SOCIAL WORK YEAR BOOK

1941

A Description of Organized Activities in Social Work and in Related Fields

Sixth Issue

Editor
RUSSELL H. KURTZ



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PREFACE

THE *Social Work Year Book* is, in effect, a concise encyclopedia which undertakes to report the current status of "organized activities in social work and in related fields." Each biennial issue is independent of the others, the present volume being the sixth to be published.

It will be noted that the book contains two major sections. Part One consists of a group of 83 signed articles prepared by authorities on the topics discussed. Part Two is a directory of national and state agencies, both governmental and voluntary, whose programs are integral with or related to the subject matter of Part One. There is also an INTRODUCTION and an extensive INDEX.

As in previous issues, the topical articles are descriptive of functions, organized activities, and programs, rather than of individual agencies. An attempt has been made to present a factual, cross-section view of organization and practice in the various fields as they appeared in 1940, with a minimum of historical background and of forecast. Important developments transpiring in the two-year period since the 1939 *Social Work Year Book* was published have been emphasized. Coverage has been restricted to the United States except for one article, INTERNATIONAL SOCIAL WORK.

In determining what fields to consider "related" to social work for the purposes of this volume, the editor has sought to include (a) those whose practitioners share with social workers responsibility for a service to a common client or group of clients, and (b) those whose problems sharply impinge upon the area of social work practice and interest. The article LEGAL AID may be cited as an example of the former type of inclusion; the article HOUSING AND CITY PLANNING, of the latter. With "social work" itself a term of uncertain definition, it is impracticable to designate respective articles as belonging exclusively to either the "social work" or the "related" group. The 83 articles taken as a whole, however, do cover with considerable adequacy, it is felt, the wide range of social welfare interest and activity.

Inclusion of an article or description of a program carries no implication of endorsement; the only test has been that of relevance to the scope and purpose of the volume.

The audience of the *Social Work Year Book* is envisaged as including not only social workers and practitioners in related fields but also students of the social sciences, legislators and public administrators, publicists, reference librarians, teachers, agency board members, and other interested lay persons, whatever their connection with private or public social work. To the worker in a specialized field the articles should be helpful in providing current information concerning pro-

grams and activities in closely related areas. To the non-professional reader the volume will give a broad basis for a better understanding of the social problems and programs which so persistently challenge attention.

All contributors were informed that they might use passages from previous *Social Work Year Book* articles without giving credit, and several have done so. Acknowledgment of indebtedness to earlier authors for this use of their material is hereby made by the editor on behalf of all the contributors to the present volume.

Each article contains a list of selected references to the literature of the subject discussed. These lists comprise a total of 1,360 separate books and pamphlets and 450 magazine articles—constituting, it is believed, the most up-to-date and extensive social work bibliography published. Publishers' names are not included for books indexed in the *United States Catalog* or its supplements, or for periodicals named in the various lists of serials available. Those compilations, accessible in all leading public libraries, indicate the publishers' names for all included books and periodicals.

Part Two, DIRECTORIES OF AGENCIES, is in four sections: NATIONAL AGENCIES—PUBLIC; NATIONAL AGENCIES—PRIVATE; STATE AGENCIES—PUBLIC; and STATE AGENCIES—PRIVATE. The first of these sections lists 45 national governmental organizations whose functions are within or closely related to the field of social work. Many of these are discussed in the topical article FEDERAL AGENCIES IN SOCIAL WORK. The second lists a total of 395 national (and international) private or voluntary organizations. (*See also* the article NATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS IN SOCIAL WORK.) The third lists 521 public state agencies and the fourth, 62 private state agencies, including 53 state welfare conferences and state-wide associations of social workers and 9 state-wide organizations for social welfare planning. Due to space limitations, state-wide agencies in special fields are not included. Special reference is made to the public state agencies administering various titles of the Social Security Act, these being indicated by italics.

Inclusion of agencies in related fields greatly extends these lists, but it is difficult to draw more restrictive lines without excluding organizations whose programs contain significant elements of social work activity or interest. As with the topical articles, agencies are included without endorsement of their programs or standards. Profit-making bodies have not been included, nor agencies financed by such bodies or established primarily to serve their interests. It is recognized, however, that important contributions to social work have been made by some of these, and they are referred to by name in several of the articles.

Topical articles and agency listings are self-indexed through being arranged alphabetically. A list of the topical article titles will be found in the TABLE OF CONTENTS on pages 3–4, and an identification of contributors on pages 15–18. The reader who does not immediately find the article he seeks is referred to the INDEX where, under the title he has in mind, he should find a reference to the title of the article for which he is looking as well as references to the national agencies

whose work is significantly related to the subject in question. The INDEX also contains an alphabetical listing of all national, international, and state-wide private agencies included in Part Two, and cross references to these listings by functional rearrangement of titles. For example, the American Association for Adult Education is listed in the INDEX under both that title and the entry "Adult Education, American Association for."

In earlier issues (not including the 1939 volume) several pages were devoted to a classification of the topical articles into functional groups. That feature has been discontinued, partly because of space limitations but chiefly because of the difficulty of making satisfactory and fairly exclusive groupings. The subject matter of social work is such that many if not all the articles describe programs which could be classified under several generic headings. An illustration is the article CRIPPLED CHILDREN, which would require entry in the "health" and "handicapped" lists as well as under the more obvious heading "child welfare."

Further, it is believed that the relatedness of articles is readily apparent from the references made in them to other articles describing activities in the same or near-by fields. To illustrate: the article OLD AGE ASSISTANCE contains cross references at appropriate points to HOMES AND ALMSHOUSES, OLD AGE, OLD AGE AND SURVIVORS' INSURANCE, PERSONNEL PRACTICES IN PUBLIC WELFARE, and PUBLIC ASSISTANCE. Likewise, the article FINANCING PRIVATE SOCIAL WORK refers the reader to the articles COMMUNITY CHESTS, FINANCING PUBLIC SOCIAL WORK, FOUNDATIONS AND COMMUNITY TRUSTS, and NATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS IN SOCIAL WORK, among others. Similar threads of cross reference are woven throughout the entire group of articles in Part One.

Attention is called to the introduction in this issue of several new presentations of subject matter. The article CONSUMER INTERESTS describes the activities previously discussed in FAMILY INCOME MANAGEMENT and in addition covers, for the first time, consumer education and protection and the cooperative movement. The articles BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS and ADULT OFFENDERS are broader in their coverage than formerly as a result of the discontinuance of separate articles on JUVENILE TRAINING SCHOOLS; PAROLE; PRISONS, REFORMATORIES, AND JAILS; and PROBATION. Other changes of a similar nature have been made throughout the volume, in the interest of accurate reporting of the current social work scene. In addition, eight new articles have been introduced: CIVIC AND FRATERNAL ORGANIZATIONS, THE FAMILY, MEN IN MILITARY SERVICE, OLD AGE, RAILROAD WORKERS' INSURANCE, SOCIAL INSURANCE, SOCIAL WORKERS' ORGANIZATIONS, and WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCES. Other titles have been changed slightly without major alteration of their scope.

In planning and compiling the present volume the editor has had the help of an Advisory Committee whose names appear on page 1. While the Committee has been of great assistance in numerous ways, it has not been asked to take responsibility either for *Year Book* policies or for the final product, that resting entirely

with the editor. Since the editor also has delimited the subjects upon which the various contributors have written he shares with them, to a degree that varies with the different authors, responsibility for the adequacy of treatment which they have been able to achieve within the space allotted to them. On the other hand, no general verification has been attempted in the *Year Book* office of data presented by the various contributors.

The editor's indebtedness to all who have assisted in the preparation of the volume is gratefully acknowledged. These include the Advisory Committee and other consultants, the contributors of the topical articles, correspondents who have furnished information for Part Two, and the office staff.

Special acknowledgment is made of the valuable services rendered by Margaret B. Hodges, Assistant to the Editor, who participated in all phases of the book's planning and preparation and compiled the directories of agencies in Part Two.

RUSSELL H. KURTZ
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January 2, 1941

INTRODUCTION

SWEEPING changes have occurred in the pattern and scope of American social work since publication of the first issue of the *Social Work Year Book* in 1930. The intervening decade has been marked by widespread economic depression and unemployment, large-scale provision of relief and work to meet the emergency needs springing from these causes, and the creation of a social security program designed to protect the population to some degree against the more pressing uncertainties of life under modern industrial conditions.

The articles for the present volume have been prepared under the shadow of a new emergency. They reflect the sudden concern being felt over the state of our national defenses, a concern which is communicating itself to the administration of domestic affairs and seems certain to set new courses, during the next decade, for the movements and activities discussed in these pages.

Ten years ago, when the first *Social Work Year Book* appeared, the depression was scarcely a year old and had barely begun to affect the accepted social work pattern of the 1920's. True, relief needs had been increasing for a number of months, but little new machinery had been devised to meet them. The nation was still anticipating an early return to the prosperity of 1929 and felt that stop-gap local measures were all that were required to cope with the unemployment which had so embarrassingly intruded upon the economic scene. In most cities private social agencies were expected to render such emergency aid as was needed, with financial help from city and county treasuries but with no relinquishment of their status as the "safest" form of relief administration. The prevailing philosophy was *laissez faire;* and the chief objective of most welfare service programs was palliative, rather than preventive in terms of economic reconstruction.

The decade has brought about a major shift in these emphases. Today the dominant agencies are governmental rather than voluntary; the nature and extent of their programs are determined in a large degree on federal and state levels rather than locally; and many of their services are intended to be economically constructive rather than merely ameliorative. A large proportion of the assistance outlay of today is made in the form of wages paid to workers on socially useful projects. Public employment offices administer unemployment insurance benefits with one hand and placement service with the other. Specialized forms of aid and social insurance for the handicapped and dispossessed, with their stabilizing economic features, have come to be generally accepted.

This is not to say, however, that all goals sought have been reached. Many hundreds of thousands of persons still without these new protections are obliged to subsist, when disaster overtakes them, as best they can on meager, locally ad-

ministered general relief. The public welfare agencies set up to apply the new social services are frequently hamstrung by restricting political considerations, are inadequately financed, or are trying to carry huge case loads with small staffs of recently recruited and untrained or partly trained personnel. The constructive experiments directed toward economic rehabilitation of distressed areas and similar controls of the social environment have only partially succeeded. But despite these and other discouragements a broad base has been laid upon which is being erected an edifice of public welfare provision long needed in the American scheme of things.

Looking further afield, one sees other changes of major import to the social welfare of the American people. The labor movement has advanced during the decade to the status of an accepted, though sometimes imperfectly functioning, instrument appropriate to a democracy such as this. Civil liberties have come to have a vital significance to hundreds of thousands of persons who had scarcely heard the term before the decade began. Concern over public health, as exemplified in the new and frank emphasis on the eradicability of syphilis, has had rapid growth alongside the social security program and in partnership with it. Adult education and recreation have enlisted new devotees by the millions, benefiting from the aid made available by the large work programs of the federal government. The consumer—the wage-earner as a wage-spender with a limited budget to disburse—has made his presence known and has had his rights acknowledged, if not fully granted. Public housing for the lowest-income groups seems to be finding a way to win the long, discouraging fight on the slums. Labor legislation, protective of the working man and woman and prohibitive of the exploitation of children, has gone steadily forward. Mental hygiene and the treatment of neurotic and psychotic behavior have reached new levels of skill and understanding. Penology has become more aware of its own shortcomings, though slow to effect reforms against long-entrenched abuses. The rural community has been rediscovered and has been provided with many social advantages previously lacking. And the peculiar problems of youth in these times have been recognized, and experimental programs have been designed to deal with them.

In all of this the private agency has had a part, none the less important because overshadowed in many instances by the huge bulk of governmental action. The decade has been a trying one for voluntary service agencies, and its developments have required repeated adjustments of program to meet the needs of the rapidly changing situation. But, true to their tradition, most private agencies have gladly relinquished to government what government has been willing and prepared to assume, and have gone forward to pioneer in new fields.

The community, too, has adjusted itself to the changed order, accepting the supervision and direction of program which have accompanied the grants of state and federal funds given in aid of many of its activities. It has shown great ingenuity in fitting these grants and regulations into the local picture. Private social

planning agencies have invited the governmental departments into their deliberations and, reciprocally, have participated with considerable effectiveness in the administration of the public programs.

Old techniques have been refined and new ones developed within the general methodology of social welfare effort during the decade. Case work has become more skillful in dealing on the one hand with deep-seated personal maladjustments, and on the other with time-limited situations requiring quick decision and prompt action. Group work has sensed the social significance of the group experience to the participating individual and has enlarged its skill for putting this understanding effectively to work. Community organization has been challenged by the frequently changing local, state, and national situations and has risen to the challenge through varied programs of planning and action—without taking time, until quite recently, to examine critically the processes and methods which it has been using.

The long-established partnership of the supporting public and the agency with its employed professional staff has continued, though greatly modified by the shift of such a large proportion of the total service to governmental auspices. New personnel, selected and trained to administer the various programs, has been required; and provisions for recruiting, preparing, and protecting such personnel have gone forward with the aid of the schools of social work, civil service authorities, and professional associations. The spearhead of professionalism in the broad social work movement has developed in size and strength under the impact of the times. The trend toward acquisition of a generic competence by social workers has been hastened rather than retarded by the challenge of specialization of function and the induction into service of large numbers of new personnel. The lay public has sometimes seemed to be resentful of the implications of this development, but there is ample evidence that it is coming gradually to realize that sound results in this field, as elsewhere, hinge upon professional rather than merely routine "job" standards of performance.

The delineations of the field of social work remain as indefinite as heretofore. It has continued to be necessary for this volume, at least, to speak of "social work and related fields" when denoting the total area of social welfare effort. The social worker, however, as distinguished from the socially minded economist or legislator, the public health practitioner, the progressive educator, and other workers for human advancement, is coming to be recognized by what he *does,* if not defined otherwise. As an employed representative of an agency which has been devised to serve the community's social welfare needs he is primarily a worker with problems of distress; and in this capacity is identified by the community as a public servant, whether on a governmental or private agency payroll.

It remains to be seen what effect the current national drive toward preparedness and defense will have on the social progress so laboriously achieved in recent years. The new drain upon government income and credit will be construed by

many to be good reason for curtailing non-military expenditures, including those for social security and public health. The fear that we have become "soft" and, in attempting to advance social well-being, are repeating the "errors" of the Blum regime in France will undoubtedly continue to be voiced. Against these counsels of retrenchment, however, it may confidently be expected that the advocates of a healthy social condition in our internal life will insistently make themselves heard. The fight to save democracy and the American way of life will be urged as a fight for human values, and not merely in resistance of an outside foe.

It is probable that before the next *Social Work Year Book* is issued many of the social welfare programs of 1940 will have undergone substantial revision to meet the changing needs of the times. The record presented in this volume may then well come to be regarded as the picture of social work at an important crossroads in American life.

R. H. K.

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(In collaboration)

TOPICAL ARTICLES

ADMINISTRATION OF SOCIAL AGENCIES. The term "administration" is used in at least three different meanings in reference to social work. In the first place it is sometimes employed in a broad, inclusive sense, more or less as the equivalent of "operation." Thus one might speak of the administration of public welfare services in a state, the administration of the health services of a community, or the administration of community chests and councils of social agencies. A specific example of this usage of the term is found in the title of the book by Robert T. Lansdale and collaborators, *The Administration of Old Age Assistance.* The term is used in this sense also by R. Clyde White in his volume, *The Administration of Public Welfare* (*infra cit.*).

A second use of the term "administration" identifies it exclusively or at least primarily with the executive of the agency and with the executive or managerial function. This usage is illustrated in the discussions of administration by Pierce Atwater and Virginia P. Robinson.[1]

A third sense in which "administration" may be used is in the meaning of "supporting or facilitating activities." Every social agency may be thought of as carrying on at least two distinct types of activities. The central function, and the reason for which the agency exists, is to give some form of "direct service"—case work, group work, community organization (or social welfare planning), or perhaps some other service. These are the activities directly concerned with the provision of social services or the practice of social work by the agency. But in order to carry on these direct service activities effectively it is necessary also to carry on many supporting or facilitating activities which are not in themselves direct service but which are necessary and incidental to the production of direct service. Incoming mail must be handled; letters dictated and typed; record forms planned, designed, filled out, and filed; statistics recorded and reports compiled; and financial accounts kept. In addition, plans for the future must be mapped out; the organization of the agency developed, maintained, and modified to meet changing conditions; executive and supervisory functions exercised; board, staff, and committee meetings held; and a variety of other supporting activities which are not direct service carried on. Such supporting activities make up administration as the term is used in this article.

