that these people suffer, and out of a careful analysis of their own accidents we are hoping will grow up a kind of personal interest in preventing those accidents particularly that are due to slips, falls, and stumbles, of which there is a large percentage.

Chairman SWEETSER. The next speaker has a subject that is of interest, necessarily of interest, to us all. Mr. Briggs, of the American Association for Labor Legislation, has made a special study of the factory-inspection service and I take pleasure in presenting him to you.

The Organization and Operation of a State Factory-Inspection Service

By ALFRED W. BRIGGS, *of the American Association for Labor Legislation*

This paper represents an intermediate step in the preparation of a set of recommendations for the organization and operation of a State factory-inspection service. The standards themselves have not yet been drafted, but an attempt has been made to pave the way for their formulation by setting forth some of the methods which have been developed in this country for meeting certain problems involved in State factory inspection.

The opportunity for presenting this preliminary material to you at this time is indeed a welcome one, for your comments and suggestions will be of material aid in preparing the final recommendations.

I might add that the paper is a result of my participation in a study of labor law administration now being conducted by the American Association for Labor Legislation, although it should not be construed as representing the official findings of that organization.

Accessibility.—Before any law can be easily enforced its existence and provisions must be known by all to whom it applies. In order that the labor laws will be readily accessible to employers, employees, and the general public, many labor departments have published handbooks reprinting these statutes and including or making appropriate references to the codes of administrative orders which amplify them and give them content. This practice has proved most effective in those States (New York, for example), which bring out a revised edition of their handbooks promptly after each legislative session. Additional accessibility is provided in certain States where a reviser of statutes is employed who publishes after each legislative session the State's revised statutes in one or two large volumes. It has been suggested that this compilation should also contain reprints of all administrative orders issued by the various State departments or, if this would occupy too much space, brief references at appro-

priate places to these administrative orders. I know of no State where this has been undertaken as yet, although it has been seriously considered by certain State officials.

Centralized administration.—The last two decades have witnessed a rather steady drift toward unified administration of labor laws. When all of a State's labor laws are intrusted to a single department or commission, one of the laws—often the accident compensation law—monopolizes more than its share of the department's attention. Nevertheless most people feel that the advantages of centralized administration more than outweigh the danger of this possibility. Where the factory-inspection service is closely associated with the administration of the workmen's compensation act the accident reports may be routed to the inspection department as soon as they arrive. This makes it possible to arrange prompt investigations of all serious accidents and of all those which appear to have resulted from the employer's failure to observe the safety laws and regulations. Centralized administration keeps the labor department's statistical division in close touch with the accident-prevention work and instead of turning out voluminous academic reports, it will tend to produce pertinent studies designed to meet the needs of the engineers and inspectors engaged in preventing accidents.

It is interesting to note that certain advantages of unified administration have been achieved in some States where the enforcement of the labor laws is divided between two or more departments through the cooperation of these separate agencies.

Financing safety inspections.—Because they have felt that industry itself rather than the general tax-paying public should bear the cost of labor law administration, several States have experimented very successfully with a plan for financing the administration of their compensation acts by placing an assessment on the compensation insurance carriers (including employers carrying their own risk) in proportion to the amount of benefits paid out. In view of this successful experience, would it not be feasible to increase this assessment sufficiently to cover the cost of the State's accident-prevention work as well?

Advisory committees.—Labor departments empowered to issue administrative regulations having the force and effect of law have usually found it desirable to appoint representative advisory committees to assist in the drafting of these regulations. The presence of outside experts and laymen at the committee meetings has helped to insure the development of standards which are not only practicable but more readily enforceable as well. Employers who have served on such committees are usually staunch supporters of the codes they have helped to prepare and are inclined to tell their friends about the wisdom of these regulations. Furthermore, the State inspectors have been able to support the reasonableness of a contested order by explaining to a violator that recognized leaders of his own industry have cooperated in drafting that order.

Although advisory committees have been widely employed in connection with the drafting of safety codes and other sets of administrative orders and have been provided occasionally for public employment offices and State insurance funds, I have never heard of

an inspection division appointing an advisory committee, although some consideration has been given to such a plan in at least one State.

Selecting new inspectors.—It is unnecessary to remind this convention that just as a labor law is no better than its enforcement, so enforcement is no better than the people to whom this duty is delegated. In spite of its well-known shortcomings, the best method yet devised for building up a staff of factory inspectors seems to be the merit system of competitive examinations employed in those States having civil-service regulations. Although only nine States have such laws they employ nearly half the factory inspectors in this country. In addition there are several States having no general civil-service provisions which employ competitive examinations in the selection of new factory inspectors. In the preparation, conduct, and grading of examinations certain civil-service commissions with the cooperation of the department of labor have found it helpful to appoint advisory committees representing employers, employees, and the general public. People from such outside agencies as consumers' leagues, safety societies, and educational institutions, who are especially familiar with the problems involved, have also been utilized on these committees.

Entrance qualifications.—High-school graduation and several years of industrial experience are now minimum entrance requirements for factory inspectors in several States. College graduation with special training in economics and sociology has been adopted as a minimum qualification for woman and child labor inspectors in California and Wisconsin, and serious consideration should probably be given to the feasibility of establishing higher education qualifications than those now prevalent.

Examinations.—In preparing examinations for prospective inspectors care is now being taken in some States to test the applicants' knowledge of present-day industry as well as their general familiarity with the labor laws. In the earlier years of civil-service regulations these examinations were often academic exercises confined to the detail of the laws to be enforced and little consideration was given to the candidate's familiarity with the methods and practices of industry.

Written examinations thus prepared are being supplemented with oral tests at which the candidate's personality and appearance may be appraised.

In order to insure the department of labor a certain degree of latitude in choosing new inspectors, most civil-service commissions arrange the names of candidates in the order of their numerical standing in the examination and certify to the department two more names from the top of the list when there are vacancies to be filled.

Training.—New inspectors in some States are required to spend their first week in the main office familiarizing themselves with the laws and orders they are to enforce and becoming acquainted with the organization and operation of the department. After that a week or so is spent with each of a few of the department's inspectors who are best fitted to train beginners. In only a few States has a well-rounded system of continuation training through periodic staff conferences been developed for improving the work of inspectors, both old and new, and for keeping them abreast of the never ceasing changes so characteristic of modern industry.

Supervision.—Inspection work is sometimes weakened by faulty supervision, which may go to the extreme of exercising too little control over the inspectors or of maintaining a severe, military regimentation in others. Could not both of these extremes be avoided by making the inspector definitely responsible for his district and at the same time giving him a feeling of personal confidence and self-reliance, an enthusiasm for his work, and a knowledge that the department will stand back of him in his dealings with employers?

Size of staff.—Because of the wide variations in the size and character of the different States and in the provision of their labor laws, it will probably prove difficult to lay down a general rule for determining the proper number of inspectors. At the present time the relative number of inspectors varies widely from State to State. New York employs about 24 inspectors (factory, mercantile, boiler, hygiene, etc.) for every 100,000 factory workers in the State. Massachusetts employs 19, Wisconsin 15, New Jersey 11, Illinois 9, and Rhode Island 7. Nevertheless, it is pretty generally agreed that the inspection staff should be large enough to enable the department to make a thorough inspection of all establishments not less than once each year and to make prompt reinspections of all establishments in which violations are discovered.

Districting.—In a few States the inspectors are rotated from one district to another as a means of preventing them from becoming too friendly with certain employers. This practice has not been generally followed, however, for most department heads feel that the inspector who is permanently assigned to a district develops a feeling of responsibility for his district and as the employers become better acquainted with him he gains their confidence and they learn that he is there to render them a service and not merely to catch them in a violation.

Specialization.—The highly technical character of boiler and elevator inspection work makes the employment of specialized boiler and elevator inspectors almost unavoidable. Specialized building inspectors are commonly employed for the enforcement of State regulations applying to public buildings. The need for additional specialized safety inspectors will depend on the industrial character of the State in question.

In at least two departments (Minnesota and Wisconsin) the enforcement of all laws relating to the employment of women and children has been assigned to woman and child labor divisions. The persistent interest in specialized divisions for these laws has arisen because of the definite tendency of general factory inspectors to concentrate their efforts on the enforcement of regulations relating to safety and sanitation to the neglect of those relating to women and children. Most factory inspectors are drawn from the mechanical trades and are men whose experience and training cause them to take a greater interest in safety matters than in the employment conditions of women and children.

There is one serious difficulty, however, which seems to be inherent in this division of the inspection work between a bureau for women and children and a bureau for safety and sanitation. The difficulty to which I refer arises out of the fact that there is a growing body of labor legislation which does not relate to industrial safety and at

the same time does not apply exclusively to women and children. One-day-of-rest-in-seven laws are probably the most important regulations which are left out in the cold when the inspection work is so organized. Laws regulating the length of the working-day for men in certain hazardous or unhealthy trades and laws regulating the length of the working-day on public works are other illustrations. Specialization must not be carried beyond the point of diminishing returns, and a third set of inspectors to handle these laws would be impractical. The solution of this problem may lie in the creation of a division of industrial relations instead of a division for women and children. Such a division would be composed of people who have had some training in economics and sociology and who are conversant with pay-roll procedure, child-labor problems, and problems of women in industry. They would be able to advise employers how working shifts may be dovetailed and time schedules arranged in order that compliance with statutory requirements may be achieved with a minimum of inconvenience. The division of safety and sanitation, on the other hand, would then be free to employ a trained staff of engineers, mechanics, and experts in industrial sanitation whose training, experience, and temperament qualify them for safety work.

Accident investigation.—In addition to routine inspections for the purpose of enforcing safety laws and regulations a number of State departments of labor (Massachusetts, Wisconsin, and New Jersey, for example) have inaugurated extensive programs of accident investigation. This work which is ordinarily handled by the regular staff of general inspectors is quite widely recognized as an integral part of modern factory inspection. A comprehensive system of accident investigation is said to serve a twofold purpose. In the first place it supplies the inspection division with first-hand information on the way in which accidents actually occur. After investigating a particular accident the inspector has a more vivid impression of how it occurred and a clearer idea of the danger points to be watched for when making future inspections than he would ever secure by reading a book or memorizing a section of the industrial code. In the second place accident investigation has a most wholesome effect on the employer. He is in a receptive frame of mind just after an accident has occurred and will listen to the inspector and comply with his recommendations more readily than at any other time. The accident can be made a vivid object lesson and its occurrence furnishes an opportunity to deliver a master stroke in the promotion of industrial safety.

Educational work.—What seems to be another important supplement to routine inspection work is the educational activity that has been undertaken by several State departments. Addresses before trade organizations and other gatherings of employers, visits to the head offices of chain stores, conferences with influential individuals, newspaper releases, foremen's safety schools, safety literature, and safety museums are illustrations of the educational activities that have been used to strengthen the inspection work. One department has recently appointed a full time "director of safety education," while a number of States have made educational work the part-time duty of some official in the labor department.

Cooperation of outside agencies.—Closely allied with this educational work is the enlistment of cooperation on the part of outside agencies that are interested in seeing that the labor laws are observed. A number of labor departments have worked out cooperative arrangements with other State departments such as the board of health and the department of public safety, and with municipal health and building departments. In most States the insurance carriers, trade-unions, consumers' leagues, child-labor committees, and similar agencies are encouraged to advise the department of violations. In some States the boiler and elevator inspectors employed by insurance carriers must take a comprehensive examination conducted by the department of labor, after which each successful candidate is granted a license and his inspections are accepted by the department just as though he were a member of its staff.

Inspiring employer's confidence.—The consensus of opinion seems to be that the modern factory inspector is not an industrial detective who goes about hunting for violations. On the contrary he is an industrial expert who is anxious to help the employer solve his employment problems and who enforces the labor law because that law exists for the benefit of the employer, the worker, and the general public. When this inspection procedure is followed employers come to welcome the advice and suggestions of the factory inspector instead of trying to discover a way of avoiding his recommendations. In developing a policy of this kind, however, there is danger of slipping over into an easy-going attitude toward employers who are reluctant to comply with the law. No matter how successful a State's educational work may be or how persuasive its inspection procedure, it appears that prosecutions and fines are necessary in the case of certain violators. It seems as though there will always be some employers who are too inefficient, disinterested, or cynical, or even too recalcitrant to obey the law voluntarily, and when education and logic have failed to move them the State must resort to fine or imprisonment.