Certain positive implications of this use of the word should be noted. Under the concept of administration as supporting activities, every member of the staff of a social agency is concerned to a greater or less degree with administrative activities, whether he is the executive or a member of the professional, business, clerical, or maintenance staff. The term as thus used is broad enough to include the whole range of executive and supervisory functions, the concept of leadership stressed by Virginia Robinson, and the concept of organization as a dynamic product and expression of creative human relationships.

The distinction between direct service and administration does not in any sense imply that social work administration as a whole is non-professional or sub-professional. Some activities, to be sure, are clearly clerical or routine in nature; but other aspects of administration, including the executive and supervisory functions, call for some of the deepest insights, the highest skills, and the most creative contributions that are to be found in the professional practice of social work. Executive administration may and should be a professional function.

Moreover, this concept of administration

[1] *See* Atwater and Robinson, both *infra cit.*

carries no implication of belief in "administration *in vacuo*" or in the existence or possibility of "the administrator who can administer anything" with equal facility. There are certainly principles, methods, and techniques of administration which may be applicable to widely different fields—government, military organization, education, the church, social work, and business, for example—but administration in social work or any other given field cannot safely be divorced from an intimate and technical knowledge of the unique content of that field. It may be noted, also, that underlying this discussion of administration is the recognition of the fact that social work as a function and as a professional effort is almost always carried on within an agency setting. In contrast with the situation in law or medicine, the fee-charging practitioner is extremely rare in social work. The social worker is normally an employe of an agency. This discussion is concerned, therefore, with administration of and in social agencies.

The Boundaries of Administration

The subject of administration necessarily includes consideration of organization, for the way in which an agency is administered is often closely bound up with its organization structure. Any broad consideration of administration involves attention to extra-agency relationships as well as intra-agency relationships. The relation between administration and community organization is touched on later in this article.

Logically, the function of promotion or "the enlistment of moral or financial support for the agency" is a part of administration; but the activities relating to money raising, interpretation, and public relations are so important and so highly specialized that they are treated in separate articles in this volume. *See* PUBLICITY AND INTERPRETATION IN SOCIAL WORK and FINANCING PRIVATE SOCIAL WORK.

Administration is a function of both public and private welfare agencies, and many administrative problems, principles, and methods are common to both types of agencies. Some of the important aspects of public welfare administration—that is, the administration of welfare activities by government—are: the problem of the number of agencies, and the distribution and degree of integration of the various social services on the various levels of government; the problem of structural organization and of the relative utilization of the single-headed executive form of organization, of directive boards, and of advisory boards; the operation of civil service merit systems and other forms of public personnel services; the problem of centralization and the degree of supervision to be exercised by state agencies over local agencies, and by federal over state; problems relating to the allocation of financial responsibility among the various levels of government and to the administration of grants-in-aid; the operation of far-reaching mass programs; and the problem of uniting individualization of treatment with the necessity of making wide use of standardized routine procedures.

Public welfare administration itself is of course a subdivision of the broader field of public administration or general governmental administration, and public welfare administration may derive much that is of value from the researches and the literature of this broader field.

Development of Social Welfare Administration

The primary interest of most of those concerned with social work is, naturally and desirably, in direct service programs, methods, and problems rather than in administration. In the earlier days of social work, administration was not ordinarily distinguished from direct service nor thought of as a separate function. Francis H. McLean's pamphlet, *The Formation of Charity Organization Societies in Smaller Cities* (1910), and Ada E. Sheffield's *The Charity Director: A Brief Study of His Responsibilities* (1913), both published by the

Russell Sage Foundation, are among the early contributions to the literature of social welfare administration.

By 1914 a course in administration was being given in at least one school of social work. As there were no books and few monographs or articles on the subject, the teachers of the first courses in welfare administration had to borrow a good deal from the literature of adjoining fields, such as government or business administration; although a beginning was made also, in some cases, in the development of administrative case records or the use of administrative case material of various sorts. Today a course in administration is usually considered an essential part of a well-rounded curriculum for a graduate training school for social workers, although there is still little agreement as to the precise content of the course or its relative importance in the curriculum. *See* EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK.

During the 1920's there was a gradually growing interest in the subject of administration, and the appearance of several books, together with a considerable number of periodical articles, marked the beginnings of a more substantial technical literature. In the references at the end of this article, it will be noted that 12 of the 17 items relate primarily to social work, and that only 5 are borrowed from other fields.

During 1930 and the years that followed, the depression created the necessity of mass organization to cope with the overwhelming need for unemployment relief. The public relief administrator became one of the commanding figures in the welfare field, from the standpoint of authority and responsibility, and there was a growing recognition of the vital importance of the function of administration. This increased interest in and understanding of the importance of administration have been reflected in the development of most of the new social security and public welfare programs organized within the past few years. *See* PUBLIC WELFARE.

There are many possible approaches to the subject of administration. The focus of interest may be philosophical, concerned with the nature of administration and its place in social work; it may be psychological, centered upon the behavior of human beings in administrative situations; it may be mechanistic, exercised chiefly with administrative routines, devices, and mechanisms; it may be concerned primarily with some special aspect, such as the problem of organization, the place of the executive, the securing of maximum efficiency, the search for basic principles of administration, or some other problem. In general it may be said that recent important additions to the literature of welfare administration have shown less preoccupation with the mechanical aspects of the subject and increased interest in a philosophy of administration[1] and in the dynamics of organization.[2]

Aspects of Administration

There are at least seven major aspects of social welfare administration which require some brief mention.

1. Organization. The first obvious fact in respect to organization is the difference between public and private agencies. Each is established in response to a felt need. The public agency is established by law or by the executive order of some public administrative body or official having power under the law to establish such an agency. The private agency, on the other hand, is the result of voluntary action—voluntary association by interested individuals, establishment by some other religious, civic, social, welfare, or other organization, or establishment by bequest, merger, federation, or a separation from some existing agency. The public agency represents collective action through govetnment; the private agency represents the principle of free association of individuals for a purpose of mutual interest. Linton B. Swift has called the public agency a "majority agency" and

[1] *See* Atwater and Robinson, both *infra cit.*
[2] *See* Tead and King, both *infra cit.*

the private agency a "minority agency."[1] In general the public agency has more authority, greater resources, and a wider base of support; while the private agency has more freedom, greater flexibility, and more opportunity for experimentation.

The typical elements of the organization of a social agency, although all of them are not present in all agencies, are: the group of ultimate control, the governing board (or sometimes an advisory board), the executive, and the staff. In the case of the public agency, the group of ultimate control is the voters: first, because they elect the legislators who enact the laws governing the agency and who grant the appropriations sustaining it, and second, because the line of authority in a public agency can always, under the forms of American democratic government, be traced back to some official or officials elected by the voters. In the private agency the contributors or members are the group of ultimate control. This is particularly apparent if there is a formal membership body which has the right (whether most of the members exercise it or not) to elect the members of the governing board. With the widespread growth of community chests it has proved difficult for many organizations to maintain any vital membership group, and it is probable that a large proportion of the boards of private agencies are now self-perpetuating. In this case the ultimate control of the contributors becomes more remote, since it rests not upon formal voting power but upon their power, in the last analysis, to support or refuse to support the agency.

The private agency usually has a governing board which appoints the executive who, in turn, normally appoints the members of the staff. In the public field the most varied patterns of organization are found. There may be a directive or administrative board, or a single executive without any board, or an executive with an advisory board. In some instances the outmoded "board of control" pattern is found—that is, a paid administrative board which is not merely a policy-making body but which serves, in effect, as a plural executive. Members of public boards may be appointed by some public authority, they may be officials who serve ex officio on the board, or they may be elected; or some combination of these methods may be found. The executive is usually appointed, but he is sometimes elected and there have been instances also of ex officio executives.

The basic instrument of government for the public agency is the law or executive order under which it is created. The private agency may have a charter (if it is incorporated), a constitution, and by-laws. Both public and private agencies may be subject to legal supervision or the private agency may be governed by standards or restrictions determined by national associations, community chests, councils of social agencies, religious authorities, or other bodies to which the agency belongs or by which it is sponsored.

The intra-agency functions and relationships of board, executive, and staff are at the heart of the problem of organization. Other aspects of organization relate to the operation of committees, and the internal organization of the agency; the creation and maintenance of "line" and staff services; the establishment and operation of departments, districts, and branches; and the provision of field service to branches or to local supervised agencies.

2. Personnel. The agency's basic personnel relationships are defined in its personnel policies or employment practices, concerning such matters as employment, tenure, promotion, retirement, separation from the service, salaries, hours of work, holidays, vacations, leaves of absence, staff participation in policy-making and operation of the agency, staff organization, grievance procedure, accident or other types of insurance, opportunities for professional advancement through study, attendance at conferences,

[1] Swift, Linton B., *New Alignments Between Public and Private Agencies in a Community Family Welfare and Relief Program.* 72 pp. 1934.

and so forth. There is an increasing tendency on the part of progressive agencies to formulate comprehensive written statements of personnel policies—sometimes with definite staff participation—instead of leaving such policies to be transmitted as agency folklore or to be determined in each specific instance by decision of the executive.

Personnel administration involves carrying into effect the personnel policies, employing staff members, taking necessary action and making adjustments in individual cases, directing any in-service training program, maintaining personnel records, and kindred activities. As the day-by-day work of the agency is carried on by the staff, it would be hard to overemphasize the importance of selecting qualified persons as staff members and of doing everything possible to maintain a high degree of staff efficiency and morale. Personnel administration is therefore close to the very life of the agency.

Job analysis is one of the most important processes in effective personnel administration, and social agencies are coming increasingly to understand and use it, particularly where comprehensive class specifications are put into effect as part of civil service merit systems. Job specifications or class specifications which describe the job, analyze the duties to be performed, and state the qualifications for the job are an indispensable tool both in employment and in supervision.

Where a civil service merit system is in effect in the public field, personnel administration falls within the frame of this system. Such a system, designed to secure and retain qualified personnel in the public service, generally provides for job and salary classification, selection on the basis of competitive tests, security of tenure during continued efficiency, and insulation of civil servants from political activity and political pressure. *See* PERSONNEL PRACTICES IN PUBLIC WELFARE.

3. Plant administration. This refers to such matters as the location of the agency, layout of offices or other quarters, installation and maintenance of equipment, and the maintenance of satisfactory working conditions in terms of light, heat, ventilation, and sanitation. In institutional administration, which is really a separate field of administration, plant administration becomes a major problem because of the requirement of mass housekeeping caused by the fact that clients or inmates eat, sleep, and live in the institution.

4. Fiscal administration and controllership. This is a convenient term to cover the processes of budgeting, financial administration, financial accounting, and—since the keeping of financial figures and service statistics are intimately related—service accounting.

5. Office administration. Included are such matters as: office organization; the provision of stenographic, typing, telephone, and other clerical services; the production and maintenance of records; filing; the compilation of reports; the handling of purchasing and supplies; and the operation of various types of office equipment. An office manual describing the purpose, organization, policies, and procedures of the agency, and prescribing standard practices for routine operations, is an important adjunct to sound administration and is being increasingly used by well-administered agencies. Social service exchanges and public agencies carrying on large-scale mass operations are examples of agencies where such matters as office layout, flow of work, routines, procedures, record forms, cost accounting, and use of mechanical devices assume an important place in determining the efficiency of operation of the agency. The use of manuals, bulletins relating to procedure, and standard practice instructions has greatly increased with the volume of operations of social agencies.

6. Administrative techniques. This is not an area of administration like personnel administration or office administration; rather, it is an aspect of administration that cuts across such areas and relates to the discovery and application of administrative prin-

ciples and the improvement of methods of work, including the work-habits and administrative techniques of the individual worker and of the executive. These executive techniques center about the functions of the executive, which may be summed up as including planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting.[1]

7. Extra-agency relationships. These refer to the agency's relationships to other agencies, to coordinating and welfare planning bodies such as councils of social agencies, community chests, and social service exchanges, and to other civic and community forces. It is obvious that such matters of relationships shade imperceptibly into the realm of public relations at many points.

If promotion were included as an aspect of administration, it would be necessary to add to this list two more items, money raising and interpretation. One might also consider institutional administration as a separate phase of welfare administration, although many institutions lie in border-line fields and are primarily hospitals, prisons, or educational institutions rather than welfare agencies.

Current Developments and Problems

The following may be noted as some of the recent developments and current centers of interest in the field of administration. It will be seen that many of these topics relate in one way or another to the general subject of personnel.

1. Large-scale administration has become an accepted aspect of social work, particularly in the public field. With this goes the need for administrators able to direct such large-scale enterprises; and with it arise problems of extensive organization, large staffs, and mass procedures; and relation of clients to these far-flung organizations.

2. There has been a growing appreciation of the importance of social welfare administration in social work and of the unique contribution of the skilled administrator in the professional practice of social work.

3. Along with this appreciation of the importance of administration has come an increased interest in the problem of training for social work administration. The problem is a vital one in the fields of both social work education and practice; and it is interesting to note that discussions of the teaching of courses in administration are found in two of the most recent books on social work administration.[1]

4. There has been an encouraging recent growth of technical literature, a number of significant books and papers relating to the subject having been published since 1935.

5. The subject of civil service and merit systems in the public welfare field has become one of the major concerns of social workers. The application of merit systems to wide areas of the public social services is one of the most significant developments in contemporary social work.

6. Personnel policies and practices have been a particular focus of interest in recent years. The development of the rank and file movement; the beginnings and growth of unionization, collective bargaining, labor controversies and negotiations; and the evolution of "grievance procedure" have all been closely related to the subject of personnel and personnel administration. Statements of suggested standards for personnel policies in social agencies have been formulated by the American Association of Social Workers and the Social Service Employees Union. Job analysis, evaluation of employes, the use of rating scales, and in-service training have likewise been foci of interest. *See* SOCIAL WORK AS A PROFESSION and TRADE UNIONISM IN SOCIAL WORK.

7. There appears to be an increased interest in volunteers and their contributions to social work under contemporary conditions. In some cases this interest has expressed itself in a community approach

[1] *See* p. 13 in Gulick and Urwick, Editors, *infra cit.*

[1] *See* Atwater, *infra cit.*, and Street, *The Public Welfare Administrator* (*infra cit.*).

through the organization of volunteer service bureaus under councils of social agencies or otherwise. *See* VOLUNTEERS IN SOCIAL WORK.

8. The recent cooperative explorations of the nature of community organization by local study committees have led to a new interest in the relationship between administration and community organization. It is clear that many methods—such as planning, organizing, group discussion, and so forth —are common to both administration and community organization. However, it has been suggested that the areas of administration and community organization are distinguished by differences in objectives and in their respective centers of interest. Administration is concerned with the management of a particular agency; its interest turns primarily inward; it is primarily agency-centered. Community organization is concerned with directing resources toward needs within a geographical area; its interest swings over the whole community like the rays of a great searchlight; it is community-centered or area-centered rather than agency-centered. Systematic analyses and comparisons of methods used in administration and community organization are greatly needed as a basis for better training for practice in these two areas. *See* COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION FOR SOCIAL WORK.

Administration pervades all social agencies and touches all social work jobs. In the past it has been a neglected field if compared with any area of direct service. Today, however, social workers as a group are becoming increasingly conscious of the nature and place of administration; there are more evidences of a scientific and critical approach to problems of administration; better administrative practices are gradually emerging from the accumulated experience of social work administrators, public and private; the foundations of a technical literature are being laid; and a beginning has been made in incorporating some administrative training in the professional education afforded by schools of social work.

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ADULT EDUCATION.[1] With the initiation of a group of national studies by the Carnegie Corporation of New York in 1924, the American movement for adult education came into being. Some educational historians trace the movement back to the Colonial town meeting, in vogue especially in New England from the seventeenth century on-

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

ward. In any case, for more than a hundred years prior to 1924, more or less formal educational activities of several types for adults had been in existence.

The agricultural and mechanical institutes appearing coincidentally with the industrial revolution in the early nineteenth century constituted one early manifestation. So also did the lyceum movement of the eighteen thirties and forties which flourished until the Civil War. The last quarter of that century marked the establishment of the free public library and the university extension movements, both important adult education agencies then and now, and also saw the founding of the Chautauqua Institution in New York. From the latter stemmed the many traveling chautauquas serving rural portions of the country, which only declined with the advent of improved means of rapid transportation following the World War of 1914–1918. In the same quarter of the nineteenth century were founded the first social settlements, like their English prototypes adjuncts of universities and each with an avowed adult educational purpose. The enormous federally supported agricultural extension program, operated cooperatively with the land grant colleges in the several states, came into being just prior to the World War in 1914 through the passage by Congress of the Smith-Lever Act. The large expansion of the program of vocational education for what theretofore had been "out-of-school youths" or "young adults" came with the War itself in the passage, again by Congress, of the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917. In this same period there developed the national crusade against illiteracy, and following the War came the educational movement for the foreign born known as "Americanization." In the meantime evening schools, both elementary and advanced, had made their appearance as tax-supported ventures. Public and private agencies—the latter particularly of the type now known as group work—had commenced educational activities for adults, as had men's and women's clubs and organizations of a religious and semi-religious character, such as churches and young people's organizations. Experimental centers, like the People's Institute of Cooper Union in New York and the New School for Social Research, had been founded, and already a workers' education movement had been formed under American Federation of Labor auspices. All of these fields and agencies cited are today recognized parts of the adult education movement.