In closing let me say that this paper has been limited to a series of brief statements on a few aspects of the subject, in order that time would still remain for comments and suggestions.

DISCUSSION

Chairman SWEETSER. We have 10 minutes before we close. Has any delegate anything to ask any of the speakers?

Miss PETERSON (Washington, D. C.). I have a question to ask and comments to make. I should like to speak of a State in which a department of industrial relations has been created by legislation. In that department are a division of labor statistics and law enforcement, a division of industrial welfare, and a division of industrial accidents. Three other divisions also have been organized in the department of industrial relations, one pertaining to housing, one to industrial hazards from fire, and an employment service.

The bureau of labor statistics and law enforcement does not make routine inspections; it inspects only on complaints; the inspections for follow-up of accidents are now the responsibility of the division

of industrial accidents. However, the inspections of that division are made after an accident has occurred in order to secure information about the cause of the accident.

In other words, the inspections are made to follow up accidents but do not constitute the kind of routine regular inspection work by factory inspectors reported upon and recommended by Mr. Gernon and Mr. Meade as an additional safeguard against accidents. I mention this to call Mr. Briggs's attention to the fact that the name of an organization does not define the work done by a labor department. If you have a department of industrial relations the chances are that there would still exist the need for a division in that department to specialize in work for women and children. As a matter of fact, the department to which I refer is in California, and it depends on its division of industrial welfare to look after the work conditions of women and children. In this connection, it seems important to mention that the division of industrial relations or the division that is authorized to specialize on work for women and children is the only one of these divisions to make routine inspections pertaining to work conditions. In that division routine inspections are also made in regard to the payment of the minimum wage.

My question is, why the law providing for one day's rest in seven must necessarily be neglected because there is a division of women and children. In Wisconsin, for instance, why don't the men as well as the women inspectors carry that out?

Mr. BRIGGS. The last time I talked to Mr. Altmeyer from Wisconsin he said he felt that they were going to work out a system for having a safety man handle the one-day-of-rest-in-seven law. How about that, Miss Swett?

Miss SWETT (Wisconsin). The other day, in checking over the cases covering women and children, I pointed out one violation of the law. We have all been given instructions to do it right along with our other work, which we did not do before. We always did it for the women, but we have not gone into the question of men's hours until just lately; but now we are.

MEMBER. With regular inspectors also?

Miss SWETT. With regular inspectors, too. They have just gotten their instructions to do it.

Mrs. SUMMERS (New Jersey). It does not matter what the name of that bureau is if the proper cooperation exists. I feel that in New Jersey a great deal of our success has been due to the fact that none of us stop just where our responsibility ends in the course of a day's work. If we find something that ought to come to the attention of Mr. Roach's department we immediately turn it over to the head of our department of inspection, Mr. Weeks, who in turn takes it up for investigation. If we find something in the matter of safety devices or anything that we feel should be turned over to another department we do so and the men inspectors do likewise. I think a mutual admiration society is a very good thing, where each one thinks so much of the other coworker that one feels responsible for the good things in the other's department as well as in one's own. We have such a mutual admiration society, and I hope we always

shall have it. I think Mr. Roach's safety department is the finest in the country, and I think he feels our bureau for women and children is that. I do not care what our name is, we are going to try to do a good job by endeavoring to help one another and by keeping our bureaus at top notch. We are going to make the New Jersey Department of Labor a little better than it has been.

Chairman SWEETSER. I think that that same idea is growing more and more as between the different departments in this country and in Canada. I know they frequently write us and I know we frequently write around for information ourselves. Why shouldn't we? We are all in the same service, accomplishing the same objects with the same interests. I think that spirit of cooperation that you have in your two departments in New Jersey and that we have in Massachusetts ought to extend and does extend to every department in the Commonwealth. I trust that in our meeting here and learning to know each other we will not hesitate to secure the latest information on any subject. I know we do not hesitate to do so, and we get considerable help from what other departments are doing.

(Meeting adjourned.)

THURSDAY, MAY 21—AFTERNOON SESSION

John Roach, Deputy Commissioner of Labor of New Jersey, Presiding

INDUSTRIAL DISEASES

Chairman ROACH. This question of occupational poisons is being given increased attention in all of the States and the financial burdens are beginning to bear down heavily on the industries that are concerned. The first speaker this afternoon is one of the men who is eminent in occupational medicine in our country. At this time I want to introduce Dr. Joseph C. Aub, associate professor of medicine at Harvard University.

The Relationship of Lead Poisoning to Industry

By DR. JOSEPH C. AUB, *Associate Professor of Medicine, Harvard University*

In order to understand the problems of lead poisoning as they occur in industry, it is essential to understand somewhat the way that lead poisoning affects the organism. So, if you will forgive me, I am going to speak about the pathology of lead poisoning first in order that you may understand how it acts.

First of all, it is important to appreciate how lead gets into the organism because, from the engineering point of view, that, after all, is the most important problem. Lead can get into the organism in essentially three ways: First of all, it can be swallowed through the intestinal tract and so absorbed. Secondly, it can be taken in by the lungs in the form of dust and fumes. Finally, it can be absorbed very readily merely from the nose or from any of the mucous membranes of the body. Now, in industry, which one of these three is most important? In the work that we did a few years ago it appeared obvious that lead which was present in the lungs could cause poisoning much more easily than lead which was taken in through the intestinal tract. The reason for this is now clear. Much of the lead in the gastrointestinal tract is never absorbed. It stays in the tract and does no harm there. Secondly, part of that which is absorbed is taken up by the liver and part of this is again put back into the intestinal tract and excreted. The rest of the body, therefore, is partly protected from lead which gets into the gastrointestinal tract. However, the lead which gets into the lungs is absorbed directly into the general circulation of blood. That lead is, therefore, available to do whatever harm lead does to the organism.

As a result, lead which is taken into the nose or throat or into the lungs will cause as much poisoning as about 10 times that amount when swallowed. That is a relatively new point of view. You all know the great stress which has been placed upon the cleanliness of men before they eat, or the accusation that they got lead poisoning

from chewing tobacco and getting lead into their mouths and swallowing it. That is of much less importance in industry than dust and fumes.

It is interesting to make inspections of plants and see what great stress has been laid upon the cleanliness of men before they eat. In one plant that I inspected, much stress was laid upon this. The men had to put on surgeons' gowns before lunch. They had to wash their hands and brush their teeth before their food was given to them. This was all well done, but in this same plant there were huge piles of powdered lead oxides scattered about, which produced much dust whenever they were disturbed. Of course, the poisoning that was occurring in that plant was due to the dust and the fumes. That is a common error in industry, and it is of extreme importance. If you can avoid dust and fumes you can largely eliminate lead poisoning. Painters get lead poisoning mostly from sandpapering dry paint, and not from mixing paint. If they would use the new kind of oiled sandpaper which is available, with which it is possible to wet down the paint with water, lead poisoning would largely disappear among painters, except among the spray painters. Please do not misunderstand me—I do not mean to imply that personal cleanliness is not also important. Its importance is secondary only to the elimination of lead dusts.

When lead finally gets into the organism, it is important to appreciate what happens to it. As long as lead is circulating in the blood stream it is dangerous, and it is important to be able to control that lead stream. When lead gets into the body it usually goes primarily to two places. First of all it is deposited in the liver and kidneys and, immediately after lead is absorbed, a large percentage is found here. After lead has been absorbed and exposure to it has ceased, practically all of it is found stored in the bones. The presence of lead in the soft tissues of the body, like the liver, is of paramount importance, because that means that lead is circulating and, in medico-legal proceedings, therefore, possibly a contributory cause of death. As long as lead stays in the bones it apparently causes no damage, but if the individual gets sick, or if he gets pneumonia, or has a prolonged alcoholic debauch, or anything else that disturbs the inorganic salt metabolism of the body, then lead may be liberated from the bones. This is because lead in the body responds to the same stimuli that influence calcium. When calcium is liberated from bones, then stored lead is also liberated. When this stored lead is too rapidly freed, then a lead colic, or one of the other manifestations of lead poisoning may be precipitated.

With that knowledge it is possible to control the circulation of lead in the body above a certain minimum because it is simply necessary to control the circulation of calcium in the body. It is upon that theory that our new treatment of lead poisoning is based. In a patient with an acute lead colic, it is necessary to store in the bones the excessive lead which is circulating, and what one does is to give as much calcium as possible to the body in order to throw the stream of calcium back into the bones. When you want to pull lead out of the body a low calcium diet is prescribed plus acid salts further to stimulate the body needs for calcium,

This is important, because even though lead is in all of the bones of the body and it is manifestly impossible to liberate all of it, the lead which is most readily available can be liberated. There are small parts in the bones which readily give up their calcium when there is a bodily need for it. When acids are given this very readily available calcium, and the lead that is stored with it, are liberated.

From the medico-legal point of view one of the great problems is diagnosis of lead poisoning. There are more diagnoses of lead poisoning made than are justifiable, because no distinction is made by most physicians between lead absorption and lead intoxication—two very different things. Most of us have lead absorption, for much of the dust on city streets has lead in it. Therefore, many people are secreting lead in their urine. Lead absorption does not mean that an individual is suffering from lead poisoning. Many people work in lead industries for a long time and absorb much lead but never show any evidence of poisoning from the metal.

We all know that there is a great difference in susceptibility to the metal. As a result, the various symptoms and signs of lead poisoning must be clearly differentiated. Thus, a lead line does not mean that an individual has lead poisoning. Lead in the excreta, which is stressed so much in our courts, means only that the individual has absorbed lead, and it does not mean that he has lead poisoning. On the contrary, there are signs that mean that an individual is suffering deleterious effects from lead, evidence that indicates that lead is causing damage to the body.

The best example of body damage, and the one that should be stressed, is the effect on the blood. The reason is that lead has to circulate in the blood when it is absorbed. If an individual is getting lead poisoning, the first evidence is a change in the blood, because the red blood cells are very susceptible to poisoning by lead. Therefore stippling of the blood cells is a sign which is quite specific for lead, if it is present in large quantities, and is the best evidence that lead is doing damage to the body. As far as I can remember, I have never seen a case of lead poisoning in which there was not very distinct stippling in the red cells. Some objective sign such as this is almost essential in order to make the diagnosis.

In industry, one case of poisoning is very apt to precipitate the appearance of other similar cases. The true examples of intoxication must then be differentiated from the examples of suggestion or of malingering. An invaluable aid in such a situation is some objective sign such as the stippling of the blood with secondary anemia. It shows that body tissues are really being injured. Added information is also obtained, of course, from the typical clinical picture.

The picture of lead poisoning is usually clear. The first evidence consists of general weakness, with loss of appetite and severe constipation. Then a lead colic may develop. This consists of a very severe abdominal pain which moves from place to place. It is practically always associated with constipation.

A more severe manifestation are the paralyzes produced by lead. These are now relatively rare and it is very important to prevent the condition. Paralyzes are nearly always preceded by a period in which muscles are weak and in which fatigue soon appears. Thus, a painter may complain of an inability to hold the hand extended for any length of time. This is a danger signal, which should result

in prompt removal from lead exposure. Such a condition then promptly gets well, but if true paralysis is allowed to develop recovery is very slow.

Lead palsy consists of a paralysis of extensor muscles, whereas the flexor muscles are normal. The most characteristic paralysis is an inability to extend the fingers or wrist. Patients can easily hold objects such as a pipe and they can do other things, but it is accomplished with the hand well flexed on the wrist. It is a perfectly characteristic paralysis, because lead paralyzes very few muscles. The most fatigued muscles are the ones involved, so that if a person is left handed the paralysis starts there, and if he is a dancing teacher the feet may be first involved.