The Carnegie studies of 1924 served, therefore, less to initiate the movement and more to relate a number of theretofore disparate ventures under one general term—adult education—borrowed for the purpose from British usage.

A series of national and regional conferences in 1925 and 1926 resulted in the formation of the American Association for Adult Education, a national agency chiefly financed by the Carnegie Corporation, charged with the responsibilities of maintaining a national clearing house for information; of conducting and sponsoring research and studies, experiments, and demonstrations; and of publishing materials on the philosophy and techniques of adult education.

Spread of the Movement

Since 1926 the growth of adult education in the United States has been rapid and at times spectacular. Each year in the period immediately prior to the economic depression reaching its climax in 1932–1933 showed a marked increase in the number of adults participating. This increase is attributed in part to shortened working hours for the bulk of the population, due to scientific progress and invention and to mass production. Improvement in the quality of adult educational offerings may also be assigned as a cause. Multiplication of the agencies offering educational opportunities has kept pace with the increased enrolments.

The economic crisis resulting in reduced incomes and wide unemployment had the effect of increasing sharply the need and de-

mand for adult education. Partly in response to this demand and partly to afford employment to out-of-work teachers and others qualified to teach, the federal government's relief program was enlarged to include educational services for an adult student body estimated at its peak to number 2,250,000 persons. With the gradual diminution of the relief effort over the years and with the elimination of certain of the special projects included in the relief adult education program, it is probable that not more than half this number of adult students is now reached during any one period. However, public school systems in the more progressive parts of the country have absorbed the best of the relief teaching staffs with consequent enlargement of opportunities for the adult public. Hence the loss to the adult education total enrolment of the country is not as great as is indicated by the curtailment in the relief program.

Conservative estimates place the number of persons engaged more or less continuously in some form of adult education at 27,000,000, or about one in three of the adult population. Aside from radio education, in which listening groups are a development of the past ten years, the largest single classification within this total is that of farm residents participating in the program of agricultural extension, jointly administered by the United States Department of Agriculture and the agricultural colleges of the several states. The radio and rural classifications are estimated at 7,000,000 persons each. Recreation agencies and the public schools each account for about 2,000,000 persons of the educational enrolment. *See* RECREATION. Library adult education (reaching those library patrons engaged in consecutive, planned reading or reading courses), lyceums and chautauquas (reaching those enrolled in consecutive lecture courses as contrasted with attendants on casual lectures), and men's and women's clubs (engaged in whole or in part in educational activity) possess enrolments of 1,000,000 or more each. The private correspondence schools, operated for profit, have an estimated active enrolment of 1,250,000. Vocational education for adults and the open forum movement, the latter under both private and public sponsorship, involve an additional 500,000 each. *See* Vocational Education and Training in EMPLOYMENT SERVICES. University extension and religious groups, including churches, reach the proportions of 350,000 and 300,000, respectively. Important classifications involving 100,000 persons or less include parent education, special adult schools, vocational rehabilitation, industrial and commercial corporation schools, workers' education, vocational guidance services, museum groups (both in art and in science), collegiate alumni groups (including both general and professional "refresher" courses), settlement activities, drama groups and little theaters (exclusive of audiences), inmates of penal institutions, organizations of the foreign born, music groups (participants, not audiences), Negro groups, community groups, training groups for volunteer leaders, formal courses for professional leader training, health education groups, and so forth. The extent and nature of the approximately forty recognized subfields of adult education can best be ascertained by reference to the *Handbook of Adult Education in the United States*.[1]

Improvement of Standards

Despite sudden and sharp accretions in enrolment, most branches of adult education have exhibited marked interest in raising standards of instruction and of leadership in the fifteen years since the movement was established. In 1936 the American Association for Adult Education, as a means toward improvement of standards, initiated a series of cross-section examinations of agency fields and of functional problems in adult education. These studies, published and in preparation, number 27 and make their appearance in the series on the Social Significance of Adult Education in the United

[1] *See* Rowden, *infra cit.*

States, *infra cit.* The total circulation of these books has exceeded 50,000 copies. They have been extensively used in foreign countries as well as in the United States. Two major problems have emerged as the result of this series of evaluations: the paucity of qualified leaders, both lay and professional, for adult groups; and the serious lack of suitable instructional materials, in print or in any other form, which at one and the same time are academically sound and yet simple enough for use at the several educational levels involved.

Progress has been made in leader training in various parts of the country. Attention given to the problem by the Work Projects Administration (WPA) has been particularly productive of results. Certain of the state education departments have also conducted successful "in-service" training institutes for adult teachers. New ventures and experiments in leader training have recently been projected also by private voluntary associations operating largely in the group work field, by workers' education organizations, and by universities, colleges, and teacher training institutions. All of these efforts promise concentration on the techniques and principles involved in adult instruction as contrasted with the outworn and ineffective methods heretofore carried over from instruction in child-centered schools.

Some advances in solving the numerous technical problems in the presentation of subject-matter materials at various educational levels have been made in the Readability Laboratory, established at Teachers College, Columbia University, by the American Association for Adult Education under the direction of its Committee on the Simplification of Materials. In the three years of its existence the staff of the Laboratory has conducted certain original researches; has correlated and made available for use by teachers, librarians, publishers, and others interested much of the psychological and related research bearing on adult reading habits and interests; and has also conducted certain direct experimentation in producing materials at several levels. The results of one such experiment have been given to the public through cooperation with a commercial publisher, who has brought out 11 titles in the People's Library series. These books, on a variety of subjects, are aimed at the level of difficulty represented by the average school-leaving age of the present adult population, which is between the eighth and ninth grades of formal schooling. Some 200,000 of these books are already in circulation. Experimentation at other levels continues. The Laboratory is also concerned with testing the validity in practical use of the various vocabulary and other tests devised by psychologists for rating difficulty of printed materials. Plans are made to issue to librarians and others new and verified means of gauging difficulty of books and of determining capabilities of readers.

Social Work Relationships

The social case work and group work agencies increasingly have become aware in recent years of their educational functions. There are few manifestations of adult education that do not concern the staffs of these agencies in the handling of their clientele. Settlements, in their earliest days definitely dedicated to educational objectives by the universities whose adjuncts they were, in their development through the years gradually drew away from education. It is only in the past twelve or fifteen years that in the more forward-looking settlements education has come back into the importance that it originally held. The process has been accelerated recently through the extensive cooperation of the WPA and its predecessors. *See* SETTLEMENTS.

The schools for the training of social workers and group leaders have been quick to see this change of direction, not only on the part of the settlements but by the private and public agencies dealing with relief and by the large group work organizations as well. As a consequence, curricular enlargements have taken place designed to

equip the worker in training with a knowledge of contemporary adult education and its history and with such techniques of instruction as are applicable in social work situations. There is a recognition that social work today necessarily involves not only the psychological, psychometrical, and technical training formerly given the case worker (and which is still prerequisite) but also a knowledge of group work techniques involving much of the specific training formerly reserved for the teacher and for the recreation worker. Seemingly something approximating a new profession is evolving. The influx into the social work field of some thousands of WPA teachers and leaders of adult groups has had a tempering effect upon conceptions of social work training formerly held. It seems probable that the social worker of the future will be expected to rely upon adult education as a therapeutic in the treatment of individuals who have become subject to social dislocation. *See* EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK and SOCIAL GROUP WORK.

One area in which the advance of education as a therapeutic aid has been rapid is in the treatment of patients in sanatoria, particularly those maintained for the tuberculous. The more important of these institutions throughout the country now provide facilities for study, some for ambulant patients only but some for bed patients also. The radio and the hospital amplification system have been found useful in this connection.

An interesting manifestation of the close relationship between recreation, education, and social work has arisen in the past year in connection with new housing ventures financed in large part by the federal government. Sponsored by the New York City Housing Authority and financed in part by the Carnegie Corporation of New York, an experimental program has been established at the Red Hook (Brooklyn) Housing Project. Immediate response on the part of families residing in the project has enabled the formation of the Red Hook Community Association, whose members participate in the activities and in part finance them. It is expected that the Red Hook venture will serve as a program model for the 125 federal housing projects scattered throughout the country. *See* HOUSING AND CITY PLANNING.

Progress in providing educational and library facilities for inmates of penal institutions has been made in the past three years, largely stemming from experimental activities initiated in New York State institutions by a commission appointed by the governor. The rehabilitation of the prisoner has been facilitated by the multiplication and improvement of the educational offerings open to him, ranging from the purely vocational to the cultural. An enlargement of the training of prison guards and staffs to include professional knowledge of educational techniques, more adequate teaching materials, the provision of space for informal as well as formal educational activities, and the acquisition of genuine libraries for lending have all combined in the better prisons to emphasize the possibilities inherent in the modern treatment of offenders. It does not seem unlikely that the prison or the penitentiary of the future, state and federal, will come to be regarded—as in the case of the reformatory—as primarily an educational, rather than a correctional, institution. *See* ADULT OFFENDERS.

Adult Education Councils

In more than a hundred of the larger communities of the United States there have come into being, particularly in recent years, community councils for adult education. In addition there exist an undetermined number of similar organizations in smaller communities, some of them embracing near-by rural territory within county councils. The council is usually regarded as a planning body rather than an operating agency. Its membership commonly consists of individual citizens and representatives of various educational agencies, both publicly and privately supported, chief among which may

be mentioned the library, the public school, and the council of social agencies. The councils uniformly serve as local clearing houses for information about adult education opportunities; conduct studies and surveys; and often make plans for and give publicity to enterprises designed to develop community, as opposed to organizational, thinking along educational lines. It is as yet too early to determine whether the adult education council device will be universally adopted. One result of council organization has been to increase in the past three years the number of conferences upon adult education problems. These have been local, sectional within a state, and state-wide in scope. In addition, through cooperation between the community councils, state associations for adult education, and the American Association for Adult Education, some twelve regional conferences representing all parts of the country are regularly held each year.

Adult Schools

A recent development premised on utilization of school plants, but usually conducted outside the machinery of the public school system, is the so-called adult school, which has been particularly successful in the suburban communities near metropolitan centers. The first experiment of this nature was organized five years ago in the Maplewood–South Orange school district of northern New Jersey. Here a citizens' committee planned the school, publicized it, and financed it through the exaction of small course fees for enrolment. In four years the Maplewood venture grew to a total enrolment of more than 3,500 individuals with some 5,500 course registrations. The faculties of near-by universities and colleges supplied the needs for teachers and leaders. The Maplewood school has been widely copied in New Jersey and in the New York area, while its counterparts exist in some midwestern regions, notably that adjacent to Chicago. The schools are notable for the wide scope of their offerings and the informal nature of their activities. The Maplewood school in one year offered a choice of 72 courses in as many subjects. Cultural courses, discussion groups in the social sciences, vocational subjects, and recreation all were included.

An important study sponsored by the American Association for Adult Education and conducted by N. L. Engelhardt and a group of associates at Teachers College, Columbia University, was completed in 1940 and the results published under the title *Planning the Community School* (*infra cit.*). This is a guide for school officials and boards, architects, and civic associations in adjusting school plants, both those in existence and those projected, to adult as well as to child needs. The study points out a decisive trend and gives valuable information relating to the concept of the school plant of the future as one involving use by all ages and classes of the population.

Public Agencies

Chief among the public agencies for adult education in urban centers is the public school system, with its many offerings in the evening elementary and high schools, in the special vocational schools, and—more recently—in various institutes and short courses. In the past decade much of this work has been carried on in cooperation with the WPA, although even in the face of a national wave of economy in school expenditures the efforts supported by local tax funds have not lost their identity. In some cities the programs have increased rather than decreased in this trying period.

The public schools in the several states carry the burden of the extensive effort to combat illiteracy, commenced in the early nineteen twenties as the Americanization movement. The cooperation of the WPA in this campaign has been noteworthy in effect. The well-organized Department of Adult Education of the National Education Association has been of great service in helping to maintain this program.

The WPA program, though decreased in

size in the past year, still provides educational services for just under a million persons. In most states the classes and courses are offered in school buildings and in cooperation with the public school systems. No charge is made for these educational services. The group served is preponderantly the underprivileged.

Another public agency serving the educational needs of the underprivileged is the Civilian Conservation Corps. Here young men in the camps, whose wages received in return for work are sent to the relief of their families, are provided with educational advisers and instructors in both vocational and cultural subjects. Enrolment in educational activities is popular with the young men, most of whom take advantage of the opportunity afforded. *See* Civilian Conservation Corps in YOUTH PROGRAMS.

The chief public agency serving rural residents is the Extension Service, jointly maintained by the United States Department of Agriculture and the state agricultural colleges. This, the largest adult education agency of the country, is served by 8,500 professional leaders, men and women, and several hundred thousand volunteer leaders recruited from among the farmers themselves. The program is predominantly vocational, though in the past three years discussion groups in the social sciences and purely cultural groups and classes have been formed. *See* RURAL SOCIAL PROGRAMS.

The greatest public agency serving both townsmen and countrymen alike is the public library. While librarians are slow to admit a responsibility for the initiation of adult education activities in their communities, recent trends indicate a growing realization on the part of the profession that their considerable expenditure of public funds can be justified only as measured by their proved educational usefulness. Library-initiated book forums, discussion groups, lectures, and radio broadcasts are becoming more common. Readers' advisory services instituted in the urban libraries serve many thousands of serious readers annually. The preparation of book lists, reviews, and various guides to reading direct many individual readers, while the auxiliary services to participants in group adult education activities comprise one of the greatest contributions to sound work in the entire field.

Forums

The number of public and privately conducted open forums in the United States is not known, but that the regular participants in them run well above 500,000 seems certain. There are records of more than 700 forums regularly meeting and it seems probable that with the addition of those conducted by churches, clubs, and other private organizations, the number would run well over 1,000. Attendance varies from a few score to weekly meetings sometimes involving attendances of 2,000 to 3,000. If such radio forums as the Town Hall of the Air and the People's Platform are included, with the listening and discussion groups based upon them, figures of astronomical proportions are reached. The forum movement, though in existence for many years, has had its most rapid growth in the past three years. Records are in hand of more than 100 whose date of founding was prior to 1931. Recently, however, new forums have been appearing at the rate of about 100 a year.

The initial experiment of a public forum under school auspices commenced at Des Moines, Iowa, in 1931. Subsequent experimentation in Springfield, Mass., and Hartford, Conn., proved equally successful. In 1936–1937, the United States Office of Education as part of its emergency program stimulated public forum demonstrations in 580 local communities in 38 states. This factor greatly augmented public response to forums, which now seem accepted as a desirable and highly necessary concomitant of modern living and understanding of contemporary issues.

The techniques followed usually call for a speaker or speakers for the presentation of a given question or issue, effort being

made to set forth conflicting points of view. The audience is permitted to join in the discussion period that follows, either by question or direct assertion, usually limited in time by the chairman. In a survey made by the United States Office of Education of 583 public forums in 1936, a gross attendance of 2,245,392 for 11,010 meetings was reported, or an average of 204 per meeting.

Workers' Education

The mechanics' institutes of the first quarter of the nineteenth century were the earliest instances of workers' education in this country. By the end of that century, a new direction became manifest in the formation of labor colleges, people's institutes, and similar ventures aimed chiefly at the training of labor leaders. As the labor movement grew, however, educational activities for workers themselves came into being. In 1916 the International Ladies Garment Workers' Union set up a permanent educational department for its members that continues to this day. In 1921 the Workers Education Bureau of America was founded and within two years was accorded American Federation of Labor approval. In the same year occurred the first summer session for women workers in industry at Bryn Mawr College. Also in the same year the Brookwood Labor College for the training of labor movement leaders was founded.

In the score of years that followed, the number and quality of worker-controlled educational enterprises increased widely. WPA cooperation in recent years extended the movement to a number of theretofore unserved areas. There are now some half-dozen regularly recurring summer sessions for workers in industry, several residential colleges, a regularly maintained system of labor institutes at universities and colleges arranged by the Workers Education Bureau, and a national field service established by the American Labor Education Service (successor to the Affiliated Schools for Workers), in addition to field services maintained by the federal government through its emergency relief agencies.