There is one other manifestation of lead poisoning which is now only very rarely seen—encephalopathy. It comes on fairly suddenly with convulsions, delirium, dementia, and in a large percentage of cases causes death. Lead colic and lead palsies cause incapacity but lead encephalopathy causes death. It is, of course, very important that no one should be exposed to enough lead to produce this.

It is difficult to tell how long the duration of incapacity should be in these different forms of the disease. This depends upon the severity of the conditions and the way they are treated. A colic, if properly treated, ought to stop within 24 to 48 hours, and to my way of thinking the incapacity from a simple, not too severe lead colic ought to be about six weeks. The early manifestations of wrist weakness mean an incapacity of at least six weeks, but an established paralysis means a complete incapacity of at least six months. Lead encephalitis has a more indefinite period of incapacity. As I have already said, about 50 to 75 per cent of those cases die. In the others the recovery is often very slow and there sometimes remains a permanent mental change. By incapacity I mean the period in which symptoms and signs of injury from lead can be found. Lead will still be present in the bones but will give no evidence of damage to body tissues.

Another question which has been brought to my attention has to do with the end results of lead poisoning. I recently inspected a factory in which there had arisen a very interesting problem, from the legal point of view. There was undoubtedly a large amount of lead absorption and there was a good deal of lead poisoning in the plant which certainly deserved compensation. The lawyers, however, were trying to show permanent disability in these workers, due to arteriosclerosis and nephritis, which they said was due to lead. It is true that arteriosclerosis and nephritis have been said to be produced by lead poisoning, but the evidence for arteriosclerosis is very slight. Nearly all of us have some arteriosclerosis after we reach 50 years of age. It is obviously ridiculous permanently to compensate an individual who had been exposed to lead for a few months because he also had an associated mild arteriosclerosis. I do not believe there is any good evidence that lead produces arteriosclerosis—certainly most arteriosclerosis is produced by other causes as yet unknown. The fact that an individual who has been exposed to lead has arteriosclerosis certainly is no indication that lead produced that hardening of the arteries.

There is another problem, not often spoken of, which is of interest from the medico-legal point of view as well as from the medical point of view, and that is the neuroses which may be prolonged in patients who have had lead poisoning. It is extremely difficult to know whether these neuroses are due to lead poisoning or whether they are prolonged by the weekly compensation which the patients receive. It is true that children ill with lead poisoning may be irritable and nervous, too. This suggests that the poisoning may produce the neuroses. In my experience, however, these neuroses arise in people who have not been adequately treated or in patients suffering from very severe lead poisoning. I have not seen them in patients who have received thorough, early treatment. They are also accentuated, just as are traumatic neuroses, by the weekly evidence of their compensation check. As long as they receive evidence each week that they are still sick they will remain sick. The best way to prevent these neuroses, in my experience, is thoroughly to eliminate lead from the body early in the disease. When the patient feels well, get him a job quickly, and if he deserves further compensation continue to give it to him even though he is at work. After a neurosis has developed, the best treatment is to settle the case with a lump sum of money, and get the patient back at some work. I am thinking of the patient's happiness, for it is no kindness to prolong a neurosis. The patients are far happier at work and they tend to lose their neuroses. Lack of work and weekly compensation merely prolong their worry and help make them chronic invalids. Lead poisoning, itself, I am sure does not produce this prolonged condition, except possibly in the rare cases of lead encephalopathy. The condition is largely dependent upon the method of treatment of the disease and the method of compensation.

I can not close this short talk without returning to the most important viewpoint—that of prevention. Lead poisoning can very largely be eliminated from our factories by proper and simple precautions. This is the crux of the whole problem. The cases of poisoning ought to diminish progressively, and this should be our goal.

(Doctor Aub then concluded his talk by showing several slides, illustrative of the points mentioned.)

Chairman ROACH. We will now pass on to the paper by Doctor Clark. Doctor Clark has a long record back of him. He is a graduate of Columbia University in New York, and now an instructor of industrial medicine at Harvard, and also has a very creditable war record.

Dust Hazards and the Prevention of Injury from the Same

BY DR. W. IRVING CLARK, *Instructor of Industrial Medicine, Harvard University*

Most people are exposed to dust inhalation, no matter what they do. In any room dust motes can be seen in a beam of sunlight. Outdoors there is a large amount of dust in the air, especially in the cities. In the city of Cleveland, for instance, during the 24-month period from June, 1927, to May, 1929, 119 tons of material per square mile, per month, was deposited from the atmosphere at

the collection station located in the down-town district. Twenty-four per cent of the total deposit was ferric oxide, showing the large amount of iron inhaled by the people of this city.¹ The same conditions probably exist in all large cities.

Dust in the street form appears to be quite harmless to the individual inhaling it. Certain types of industrial dust, however, are a hazard both quantitatively and qualitatively. The types of dust evolved during manufacturing processes may be roughly divided into organic dusts and inorganic dusts. Organic dusts such as fiber dusts, jute, etc., appear to be relatively harmless. They produce local irritation of the nose, throat, trachea, and bronchi if inhaled in very large amounts, and increase the susceptibility of those exposed to respiratory infections beside making it more difficult to recover from respiratory disease. They may also induce asthma. However, work in the organic dusts can hardly be called hazardous. Therefore the inorganic dusts will be particularly considered from now on.

Nature has given man much natural protection against dust. The nostrils contain fine hairs which trap dust particles, while the moisture of the nose and throat catches great numbers. The larynx, with its moist mucous membrane and delicate coughing mechanism, provides for a rejection of many particles, while those which pass into the windpipe, or trachea, are constantly whipped toward the mouth by the fine cilia (microscopic hairs) which line this long tube. In short, there is a constant movement of the mucus from the air cells of the lungs toward the mouth, which prevents a great deal of dust which enters the chest from remaining in it. It has been found that only the very smallest dust particles reach the lung alveoli, or air cells. These fine particles are almost ultramicroscopic in size, being less than 10 microns in diameter, the majority being only 1 or 2 microns in size. A micron is one one-thousandth of a millimeter or one twenty-five-thousandths of an inch, and anything smaller is colloidal in size.

These very minute particles slowly collect in the air cells but do not remain there. They are gradually removed by special body cells which carry them along the lymphatics to the roots of the lungs, where they are caught in the lymph glands or remain in the lymph vessels blocking them up and preventing the normal flow of lymph. The presence of these cells and their contents provokes the formation of connective tissue. This is tough and fibrous in character, and as more and more dust cells are stopped, more and more of this tissue forms, pushing out its fibrous fingers and choking the air cells and compressing them. This development of fibrous tissue is slow, the time before it begins to cause serious damage varying from 3 to 25 years, depending on the chemical composition of the dust.

The effect of this pathological condition upon the workman is at first too slight to be detected by physical examination and the worker shows no symptoms. While there is a pathological condition present it is to all intents and purposes harmless in that if it does not progress rapidly, it may not provoke symptoms during the worker's life. Even respiratory disease of another nature, such as bronchitis, or even pneumonia, may occur and be recovered from during this

¹ Whipple, H. American Journal of Public Health, March, 1931.

period. As the condition progresses, however, more and more of the lung tissue is converted into fibrous tissue and the patient begins to have certain symptoms. He complains of shortness of breath when he goes uphill, and says that his heart beats noticeably. He also mentions a cough, which is at first dry and infrequent, but gradually becomes moist and frequent. With the cough he raises scanty, stringy, white sputum, never very large in amount unless he catches cold and develops a bronchitis. At this stage an attack of bronchitis does not get well, it becomes chronic. Slowly the shortness of breath increases, the patient has poor lung expansion, and his color becomes pale with bluish lips. The cough is now pretty continuous, the sputum free and moist, and when examined it frequently shows the presence of tubercle bacilli. From this time on the patient rapidly fails. Such is the course of a case of silicosis. While physical signs are very slight, the X ray shows the condition of the lungs with clearness and the progress of the disease can be followed in this way.

I have said that in some cases the process above outlined is frequently not completed, and that in other cases it may progress rapidly giving definite symptoms in a few years. What is the reason? This matter was for many years a puzzle. It was noted that miners working in quartz developed this disease rapidly, while other miners working in nonsiliceous rock had no symptoms. Very extensive studies of miners were made by Mavrogordato² in South Africa and by Lanza³ in the United States. In addition special studies were made of granite cutters as well as workers in coal mines, rock tunnels, and other dusty work. It was found that the amount of free silica in the rock had an important bearing on the rapidity of the development of the disease. Grinders using sandstone which contains a large quantity of silica were also found to be particularly susceptible. Through these studies and through experimental work in laboratories, it has been found that silica dust, when inhaled, is very active in producing the pathological condition and symptoms just described. The matter is still under investigation, but the present belief is that any inorganic dust, if breathed in sufficient quantity for a long enough time, will produce the disease called pneumoconiosis, or silicosis, but that the inhalation of silica dust, even if inhaled for only a comparatively short time, is invariably very hazardous.

Therefore in considering the dust hazard of any occupation the things to be considered are the quantity of fine dust particles to which the worker is exposed, the chemical composition of these particles, especially whether or not a high percentage of silica is present, and the number of years of exposure. Second, consideration must be given to the physical condition of the worker, whether he is robust or sickly. Third, consideration must be given to the general working conditions which surround the worker. The quantity of dust can be determined by dust counts. A dust count is made by the use of a special instrument which collects particles of dust from the air. These particles are drawn into water and, the amount of air flowing through the apparatus being known, it is possible to calculate the number of particles and measure their size by using a counting chamber under a microscope.

² Mavrogordato, A. South African Institute of Medical Research, No. 15, 1922.

³ Lanza, A. J. Public Health Bulletin 85, 1917.

The number of dust particles varies in different parts of the same room, so that it is good practice to take samples at several different points and at the height of a worker's mouth. The numbers of particles found in counts at particularly dusty parts of a factory may be very high, as in the raw mill of a cement plant where the counts registered from 67 to 105 million particles below 10 microns in size per cubic foot of air.⁴ While a definite safe dust count has not yet been decided upon, it is felt that 10 to 20 million particles of dust less than 10 microns in size, per cubic foot of air, is fairly safe from the point of view of health. While this is probably true for most inorganic dusts, it may be too high for safety in dust of very high silica content.

To summarize then, we find that the continuous inhalation of very fine particles of inorganic dust in large amounts produces a chronic disease of lungs which is characterized by the development of fibrous tissue, by destruction of the air cells, and by the late development of pulmonary tuberculosis. We further find that this process proceeds very slowly except in cases exposed to dust with a high content of silica, and that the amount of dust in the workroom must be over 20,000,000 particles of less than 10 microns per cubic foot of air to be hazardous. Having these basic facts before us, how are we to protect the worker and at the same time maintain the industry which produces the dust?

The first principles to be considered are how to prevent the dust from entering the worker's lungs. It is obvious that there is no method by which all dust may be removed from the air, and there is no mechanical contrivance in the form of a respirator which workers will wear which will filter dust from the air without rapidly clogging. The effort must be to keep the number of fine particles, and these it must be remembered are as fine as smoke particles, from being beyond a certain number per cubic foot of air space. It has been found that the most effective method of removing these fine particles is by suction applied as close as possible to the point where they are generated. Thus exhaust pipes to be efficient must open at the point where the tool meets the work, and the amount of suction must be great enough to overcome the dispersing action upon the dust of the work being done. Thus, in rock drilling the exhaust pipe must open near the point of the drill, or in grinding the exhaust must be under the hood which partly surrounds the grinding wheel. The velocity at the air ducts of an efficient dust-removing tube should be 1,500 linear feet per minute. This if properly maintained will keep the number of dust particles to not more than 10,000,000 particles per cubic foot of air.

Efforts have been made to reduce the amount of dust by laying it with water or oil, but this has not proved very satisfactory. (In fact, Greenburg⁵ has shown that the dust hazard in a cutlery factory where the wheels were kept wet, but no exhaust hoods used, was far greater than in a grinding room where dry wheels were used but hoods and exhausts were employed.)