Other New Developments

Special service activities, each involving in some degree experimentation, demonstration, and publication of the results of such activities, are being maintained in many sub-fields of adult education. To mention briefly only a few of the newer of such developments: the National University Extension Association is engaged in a careful study of the clientele of university extension divisions; the Associates in Negro Folk Education have published a series of Bronze Booklets dealing with Negro life, history, and accomplishments, including a portfolio of Negro art; the Federal Radio Education Committee is completing a study of radio listening groups in this country and abroad; the People's Guild of Brooklyn is experimenting in the use of sound motion pictures in a series of film forums, the showings being followed by reading and discussion; the American Philosophical Society is making an exhaustive study and demonstration of science in adult education in the Philadelphia area; the Common Council for American Unity is founding a new periodical designed to acquaint both the foreign born and the domestic born with the educational contributions of the opposite group; and the University of New Mexico is embarking upon a three-year educational demonstration with the predominantly Spanish-speaking residents of Taos County, N. M.

A growing realization of the interdependence of adult education and democratic processes has sharpened interest among the educators and civic leaders alike in the problems of adult education. The movement has taken its place among the truly important considerations in the American social scene.

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MORSE A. CARTWRIGHT

ADULT OFFENDERS.[1] The true extent of crime in the United States is not known, and all figures for the country as a whole are estimates only. The most comprehensive statistics are given in the quarterly *Uniform Crime Reports* of the Federal Bureau of Investigation. The Bureau reports that in 1939 the number of major offenses (murder to auto theft) known to the police of 2,105 cities with a total population of 63,857,696 was 861,110. It is estimated by the Bureau that 1,484,554 serious crimes were committed in the continental United States in 1939.

Contrary to general belief, there has been a decrease since 1931 in several major crimes —criminal homicide, robbery, assault, bur-

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

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glary, and auto theft. There has been an increase in larceny and rape.

Older adolescents and young adults lead all other age groups in numbers arrested. Of all those arrested in 1939 in the United States for all offenses, the largest age group was age nineteen, followed in order by those eighteen, twenty-two, and twenty-one years of age.

Police and the Courts

Police

There are more than 39,000 local police departments in the United States, ranging in size from the lone village constable to New York City's force of over 18,000. Practically every state has some type of state police force, varying from small highway patrols to the large and well-trained forces of Connecticut, Massachusetts, Michigan, New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania. The state police function chiefly outside the cities. The sheriff is usually responsible for law enforcement in rural counties, although some large counties have police forces similar to the state police. The federal government has not one police force alone, the Federal Bureau of Investigation, but at least a half-dozen others: the immigration and customs agents and border patrols, the Secret Service agents, the postal inspectors, the narcotic agents, the Internal Revenue officers, and so forth. These agencies have power to enforce federal laws only, but the number of these laws has increased greatly in recent years.

Some of the difficulties of effective police work are inherent in our national situation: the lack of centralization or even of proper coordination of the various police forces, and the overlapping, jealousy, and interference that often result; the geographical factors that make escape easy, especially by automobile; and the prevailing attitude toward the laws and the police of our heterogeneous population, especially in large cities.

Other factors which account in part for the admitted ineffectiveness of many of our police forces are: political domination; poor quality of personnel—from patrolmen to chiefs—and insecure tenure because of politics; low standards of selection and lack of recruit and in-service training; adherence to outmoded methods, and reliance on underworld information and the third degree instead of on thorough detective work; lack of mechanized equipment for communication and transport; and lack of facilities and personnel for laboratory work and scientific investigation of the sort that is common in Europe. Most American police forces today are behind the times; their personnel and methods have proved incapable of keeping up with the problems presented by increased traffic, still less with the problem of crime, even in a period when major crimes have been on the decrease.

Police work has improved, however, in many areas and in many respects in recent years. Excellent forces have been developed in cities as dissimilar as Berkeley, Cleveland, Milwaukee, New York, and Wichita. The clearing of fingerprints and furnishing of technical services by the Federal Bureau of Investigation and the increased use of interstate radio and teletype systems bring about improved coordination. Personnel standards and training methods are improving, and political interfetence with the police is growing more unpopulat yearly. Scientific methods are spteading, although the chief reliance is still on grilling in the detectives' room rather than investigation in the laboratoty. Motorized equipment and radio are being expanded as rapidly as the large increase in funds which they involve are available. The personnel, equipment, and methods of federal agencies especially are of a uniformly high quality.

A constructive feature of police work today is the growth of crime prevention bureaus, but they deal mainly with juvenile rather than adult offenders. *See* Behavior Problems. An excellent example of a police force which has improved crime control as well as crime ptevention is that of Cleveland, which has reduced felonies to the lowest level in the city's history and

cleaned up several extensive rackets. As a part of the general process of modernizing police methods, all cars have been equipped with two-way radio and a highly mobile force has been created. Five station houses have been closed as a result and have been turned into "Boys' Towns" under the Crime Prevention Bureau.

Policewomen are found on practically all large city police forces, but they are few in number. They are usually detailed to station houses where women prisoners are held over night, to crime prevention bureaus and children's courts, and to the inspection and regulation of dance halls, night clubs, moving picture theaters admitting minors, and other places of amusement. Occasionally they are assigned to detective work, especially in vice and blackmail cases.

Taking the country as a whole, our police work is not yet on a level to arouse respect on the part of the offender or the public for our administration of criminal justice, and sometimes the treatment the offender receives at the hands of the police creates a state of mind which makes him suspicious of all the official agencies that later deal with him. The way to higher levels of effectiveness has been clearly indicated by various local, state, and federal police forces.

Courts

Figures for the whole country showing what percentage of persons arrested are held for prosecution and what percentage are found guilty are not available from any source. The Federal Bureau of Investigation, in its *Uniform Crime Reports* (First Quarter, 1940), reports returns for 1939 from 78 cities over 25,000 in population, with a total population of 12,801,421. The figures for seven major offenses (criminal homicide to auto theft) are as follows: number of offenses known to the police, 193,714; offenses cleared by arrest, 53,544; persons held for prosecution, 36,222; found guilty, 27,851 (23,755 of offense charged and 4,096 of lesser charge). In other words, for every 100 offenses in this group known to the police, 27 were cleared by arrest, 19 persons were held for prosecution, and 14 were found guilty.

On the basis of returns received from 27 states for the year 1938 on defendants in criminal cases disposed of by courts of general jurisdiction, the Bureau of the Census, United States Department of Commerce, reports that the total disposed of was 84,153, of whom 65,423 or 77.7 per cent were convicted. Of those convicted, 80 per cent were by plea of guilty.

One fact stands out clearly in these figures: the great importance of the prosecutor and especially of his power to dispose of cases, without bringing them to trial, by dismissal, accepting pleas of guilty, and so forth. Yet responsible critics of our court system—who include leading members of the bar and judiciary—have pointed out, with due regard for the many able and high-minded prosecutors, that the typical prosecutor in this country is young, with little previous experience, politically ambitious, and responsive to if not dominated by political influence. Crime surveys and such searching investigations of the courts as the Seabury investigation in New York City (1931–1932) have decried the ineptitude and frequent corruption which permit criminals to escape through a multitude of loopholes. "Bargain counter pleas" of guilty in a lesser degree have been indicated as only one of the ways in which criminals escape justice.

Other well-known and unsavory features of our court system are the shyster lawyers, professional bondsmen, and "fixers" who ply their trade openly. While those with money are able to secure bail quickly or to go free, poor defendants, often innocent, remain in detention prisons for long periods awaiting trial or other disposition. Many authorities believe the proper solution for this problem lies in wider use of release on the defendant's own recognizance, the establishment of the office of public defender in jurisdictions where the volume of business warrants it, and extension of the legal

aid organizations which are now rendering notably effective service gratis to poor clients in most of our larger communities. *See* LEGAL AID.

In many jurisdictions, especially in smaller communities without an observant and powerful press, judges are political appointees and are mediocre in ability and ethical standards. Even the best judges are reduced in many courts to the position of a mere umpire. On the other hand, judges are ordinarily allowed considerable latitude in sentencing, and marked disparities appear in sentences administered for the same offense in different courts in the same state, and by different judges on the same bench.

Our magistrates' and police courts are hurried, confused, and brutal in their impersonality. The multiplicity and complexity of our laws and other factors tend to turn our trial courts, especially in cases of jury trial, into arenas for battles of wits between the prosecutors and the defense counsel. Trials are characterized by slowness, emphasis on technicalities, and confusion of the issue rather than a searching for the truth. In our effort to protect the rights of the defendant it seems certain that we have erected too many legal obstacles to a speedy and just decision.

The general effect of our court system on defendants, especially on those who are finally convicted, is to cause bewilderment and a measure of contempt for the law. They see little connection between their guilt or innocence and the disposition of their cases. The whole process seems haphazard at best, and woefully inefficient or corrupt at worst. The situation is somewhat better in those jurisdictions with a variety of specialized courts, and with psychiatric clinics and social service bureaus, but these are few in number. Many defendants get the first clear indication of a socially minded and constructive attitude on the part of any person connected with the courts when they have been convicted and turned over to the probation department for investigation and later for supervision.

ADULT PROBATION

Agencies of law enforcement whose chief aim is the rehabilitation of the adult offender ordinarily do not come into operation until the offender is convicted. The first of these, and in many respects the most successful, is probation. Probation is a method or system of releasing convicted offenders, usually on suspended sentence, under supervision and on such conditions as the court may impose, in lieu of commitment to an institution. It is a function of the courts and is not considered merely an act of leniency but rather an attempt to rehabilitate the offender by a method more economical than institutionalization and usually more helpful to the individual and his family. Adult probation has long since demonstrated its value and is being increasingly used today.

Good probation involves as a first step a careful decision by the judge on the basis of a thorough investigation report prepared by the probation service. Such a report provides complete information on the current offense, the offender's previous criminal record, his family history, personal history, and community background, and supplies data derived from medical, psychiatric, and psychological examinations and from social agencies.

If it is decided to place the offender on probation, the next essential is adequate supervision by a competent, well-trained probation officer with a reasonable case load. The complexities present in the cases of most probationers and their families usually make it necessary to utilize the services of a variety of public and private agencies. Successful probation generally means coordinated community effort, coupled with understanding, individual guidance. Probation officers must not only have thorough knowledge of social case work but also unusual tact, energy, and patience. *See* SOCIAL CASE WORK.

The possibilities of adult probation and the methods that make it successful are best demonstrated by actual practice. Massachu-

setts, the pioneer in the field and the only state with a state-wide probation system, has more persons on probation than in her institutions. About 35 per cent of all convicted adults are placed on probation and 75 to 80 per cent of the probationers complete the probation period successfully.

The federal courts placed 12,694 persons on probation in the fiscal year 1939, or 34.8 per cent of all those committed. The high average case load (160) of federal officers and the fact that half their time is spent supervising parolees militate against success, but only 1,918 persons were declared violators in the year ending June 30, 1939, and there were 28,325 on probation on that date. Administrative confusion has been caused temporarily in the combined federal probation and parole services by the passage of a reorganization measure effective in 1940, which removes probation officers from the Department of Justice, under which parole comes, and places them under the newly created Administrative Office of the United States Courts.

One of the best probation services in the country is that of the Court of General Sessions of New York City, which handles all adult felony cases in Manhattan. This service, which includes a psychiatric clinic, has increased its percentage of successes throughout the depression until today it is over 90 per cent. The care with which probationers are selected is shown by the fact that in the past ten years only 22.7 per cent of all convicted offenders have been placed on probation.

The extent to which adult probation is used and its quality vary widely in different parts of the country, although all but nine states make legal provision for it. Reports received by the United States Census Bureau from 27 states in 1938 show that, of 65,423 defendants sentenced in the criminal courts, 21,191 (32.4 per cent) were disposed of by probation and suspended sentences. The reports do not reveal in how many cases this involved supervision. The percentages placed on probation varied sharply from 9 per cent in Kansas to 64.8 per cent in Rhode Island. Fourteen of the 27 states reported percentages of over 30 per cent.

In general, adult probation is now extensively and successfully used. It costs about one-tenth as much per person as institutional care. The number of probation officers is steadily increasing and their quality is being improved by the extension of civil service and insistence on higher standards of training and experience. Efforts are being made to extend the number of state-wide probation systems and to provide subsidies for needy counties. Partly as a measure of economy, the federal government and 14 states have combined probation and parole services, and in at least seven other states there is partial or permissive coordination. The Interstate Commission on Crime has promoted interstate compacts for the reciprocal supervision of probationers as well as parolees.

In the marked progress made in recent years toward attainment of the full possibilities of probation as an agency for the rehabilitation of the adult offender, the National Probation Association has played the leading role. *See* Probation Service in BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS.

PRISONS, ADULT REFORMATORIES, AND JAILS

There are in the United States approximately 167 institutions for adult offenders (civilian) operated by the federal government and the several states. They include prisons and penitentiaries, reformatories for men and women, institutions for defective delinquents, correctional institutions, and systems of prison farms and camps. Of these institutions, 29 are under the Bureau of Prisons, United States Department of Justice, six new institutions having been opened in the summer of 1940. The remaining 138 are operated by the 48 states and the District of Columbia.

Basing its figures on reports from 107

prisons and adult reformatories in 46 states (no reports are received from Alabama and Georgia) and 17 federal institutions, the United States Census Bureau reported 159,818 prisoners present on December 31, 1938, of whom 154,383 were males and 5,435 females. The number in state institutions was 142,735 and in federal institutions 17,083.

The Bureau of Prisons estimates that the total number of prisoners in out state and federal prisons and adult reformatories at the end of 1939 closely approximated 180,000 and that there has been an increase of about 38.5 per cent during the past ten years. The federal prison population is today the highest it has ever been, and has increased 56 per cent in the past five years. Increases in state prisons seem due to the cumulative effects of long sentences imposed in recent years; in the federal prisons, to new laws and to strict enforcement of the internal revenue laws.

The total number of prisoners received from the courts on felony commitments during 1938 was 64,625. About 20 per cent were under twenty-one years of age, another 20 per cent under twenty-five, and a third 20 per cent under thirty. The median age was 27.7 years. There was no record of prior commitment in 51.8 per cent of the cases; 28 per cent had one previous prison commitment or more. Negroes constituted 26.3 per cent of the total, native-born whites 68.1 per cent, and foreign-born whites 4.5 per cent.

The number of felony prisoners released during 1938 was 59,876. The median time served was 19 months; for federal prisoners it was 13 months and for state prisoners 20.5 months.

Prisons

Our prisons vary in type from such walled industrial prisons as Charlestown (Mass.), Sing Sing (N. Y.), Joliet (Ill.), Jackson (Mich.), and San Quentin (Calif.), to the great plantation and farm prison systems of Louisiana, Mississippi, Texas, and other southern states, and to such modern unwalled prisons as Wallkill (N. Y.), and the new medium security Federal Penitentiary at Terre Haute, Ind. A combination of northern and southern types is found in the Virginia prison system, which includes one of the busiest industrial prisons in the country at Richmond, and a series of road camps and farms on which three-fourths of the state prisoners are employed and from which the worst features of the chain gang system have been practically eliminated. Georgia and a number of other southern states turn a large proportion of their prisoners over to the counties for road work, for the most part in chain gangs. Road camps and prison farms are found extensively throughout the South, but very little road work is now being done by northern prisons, and farms in that section are usually an adjunct to a walled prison. Massachusetts, Illinois, and Indiana have state farms, but these are primarily for misdemeanants, mental defectives, and so forth.

The better road camps, the reforestation projects established in Michigan, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin, the state prison farms of New Jersey and North Carolina, among others, and the farm-type federal correctional institutions demonstrate the possibility of more widespread use of minimum security facilities. The typical American prison today, however, is still a walled institution in which the prisoners are quartered in cells and are employed in the maintenance of the institution, in a few industries, and on small farms in the immediate vicinity of the prison proper.

Practically all prisons are overcrowded by 50 to 100 per cent of their capacity. New construction was stimulated in 1938 by a Public Works Administration allotment of $50,000,000 for that purpose, but has added capacity for only about 15,000 prisoners. The badly overcrowded federal prison system received $14,000,000 of this sum and is spending it on six new institutions of varying types and on additions to 13 others.

The present trend of progressive prison systems is toward diversified institutions. New York State and the federal Bureau of Prisons have progressed farther than any others in this direction. In addition to several walled prisons, each has reformatories for men and women, an unwalled prison with a superior program for selected men, and special institutions or facilities for mental defectives and insane. Federal prisons range in type from Alcatraz Island in California to the new, unwalled, 1,200-man penitentiary at Terre Haute, Ind. New Jersey also has a well-diversified system, with an unusually effective coordination of its prison, walled and unwalled reformatories, and prison farms.