Where automatic processes are in use and the wheel and work are completely inclosed with an efficient dust exhaust, the operator is very well protected. Sand blasting and granite cutting are extremely

⁴ Public Health Bulletin No. 176.

⁵ Greenburg, L. U. S. Public Health Service Reports, vol. 35, No. 41.

hazardous, not only because of the great amount of dust generated but because of the high silica content of the materials employed in doing the work. Here cabinets in which the work is separated from the operator and from which the dust is rapidly exhausted is the best method of protection. Where cabinets can not be employed the use of helmets completely covering the head and neck of the operator with a free supply of air through a pipe from a nondusty area, is the most satisfactory protection. It is often difficult to persuade the workman to use complicated or uncomfortable protective devices either upon his machine or upon himself, and strict rules must be made and enforced where the dust hazard is present.

No matter how well a workman is protected he should be kept under medical supervision and have a periodic examination of his heart and lungs. In addition the X ray should be employed freely in order to detect early signs of fibrosis in the lungs and to show any signs of early pulmonary tuberculosis. In my experience with workers exposed to inorganic dust, nonsiliceous in character, a yearly physical examination, with an X ray every second year after 10 years' exposure, is sufficient, but it must be remembered that this is the result of work in a factory where the character of the dust is relatively harmless and where excellent dust-removing devices are installed on every machine where it is possible. Where free silica is present in large quantities the examinations should begin after two or three years' exposure and an X ray should be taken every year.

It is obvious that workers entering any hazardous occupation should have a complete physical examination before beginning work. This is particularly true when the work is particularly dangerous for those having lung disease, even though this be in mild form. Men who are asthmatic, who suffer from chronic bronchitis, or who have had pulmonary tuberculosis should not work at a dusty job. Thus our effort must be to provide strong, healthy workers with clear chests and without predisposition to tuberculosis. Having selected our group we must keep them under medical observation and during their period of employment they must be exposed to the least amount of fine dust possible. If a worker is found to be developing fibrosis of the lung, he should at once be taken off dusty work, he should be kept under medical supervision, and his sputum should be examined for tuberculosis at regular intervals.

There is, however, a growing belief that if silicosis has advanced to diffuse fibrous deposits in the chest, removal from dusty work will not prevent further development of fibrous tissue and probably death from pulmonary tuberculosis. A quick method of estimating the hazard of a dusty occupation is to obtain its rate of reported cases of pulmonary tuberculosis and compare it with the rate of tuberculosis occurring in the community as a whole.

In conclusion, it is important to have clearly in mind the following:

1. That the dust hazard is dependent upon the quantity, quality, and size of the dust involved.
2. That while organic dust may make those constantly breathing it susceptible to respiratory disease, it does not produce a disease

entity of its own. According to Landis,⁶ as far as the X-ray evidence is concerned individuals exposed to organic dust show no more marked changes than are encountered in those who have dwelt all their lives in large cities.

3. That inorganic dust of any composition will cause a slowly developing fibrosis of the lung if the exposure is to a sufficient quantity of dust over a long enough period. This period is frequently from 20 to 30 years.

4. That many inorganic dusts are inhaled by workers during a lifetime without producing symptoms or affecting their work. This occurs where the amount of dust in the workroom is not excessive.

5. That inorganic dust of high silica content, if breathed over a long enough period in sufficient concentration, will produce a marked fibrosis of the lungs with secondary pulmonary tuberculosis.

6. That the best method of protection from any dust is by separating the worker completely from his work by a cabinet, helmet, or other device. Next best is the removal of dust by suction at the point at which it is generated.

7. That the dust hazard is a specific hazard, confined to special industries or special departments, and that the amount of dust generated in the workrooms of most factories is quite harmless because of the small amount in the air.

Chairman ROACH. We will pass on now to Dr. Leonard Greenburg. He has a long and distinguished list of titles and is now an associate sanitary engineer of the United States Public Health Service, being connected with the school of public health of Yale University. He is going to discuss the very interesting subject of "Dangerous chemicals."

Dangerous Chemicals

By DR. LEONARD GREENBURG, of the *United States Public Health Service*

Chemicals, as you know, are not new; they are old, they are very old. Reference to old literature shows the existence of numberless cases of lead poisoning. But in the year 1890, or thereabouts, the sudden growth of the chemical industry in this country became manifest. In 1900 we began to discover many cases of unusual chemical poisons. At the present time these consist of a large number of chemical compounds. I must confess that we do not get many cases of each particular one, but if you look through the complete literature you will find many different compounds. It is impossible to estimate just how these compounds should be handled and you will see why later on.

The records that we formerly got from Washington concerning poisons are only those that are registered on the basis of deaths. Now I dare say that probably 85 per cent of lead poisoning does not result in death, and a far greater percentage of some of the other poisons does not result in death to the patient or to the worker. They result in a certain amount of illness and a certain amount of

⁶ Landis, H. R. M. *Journal of Industrial Hygiene*, Vol. VII, No. 1.

incapacity and in a small percentage of cases in death. The records are only of that small percentage of cases that were registered in the death records at Washington. That is why there seems to be a question as to about how much lead poisoning there is. You will note that there is no agreement here as to just how much there is.

After workmen's compensation started in this country we picked up a great many more of these cases which do not terminate fatally, and if the compensation records were analyzed they would serve as the best source of material to determine whether or not a psychosis ceased when the compensation ceased. I think we really need a more intensified study of the compensation records in order to gather some of these fundamental facts that are required.

Now, in general, what is the effect of these poisons? For example, carbon monoxide results in death and benzol may result in death. It means that these things may happen or there may be other results that will follow. The carbon monoxide gas may squeeze out the life. But let us pass out of the class that produces immediate death, and in general the substances that produce immediate death are the gases, to those poisons that produce chronic illness that may result in death or permanent disability. These poisons are varied, and it is impossible to lay down a rule as to how long a chronic illness will last.

For example, if you have a patient who gets benzol poisoning, chronic poisoning, and the normal number of red blood cells in his body is reduced from 5,000,000 to 3,000,000 and there are other complications, it is wise to expect a more rapid recovery than you could if the red blood cells were reduced to 1,000,000. It seems simple enough, and it is true that it works according to a rule. Now if you have a subject whose blood cells have been reduced from 5,000,000 to 3,000,000, and if such a person continues to work in a harmful atmosphere the blood cells may go down to a million and it may terminate fatally. But if such a person with 3,000,000 blood cells is removed from that atmosphere completely, he may succeed in regaining full life.

Again, in the case of lead poisoning, as Doctor Aub so skillfully pointed out, you have lead absorption and lead intoxication, and a great many cases of the former do not terminate fatally. Then, finally, we come to the group of substances which are absorbed and which apparently produce no effects except slight changes in various organs in the system. So you see there is a gradual scale, reaching up from those cases in which you have practically no effects (the substance in small amount and over a short period of time), to cases where you get immediate death from exposure to large amounts. In judging any situation it is absolutely essential to bear in mind the two important facts, the amount of substance and the duration of exposure.

Now, what about the nature of these poisons? Some of them are gases like carbon monoxide, hydrogen, methyl chloride (a refrigerant used in some refrigerators and the like). Then there are vapors. There is a vapor from mercury, ordinarily a liquid, but one which has a low vapor pressure. Then finally we have dust, such as lead dust or chromium dust. In considering any of these compounds it is well to bear this classification in mind, because in gen-

eral the action of a substance depends in a large measure on the form of the dispersion. These substances may get into the body in various ways, as we have mentioned.

By far the largest number of compounds come through the respiratory tract. They are breathed in and are taken up by the lung tissue. I do not know just what the computation shows, but the amount of surface area of the normal person's lung would about cover the surface of this room and the walls and ceiling. So you can see that the lung presents an enormous surface area for the absorption of any material. Then there is a difference in skin absorption, and that raises the question many times as to whether it is poisoning. I have yet to see a clear-cut case where the respiratory tract was excluded and such poisons as benzol were known to have been taken in through the skin. There is a new substance that is used for chromium plating, and that is taken in through the respiratory tract in a very small amount and is chiefly absorbed through the skin and the nose and the mouth.

Finally, there is the intestinal tract, and so far as that is concerned, I know of only two substances that are readily absorbed. One of these is lead and that is absorbed to a small extent, and zinc, which is absorbed to a certain extent. These poisons affect different parts of the body. It is very common to find one poison affecting three or four different organs in the system. For example, the nervous system is chiefly affected by a substance like lead. The manifestations of manganese are peculiar. In them the patient does not develop a wrist drop, but develops a peculiar symptom, so that if he walks forward he can not stop, and if he walks backward he keeps on going until he hits a wall or falls down. He suffers from what is generally called retropulsion, or propulsion. After that the blood is most frequently attacked, and so on.

In benzol poisoning the chief place to look for trouble is in the blood stream, and in that the poison is evidenced and displayed very markedly in the changes that take place in the red blood cells. Nitrobenzol is another substance that affects the blood stream. Please do not get the impression that any one of these poisons selects a certain system for attack. In general they attack 2 or 3 or 4 systems. Each poison usually presents a complex situation, and that is why Doctor Aub spoke about the nervous system and nephritis in discussing lead poisoning. In this chromium compound the patient usually suffers with chromium sores on the exposed portion of the hand and ulcers of the nasal center. His respiratory system may be attacked, especially in a disease produced by any rust oxide.

In addition to the particular organic systems affected and the nature and the entrance of the poison the prime factor is exceedingly important. In lead there is an accumulative action. This material, as Doctor Aub and others have pointed out, is stored in the long bones of the body and remain there until some particular episode calls it forth into the blood stream, at which time the patient suffers from its effects. Then we come to the radium patients. Workers may use radium over a period of 5 to 10 years, then be out of exposure for a period of 5 and more years, and then come down with radium poisoning. The outcome is very interesting to examine in some of these cases.

The outcome in benzol poisoning depends on how far it has gone. We have tried several times to save workmen who had blood counts of a million and we have failed. I do not mean to say that everybody else would have the same experience that we have demonstrated. I know of cases of benzol poisoning, chiefly in the rubber industry, where the blood count was reduced to about two and a half million and we have saved the patient. I can not say much about the termination in radium poisoning, for I do not know much about it. I have had little contact with actual cases, but from my knowledge of the subject I am inclined to believe that if there is definitely full-grown evidence of radium poisoning the chances of recovery eventually are very small, but it may drag on for a long, long time.

In relation to new poisons in industry, I might say that there are no new poisons that have come to my notice lately, and I am sure that you could find all of the information on these in some of the classical books on the subject. Of course methyl poisoning has come to the front in connection with the antifreeze substances. The wood alcohol compound is an old story and I do not think there is any real need to discuss it, other than to point out that it makes no real difference whether the toxic material is synthetic methyl, which is chemically pure, or wood alcohol. One is about as toxic as the other, and if you drink an ounce or two ounces of either you are going to have a very severe case of poisoning, probably with some degree of blindness.

The question has come up recently about the inhalation of methyl alcohol. As to large amounts, there is definite data to show that men who have varnished the inside of beer vats do get poisoned, sometimes resulting in blindness or in death. Look at Dr. Alice Hamilton's book or read any of the old German references and you will see that repeated time and time again.

Before closing I would like to spend a minute or two discussing the prevention of some of these. Of course, the prevention of the poison depends on the knowledge of the poison and how it acts when it gets into the body. Unfortunately a lot of people try to treat these cases without having first familiarized themselves with the nature of the poison and how the poison is produced. The methods that are applicable to each are entirely different. There are certain things that give rise to sudden death—apoplexy is one of them, and cerebral hemorrhage is another—and we often confuse poisoning with these things. But so far as the prohibiting of poisons is concerned the oldest method is to forbid the use of the poison, but of course that can hardly be done in these days; there are too many other factors to be considered and we ought to look for some means of treatment that will enable industry to continue using the materials which they have to use. Segregation of those affected is one thing that is very important, once we can really determine what the effect is going to be. After segregation, which applies in most cases, the next thing to do is use methods which will eliminate the greatest hazards, and in this connection we could go into each industry and point out particular things there that could be accomplished along that line.