The second trend is toward individualized treatment. It is generally agreed among progressive penologists that the essentials of a well-rounded correctional program in an institution for adult offenders, the aim of which is to bring about the rehabilitation of the prisoner through an individualized program of training and treatment, include the following: scientific classification and assignment on the basis of complete case histories, examinations, tests, and studies of the individual prisoners; adequate medical service, having corrective treatment as its aim, and making full use of psychiatry; psychological services, properly related to the problems of education, work assignment, discipline, and so forth; employment at tasks comparable in variety, type, and pace to the work of the world outside, and especially tasks with vocational training value; education planned in accordance with the individual's needs and interests, with heavy emphasis on vocational training; library services, designed to provide wholesome recreation and indirect education; directed recreation, both indoors and outdoors, so organized as to promote mental and physical health; a religious program so conducted as to affect the spiritual life of the individual as well as that of the whole group; discipline that aims at the development of self-control and preparation for free life, not merely at conformity to institutional rules; adequate buildings and equipment for the varied program and activities of the institution; and, above all, adequate and competent personnel, carefully selected, well trained, and serving under such conditions as to promote a high degree of morale and efficiency.

Only a few prisons have been able to secure funds and staffs to establish well-rounded correctional programs of this type, and individualized treatment is rendered difficult by large inmate populations, overcrowding, and the lack of trained personnel, especially in the professional grades. Mass treatment and only the most rudimentary attempts at rehabilitation characterize the majority of our prisons. The federal institutions and those of a few states have achieved high standards, however, while others have established one or more of the above essentials on a commendable level. The most significant advances in the past decade have been made in classification and case work, medical service, and education; during the same period these advances have been balanced by the bad effects of overcrowding and a very serious increase in idleness.

The oldest and best classification system in the prisons of the country is that of New Jersey, and excellent systems are also to be found in the federal prison service and in Indiana, Massachusetts, Michigan, and New York, among others. In those institutional systems where classification has been most fully developed, the term is considered almost synonymous with individualized treatment. The usual method is for the classification staff or clinic to prepare a complete case history and compile all available data on each prisoner. The classification board then meets and decides to what quarters, employment, educational or vocational training program, and special activities the individual prisoners should be assigned. It also selects "trusties" and prisoners for transfer to other institutions. The board may recall the prisoner later for reassignment or to

check on progress. One of its most important contributions is the material and recommendations it makes available to the parole authorities.

Perhaps the most essential services to classification and to the entire institutional program are the medical services, including psychiatric work. The more progressive prisons today go far beyond routine medical examinations on admission, the segregarion and treatment of those with contagious conditions, and rudimentary treatment of ordinary illnesses. The best medical services make exhaustive and highly specialized examinations of all incoming prisoners, and then prescribe and carry out whatever treatment is indicated, even to the extent of corrective surgery. The function of the medical program is conceived to be not only the protection of the public by the cure of transmissible conditions, but also the removal of all disabilities which may handicap the prisoner on release.

The number of prisons having reasonably well-staffed medical services is growing steadily, but many prisons are still served by a single physician only, sometimes parttime, supplemented by a visiting oculist, surgeon, dentist, and so forth. California, Illinois, Massachusetts, Michigan, New Jersey, and New York are among the states that have developed good medical progtams. The best prison medical services are to be found in the federal institutions, each of which has a staff of from 6 to 14 (United States Public Health Service personnel) and in the New York City Penitentiary on Riker's Island, which has a resident staff of 70 and a consulting staff of 90 specialists.

The value of psychiatry is being given increasing recognition in the prison field, although it is not yet fully appreciated. Each of the federal institutions has at least one psychiatrist on its staff, and a few state prisons have resident psychiatrists. In some instances the prison physician is also the psychiatrist. An increasing number have made provisions in recent years for part-time psychiatric services from a state hospital department. Because of the large inmate populations and annual intake, lone prison psychiatrists are usually able to do little more than spot and transfer those prisoners who are obviously insane on admission, and diagnose the cases of those referred to them because of disciplinary troubles or for other reasons. Therapy is virtually impossible under typical prison conditions.

Resident psychologists are found more frequently than psychiatrists in prisons, but there are still very few outside of the federal system. Their work is particularly valuable in the classification, education, and parole programs. Even prison officials of limited education and training make frequent use of data on intelligence quotients, sometimes without sufficient attention to other factors.

No part of the prison program has shown more marked progress in the past decade than educational work. In 1930, educational programs in all the major federal institutions were placed under trained personnel, facilities were improved, and both academic and vocational education were put on a sound basis. At about the same time educational work at the Elmira Reformatory (N. Y.) was completely reorganized under a trained director. New York State has made more progress in the field of prison education in the 1930–1940 decade than it had in the preceding century. Today it has the most elaborate and extensive educational program of all the states, with a Division of Education in the State Department of Correction, an annual budget of $350,000, and a total staff of trained personnel numbering 156. The socialized approach in education is strongly stressed.

Some states already had educational programs of outstanding quality, and several soon followed the federal and New York lead. The California State Prison at San Quentin has developed the intramural correspondence course system to a greater extent than any other prison, and has received for many years the full cooperation of the University of California and the State De-

partment of Education. The Wisconsin Prison has similarly had the cooperation of the state university. The Michigan State Prison at Jackson has an unusually complete set of classrooms and vocational training shops, under a trained director with several civilian assistants. Massachusetts, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania were pioneers in the field and have expanded their educational work in the past few years. Some prisons which have not been able to obtain funds for the employment of directors of education or teachers have taken advantage of the personnel made available by the Work Projects Administration (WPA). Under WPA auspices, the practicability of educational work has been demonstrated even in the road camps and on the farms of some of our southern prison systems. North Carolina, for example, has 36 schools in as many prison units under 56 WPA teachers, and has enrolled 1,400 inmates for educational work.

Libraries are ordinarily considered a part of recreational rather than educational facilities. Every prison has a library of some sort; only the federal prisons and two or three others have trained librarians and employ standard library methods.

The possibilities of education, especially when heavy emphasis is placed on vocarional training, are accepted by prison officials everywhere; and practically all of them would establish educational programs if they were able to obtain the funds for personnel and supplies. In a large number of prisons, however, educational work still consists of little more than rudimentary instruction in the "three R's" with untrained prisoners acting as teachers under the supervision of the chaplain or some other person without definite professional training for the task, or is promoted merely to occupy some of the idle prisoners.

While constructive activities have been expanding, idleness in prisons has increased alarmingly and today thousands of prisoners are totally idle, while other thousands are assigned to already over-manned maintenance details or to school. The problem of the larger prisons is doubly difficult to solve.

After a long fight against prison industries in their predominant form, organized manufacturers and labor groups secured the passage of two federal statutes—the Hawes-Cooper Act of 1934 and the Ashurst-Sumners Act of 1935—which made it possible for the states to pass legislation restricting the sale of prison-made goods. This legislation was aimed chiefly at such mass-production industries as the manufacture of cheap shirts, but it resulted in the elimination of good industries as well.

The contract system, which was subject to many abuses and had been under fire for over a century, has now virtually disappeared from our prisons; the lease system was abolished ten years ago. A few prisons still manufacture goods for sale on the open market within the limits of their own states and neighboring states with which they have reciprocal agreements. The general trend is toward what is known as the state-use system, under which the prison manufactures goods for sale to the institutions and agencies of the state and its political subdivisions. This system has been in effect for many years in Illinois, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, and Ohio, is now operating in Michigan, Virginia, and other states, and is the system under which the federal prison industries operate. Every attempt is made to diversify the state-use industries, not only to provide a variety of work but also to reduce to a minimum the amount of competition with any particular outside industry. Even under this system, prison industries have to fight a continuous battle for survival and have difficulty in disposing of their products. Few prison industries operate through as long a working day or at anywhere near the same pace as outside industry, and the effect on the prisoners assigned to them is unquestionably bad. The federal Prison Industries Reorganization Administration has made invaluable studies of the problem of prison indus-

tries and of the whole prison and parole problem.

Penologists emphasize the fact that personnel is the most important factor in a correctional program. The tendency today is to try to improve the quality of prison personnel by providing for appointment and promotion under a merit system with high standards, recruit and in-service training courses, secure tenure, adequate salaries, and retirement on pension.

The prison personnel situation in general is bad. Very few prison systems are under civil service. Members of the custodial force are usually appointed for political reasons, have no special experience or training for their jobs, receive no real training on entering the service, and are replaced at every political turnover. Salaries are low, promotion is slow, and tenure insecure. The wardens and professional staff members are also very often political appointees without previous experience in the prison field and are frequently removed just when they have acquired experience and competence.

In the federal prison system and those of a number of states, prison work is a career service with high standards of admission and secure tenure, and is attracting increasing numbers of men and women of superior ability and advanced education. Several prison systems have training courses through which all new officers must pass and which provide some in-service training. The courses of the federal institutions and those of Michigan, New Jersey, and New York give rigorous physical training and instruction in theoretical and practical penology. Federal funds for correctional officers' training are now available to the states under the George-Dean Act. Pennsylvania, with these funds, has established a course for such officers under the State Department of Public Instruction.

The chief weakness of American prisons today is that they do not make enough demands on the prisoners but permit or compel them to drift through their terms on a low physical, mental, and motal level. Outmoded forms of brutal punishment have practically disappeared, except in the deep South, but constructive discipline has not taken their place, and good conduct usually means "looking out for Number One" by obeying the prison rules. In contrast to this emphasis on non-social attitudes, the inmate advisory councils found in the federal institutions and the Massachusetts Prison Colony at Norfolk represent effective efforts to develop social attitudes.

Lack of competent and well-trained personnel, the effect of long terms in overcrowded Bastille-type prisons, the inadequacy of funds for all purposes and particularly for rehabilitative activities, and the deteriorating effect of idleness have combined to keep American prisons as a whole at a low level of effectiveness. More and mnre states, however, are following the leadership of the most advanced prison systems in the country, generally conceded to be those of the federal government, New Jersey, and New York, and continuance of the steady progress of the past twenty-five years may be safely predicted.

Reformatories for Men

There are 28 reformatories for men in the United States, of which four (including the District of Columbia Reformatory) are federal and the remaining 24 operated by 22 states. The oldest is the New York Reformatory at Elmira, established in 1876. This institution furnishes the outstanding example of the changes in aim and method that have taken place in the reformatories since their early years. They are designed for young adults, the usual age limit being sixteen to twenty-five or thirty years. Most of the prisoners are in their late teens and early twenties, but many of them have been convicted of the most serious offenses and are often serving sentences as long as those of men in the state prisons. Reformatory prisoners are usually committed under some form of indeterminate sentence and theoretically are released when their rehabilitation has been accomplished.

In the early days, great emphasis was placed on compulsory educational work and vocational training of a stereotyped sort, required of each prisoner with little reference to his ability, interest, and future prospects. Military drill and training were relied on heavily for their supposed benefits in character training. Productive industries were discouraged on the theory that the young prisoners were committed for training and that industrial employment savored of prison labor.

As time passed, the reformatories became little better than junior prisons. The immaturity and consequent instability of the reformatory prisoners made them poor subjects for an unselective and monotonous training routine. The disciplinary difficulties which naturally arose in institutions containing several hundred young and reckless prisoners resulted in the development of multitudinous rules and in forms of punishment as severe as those used in prisons.

For some years the trend has been toward the development of reformatory programs based on what is known of the capabilities and interests of young adults. Attempts are made to provide a variety of employment in maintenance activities that have vocational training value, on farms, and in a few selected industries which have increased training value because they are operated on a production basis. Vocational courses are put under trained instructors. Medical, psychiatric, psychological, classification, and case work services are brought into play for the development of individualized programs with interest and significance. The proportion of professionally trained persons in the reformatory staffs is much greater than in the prison staffs. Directed recreation and organized athletics of the type found in the better public and private schools are encouraged because of their effect on physical and mental health and on the morale of the young prisoners.

Some reformatories are still so lacking in the facilities and trained personnel needed for effective correctional programs that they are little better than prisons; and the majority, being walled institutions with most of the inmates quartered in cells, have the physical appearance of prisons. A number are so large that mass treatment is the rule. There has been improvement in practically every institution, however, in the past two decades and reformatories are today advancing steadily toward the level achieved by a few. Unbiased observers point to the United States Industrial Reformatory at Chillicothe, Ohio, the New York Reformatory at Elmira, and the New Jersey Reformatory at Annandale as perhaps the three outstanding institutions of their type in the country. No institution in America has shown more striking improvements in its educational work in the past ten years than Elmira. *See* Institutional Care in BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS.

Institutions for Women

There are 27 special institutions for women prisoners in the country, 2 federal and 25 state. (This figure does not include such larger city institutions as the New York City House of Detention, which cares for trial prisoners and sentenced misdemeanants, but includes the Detroit House of Correction, which serves as the state reformatory for women for Michigan.) These institutions are variously designated as prisons, reformatories, state farms, or as combinations of two types, but in most of them the aim and method are essentially those of the adult reformatory. In the remaining states women prisoners occupy a section of the men's prison, often in very limited quarters.

As a whole, the institutions for women are the most encouraging of all our penal and correctional institutions, chiefly because of their common-sense and socially minded approach. The oldest of these institutions date back to the 1870's but most of them have been established during the present century. The more recent ones are planned on the cottage basis, and their buildings and grounds have little of the prison at-

mosphere. There is a reasonably large proportion of professionally trained persons on their staffs, although the institutions for women have seldom been given the appropriations they need and their staffs are notoriously underpaid.

Academic education is not stressed, but excellent vocational training is given in the work of the institution, for domestic and other occupations the women can enter on release. The Massachusetts Reformatory for Women at Framingham, which has developed individualized treatment to a maximum level, has made effective use of an indenture law passed in 1879, under which it is possible to place women in domestic employment while they are still serving sentence. Productive industries are generally small, usually being limited to the manufacture of clothing for state institutions. Women engage in outdoor work of all types, even heavy farm work, and appear to enjoy it and profit by it.

Emphasis is placed on medical service and health programs. Women with infant children are instructed in child care by trained nurses. Health and morale are promoted by a variety of indoor and outdoor recreational activities. Classification, case work, and individualized treatment are stressed. The Federal Industrial Institution for Women at Alderson, W. Va., and several state institutions seek to develop cooperative social attitudes through some form of "student government." The humane and intelligently sympathetic attitude displayed by staff members in women's institutions contrasts vividly with the customary attitudes in institutions for men.

A very large proportion of the women's reformatories can be given a high rating. There is no part of the country, including the South, in which one or more excellent institutions for women are not to be found. They often have to accept the older, chronic offenders whose rehabilitation is difficult, together with the younger and more hopeful cases. They are small in size and are sometimes neglected. They have difficulty securing funds for professional services and for other vital needs. But they are manifestly motivated, in the main, by a high ideal of social service and, with all their limitations, serve as models in aim and method for the institutions for men.

Jails

There are about 3,700 county and local jails in the United States, in addition to about 10,000 police lock-ups. The average jail population is just over 10 prisoners. There are more than 500 jails maintained by counties with less than 10,000 population. It is estimated that each year more than 1,000,000 people are confined in our jails, more than 600,000 of them under sentence. At any given time the total number of sentenced prisoners in jail is probably about 60,000. Jails are ordinarily used for the custody of persons under trial or awaiting action, held as witnesses, and serving short sentences. In actual practice in many jurisdictions, prisoners with long sentences for serious felonies may be committed to a jail instead of state prison. The federal government, for lack of sufficient facilities of its own for short-term prisoners, boards about 5,000 such ptisoners in approximately 700 county jails throughout the country.

It is generally admitted that our jails are the worst institutions in our whole penal and correctional system, with the exception of the even more abominable chain gangs still prevalent in the South, usually under county auspices. The best index to the general standard is given by the inspection reports of the United States Bureau of Prisons, covering 3,078 jails inspected up to June 30, 1939. Of this number, 2,340 were rated under 50 per cent, and an additional 639 between 50 and 60 per cent. Only 99 were given a rating of 60 per cent or over, only 9 a rating of 80 per cent or over, and none above 90 per cent. The inspectors do not visit some institutions known to have high standards, but the above figures give a fair picture of the gen-

eral situation. The Bureau now carries 576 jails on its approved list, has listed 325 others which it will use only in an emergency, and has condemned 2,211 as unfit for use.

Some county jails, chiefly in the few states that have authority to inspect local institutions, have high standards, as do a number of the larger city institutions. Examples are: several excellent county jails in urban centers in New Jersey and New York, farm-type institutions in Pennsylvania, and the fully equipped and well-staffed New York City Penitentiary on Riker's Island. Good jails are the exception rather than the rule, however, and even the best ones are vexed by the problem of idleness to an even greater extent than the prisons.