You know there are delicate adjustments to be made in most plants. Superintendents think that anyone can design a ventilating system,

but the money that is saved by not having a competent man design the job is wasted in the poisonings that may follow. It is absolutely essential to balance the quantity of air that is being removed against the velocity of removal, and in the case of dust it is necessary to use a higher velocity and perhaps a smaller volume. In the case of gases, which escape so readily, it is necessary to use a larger volume and a smaller velocity. In general there are no limitations that can be placed on a competent ventilating engineer, and he is usually very successful.

That brings us to masks and respirators, which is a long story in itself and I will not go into it. In the first place, the mask, or the respirator, is only intended to be used when there is a supply of oxygen available. If a man goes into a tank that may have contained gasoline vapors or benzol, and all of the oxygen has been excluded from that tank or inclosure, he must have his supply of oxygen, because life can not continue without it, and the only thing to do is to give it to him; it is very important to remember that in this connection. There is just one thing that you can do if oxygen is not available and that is to use a fresh-air mask. That can be done under certain conditions. Then there is another type of apparatus which is really nothing more than a filter. It may have a layer of cotton in it, or a wet sponge, or two or three pieces of ordinary filter paper, but its only function is that it filters a certain amount of dust out of the air, and that is all that it can be used for.

In all of these different type of masks and respirators you must be sure that you do not use them for a longer time than the material in the absorbent is alive. For example, after you have used it for a certain time the efficiency falls and it must be discarded. When the life of the absorbent material gives out there is no further use for that mask, and no further protection is afforded against the gas or the dust. I think that almost everybody has had experience with masks and in general it has probably been bad. I think that it will continue to be bad and they should be used only in cases of emergency, and their use and maintenance must be skilled and carefully supervised. In general, it is not wise to place too much reliance on them, unless you have to in case of an emergency.

(Meeting adjourned.)

FRIDAY, MAY 22—MORNING SESSION

W. A. Rooksbery, President Association of Governmental Officials in Industry, Presiding

BUSINESS SESSION

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON OFFICERS' REPORTS

Your committee appointed to consider the reports of the officers of the association have performed the duties imposed upon it and beg to present the following report:

President's report.—We congratulate the president upon the able and conscientious manner in which he has performed the duties of his office. He came to the office of president in the middle of the year owing to the severance of membership of his predecessor. He was therefore handicapped by lack of information as to plans that had been outlined for the year. The splendid program presented at this meeting, and the success of the meeting generally, affords ample evidence of his full grasp of the significance of his office and his ability to perform every duty.

In reference to the president's suggestion that a committee be appointed to inform the governors of the various States of the United States and the Provinces of Canada of the aims and objects of this association and the subjects discussed, your committee is of the opinion that such a committee would be helpful in bringing to the attention of the governors and other State officials the objects and purposes of this association, and probably might be able to increase the interest in our meetings and establish the importance of the work we are doing. We therefore approve and recommend the adoption of his suggestion that a committee of five, of which the president shall be chairman, be appointed as a committee of information and publicity, whose duties shall be as outlined in the president's suggestion.

Secretary's report.—We have also examined the records and accounts of the secretary-treasurer and report that a record has been kept of the receipts and expenditures during the past year and that all money received by the association has been properly accounted for.

In conclusion, the committee heartily commends both the president and the secretary-treasurer upon the efficient and painstaking manner in which they have performed their duties.

PRESIDENT ROOKSBERY. Have we any unfinished business to take up at this time?

MR. SELLER (Kentucky). I hate to start something at this late moment, but no cognizance has been taken at this convention of the uniform child labor law that has been proposed by the Uniform Laws Commission. I have been thinking for some time that it would be wise for this and other similar associations to promote uniformity in laws and submit them to this commission, which, as you know, has the backing and is made up of the representatives of the law appointed by the governors of the States.

Another suggestion that I would like to make is that this association confine itself, as far as its speakers are concerned, to representatives of labor officials, discussing those problems which we are faced with day by day.

I am very strong for uniformity in laws as between the States. My experience in sponsoring legislation leads me to say this: Our department legislation has either been shelved or defeated because of the advice given to the legislators and the stand taken by some legislators that if they adopted our proposed legislation they would be putting restricted legislation upon our State industries, and thereby making it very difficult and handicapping the industries in competition with neighbor States which did not have legislation of a similar nature.

I believe in uniform labor legislation, such as workmen's compensation for industrial injuries, hygiene and safety, and that for women and children. Practically all the States have some legislation on these subjects. Therefore, uniformity in such legislation would practically wipe out such a point in competition in trade and industries as between States and would remove the many little difficulties and misunderstandings which are experienced by trade and industries which have stores, factories, or workshops in several States.

The American Standards Association has done a great deal along this line in promoting American standard safety codes, and I think this association and the National Safety Council have done more than any other private organizations in the way of assisting States in promoting real and universal safety.

Mr MAGNUSSON. I am in sympathy with what Mr. Seiller has said. I would like to illustrate that by another example. Take the movement for old-age pensions that has spread over the United States in the last two years. Seventeen States now have laws. Of course, it is well understood that there are only two of those State laws that are of any particular value—California, perhaps, and New York. The consequence of those laws being different in different States is that each State has to protect itself by excessive residence requirements—15 years, or something like that, I believe, is the residence requirement in California. Of course, there are special reasons why the aged flock to California. We all expect to go to California when we retire. But that illustrates the same point again. Why do we go to Florida? Why do we go to Nevada? Because we can get a divorce in 30 days, they say. That may be good or it may not, I do not know, but it illustrates exactly the point that I had in mind. We go to those States whose regulations suit our purposes of evasion or otherwise. Obviously the continental character of the United States makes it possible.

As time goes on, in this matter of social legislation, in the matter of industrial development, uniform legislation is becoming increasingly more imperative. Something has happened in the United States in the last few years that very few of us realize, the drift from the farm and from the agricultural regions of the South up to the North. I have in mind the greater stabilization and slowing down of population growth in the United States that is bound to have certain social consequences which find analogies in the cases

of New Zealand and Australia. It is not just an accident of history that those two countries are countries with a great deal of social legislation. I think the social legislation there bears a direct relation to the close economy and policy of restricted population growth that they have more or less consciously adopted.

As a result of a now somewhat similar population policy the United States bears the necessity of giving much more conscious thought to the solution of some of its social problems. We must earn our standard of living, as it were. We must take account of the difficulty of maintaining standards of living with a stabilized population, as against a rapidly increasing and expanding one. Now that, to my mind, is an underlying and sound argument for giving much greater consideration to this problem of uniform State legislation in the United States. I think that the group that knows most about it is this group right here and that our first step would be to have a strong committee on that problem of uniform State labor legislation—in principle only, in the general outlines thereof, not in the administrative details, because we want to preserve the local autonomies, local characteristics, and freedom of thought, that we have. But in the underlying standards it seems to me we have to face the problem of uniformity.

You face this problem as soon as you have more than one jurisdiction operating over a given territory, because if you have more than one State, one jurisdiction with authority over a geographical area, you have the problem of uniformity and coordination with you at once. So I think that a committee on that would be desirable.

(By unanimous vote the matter under consideration was referred to the executive committee.)

DISCUSSION ON RECOMMENDATIONS REGARDING PROBLEM OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Mr. HUDSON (Ontario). The program says that we are going to discuss recommendations for unemployment. We can do this for a moment, but there is only one remedy for unemployment and that is work, so we have disposed of the question.

The only difficulty that we have is how to provide the work. We have heard very interesting papers on this subject of the remedies for unemployment. I think it would be a mistake in the closing minutes of the session to even take time to go over them and enter into a discussion pro and con on the papers. Consequently all that I think I should do at this time, as leader of the discussion, is to tell you in a word or two what we have been attempting to do in Canada during the past 10 months. I have heard it said that a government of angels couldn't survive a period of hard times, and when the former Federal administration in Canada endeavored to prove that times were good the opposition, the would-be government, set about to prove that times were not good and that the forecast for the future was by no means encouraging, and we practically elected it on the basis of that promise to reduce unemployment.

Six weeks after the election a special session of Parliament was called. That establishes a record for Canada, incidentally, in getting under way so rapidly. The sum of \$20,000,000 was set aside by the Federal Government to be used in providing work, so far as

possible, but to be used also in special cases in assisting in direct relief. Primarily the difficulty was to provide work. Twenty million dollars spread over a country as large as yours, including Alaska, is not an awful lot to take care of the situation during the winter months, but the wise provision was made that this money should be matched by money appropriated by municipalities and Provinces.

The result has been that unemployment relief projects have been carried out throughout Canada. The municipalities in most instances instituted the work, and it would take a long time to outline the various forms of relief work that have been undertaken. But briefly it has been in the construction of roads, sewers, and parks. We are going to have a more elaborate system of parks in Canada as a result of this last year's relief work. In taking advantage of the Federal Government's offer to pay a portion of the cost the municipalities are benefiting, inasmuch as a job which might, for purposes of argument, cost a hundred thousand dollars if done by ordinary methods, might cost much less on the relief basis. So they can spread that out and do more work.

That provision was one of the incentives that caused the various towns and cities to embark on this plan of providing unemployment relief work. The next thing was how to distribute the work. There are about 70 centers where this work is carried on, and it was the general practice to use the local office to carry on this work, not only to make the first selection of men but to keep the rotations going so that there was absolute fairness in the distribution of the work. There were, of course, centers where local politics entered slightly into the scheme of things, and where there would be charges made that John Jones had had six weeks of work and somebody else had not had any work. But by and large, and may I say somewhat to my surprise, the scheme has worked out with absolute fairness throughout the Dominion.

This has helped remarkably in getting through a most difficult winter. That is in all probability going to be necessary again next year, and the minor difficulties that have been encountered during the past winter will not be in evidence next year. The provincial governments also undertook relief work, without reference to the municipalities. I am perfectly well aware of that fact, because it is almost impossible to carry on a telephone conversation in my office at the present time in view of the fact that an addition to our building is being constructed, an addition which under ordinary conditions would not have been needed for two or three years at least. But the Province wanted to set an example to the municipalities and commenced the construction of this 6-story building and registered the men in order as they applied at the building. That is one of the things that we have done.

The newspapers have cooperated with us, exactly 100 per cent. Where there has been any local influence, or tendency to put men on relief work because of lodge or other connections, the editorial columns of the newspapers have strongly urged that the facilities of the employment service be used in all cases, and they have supported us in that way. In addition, the newspapers in many places have printed full-page advertisements without cost, outlining, as has

been done in Boston, and in Detroit, and in other American cities, the definite jobs that can be done, or things that can be done around your home, and have given the telephone numbers of the employment service and have stressed our willingness to cooperate with qualified help. Those are all panaceas, but the advantage of them has been that the unemployed workers in Canada have maintained their morale, feeling that a serious attempt was being made to help them, and even if a man only got one week's work in five, if he felt that he was getting it in his turn and that no one else was getting three weeks work in five, it has helped to maintain his self-respect and has prevented him from lining up with the more radical element in the community, the professional agitators whom we have in Canada, as you no doubt have in the United States.

President **ROOKSBERY**. Mr. Roach, I wonder if you would give us your thoughts on this subject, just sort of sum it up for us?

Mr. **ROACH** (New Jersey). I think that the answer has been given by Mr. Hudson when he said that the remedy for unemployment was employment. If some one could outline a system by which there would be a wider and a more diversified diffusion of the products of labor, so that people might in all times be in a position to buy back the things they create, we would probably not have any unemployment. But I have not heard anybody bring forward a workable scheme which will accomplish that laudable purpose.

That is being attempted in Soviet Russia, with very little success, as far as I can learn. I do not know whether it has ever been tried in this Commonwealth, and I do not think we will ever have any relief for these periodic depressions that have been recorded in our economic history until some way has been devised to put into the hands of the consuming public the power to buy what they create. What has been done in Canada has probably been done in all of the States to a greater or lesser degree. Efforts have been made to sustain the morale of the workman, but nothing has been done at all that would strike at the root of the evil.

President **ROOKSBERY**. Doctor Patton, I wonder if you could say something.

Doctor **PATTON** (New York). It is foolish for this organization to think for a moment that we can solve the unemployment problem. People have tried it ever since modern industry came into existence. It seems to me that an organization such as this would have to devote itself chiefly to a consideration of the best methods as to handling the unemployment situation, just as Mr. Hudson has spoken of in Canada.

It is, however, true that we ought to give consideration, along with the rest of the people of the world, as to the basic causes of unemployment. But for us to assume that we could by the arrangement of a particular program announce to the world that we had discovered a cure, or a solution, for unemployment would be beside the mark. One of the editions of the New York Sunday Times last winter listed 358, or some such number, specific causes of unemployment. Such a statement as that indicates the complexity of the problem.

There are two things that ought to be kept in mind. One is that the immediate problem facing us is the problem of relief and the best method of handling it. Now, whatever the cause may be, if a man

is sick we want to treat him and we want a skilled medical practitioner to render that treatment. There is need also for a research specialist to discover the cause of any illness and how to prevent its coming again.

I would not say that I did not get anything out of the unemployment session. I feel that I did, and I would not say that we ought rigidly to limit our consideration to the specific problems that we have to face. The wider the background of general knowledge that we all have, the more likely is it that we can make specific recommendations. I do not think it is quite true to say that there has been nothing at all done in the direction of preventing unemployment. The rather carefully thought-out studies and experiments which have been put into effect this last year in a number of the States, leading to stabilization of employment, I think, are very hopeful. I think that they have contributed very materially, and in specific experiments like that, I think the States and organizations like this have been of real value.

I feel that the report of the New York State Commission on the Stabilization of Employment, with the concrete information that has been gathered, and the recommendations that have been made, is well worth the attention of everybody. I would be glad to send a copy of it to anybody who would like to see it. There are a number of other similar reports that have been made. But if you want to enlarge the growth and welfare of this organization, I can say now that if we will locate the germ of unemployment, or discover it, that we will never be troubled by the lack of funds again.

President ROOKSBERY. Mr. Horner, would you give us your thoughts on the subject?

Mr. HORNER (Pennsylvania). I have been impressed with the addresses I have heard on the unemployment question and I think, of course, the thing to do, if it can be done, would be to stabilize employment. In Pennsylvania we have a commission wrestling with that problem, the same as many of the other States have.

An extensive building program has been carried on by the State and just now we are planning to take over 20,000 miles of dirt road, which will help to give employment. But as Doctor Patton said, I think, if this association could provide some method of taking care of this situation in the future, we would not lack funds.

President ROOKSBERY. We will follow our course of regular business now and have the report of the resolutions committee.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

Public Employment Offices

Resolved, That the association places itself on record as favoring Federal cooperative supervision and financial aid in the development of State employment offices rather than an independent system of Federal employment offices.

Cooperation on Child-Labor Standards

Resolved, That the Association of Governmental Officials in Industry of the United States and Canada hereby approves cooperation with the committee on

the regulation of the employment of minors in hazardous trades, organized by the Children's Bureau on the recommendation of the White House conference to collect and analyze information which may be used as a basis for the formulation of scientifically determined standards for the protection of children and young persons from occupational hazards, which standards may serve as a guide to the various States in the revision of their legislation in this field.

That this association hereby goes on record as favoring such cooperation and authorizes the executive board of the organization to appoint representatives to serve on that committee.

That this association also urges the labor officials constituting its membership to aid the committee by furnishing information and in any other way possible.

Collection of Employment Statistics

Whereas comprehensive and reliable information with reference to the trends of employment and the earnings of wage earners is essential in order that any measures adopted for the relief of the unemployed, or any plan for the issuance of unemployment insurance, or the setting up of unemployment reserve funds may be based on a full knowledge of conditions and sound judgment, be it

Resolved, That the Association of Governmental Officials in Industry of the United States and Canada urge all State bureaus of labor and like agencies which are not already engaged in the collection of pay-roll data from representative manufacturing establishments to undertake such collection periodically and systematically, following the so-called "standard plan" adopted by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics and by a number of leading industrial States.

That the scope of such collection of pay-roll data be extended to include the building industry, wholesale and retail trade, public utilities, agriculture, office employment, employment in hotels and restaurants, and all other important fields of employment.

That wherever possible or expedient the results be presented, classified by sex and earnings of employees.

That efforts be made also to secure and publish periodically data with reference to employment by governmental agencies, State, county, and municipal, and employment on public works, whether constructed directly by governmental agencies or under contract, in order to determine the extent to which such public works contribute to an increase in the amount of available employment.

Child-Labor Recommendations

Resolved, That the association urge the labor officials of all the States to stimulate interest in the child-labor recommendations of the White House conference and to assist in securing the adoption of those standards in their respective States.

Protection of Minors in Vocational Training Courses

Resolved, That the association invite the cooperation of the superintendent's department of the National Educational Association and of the State officials responsible for supervision of vocational and trade-training courses in order to insure adequate protection from industrial accidents for minors in such training courses.

These resolutions were adopted.

DISCUSSION ON BUILDING UP THE ASSOCIATION

President **ROOKSBERY**. We now have a few moments to discuss the question of building up the association.

Mr. MAGNUSSON (Washington, D. C.). While I do not wish to plead for bureaucratizing the association or unduly centralizing it from Washington, I think it highly desirable that we have a broader and more national point of view; in other words, more coordination, if that is not too strong a word. I think my suggestion would indicate that I have nothing violent or forcible in mind. How would it be, in order to give the association greater national prestige, to invite the United States Secretary of Labor and the Canadian Minister of Labor, while they are already active members of the association, to become honorary presidents of the organization, if only to indicate their general interest in our problems and to show that we have a certain amount of national consciousness; that many of the problems with which we deal have national implications and significance. It is significant as indicating the national character of our activities that private associations which are concerned with our problems (like the labor groups and the employers) are all national in their scope and do not presume to function merely within the limits of the States' boundaries. The economic problems of this country are not confined to political State boundaries. The producer operates not within a limited, but within a national, market. Competition of labor with labor is national. Everyone, in short, is constantly referring to the continental, free-trade character of the American economic system. The very fact that this association exists as such is evidence of the truly national scope of our interests. The application of my suggestion, then, in other words, would only be one further recognition of facts we already perceive.

Mr. WHITAKER (Georgia). I realize that the time is limited and I only want to make a few suggestions. However, I want to say that I have been impressed with the suggestions made by Mr. Magnusson and the others. In the first place we have to consider what is responsible for the nonaffiliation of States now. If I have been correctly informed, some of the reasons why we have no representatives here from some of the States in the Union are the lack of appropriations and perhaps a lack of the complete knowledge of our purposes.

I am particularly interested in the suggestions made by previous speakers in connection with uniform labor laws. I believe, for this association to grow, particularly among the States that are not represented now, that we should, if possible, formulate a plan or a program that would not be identical with those of other boards. I believe that if we would arrange through the coming executive boards, in our future programs, to follow a policy of directing our attention more to the uniformity and the need of labor legislation, that by that method we would be able to distinguish ourselves from other boards and become more efficient in our own association, over a certain specialized field of activity.

Another thing that I believe is important for this committee, and which the president recommended, is to find out the reasons why these nonaffiliated States are not attending. If our information is correct it is due to lack of funds. But we should make an effort to build up a feeling among the laboring people in the community that

will create a demand for attendance to the authorities that govern the appropriations, with the view of securing it. I am of the opinion that if the laboring people of the United States fully understood the aims and objects of this association the apparent objections to travel of labor officials in these States would be overcome by public sentiment.

Another suggestion I have to make is that this incoming board prepare a report, or a separate pamphlet, giving a list of the labor officials in the United States and Canada, with their names and addresses, putting under one heading the affiliated, and under another heading the nonaffiliated, and those who do and those who do not attend, with a view to conducting a campaign to get more of the nonaffiliated into the association.

I believe that the suggestion made by Mr. Magnusson of inviting the Federal Secretaries of Labor to become honorary presidents in the association would materially benefit this association. It is people who are charged with such responsibilities whom we desire. If we are going to originate labor laws and continue to enforce them, we must continue our campaign along the line of such direct and specific officials of the law, and I believe that their attendance would create a favorable impression of our meetings. We have come to the point in the South where most of the labor laws have to be sponsored by the department itself. There is a feeling there that we are trying to pass laws in order to get to enforce them. That is a condition that is coming to pass, and as a result we must try to see if we can not build up our prestige. I would like to see these suggestions that we have made given some consideration, to see if we can not find some means of carrying them out during the next year.

Buffalo was chosen as the place of the next convention.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year:

President.—E. Leroy Sweetser, commissioner department of labor and industries, Boston, Mass.

First vice president.—E. B. Patton, director division of statistics and information, department of labor, New York, N. Y.

Second vice president.—T. E. Whitaker, industrial commissioner, Atlanta, Ga.

Third vice president.—A. W. Crawford, deputy minister department of labor, Toronto, Ontario.

Fourth vice president.—Edward F. Seiller, chief labor inspector department of agriculture, labor, and statistics, Louisville, Ky.

Fifth vice president.—Mrs. Isabelle M. Summers, director bureau of women and children, department of labor, Trenton, N. J.

Secretary-treasurer.—Louise E. Schutz, superintendent division of women and children, industrial commission, St. Paul, Minn.

(Convention adjourned.)

HONORARY LIFE MEMBERS

GEORGE P. HAMBRECHT, Wisconsin.

FRANK E. WOOD, Louisiana.

LINNA BRESSETTE, Illinois.

DR. C. B. CONNELLEY, Pennsylvania.

JOHN H. HALL, JR., Virginia.

HERMAN WITTER, Ohio.

JOHN S. B. DAVIE, New Hampshire.

R. H. LANSBURGH, Pennsylvania.

ALICE McFARLAND, Kansas.

H. M. STANLEY, Georgia.

American Representative, International Labor Office.

A. L. URICK, Iowa.

DR. ANDREW F. McBRIDE, New Jersey.

Appendix A

LIST OF PERSONS WHO ATTENDED THE EIGHTEENTH ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE ASSOCIATION OF GOVERNMENTAL OFFICIALS IN INDUSTRY

UNITED STATES

Arkansas

Rooksbery, W. A., bureau of labor statistics, Little Rock.

Colorado

Alexander, M. H., deputy labor commissioner, Denver.

Delaware

Dickey, C. W., E. I. Du Pont de Nemours & Co., Wilmington.
Hagner, Charles A., chief child labor division, Wilmington.

District of Columbia

Baldwin, Charles E., Assistant Commissioner of Labor, Washington.
Brunson, H. L., Department of Labor, Washington.
Croxtton, Fred C., President's Emergency Committee for Employment, Washington.
Magnusson, Leifur, American representative International Labor Office, Washington.
Peterson, Agnes L., assistant director Women's Bureau, Washington.
Sharkey, Charles F., Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington.

Georgia

Whitaker, T. E., industrial commissioner, industrial commission, Atlanta.

Illinois

Davis, Anne, director vocational guidance bureau, board of education, Chicago.

Indiana

Reagin, James, industrial board, Indianapolis.

Kentucky

Brown, Miss Louie D., deputy labor inspector, Lexington.
Seiller, Edward F., chief labor inspector, Louisville.

Maryland

Rogers, Mrs. George H., assistant commissioner, Baltimore.

Massachusetts

Archibald, Lester E., division of statistics, Boston.
Askins, Leo, division of industrial safety, Boston.
Atsatt, Mr., division of industrial safety, Boston.
Barry, James F., public employment office, Boston.
Brown, Frederick, division of industrial safety, Boston.