Conditions which characterize the vast majority of county jails include: an almost total lack of classification and segregation, even of those with contagious diseases from the well, the young from the old, and the beginner from the hardened offender; idleness, except for the few prisoners who can be used in maintenance work; non-existent or inadequate medical service; overcrowding and unsanitary conditions; long hours of confinement in cells and bull pens; insufficient and poorly prepared food for those who lack money, and better food for those who can afford to pay for it; and absence of any efforts toward the rehabilitation of the offender through education and vocational training, placement or guidance at the time of release, or social case work of any type. The chain gangs, of which there are still 125 to 150 in Florida, Georgia, South Carolina, and Virginia, have the bad features of the jails except for idleness; they usually require road work "from sun-up to sun-down."

The jails are usually administered by politically appointed sheriffs and deputies, who are constantly changing. Many jails are run on the fee system, which means that it is to the financial interest of the sheriff to operate the jail as cheaply as possible and to spend the minimum amount on food, clothing, and other necessities. Finally, because of the inadequacy of the staff and their ignorance of methods of administering institutions, the prisoners are very often permitted to organize what is known as a "kangaroo court" and to enforce rules of their own making. This practice not only results in the prisoners being allowed to run the jail to suit themselves but also in all sorts of illegal, corrupt, and brutal actions.

It is recognized that one of the most disastrous features of our present jail system is its effect on young adults, large numbers of whom are first offenders. While awaiting trial many are held in jail under bad conditions and in contact with experienced criminals, even though they may later be discharged or placed on probation. The correction of this situation, as well as the development of coordinated programs for youthful offenders, is the aim of legislation prepared by a special committee of the American Law Institute during the past year. One of its model bills, the so-called *Youth Correction Authority Act* (*infra cit.*), has been approved by the Institute, and attempts will soon be made to secure its adoption in one or more states. The bill provides for the establishment of a Youth Correction Authority of three members having state-wide authority and complete jurisdiction, from the moment of conviction, over offenders of more than juvenile court age and less than twenty-one years at the time of their arrest, until they reach the age of twenty-five years. The Authority would have an adequate staff of professional personnel and could utilize probation, institutions of all types, and parole, and require any program of training and treatment it deems best. It would have some power to regulate and control the conditions of detention prior to conviction.

The solution offered by experienced officials for the jail problem is the extension and strengthening of the inspection powers of the state as a first step, bringing the jails finally under state administrative control,

and creating regional and state farm institutions for sentenced prisoners, with supplementary facilities for the temporary detention of trial prisoners in the vicinity of the court house. Indiana authorities point out, for example, that the net per capita cost of operating their state farm for misdemeanants is less than the lowest cost reported by any Indiana jail operating under the fee system.

A new and powerful influence for the improvement of jail standards is the National Jail Association, established in 1937. Its bimonthly publication, the *Jail Association Journal,* has now been made the official organ of the American Prison Association as well, and has been given a new title, *The Prison World.* The first regional conference under the auspices of the National Jail Association was held in Philadelphia in June, 1940, and will be followed by others.

Parole

During the year 1938, according to the reports of the United States Bureau of the Census, 65,317 prisoners, including 59,876 felony cases, were discharged from our state and federal prisons and adult reformatories. Of the total number, 25,427 (38.9 per cent) were released unconditionally and 27,684 (42.4 per cent) were paroled. The remainder were given other forms of conditional release.

Parole, in the true sense of the word, means the release of a prisoner under supervision before the expiration of his sentence, with the provision that he may be returned to finish his sentence if he violates the conditions of his parole either by the commission of a new offense or by some such technical violation as failing to report at the required intervals, changing his job or home without notifying the parole authorities, and so forth. He may even be returned because there are indications that he may get into further trouble.

Experienced prison and parole administrators believe that such a method of release affords the best protection to society. They admit the weaknesses that exist in current practice, but point out that what is often called parole is little more than a loose form of executive clemency, in which the essential elements of sound parole, especially adequate supervision, are lacking. The National Parole Conference, held in Washington, D. C., in 1939 and attended by 800 persons representing all branches of law enforcement, did much to clarify public opinion on the subject. The *Declaration of the Principles of Parole*[1] adopted by the Conference set fundamental standards, and the four-volume *Attorney General's Survey of Release Procedures,* released at that time, made available data theretofore lacking.

The essentials of a sound parole system, generally agreed on by leaders in the correctional field, are: (a) parole laws providing for indeterminate sentences, with the date and conditions of release to be determined by the paroling authority, and providing also for the maximum of flexibility in parole procedures; (b) thorough preparation of the prisoner for free life by the institution, and of the home, work, and community situation to which he is to go; (c) compilation of a complete case history and other pertinent data for the information and guidance of the paroling authority and parole officers; (d) a wise and honest decision as to the date and conditions of release, made by a competent and independent paroling authority, preferably a full-time parole board; and (e) strict but helpful supervision of parolees by competent parole officers with reasonable case loads, and return to the institution if the public interest requires it.

In actual practice today very few parole systems reach these standards. Parole laws present a bewildering variety of provisions and many restrictions. Only 10 states (California, Georgia, Illinois, Iowa, Massachusetts, Michigan, New York, Ohio, Tennessee, and Washington) and the federal government have full-time parole

[1] *See* National Parole Conference, *infra cit.*

boards. Supervision as a whole is inadequate. Only a dozen states and the federal government provide constant official supervision; one-half of all the state parole officers are in five states. The trend is upward, however, and it is estimated that there has been a 100 per cent increase in the number of parole officers in the past decade.

The parole systems of the federal government and a number of states have been brought to a high standard and their record of successes on parole is such as to demonstrate clearly the effectiveness of well-administered and adequately staffed parole. That various administrative set-ups are effective has been demonstrated in four of the outstanding systems of the country: the federal system and those of Michigan, New Jersey, and New York. In each there is close coordination with the institutional programs, and each is part of a centralized correctional administration. Space forbids the description of more than one of these systems.

The most elaborate parole system in the country is that of New York State, which has about 8,000 persons on parole. It has an annual budget of $590,000 and a staff of about 200 persons, of whom nearly half are parole officers. They are selected by civil service and 75 per cent are college graduates. The three members of the full-time parole board receive salaries of $12,000 a year, and the administrative work is in charge of a $9,000-a-year executive director.

The New York Parole Board has reported[1] the results of a study of the five-year careers of the "Class of 1934" as a part of a continuous running inventory of its program. Those released in subsequent years will also be studied. This is the first appraisal of the kind ever made by a parole system.

Although 1934 was an unfavorable year for study, a change in the law having brought about the mandatory release in that year of some prisoners considered bad parole prospects, the records show that of the 2,257 persons paroled in 1934 about 64 per cent had apparently made good at the end of the five-year period. Another 18 per cent were returned to prison by the Board before getting into real trouble. The remaining 18 per cent were convicted of new crimes while on parole, but only half of these were convicted of felonies. An additional fact revealed by the New York study is that there has been a 57 per cent decrease since 1935 in the number of parolees convicted of new felonies. Parole in New York appears to justify the amounts spent on it, especially since it costs only $60 a year to supervise a parolee and $550 a year to maintain a prisoner in an institution.

As already noted, there has been a tendency in recent years to establish combined adult probation and parole services. The federal government and 14 states now have such combined services. The National Probation Association, after long consultation with experts in both fields, has prepared and printed a model bill as a guide to states desiring to establish a combined system.

Parole is lamentably weak in most states and exists in name only in a large number. Sound and effective parole systems exist in sufficient numbers, however, to demonstrate the validity of the principle of parole and the standards and procedures that must be accepted if it is to succeed. One of the chief factors militating against parole success is the difficulty of finding employment for released prisoners. That jobs can be found for them is demonstrated in Massachusetts, Michigan, and New York, to cite only three examples, where 85 per cent of the parolees are now employed. Public understanding of parole has increased greatly, and it appears certain that it will be steadily expanded and improved rather than curtailed. It is now recognized that the rehabilitation of committed adult offenders cannot be accomplished by correctional institutions alone, and that a period of strict and helpful supervision after release is nec-

[1] State of New York, Division of Parole, *Annual Report*. 1938.

essary for the offender's good and for the protection of society.

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AID TO DEPENDENT CHILDREN.[1] The category of assistance that was officially christened aid to dependent children in 1935[2] is the offspring of two parents, both of which have been recognized tools of public administration for four centuries. The one is the traditional poor law; the other, the system of grants-in-aid. Even though many dependent children had been provided for through indenture or apprenticeship and through institutional care prior to the twentieth century, probably the greatest number have always been maintained as beneficiaries of the Elizabethan poor law and its American counterparts. *See* CHILD WELFARE. By the turn of the century, however, the poor law had fallen to a low estate, both financially and administratively. The financial remedy was simple. When the local communities were not able to provide adequate care, the system of governmental grants-in-aid, common in other fields since the time of the Tudors, was adopted as a means of tapping new tax sources for care of dependents. The administrative cure was more difficult to effect: it required the development of a special category of assistance on behalf of dependent children. The generally successful results of this separate category, now three decades old, and other special categories modeled upon it, have largely changed the public attitude toward poor relief.

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

[2] The Social Security Act was approved August 14, 1935.

Early Mothers' Assistance Plans

In order to save dependent children from the recognized deficiency of local poor relief, the nineteenth century thought first to emphasize institutional care and later to develop foster home care. The fear of outdoor relief persisted into the twentieth century. Public aid for children in their own homes was not enthusiastically urged even by the first White House Conference on Dependent Children, called by President Roosevelt in 1909. *See* WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCES. The Conference recommended that the aid be given "preferably in the form of private charity, rather than public relief." The absence of social supervision under the traditional public relief system made suspect the consequences of cash assistance payments. The first mothers' assistance law, the Illinois Funds to Parents Act of 1911, was so criticized by contemporary welfare leaders that other state acts usually circumscribed the eligibility in order that aid should not be granted to mothers who were deserted or unmarried. The laws were similarly attacked, also by experts, for their generosity in amount and the lack of restriction on the objects of expenditure.

The legislative enthusiasm for mothers' assistance, however, was not dampened by this criticism. During the decade from 1911 to 1921, 42 state laws were passed providing cash allowances from public funds for the support of dependent children in their own homes; by 1935 only three states (Alabama, Georgia, and South Carolina) had no such specific legislation. But this geographical popularity concealed a definite narrowness of scope and inadequacy of administration and financing. As late as 1934 only 10 states and the District of Columbia made provision for children whose father had not married their mother, had divorced her, or was in prison. The hostile attitude toward administration of relief deterred all but 12 states from giving administration of mothers' assistance to the poor law officials.

Twenty of the states had to turn to the only other local administrative agency available —the juvenile court. In avoiding one hazard by conferring an assistance function on a judicial body, the states created an unforseen obstacle: how were they to provide adequate state-wide supervision of the courts by an administrative agency?

The pattern of the social services in the second decade of the twentieth century led to a reliance not only on local administration but on local financing. Most of the mothers' assistance laws were permissive rather than mandatory upon the local political subdivisions, with inadequate, if any, state financial participation. Four states with nominal laws on their statute books made no mothers' assistance payments whatsoever from 1932 to 1935; in those which made payments, hardly over half the counties participated. Only 12 states had state-wide programs in operation in 1935. For financial reasons the states were temporarily lured back into acceptance of a general relief program. Expansion of mothers' assistance during the early 1930's would have involved additional expenditures of state and local moneys; the availability of federal funds for emergency relief was too great a temptation to localities and states to curtail their own expenditures, notwithstanding the efforts of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration to maintain the integrity of existing categorical assistance programs. It was the withdrawal of federal financing for general relief that rekindled an interest in special aid for dependent children.

Mothers' assistance legislation generally established local administration with some help from state finances. The Social Security Act of 1935 did not disturb that pattern; it only added a third partner, and changed certain emphases. The federal government was to pay one-third of the costs, up to certain maxima, of both assistance and administration if the Social Security Board approved the state's plan for aid to dependent children. The scheme does not involve federal administration. From the standpoint of aid to dependent children the important aspects of this federal-state-local relationship are the effects that federal participation has had on financing and on administration.

Effects of Social Security Act

The enactment of the Social Security Act of 1935 radically altered the coverage of the programs in aid of dependent children through two mechanisms. First, it made federal funds available, as noted above, and thus afforded a broader base for financing new programs. Second, it made such funds available only if the states would operate the programs on a state-wide basis. Federal financial participation thus tended to increase individual awards but, more important, required a greatly increased coverage.

The amounts paid as individual grants varied unduly among the states before the passage of the Social Security Act. In 1931 the average grant in the median state was $21.78 per family, while an average of less than $10 a month was maintained in one-fifth of the counties in Illinois and in almost one-half of the counties in Ohio in 1933. By July, 1938, when the Social Security Act had had an opportunity to make itself felt, the average grant for all states receiving federal funds had risen to $31.32 per family; Ohio's average was $39.61; Massachusetts' was practically $60. The national average has since increased to $32.15 in July, 1940.

The increase in average grant per recipient is less striking than the increase in the amount expended per inhabitant in the general population. This amount per inhabitant rose from a median of about 27 cents a year in the years 1932 to 1935, in those states making payments, to 76 cents in 1938. Some states showed striking increases in the median per capita expenditure: Utah increased from 23 cents to $2.05; Arizona, from 6 cents to $1.66; Maryland, from 7 cents to $1.64. Even states with well-established programs, like Wisconsin, Massachu-

setts, and Pennsylvania, doubled their per capita expenditure.

The very considerable increase in average per capita expenditure, in contrast with the lesser increase in average grant, is of course a result of the rapid expansion of coverage. From 1932 to 1935 an average of about 285,000 children, in about 115,000 families, were receiving aid in 1,600 counties, totaling about $41,000,000. By 1938 this had bounded up to 684,000 children, in about 280,000 families, receiving aid totaling over $97,000,000 in 3,000 local units. In 1938, 42 states were receiving federal funds for aid to dependent children. This number had not changed by July, 1940.[1] In the twelve months ending June 30, 1940, the total expenditures were $123,136,000 in all states making payments to dependent children. Under the Social Security Act, 808,150 children in 335,285 families received payments in July, 1940. The federal appropriation alone for the fiscal year 1940–1941, representing less than half the total anticipated expenditures, is $75,000,000.

These totals and averages may conceal as important facts as they reveal. The development of the program presents a mottled picture. In February, 1940, the national average grant per family was $32.35. As among the states the average varied from $8.13 in Arkansas to $60.13 in Massachusetts. If one considers such states as Texas, Mississippi, and Kentucky, which do not receive federal funds for aid to dependent children, the extremes might be even greater. The number of children aided per 1,000 of the estimated population under sixteen years of age was 26, as a national average. But the range was from 8 in Virginia and 10 in Georgia to 50 in Missouri, 52 in Louisiana, and 54 in Utah. Per capita expenditures slid down a range in 1939 from a high of $2.48 in Utah and $2.29 in Arizona, from about $1.70 in such states as Wisconsin, Maryland, and Massachusetts, to a low of 19 cents in Arkansas and 11 cents in Virginia. In Mississippi and Texas, which do not participate under the Social Security Act, the per capita expenditure was less than one cent. Discrepancies are also marked as among the counties of some of the individual states.

To be sure, the small per capita expenditures for aid to dependent children in some states might conceivably indicate that other assistance programs have been so highly developed as to obviate some of the aggregate need for categorical payments. But this is seldom a fact. By and large, where per capita expenditures for aid to dependent children are low, expenditures for general relief are likewise low. The needs are not being met. This is evidenced by the enormous waiting lists in some states. The most serious example of this sort of situation is a state which had 3,562 families receiving aid to dependent children in December, 1939, 797 eligible cases not receiving assistance, and 9,329 pending applications. That state spent 32 cents per capita for aid to dependent children in 1939, compared with a national average of 89 cents, and spent only 14 cents per capita on general relief, one-twenty-seventh of the national average.

Some part of the discrepancies as among the states and localities is doubtless due to basic differences in costs and standards of living. Some part results from the differences in the stage of development of the program, although in many cases greater length of operating experience does not mean a greater expansion of the program. A larger factor is the wide variation in the amounts of money available for the program as among the states and localities. This inequality results in part from federal limitations; more basically it is rooted in differences among the states in their traditional laws and inherent financial capacities.

[1] Included among the 42 "states" receiving federal grants in July, 1940, were the District of Columbia and Hawaii. Not included were Connecticut, Illinois, Iowa, Kentucky, Mississippi, Nevada, South Dakota, and Texas, although Mississippi and South Dakota had enacted legislation which seems to permit the later development of approved plans.