Burke, Mrs. Margaret, division of statistics, Boston.
 Byrne, Francis P., public employment office.
 Christenson, Elmer I., division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Clifford, Margaret, division of statistics, Boston.
 Collins, Margaret, division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Collins, William D., division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Conroy, Walter C., public employment office.
 Cook, Gertrude, division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Dahill, Gerald, division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Daley, Daniel, division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Delaney, James J., division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Dexter, John R., chief inspector division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Donohue, Robert J., division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Downes, Ruth, division of statistics, Boston.
 Dwyer, William, division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Egan, Thomas, division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Ferguson, Euphemia, division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Fisher, Edward, associate commissioner department of labor and industries,
 Boston.
 Fitzgerald, William E., division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Foote, John, division of statistics, Boston.
 Giblin, Edward, public employment office.
 Goff, Andrew, division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Gould, Herbert, division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Grant, Edward, division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Haggerty, James J., division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Halley, George, public employment office.
 Hanna, Everett L., public employment office.
 Hassett, John B., division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Hawkes, Frederick C., public employment office.
 Hingston, Ethel, public employment office.
 Johnson, Ethel M., assistant commissioner department of labor and industries,
 Boston.
 King, Joseph F., division of statistics, Boston.
 Knight, Fred M., board of conciliation and arbitration, Boston.
 Lamb, Leon M., secretary industrial commission, Boston.
 Lawless, Loretto U., division of statistics, Boston.
 Lawrence, E. V., division of industrial statistics, Boston.
 McCartin, M. Joseph, assistant secretary industrial commission, Boston.
 McDonough, John J., division of industrial safety, Boston.
 McGrath, Joseph, acting mayor, Boston.
 McLaughlin, George F., public employment office, Boston.
 McLellan, Arthur P., public employment office, Boston.
 Maher, Genevieve A., division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Margeson, Richard, division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Meade, John P., director division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Miller, George F., division of statistics, Boston.
 Murphy, Dr. Francis, division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Murphy, William, division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Nichols, Mrs. Martha F., division of minimum wage, Boston.
 Nickerson, Harold L., Crompton & Knowles Loom Works, Boston.
 O'Brien, Joseph, division of industrial safety, Boston.
 O'Brien, Margaret, division of statistics, Boston.
 O'Neil, Edward, division of statistics, Boston.
 O'Neil, James E., division of industrial safety, Boston.
 O'Sullivan, Mrs. M. K., division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Phelps, Roswell F., division of statistics, Boston.
 Power, Agnes L., division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Pratt, Leslie W., division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Raeburn, Andrew S., industrial commission, Boston.
 Reagan, James P., division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Regis, John, division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Ross, Samuel, associate commissioner department of labor and industries,
 Boston.
 Scanga, John, division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Shea, Margaret W., division of statistics, Boston.

Sherry, Philip, division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Smith, Edwin S., Wm. Filene Sons, Boston.
 Sweetser, E. Leroy, commissioner department of labor and industries, Boston.
 Vaughan, Arthur J., division of industrial safety, Boston.
 Wasgatt, Herbert A., associate commissioner department of labor and industries, Boston.
 Wilder, William A., public employment office, Boston.

Minnesota

McColl, Henry, commissioner industrial commission, St. Paul.
 Schutz, Louise E., superintendent division of women and children, industrial commission, St. Paul.

New Hampshire

Davie, John S. B., commissioner bureau of labor, Concord.

New Jersey

Roach, John, deputy commissioner of labor, Trenton.
 Summers, Mrs. Isabelle M., director bureau of women and children, Trenton.

New York

Ainsworth, Cyril, American Standards Association, New York.
 Andrews, Elmer F., deputy industrial commissioner, New York.
 Andrews, John B., American Association for Labor Legislation, New York.
 Gernon, James L., director division of inspection, New York.
 Gilson, Mary B., Industrial Relations Counselors (Inc.), New York.
 Patton, Eugene B., director division of statistics and information, New York.
 Perkins, Frances, industrial commissioner, New York.
 Van Kleeck, Mary, Russell Sage Foundation, New York.

North Dakota

Angus, Alice, secretary minimum wage commission, Bismarck.

Pennsylvania

Campbell, John, director bureau of industrial standards, Harrisburg.
 Carr, Charlotte, E., deputy labor commissioner, Harrisburg.
 Horner, W. H., director bureau of workmen's compensation, Harrisburg.
 Immel, Harry D., director bureau of inspection, Harrisburg.
 McConnell, Beatrice, director bureau of women and children, Harrisburg.

Wisconsin

Swett, Maud, field director woman and child labor department, Milwaukee.

CANADA

Ontario

Crawford, A. W., deputy minister of labor, Toronto.
 Hudson, H. C., general superintendent Ontario Government Employment Office, Toronto.
 Plant, F. J., chief labor intelligence branch, Department of Labor, Ottawa.

Appendix B.—Foreign Labor Legislation, 1930

By LEIFUR MAGNUSSON, *Washington Representative, International Labor Office*

INTERNATIONAL LABOR ORGANIZATION

NEW TREATIES AND RATIFICATIONS 1930-31

The International Labor Conference at its regular session (May-June) in 1930 drafted two labor treaties. One of these treaties aims to abolish all forced native or colonial labor for all private purposes, and to apply strict regulation to the use of such labor for necessary public work. The other treaty extends to employees in nonindustrial work the maximum 8-hour day and 48-hour week already applied to industrial work in an earlier treaty.

The fifteenth session of the conference, May-June, 1931, rounded out its program of child welfare by bringing the employment of children in non-industrial occupations into line with the existing treaties limiting employment to 14 years in industry and agriculture. This brings the total number of labor treaties to 92.

Ratifications of these treaties at the end of 1930 numbered 438, and at the end of June, 1931, 465. Of this final number, 437 have been registered, and 28 have been approved by the competent authority but not formally deposited with the Secretariat of the League of Nations. During the calendar year 1930 there were 31 ratifications of the treaties of the International Labor Organization, and during the first six months of 1931, there were 14. In 1930, 14 different countries ratified one or more conventions and 18 different conventions were ratified by one or more countries as follows (the ratifications of the first six months of 1931 are followed by the year in parentheses):

- Hours convention: Belgium, Lithuania (1931).
- Night work of women: Lithuania (1931).
- Night work of young persons: Lithuania (1931).
- Employment offices for seamen: Rumania, Spain (1931).
- Minimum age for employment in agriculture: Rumania.
- Rights of agricultural labor to organize: Denmark, Rumania.
- Workmen's compensation in agriculture: Italy.
- Weekly rest day: Irish Free State, Lithuania (1931).
- Minimum age of employment for trimmers and stokers: Japan, Greece, Irish Free State, Netherlands (1931).
- Medical examination of young persons employed at sea: Greece, Irish Free State.
- Equality of treatment for native and foreign workers and their dependents under workmen's compensation laws: Estonia, Irish Free State.
- Simplification of inspection of immigrants on board ship: Irish Free State, Hungary (1931).
- Seaman's articles of agreement: France, Germany, Spain (1931).
- Repatriation of seamen: Germany, Irish Free State, Spain (1931).
- Sickness insurance for industrial workers: Bulgaria, Great Britain (1931), Lithuania (1931).
- Sickness insurance for agricultural workers: Bulgaria, Great Britain (1931).
- Minimum wage fixing machinery: China, France, Irish Free State, Italy, Spain, Australia (1931).
- Marking of weight on packages transported by vessels: Irish Free State, Australia (1931), Japan (1931), Luxemburg (1931), China (1931).
- Prevention of accident to dockers: Irish Free State, Luxemburg (1931).
- Forced or compulsory labor: Irish Free State (1931), Liberia (1931), Great Britain (1931).

NATIONAL LEGISLATION

Not all laws, amendments, regulations, etc., adopted by foreign countries are included in the following notes. The items here included are those which have been the subject of considerable interest in the countries to which they apply or represent steps in bringing the practice of the country into line with the requirements of international labor conventions.

TRADE-UNIONS

Austria passed a law protecting the freedom of assembly and giving certain sanctions to collective agreements, while forbidding the check-off and exclusion of unorganized workers from any employment. *Finland* provided that associations may be enjoined from engaging in activities "contrary to law or morals," but the injunction must be submitted to court examination within a given period. *Malta* required registration of trade-unions. The *Russian* Government issued a decree defining the legal responsibility of trade-unions.

WAGES

New South Wales adopted, for the basic wage set by the industrial commission, the family unit of man, wife, and one child, with a "family endowment" of about \$1.25 per week for each additional child, to be raised by a tax on employers of 1 per cent of their wages bill.

Countries where minimum wage rates are set under legislative provisions have made various additions to the occupations for which minima are established or have adjusted rates.

HOURS

Daily and weekly.—*Argentina* made regulations establishing 8 hours as the maximum working-day in all commercial and industrial undertakings. In unhealthful occupations the working-day is to be of 6 hours only, without reduction of wages. *France* adopted various measures for application of the 8-hour day law to particular industries. *Japan* reduced hours of work in silk mills from 11 to 10 and reduced hours of all miners engaged in underground work to 9. *Poland* set a maximum for employment in street-car service of 184 hours' work in any period of 4 weeks, making an average of 46 hours a week, no day to exceed 10½ hours. *Russia* issued an order for purpose of hastening introduction of 7-hour day. It provided for progressive introduction of "continuous working" of industries, by rotation of working periods among workers; in building industry and seasonal undertakings and their clerical staffs 6 days work and 1 day rest, in other occupations under the system 4 days work and 1 day rest, *Sweden* made permanent the maximum 8-hour day, which had already been established temporarily. It also continued by law until the end of 1933 the temporary provisions for the 8-hour day and 48-hour week in work on certain types of ships.

Weekly rest.—*France* required gasoline and oil stations to give employees a weekly day of rest in rotation. *Great Britain* ordered barbers' and hair-dressing shops to be closed on Sundays, with certain exceptions. *Hungary* required work to be suspended from 6 a. m. Sunday to 6 a. m. Monday in flour milling. *Rumania* forbade the appearance of papers in Bucharest on Monday mornings or days following official holidays.

Night work in bakeries.—*Bulgaria* issued regulations for abolishing night work in bakeries. *Sweden* made permanent a temporary prohibition of night work in bakeries.

Increases in working hours.—*Belgium* provided for limited exception to the general law for maximum 8-hour day and 48-hour week in the case of a branch of the flax industry. *Italy* provided for limited exception to the general law for maximum 8-hour day and 48-hour week in the case of a branch of the textile industry. *New South Wales* increased the maximum working week from 44 to 48 hours to meet the industrial crisis.

EMPLOYMENT

Employment offices.—The *Free City of Danzig* amended its system of employment offices. *Italy* amended legislation relating to employment exchanges; also passed legislation establishing a system of public employment offices for agricultural workers in Italy. *Japan* established a new parliamentary commission on ways and means of relieving unemployment. In *Russia*, the Labor Commissariat issued instructions to employment offices for stricter attention to class policy in selection of applicants and called for consideration of occupational qualifications and social antecedents and outlook, etc. *Saar Territory* reorganized its system of public employment offices and made regulations aiming at the abolition of fee-charging agencies. *Yugoslavia* provided for the abolition of private employment offices.

Unemployment relief.—*Australia: Victoria* imposed for one year a stamp tax and an income tax, the income tax to be devoted to relief of unemployment. *Queensland* imposed a supertax on incomes and wages, the income to be used for unemployment relief. *New South Wales* provided for the establishment of a council for the prevention and relief of unemployment and an unemployment relief fund. *Canada* appropriated \$20,000,000 for relief, which it was arranged to spend partly in direct relief, partly through the Provinces for assisting local public works, and partly through work undertaken by railways, on all of which fair wages are to be paid and the 8-hour day observed. *Czechoslovakia* authorized the granting of subsidies to public utility companies for the execution of works in the public interest to give employment. *Finland* adopted new rules governing State action for the relief of unemployment. In *Germany* the Government initiated the creation of a limited company for the promotion of public works, under State control, for the purpose of obtaining German or foreign capital for productive unemployment relief. *Great Britain* passed a law to facilitate the execution of works which will contribute to the relief of unemployment. *Italy* instituted a scheme of public works to provide employment for approximately 200,000 unemployed persons. The *Saar Territory* regulated the administration of productive relief works as a remedy for unemployment.