Aid to Dependent Children

The maximum federal limits on amount of grants has had a depressive effect upon the assistance payments made by the states. Until January 1, 1940, the Social Security Act limited the federal contribution to one-third of the total spent with respect to dependent children, up to a monthly maximum of $18 for the first child in the home and $12 for each succeeding child. From 1940 on, the federal share is one-half, making the maximum federal contribution $9.00 instead of $6.00 for the first child, $6.00 instead of $4.00 for each of the other children. Since many families need more than the federal maximum, the states and localities must bear any excess without benefit of a federal grant-in-aid. A majority of the states without maximum limits in their own laws, or with limits above the federal maximum, make assistance payments higher than the federal maximum to a substantial percentage of the families they accept. Most of the states limiting grants to the federal maximum find it necessary to make the highest payments permissible to a large proportion of the families receiving assistance. The federal limit of $18 for the first child imposes the most severe restrictions, since the maintenance of the parent looms relatively large in the smaller families; well over one-half the assistance payments in one-child families equal or exceed the federal maximum.

The Social Security Board has recognized and expressed the need for increased limits of federal participation. Moreover, even though the Social Security Act amendments of 1939 increased the federal matching rates, the poverty of many states precludes their making full use of this increase. In 1938 the per capita income in the United States was $515; it ranged, however, from $1,199 in the District of Columbia and $822 in New York down to $216 in Arkansas and $205 in Mississippi. If a state is so poor that it cannot make payments in greater average amount than $6.00 a month from state and local sources, the amendment to the Social Security Act will increase the average assistance payment from $9.00 to $12, or will allow the case load to increase by one-third. But such a state is still not profiting by the maximum potential federal contribution, though its need for federal aid may be greater than states which do so profit. In order to make federal grants available to states according to their need, the Social Security Board has recommended to the President and Congress that the Social Security Act be amended to authorize variable grants instead of percentage grants. One proposal is that every state get at least a 50 per cent federal grant, ranging up to 66⅔ per cent (two federal dollars for each state dollar) in those states whose per capita income is lowest.

State Financing of Program

But inadequate federal financing is not the sole cause of these financial inequities. An important factor in many state programs is the method whereby the states derive their funds. In 12 states the state's share of aid to dependent children is financed out of special taxes, the yield of which is dedicated to this and other assistance programs. The yield of liquor taxes, luxury taxes, and estate taxes is highly volatile. Unexpected and uncontrolled situations arise to increase or decrease the amounts thus available for assistance, causing unproductive expenditures in one month and unnecessary curtailment in the next. Unfortunately the tax yield is generally lowest when the assistance needs are greatest. These fluctuations are much less appreciable where assistance is financed out of the state's general revenue fund. *See* FINANCING PUBLIC SOCIAL WORK.

Working even greater hardship on the programs for aid to dependent children are the methods employed by some states in distributing tax revenues as among the various assistance programs. The articulate groups favoring old age "pensions" urge that a greater share be devoted to increasing the aid for the aged, at the expense of the less well-organized recipients of general re-

lief and aid to dependent children. In Colorado, for instance, the relief funds are dedicated 50 per cent to old age pensions, 37.34 per cent to general relief, and 5 per cent to aid to dependent children. In consequence Colorado in 1939 spent $12.91 per capita for the aged, $1.61 for aid to dependent children.

Finally, some states fail to equalize their assistance burdens through a rational distribution of costs as between themselves and their counties. Twenty-five of the 42 states having plans for aid to dependent children approved by the Social Security Board require local financial participation. Although the Social Security Act prescribes that there shall be state financial participation in each plan for aid to dependent children, and Congress intended this participation to be substantial in amount, during 1939 the localities bore just over one-fourth the entire cost of the aid to dependent children program. To be sure, this proportion will diminish in some measure from 1940 onwards, since the federal share has now been increased. Some local communities can bear these burdens without detriment to the program; others cannot. The problem will find no solution so long as states may require local financial participation on a percentage basis or so long as state and federal funds, distributed to counties as a supplement to local funds, are not distributed on the basis of local needs. A minority of states have equalization funds. Some of these funds operate to eliminate only the most extreme financial breakdowns, and so prevent the state from failing to conform to the Social Security Act because its plan is not in operation in every political subdivision. The Social Security Act anticipates equitable treatment of individuals on a state-wide basis. The inequalities of local financing make it difficult to realize that anticipation.

Eligibility Qualifications

In the same way that the federal legislation has expanded the finances available for dependent children it has encouraged constructive administrative developments. Except for a few minimum requirements the Social Security Act leaves to the discretion of the states a great range of administrative options. Many states have taken advantage of the opportunities available for the administrative development of their programs. Some few states have expanded their programs in substance only because of the mandatory minimum standards of the federal Act.

The residence requirement of the Social Security Act is mandatory. No state plan can exclude a child on the ground of local residence or require more than one year of state residence. States may, in their discretion, reduce such residence requirement, though only two states have done so. But even so, this is a marked development over the mothers' assistance laws, which never imposed a residence requirement of less than one year in the county and in some states demanded as much as five years' residence in the state and three years in the county.

The liberalization of age requirements is less marked, for here the federal Act is not mandatory. Until 1939 it permitted federal matching of payments made to children up to sixteen years of age; the amendments extend this to eighteen years if the child over sixteen is regularly attending school. But a state may have higher or lower age limits if the payments above the federal maximum are made from state and local funds. All state plans permit the granting of aid up to sixteen years at least, and 17 states up to the new federal maximum or beyond. Even under the old mothers' assistance laws, however, all states permitted grants to children at least up to sixteen; the failure in many jurisdictions to maintain these standards resulted from inadequate appropriations. The average age of children accepted for aid during the fiscal year 1938–1939 was 9.4 years, ranging from 8.4 in the District of Columbia to 11.1 in North Dakota.

Although many of the earlier mothers'

assistance laws limited aid to children of widows, the trend of legislation had been toward broadening the application of the program long before the enactment of federal legislation. In 1935 over three-fourths of the states had laws permitting aid to be given even though the mother was not a widow—in some states if she was divorced from her husband, in others if the husband was deserting, imprisoned, or incapacitated. The provision of the Social Security Act is in line with this earlier trend in permitting aid in case of the death, continued absence from home, or physical or mental incapacity of either parent. The fact that the federal Act treats the parents equally and makes matching funds available if a child is deprived of the care or support of either parent, rather than of the father only, seems to have had little statistical implication. Of the children accepted for aid during the fiscal year 1938–1939, the mother's death, absence, or incapacity was the reason for dependency in only 2.3 per cent. The death, absence, or incapacity of the father was the cause in regard to 89.3 per cent of the children, and of both parents for 8.4 per cent. In eight states the mother's death, absence, or incapacity was not recognized as a reason for dependency; in only one state, New York, did it figure materially (9.6 per cent).

The inclusive list of relatives with whom a child may be living and be eligible for federal aid under the Social Security Act has led to a considerable statutory expansion. Although the old assistance laws limited aid to children living with mothers, 37 of the approved plans now recognize at least all the relatives enumerated in the federal Act. But here again the expansion is evidenced more largely in law than in practice. Of the children accepted during the fiscal year 1938–1939, 71.3 per cent were living with the mother only, 2.7 per cent with the father, 20 per cent with both parents. Only 6 per cent were living with any of the numerous other relatives mentioned in the Social Security Act and state statutes.

The extension of the list of relatives with whom a child may live was, of course, intended as a furtherance rather than a change of the theory on which the aid to dependent children program is founded. The purpose is to maintain the child in his own family surroundings notwithstanding its dependency and financial need. Maintenance is not contemplated in the home of a guardian unless the guardian is a relative. This limitation precludes the use of federal funds for general foster home care of children or for institutional care, advisable as such care may be in certain circumstances.

Finally, the Social Security Act precludes the approval of state plans which do not restrict aid to dependent children to children who are in need. The states decide for themselves the definition of need they wish to apply. They are generally less mechanical in their statutory definition of need as applied to aid to dependent children than as applied to old age assistance or aid to the blind: for instance, few states have specific property limitations. Need is generally determined in accordance with state administrative standards, on the basis of a budget which takes into account the actual living expenses of the individual family in the particular community. The amount of assistance is related to the need, so determined, and to the income and resources that the family already has available. Except for statutory maxima in some states and inadequacy of state appropriations, the states usually aim to meet the individual's need on a basis "compatible with decency and health." Unlike efforts for the aged and the blind, states have not seriously considered flat pensions for dependent children, regardless of need, and have not sought to grant assistance on a mechanical basis of a specific over-all statutoty amount minus the individual's income.

Even though the liberality of the federal Act has not been imitated in each detail by state law and administration, liberalization has been encouraged. State programs have sought to divorce themselves from subjec-

tive evaluations of individuals. There is less tendency to penalize children for the divergences of their parents from accepted social patterns. So long as there are differences in the standards and forms of assistance as between general relief and aid to dependent children, however, there may be a tendency to reserve the higher benefits of aid to dependent children for favored families. Federal participation is permitted only where assistance is in the form of unconditional cash payments. Some communities still believe that there are dangers involved in unrestricted cash payments and have sought to protect the improvident by the use of "informal guardianship" and similar devices. In such cases, however, the potential loss of federal matching has caused the state supervisory agencies to exert themselves against these restrictive practices.

Two situations still obtain in many communities, however, showing a continuing moral censorship in the administration of aid to dependent children. There is some tendency to deny categorical aid to illegitimate children. Although the Social Security Act makes no distinction as among children on the basis of legitimacy, and though the state laws appear not to exclude illegitimate children from aid, administrative practices would seem to work discrimination against children of unmarried parents. Of the children accepted for aid to dependent children during the fiscal year 1938–1939, 6.8 per cent were living with an unmarried mother. In Pennsylvania the percentage was 10.9, in Maryland 13.8, in New York 15.2. In contrast, in five states the number of accepted children living with unmarried mothers was less than one per cent. It is interesting to note, however, that the same statistical series two years previously had shown only 2 per cent of the children living with an unmarried mother, with no such children in 5 states and less than 50 each in 11 additional states. A somewhat similar attitude prevails in some communities regarding deserted mothers. There may be a feeling of moral reprobation about desertion or a fear that availability of aid to dependent children will encourage fathers to desert their children. Such a fear would not exist in a community which has an adequate general assistance program; presumably a father would not have to desert in order to make his family eligible for aid. With regard to both illegitimacy and desertion some communities demand that the mother prosecute the father as a condition of eligibility for aid—a short-sighted requirement which tends to foreclose the possibility of future establishment of normal family relations.

These moral reservations penalize the community as largely as they penalize the individual. Presumably needy unmarried and deserted mothers and their children will not be left to starve; they will be given general relief. If so, the federal government and often the states do not participate in the payment, which must then be derived exclusively from local sources. It may often be less adequate for that reason, to the end that the needs of these pariahs will become cumulative and more expensive to meet in the future.

Administration and Supervision

In order to overcome the weaknesses that are inherent in unrestricted local administration of aid to dependent children, the Social Security Act requires that a single state agency must administer or supervise the administration of the program. If the plan is locally administered, such supervisory authority comprehends a power to make rules and regulations binding on the local administrative agency. This state oversight of the program is now axiomatic in all jurisdictions with approved plans. It affords a marked contrast with the situation before 1935, when a state department administered the mothers' assistance program, or shared responsibility with the localities, in no more than a dozen states. As a means of reinforcing this authority of the state over the counties, the Social Security Act specifically requires that a person de-

nied aid may be granted a fair hearing before the state agency, which may then impose on the county its determination of an individual's eligibility. The fact that the state must share substantially in the costs of the program out of its own funds gives it an added measure of authority. This requirement of state supervision necessitated drastic changes in local administration in many states where the local agency was traditionally the juvenile court.

It is this development of adequate state direction that has done most to foster aid to dependent children under the Social Security Act. While the Social Security Board stands ready to assist the states, upon request, through a variety of services to develop their administrative procedures effectively, the responsibility rests with the states.

Although the programs for public assistance to the aged, to the blind, and to dependent children have often been separately administered in their early stages, the Social Security Act has given an impetus to the coordination of state welfare activities. In nearly all the states the administration of aid to dependent children is associated with the other assistance and welfare activities on both the state and local levels. The local workers usually carry an "integrated" case load. Although the various programs may be financed in different proportions out of local, state, and federal funds, this administrative and supervisory unity tends to create a single rounded assistance program, properly related through staff functions to child welfare progtams, health programs, and medical care. *See* PUBLIC ASSISTANCE.

During the early years of the program for aid to dependent children, the states and localities were largely occupied with the problems of establishing their administrative machinery, determining eligibility of applicants, and ascertaining how to meet the financial costs. Although much remains to be done in regard to extending coverage and distributing benefits and burdens more equitably, the states now have an opportunity to devote more time to the services which are an inherent part of an assistance program. The money needs, though primary, must be supplemented by services to the needy families which help to meet such problems as health, housing, vocational rehabilitation, social adjustment, and the like.

The establishment of supervisory state agencies has helped the localities to meet these wider social needs. The state agencies can supply consulting services, interpretative materials, and state-wide standards which directly aid the localities in their administrative problems. All this requires, of course, not only competent state staff but local personnel that are able to understand the objectives of the state-wide programs and to adapt them to local situations. Until recently this problem of competent personnel could not be approached on a national basis.

The original Social Security Act charged the Social Security Board with the duty of determining that the state plans for aid to dependent children were operating efficiently. It did not, however, give the Board the authority to set standards for the personnel who were to operate those plans in the states and localities. This statutory handicap was overcome by the Social Security Act amendments of 1939 which require that a state plan for aid to dependent children must provide "such methods of administration (including after January 1, 1940, methods relating to the establishment and maintenance of personnel standards on a merit basis . . .) as are found by the Board to be necessary for the proper and efficient operation of the plan." Under this amendment the Board has issued standards for personnel administering public assistance programs on a merit basis. This change will be of immeasurable aid to the states in developing their program through the employment of staff which is trained and which expects to make the administration of welfare its career. *See* PERSONNEL PRACTICES IN PUBLIC WELFARE.

Aid to dependent children, though a continuance of the categorical mothers' assist-

ance scheme, is rapidly becoming an integral part of a general and comprehensive welfare program. It ties in closely with other assistances. Of the families accepted during the fiscal year 1938–1939, 65 per cent had received some other form of assistance within thirty days of receipt of aid to dependent children; only 26.2 per cent had received no such other assistance within two years. Over one-quarter of these families accepted for aid to dependent children continued to receive other assistance simultaneously—this going either to other members of the household or to the same members in supplement of their categorical aid.

There is coming to be a common administration of these assistance programs in the states and localities, associated with related service programs. Superficially, this is a return to the poor laws. It retains two features that four centuries' experience has shown to be fundamentally effective—an association of public aid with localism and a singleness of approach to the problems of the underprivileged. But it adds new elements of strength—coordination of administration through a single state welfare agency, and a more adequate basis of financing. The present evidences of illogic are rapidly being eliminated. The advance that once characterized special treatment for needy children is influencing other assistance programs as well.

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GEOFFREY MAY

BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS.[1] The search for causes of juvenile delinquency and adult crime has progressed through various fields of interest from anthropological differences to so-called moral insanity, hereditary traits, and feeblemindedness. To each in turn has been ascribed predominance in the cause of crime. Fink, *infra cit.*, traces through more than one hundred years the emphasis in studies in this field in the United States. Although today varying degrees of importance are assigned to differing causal factors there is general agreement that the causes of juvenile delinquency are complex and intricare and that the isolation of a

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

single factor, or group of factors, as predominantly at fault is difficult if not impossible. The interplay of environmental and personal forces is well expressed in Fink's concluding statements: "Today we believe that criminal behavior indicates a difference, a difference not of kind, but a difference of degree. . . . We stand ready to conceive of the criminal as a biological product as well as a product of the environmental forces around him. Modern criminological research reveals him not as a composite of traits which when added together become the criminal personality, but rather as a functioning integrated personality." Viewed in this light the environmental conditions, either physical or social, are dynamic factors in the production of behavior problems as are the emotional and inner forces which impel and direct the action of the individual.

Causes of Behavior Difficulties

The sociological concept of the causation of delinquency, of which Shaw is one of the foremost proponents, ascribes much of the anti-social conduct of youth, particularly in urban communities, to the conflicts of cultures and to conflict within a given culture. An example of the first is the confusion and resulting conflict expressed in unacceptable behavior which arises from the divergent points of view of foreign-born parents with native-born children. The former carry on Old World customs and standards and the latter seek to adapt to and identify themselves with the demands of a new, different culture. *See* IMMIGRANTS. Furthermore, in a social system which fosters economic and social ambitions yet fails to make clear the rights and duties of individuals, personal and group ethics may be in conflict, although the individual is not in disagreement with the total scheme of dominant values. The divergence from acceptable conduct is due to an uncritical acceptance of the standards and values as expressed in the group of which the individual is a part. Horney, the psychoanalyst, *infra cit.*, has pointed out the possibility of another type of conflict between the values of a predominating culture. He shows that while attempt is being made to inculcate children with humanitarian virtues they are forced to compete in all manner of activities in which the rewards go to the winner, sometimes regardless of the way in which they are won. The normal development of children requires the achievement of a balance between the conflicting demands of personal success and pleasure and of the group to which they must conform. If they are frustrated and satisfactory rewards are not offered for the relinquishing of their rights and prerogatives, some of the most virile may take legally forbidden routes to personal success and satisfaction, particularly to the success upon which society places high values. Although this theory offers interesting implications for treatment, especially of early conduct problems, further exploration will be required before acceptance in practice becomes general.