SOCIAL INSURANCE

France amended her system of seamen's insurance against accident, sickness, and old age. It replaced its former insurance measures by a new act covering, in one integrated system, sickness and invalidity benefits, child-birth benefits, old-age pensions, and death benefits. The measure also provides for compulsory insurance of certain groups and allows voluntary insurance by independent shopkeepers, small artisans, etc., and by nonwage-earning wives of insured persons. *Germany* issued a decree revising the systems of health and unemployment insurance. *Holland* established compulsory sickness insurance. *Northern Ireland* provided for the inclusion of medical benefits among the benefits conferred upon injured persons and abolished certain exceptions to insurance coverage. *Russia* in her 5-year plan made provision for the development of social insurance against accident, disease, old age, and unemployment.

Unemployment insurance.—*Belgium* reduced from one year to six months the period which members of unemployment societies are required to complete before being entitled to benefit. *Czechoslovakia* made provision for relief in kind for unemployed persons not in receipt of insurance benefits and for their families. It authorized the granting of subsidies to public utility companies for the execution of works in the public interest to give employment. *Germany* increased unemployment insurance contributions from 4½ to 6½ per cent of wages earned and extended payment of emergency relief to all trades except agricultural work and domestic service but reduced the rate and duration of such relief. *Great Britain* amended its unemployment insurance law and increased the borrowing powers of the unemployment insurance fund. *Poland* extended from 13 weeks to 17 weeks the period of benefit for unemployed persons whose right to benefits under the insurance system had expired June 30, 1930. *Russia* virtually abolished unemployment insurance in view of the great demand for labor in all occupations. Reciprocal declarations recognizing the right of the citizens of one country to receive unemployment insurance when living and working in the other have been exchanged between *Switzerland* and *Austria*, *Czechoslovakia*, *Denmark*, *Germany*, *Great Britain*, *Italy*, and *Poland*.

IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION

Restrictions have been placed on immigration by countries in various parts of the world, among them the following: *Canada*—In accordance with the new Canadian policy, Alberta has prohibited all immigration except for settlers of independent means. *Guatemala* placed restrictions on immigration from a number of countries in Eastern Europe, Asia, and Africa. *Mexico* provided special corps of police for detection of illicit immigrants. The *Straits Settlements* issued a proclamation suspending Chinese immigration for three months on account of unemployment. *Turkey* issued regulations defining formalities to be observed by foreigners entering the country.

Employment of foreign workers has been the subject of regulation in various countries. *France* issued instructions on procedure to be followed by aliens already in the country who wish to take employment. *Greece* required immigrant workers to obtain a license before seeking employment. *Mexico* sanctioned admission of 620 Russian families for agricultural employment.

Departure of workers from several European countries has been restricted in general or for certain destinations. From *Spain* to certain places where unemployment is prevalent. From *Poland* to *Argentina*.

General supervision of migration has been extended, as in the following instances: *France* instituted a system of registration for all persons entering or departing from the Cameroons, including French citizens. It also authorized recruiting agents to obtain advances to cover the cost of bringing agricultural workers into France. The *Government of the Ivory Coast* set up an office of emigration and immigration. *Poland* created a shipping company to provide direct communication between the United States and Poland. *Spain* regulated accommodation of emigrants on board ship and fares which may be charged during the current year.

A number of *reciprocal and other agreements* were concluded between countries on the subject of migration or treatment to be accorded their nationals, as in the following instances: *France and Austria* reciprocally agreed to admit each year 75 young workers who wish to improve their knowledge of trades and languages. They agreed on the position to be occupied by workers from each country employed in the other and on the fullest possible equality of treatment as between immigrants and nationals. *France and China* agreed on simplification of formalities in crossing the frontier between Indo-China and neighboring Chinese States. *France and Germany* concluded a convention facilitating passage of the frontier by workers domiciled on one side and working on the other. *France and Czechoslovakia* agreed on changes in the rules for recruiting Czechoslovakian workers for France and on eligibility to social insurance. They agreed on reciprocal admission of 100 young workers a year for purpose of training. *Great Britain and Australia* agreed on suspension of the assisted passage clause in the agreement between the two countries respecting migration. *Lithuania and Latvia* agreed on recruitment of Lithuanian agricultural workers for employment in Latvia. *South Africa and Japan* concluded a gentlemen's agreement providing for immigration of certain classes of Japanese citizens.

At a conference in Geneva in 1929 an arrangement for the issue of transit cards to European emigrants was drafted. The Secretariat of the League of Nations reported in January, 1930, that it had so far been signed by *Belgium, Finland, France, Great Britain, North Ireland, Italy, Poland, Rumania, Spain,* and the Governing Commission of the *Saar Territory*.

EDUCATION

Poland provided for reorganization of secondary vocational, industrial, and technical schools. *Lithuania* introduced State regulation of vocational training. *Chile* provided for regulation of industrial education of teaching staff of industrial educational establishments.

MINING

France and Poland made a mutual agreement by which France agrees to extend benefits of her compensation schemes to Poles employed in French mines, and Poland to deal similarly with French workers. *Great Britain* set standard maximum of 7½ hours a day for miners, with option of 90 hours in two weeks, if agreed to by miners' and employers' associations both local and national. *Japan* amended mining regulations to prevent accidents and promote hygiene.

SALARIED EMPLOYEES AND PROFESSIONAL WORKERS

Brazil imposed tax of 50 per cent on tickets of motion-picture houses in which orchestras are replaced by mechanical operators, the proceeds to be devoted to relief of displaced musicians. *Greece* legalized the agreement arrived at between representatives of employers and salaried employees on subject of notice of dismissal. *Holland* required a day off during the week for persons employed on Sunday as musicians in motion-picture houses. *Italy* gave statutory recognition to a national sickness insurance fund for salaried employees. *Peru*

required compensation of salaried employees for dismissal at certain proportion of salary after three months' service. *Poland* issued an order relating to registration of unemployed professional workers in the public employment offices and regulating the system of supervision and sickness benefit. Provision that established holidays can be included in the required three months' notice of dismissal of salaried employees with consent of employees but not otherwise. *Rumania* regulated hours and overtime of private salaried employees. It required music-hall artists and companies of players to have certificates of proficiency and a contract of employment indorsed by the trade-union. *Russia* passed an act to facilitate application of labor code to salaried employees of retail shops controlled by State or cooperative societies.

PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT

Czechoslovakia provided that certain groups are to receive a bonus of 70 per cent of monthly salary, on December 1st of each year in which they complete 10 months' service. *France* adopted measures for stabilization of employment of municipal officials and employees, covering recruiting, promotion, discipline, and discharge. It adjusted pensions to new salary scale. *Great Britain* decided that consideration in filling certain types of positions be given to ex-regular soldiers, sailors, and airmen. *Greece* authorized civil servants pension fund to issue loans to officials still in service, retired officials and families of deceased civil servants. *Switzerland* issued regulations governing working hours in various administrative services, in the courts, and on Federal railways.

WOMEN'S WORK

Bolivia issued a decree on employment of women, forbidding employment underground, providing for cessation of work 30 days before confinement, with holding of position during that time, and for nursing periods after return to work. It also forbids night work and employment in a list of dangerous or unhealthful occupations, and stipulates maximum loads to be carried by women between 16 and 20 years of age. *Canada*: Alberta forbade employment of women about mines in any but clerical or domestic work. *Turkey* made provision for women leaving their work before confinement and for allowing them time to nurse their infants after return to work.

CHILD LABOR

Bolivia issued a decree forbidding employment of children under 10 years of age and employment of children over 10 who have not finished their education unless their wages are necessary for support of parents or brothers or sisters. *Canada*: New Brunswick enacted legislation regulating street trading by children, night work, truancy, begging, etc. Alberta excluded all women and boys under 16 from all employment about mines, except clerical work or domestic work in residences and all minors from charge of conveyances used to transport passengers. *China* promulgated a factory act which forbids employment of children less than 14 years of age, or employment of children between 14 and 16 years on any but light and easy work, and excluding the latter from any occupations involving exposure to a long list of risks, sets a maximum 8-hour day for children under 16 and forbids their employment between 6 p. m. and 7 a. m.; requires at least 10 hours supplementary education weekly and makes provision for enforcement. *Germany* established new regulations touching the employment of young people under 16 and under 18 years of age in certain dangerous or difficult occupations. *Nova Scotia* amended its child labor act giving to town governments the power to regulate the work of children under 16 years in street trades and messenger service. *Syria* regulated child labor forbidding employment of children under 11 years except for four hours a day in manufacturing for vocational education or in works in charity and forbidding employment of children under 16 years at night. *Turkey* prohibited employment of children under 12 in industry or mining, the employment of children between 12 and 16 years of age after 8 p. m. or in dangerous occupations, and the employment of young persons under 18 years in bars, cafés, etc.

NATIVE LABOR

Dahomey required protection of cotton and kapok pickers from dust and irritating particles. *French Equatorial Africa* decreed as a measure against vagrancy an increased penalty for fraudulently obtaining advances of wages. *Tabun* ordered part of monthly wages of native laborers in public or private employment withheld and paid on termination of contracts whether by expiry or dismissal. *San Thomé* made regulations for the application of the Portuguese native labor code covering recruitment, contracts, housing, medical care, policing, etc. *South Africa* required that every contract of service for a period in excess of 30 days and every squatter's contract be entered into in writing in a prescribed form before a competent officer, who should explain the effect of the contract to both parties and register it with the native commissioner. The law prescribed assumed conditions of contract to apply where these requirements have not been met. *Togoland* prescribed conditions of employment on railway construction work.

SAFETY AND HEALTH

Belgium amended general regulation concerning explosives and set up extensive regulations for pneumatic or spray painting industry. It established competitive examinations for engineer factory inspectors. *Bolivia* laid down measures for the protection of workers' health in industrial establishments. *Finland* extended workers' protection act to include all workers performing paid labor for an employer, with the exception of work done on ships, work done by relatives of employer living in employer's house, and work done in a place not under control of the employer. Specifications concerning conditions of work, protective appliances, penalties, etc., are included. *France* set up technical committee on fire prevention and protection in connection with the Ministry of the Interior. Also set up safety committees in Government powder factories and a central committee for the prevention of electrical accidents. It specified certain safety measures with regard to storing and handling of inflammable liquids, as well as the transport and handling of dangerous substances. It also made extensive rulings relating to the use of autogenous welding in the construction and repair of steam apparatus. *Germany* prohibited the use of white lead in interior painting of buildings whenever the quantity of lead contained exceeds 2 per cent and ordered various protective measures in industrial establishments where there is danger of lead poisoning. *Prussia* issued orders concerning the use of inflammable, explosive, and noxious substances, the heating of walled-in gasometers, and the construction of internal combustion engines. *Bremen* issued orders covering the testing of sling chains used in harbors. *Italy* instituted a corporative inspectorate invested with inspection powers of the labor inspectorate and technical industrial inspectorates which are abolished. *Japan* amended mining police regulations to make technical supervisors obligatory for establishments employing more than 150 miners. Extended to all mines provisions for accident prevention heretofore applying only to coal mines, as well as rules for control of equipment, penalties, etc. It strengthened the rules for control of explosions in coal mines. *Luxemburg* issued an order requiring representatives of workers in an undertaking to act as safety inspectors in cooperation with the head of the undertaking and the appropriate government inspector. *Portugal* approved extensive regulations for loading and unloading appliances used on board vessels of the mercantile marine.

ADMINISTRATION

Belgium created a national economic council to study and to advise on problems connected with economic welfare. *Greece* reorganized its factory inspection system. *Italy* constituted a national council of corporations representing professions, industry, handicrafts, agriculture, commerce, maritime and aerial transport, land transportation, inland navigation, and banking. *North Borneo* repealed a clause prescribing whipping for breach of contract likely to result in riot. *Peru* made regulations relating to inspection of conditions of work of women and young persons. *Poland* instituted use of mental tests in selection of new railway employees. *Spain* established a sociological institute which will supervise social science schools where officials of industrial joint committees are required to pass courses. It is closely connected with administration of the department of labor.