Much emphasis has been placed on the family as the socializing agent through which the child acquires his social and cultural values. *See* THE FAMILY. Although modified by the school, the radio, moving pictures, companions, and other social forces, the family remains the primary force through which children learn of the world in which they live. Much stress was formerly placed upon "broken homes" as a cause of delinquency although recently less importance is being attributed to this factor. Obviously not all children of broken or disorganized homes become delinquent. Increasing emphasis is being placed on the fact that the presence or absence of a complete family group is less important than the quality of family life. While unquestionably children suffer from the disorganization of family life, the lack of emotional satisfactions which the family group should afford the child is of greater importance. Persons dealing with children of erring and neglectful parents have long

been impressed by the strength and endurance of the emotional bond which the child often has to such parents. Where the satisfaction which comes from this bond is lacking, children seek other values which may be found in associations with similarly emotionally handicapped and neglected children or in conduct which may not be socially acceptable but which satisfies them. The physically disorganized home is a handicap in that it offers to the child easy access to the outside world in which he finds guides to his conduct. If the guides are individuals or groups accepting anti-social conduct as usual, the quality of the emotional relationship between the child and his family will be a factor in determining the extent to which he will confotm to family or group standards.

Healy and Bronner, in *New Light on Delinquency and Its Treatment* (*infra cit.*), have pointed out that where the normal relationships between the child and his parents are disturbed or lacking, the adverse emotional conditions interfere with or make impossible the acceptance of parental standards. They have demonstrated that delinquents are more frequently emotionally handicapped than are their non-delinquent brothers and sisters and, furthermore, that delinquency has definite meaning to the individual in his attempt to seek compensation or flight from an emotionally uncomfortable situation.

Psychological interpretations of the causes of delinquency attempt explanation of the way in which cultural values become a part of the individual and the extent to which these values influence and determine his action. Interpretation of the process through which this is achieved differs with the various schools of psychological thought. Adler pointed out the role played by feelings of inferiority in influencing personality and conduct. Thomas stated the importance of fundamental desires and urges in determining behavior. The Rankian theory stresses the importance of the growth process and the striving of the child to achieve individuality. The Freudian theory, on the other hand, emphasizes the child's emotional dependency upon his parents, and proponents of the behaviorist school stress the importance of early and recurring experiences in determining subsequent behavior. Despite differences in emphasis, however, there is general agreement in the psychological field that the child's behavior is definitely related to the extent to which childhood insecurities and fears are overcome and yield to reason and knowledge, and that such yielding is determined by the degree to which the child finds love and kindliness accompanying the readjustments and limitations which society sets upon his desires. Furthermore, as children feel secure in the affections of those with whom they live and find satisfactions in their group they are able to accept and follow the rules imposed upon them. Lacking security they may be fearful, suspicious, withdrawn, antagonistic, or aggressive, as determined by the constellation of emotional factors relating to the individual and his situation.

Unquestionably other factors influence behavior. Poverty, poor housing, maladjustment in school, lack of adequate recreational facilities, and poor mental and physical equipment are handicaps from which many delinquents suffer. Poverty and poor housing may create and increase family friction and deprive the child of parental supervision. Poorly equipped schools may fail to meet the child's emotional and intellectual needs, offering him instead frustration from which he escapes by misconduct and truancy. Furthermore, inadequately equipped mentally and physically, the child may seek in delinquent acts compensation for the unfavorable competition in which he is constantly engaged. While these are powerful factors in producing anti-social behavior it appears that the persistent delinquency which brings the child and youth to courts and training schools has its roots in emotional and personality maladjustments which in turn may be fostered and intensified by environmental handicaps.

Behavior Problems

Extent of Juvenile Delinquency

Complete data are lacking as to the extent of juvenile delinquency or the number of juvenile offenders. As Robison, *infra cit.*, points out the concept of delinquency as an entity is at present undefined. Not only is the legal definition unsatisfactory but, because courts and social agencies deal with similar types of cases, both minor and major, referrals to court neither measure the extent of juvenile delinquent behavior nor necessarily represent the more serious types of anti-social conduct. The referral of delinquency cases to juvenile court is affected materially by a number of factors including the availability of resources for dealing with problems of behavior without court action; the place of the court in the child welfare program of the community and its relationship to other agencies; and community attitudes regarding certain types of offenses and to the sex, nationality, or race of the offender.

Nevertheless, in the absence of community-wide statistics of delinquency cases, such data as are available for court cases have value in helping to state the problem. For 1938, 476 juvenile courts representing 39 per cent of the total population of the United States reported to the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor 77,289 delinquency cases. From these figures it may be estimated that approximately 200,000 cases of delinquency are disposed of by juvenile courts annually. *See* JUVENILE AND DOMESTIC RELATIONS COURTS.

Prevention and Identification for Early Treatment

Essential to prevention and early treatment of delinquency is discovery of porential or incipient delinquents. Finding them is not as difficult as making assistance available and acceptable to them and their families. Because those in daily contact with a child frequently recognize problems but are reluctant to seek help until they become acute, the logical procedure is to make possible early diagnosis and treatment through the offer of aid at a point of natural contact. Schools offer fairly ready and natural access to the home because they are generally accepted by parents as having a legitimate interest in the welfare and behavior of children. Even better than obtaining expert service for children after problems have actually developed is the prevention of their development by teachers who see problems of child behavior with perspective and from a broad view of what constitutes education. In this respecr child study and mental hygiene movements are making a real contribution to the training and preparation of teachers. The growth of a scientific attitude on the part of the schools toward children with behavior problems is indicated by the modification of curricula to meet the needs of individual pupils and the employment of experts, such as psychologists, psychiatrists, pediatricians, social case workers, and teachers specially trained for special class instruction. Particularly significant is the publication by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators of a bulletin on *Social Services and the Schools*. *See* SOCIAL AND HEALTH WORK IN THE SCHOOLS.

Group work and recreational programs offer opportunity for the identification of children who have difficulty in making social adjustments. Possibilities of contribution from this field increase as distinction is made between recreation which affords natural outlets for children's energies and group activities utilized as the medium within which individual therapy is carried on. *See* RECREATION and SOCIAL GROUP WORK. Other social services offer valuable channels for bringing help to those with behavior difficulties. The family or child welfare agency already in touch with the family is in an advantageous position to discover need for help and to treat the family as a unit. *See* FAMILY SOCIAL WORK. At the same time the agency may help the

child to meet his personal difficulties and attempt to modify the family situation which directly or indirectly may have been a causal factor in the child's behavior. Until recently such services have been largely limited to urban areas; the stimulation of public and child welfare services by federal funds is now extending these services to rural areas. *See* CHILD WELFARE. The child guidance clinic, which had its beginning with juvenile courts but came to be widely used by parents, schools, and social agencies for the treatment of conduct problems which might lead to delinquency, affords another means for early discovery and treatment. *See* Psychiatric Clinics for Children in MENTAL HYGIENE. This service also has been largely limited to urban areas, except in a few states which have made it available by means of central or traveling clinics. Under the provision for child welfare services of the Social Security Act, a number of states are now making psychological or psychiatric services available to children in rural areas.

As the interrelatedness of problems of behavior with problems of disorganization, inadequacy, and insecurity in family life and with deficiencies in the community's provision for health, educational, recreational, and social services becomes more apparent, there is increased acceptance of the philosophy that the strengthening of basic services for the welfare of all children is the best preventive of juvenile delinquency. Whereas at one time emphasis was placed on the legal protection of children through the prosecution of adults who neglected or abused them or contributed to their delinquency, now emphasis is placed upon their social protection through the improvement of community conditions and services. The 1940 White House Conference on Children in a Democracy pointed out that because juvenile delinquency in a large measure reflects anti-social conditions in the community and is so interwoven with breakdowns in family life, its prevention is the concern not only of the traditional agencies for dealing with youthful offenders, but also of child welfare, family service, and health agencies, of educational and guidance agencies, of organizations giving recreational and group work services, and of organizations concerned with standards of relief and housing. *See* WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCES.

Recognition of the desirability of prevention and early treatment has led some of the traditional agencies for dealing with delinquents to modify their practices or extend their services. Juvenile courts have long dealt unofficially with minor offenses and with the behavior problems of young children, a practice which developed rather naturally in the early days of the juvenile court when other community services were lacking. Many police departments now have crime prevention units whose function is to deal with cases in which children are involved either as offenders or as victims, to deal with conditions dangerous to youth, and to patrol public places and supervise commercial recreation. The growth of interest in this field on the part of the police has been especially rapid. Speaking before the National Probation Association in 1933 Watkins said that until recently the prevention of crime was viewed as incidental to the main functions of the police, namely, detection of crime, apprehension of offenders, and preservation of public peace and safety. To the same group in 1939, Pigeon pointed out that while the 1920's saw the expansion of the preventive facilities of the police and the establishment of bureaus to deal with women and children, the 1930's saw the organization of recreational activities by the police. The expansion of the first period was usually initiated by social agencies or civic groups and often superimposed on an unwilling police department, but the development of the second period was a movement from within the police department.

Growth in understanding of the factors underlying delinquent behavior and increase in the number and variety of specialized services has raised questions as to the func-

tions of these authoritarian agencies in the preventive and treatment fields. Because the juvenile court, as an agency created primarily for the performance of judicial functions, experiences definite handicaps when it attempts to render the type of service needed in work with children in danger of becoming delinquent, some believe that other services, many of which have come into existence since the first juvenile courts were established, should be used in preference to court services when no question requiring judicial action is involved. To a greater degree this belief prevails with regard to the police. Undoubtedly the function of the police in community life places them in a strategic position to identify delinquents, both potential and actual, and community conditions productive of delinquency long before social agencies are aware of them. Furthermore the police can, and frequently do, use a socialized approach to individuals in the performance of police duties. Their awareness of destructive community conditions and their enforcement of laws and regulations for elimination or control of such conditions are vital to prevention. Nevertheless, the role of the police in this field, with reference to individuals, is held to be diagnostic rather than correctional. Police departments do not have facilities for treatment, nor should they have them. Instead of attempting to duplicate the work of social agencies, the police should refer cases to these agencies and should bring to the attention of proper agencies conditions and situations needing attention. To perform these functions police departments must employ men and women who understand the diagnostic process and who are specially qualified to locate children in danger and to recognize community conditions productive of danger. *See* Police and the Courts in ADULT OFFENDERS.

Recent years have witnessed a growing awareness on the part of the general public of the relation between delinquency and environmental factors and of the need for preventive measures and early treatment. This has led to the development of various types of community organization to coordinate approaches to the problems of the unadjusted child and to develop more adequate resources to meet his needs. The movement began with the formation of a coordinating council in Berkeley, Calif., in 1919. In other communities, notably in Los Angeles and other California cities, development became rapid in this field by 1932 and has continued so. Called coordinating, community, or neighborhood councils, they make their primary objective not the treatment of the individual child but rather the coordination, through the combined efforts of both lay and professional groups, of the social forces of the community in behalf of all children. Two trends appear to be emerging in this movement: first, councils are likely to direct their early activities toward the prevention of delinquency but later to broaden them to include other problems of child welfare and even public welfare as they come to recognize the interrelationship of delinquency and other social problems; and second, the particular form of community organization is being determined by the needs of the local situation rather than by a preconceived pattern of coordinating councils. *See* COUNCILS IN SOCIAL WORK.

Probation Service

Probation is one of the major methods of treatment used by the juvenile court to which children are referred either because they have come in conflict with the law or because their conduct is considered sufficiently dangerous to their own or the public welfare to warrant action by the court. Technically the term "probation" means release of the child by the court under supervision while he remains in his own or some other family home. Actually "probation service" is used generally to indicate the social case work service of the juvenile court and "probation officer" to describe the social worker on the staff of the court or of a separate department organized to furnish

case work service to one or more courts in a given area. *See* SOCIAL CASE WORK.

Legal provision by states for the employment of probation officers paid from public funds followed recognition of the importance of case work service in the handling of cases coming to the courts and of the responsibility of the public for furnishing this service. Nevertheless, despite the fact that practically all juvenile court laws authorize the appointment of probation officers, many courts, especially courts in rural areas, are without such service. In some it is furnished by volunteers—Big Brothers and Big Sisters being sometimes used—or by individuals who have other official duties.

However, the expansion of social services to courts has been made possible by certain comparatively recent developments in the field of public welfare administration. *See* CHILD WELFARE and PUBLIC WELFARE. For a number of years several states have had provision for local public administrative units for child care, generally called public welfare or child welfare departments, in which are coordinated various social services for children. During the past few years work under the child welfare service provisions of the Social Security Act has greatly expanded and strengthened organization of this type. In addition to their services to other children, the activities of child welfare workers in rural areas have generally included case work with children in danger of becoming delinquent and children coming to the attention of the court. Now that the services of child welfare workers are being made available to more and more areas, many juvenile courts are asking for their assistance in making adequate social investigations, in doing constructive work with families before their ties are broken, and in working out the problems of children in their own communities without commitment to correctional schools. In some counties the children's worker in the county department of public welfare carries responsibility for all the case work services of the juvenile court. With this development a new trend is apparent. In the past it has been customary to associate juvenile and adult probation services. Frequently one person has performed both functions. As Hiller pointed out at the annual meeting of the National Probation Association in 1937 the present tendency is to combine probation and parole services to adults and to merge probation service to juveniles with other case work services to children. This trend is apparent in public welfare legislation, especially in the newer legislation, for provision that county departments of public or child welfare may render case work services to juvenile courts is found in the laws of one-fourth of the states.

The fact that probation officers deal with problems of delinquency, which are among the most difficult in the social work field, and that frequently in the smaller courts they must assume responsibility for case work without supervision makes it essential that they be especially well qualified and equipped for their task. According to standards[1] which have received general acceptance, the minimum qualifications for probation officers are (a) preferably graduation from college or its equivalent, or from a school of social work; (b) at least one year in case work under supervision; and (c) good personality and character, tact, resourcefulness, and sympathy. Furthermore, persons with such qualifications should be appointed through some form of merit system, such as establishment of a list of eligibles by competitive examination and approval by a supervising board or commission. While these standards have received acceptance in theory, and some probation staffs meet them, actually few states have developed merit systems for selection of probation officers. Many now employed possess only limited education and little or no professional training in their field of work. That the need for improvement of this situation is recognized by judges and

[1] *See* U. S. Children's Bureau, *Juvenile-Court Standards* (*infra cit.*).

probation officers is evidenced by the addresses devoted to the subject in conferences of the National Probation Association in the past few years. *See* EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK and PERSONNEL PRACTICES IN PUBLIC WELFARE.

With a view to improving quality of work and raising qualifications of personnel, several states—of which Massachusetts and New York were the first—have given to state agencies such as public welfare or probation departments advisory or supervisory responsibility for the work of probation officers. In a few states a central agency administers juvenile probation on a state-wide basis.

Increasing knowledge of the underlying causes of delinquency makes it essential that the probation officer have, through social study, an understanding of the child both as an individual and in his relation to his family, his associates, and the community of which all are parts. True supervision of the child placed on probation employs the same techniques as are utilized in other social case work with families and children. Based upon what has been learned of the child's physical, mental, and emotional needs, definite plans for constructive work with him, his family, and his group are made.

At present there is much discussion of the extent to which prolonged case work treatment should be carried on by the probation services of the juvenile court. The White House Conference on Children in a Democracy agreed in general that the juvenile court should not deal with cases that do not require court action. There was no agreement, however, as to whether the court should assume responsibility for continuing treatment in cases which properly come before it for judicial decision. Certain concepts and attitudes with regard to the court held by the community, the child, and the court staff hamper the smooth functioning of case work processes. The "punitive" attitude of the public, which thinks of the juvenile court as a law enforcement agency rather than as a treatment agency, keeps the court staff constantly under pressure to take an active and executive part in bringing about quick results. The atmosphere of authority thus created is in contradiction to the more modern concepts of modifying behavior by offering the individual an opportunity for the development of his own potentialities.

Institutional Care

Treatment of juvenile delinquents apart from adult offenders in special institutions, now generally called "training schools," began early in the nineteenth century when Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and later other large cities opened institutions which served local urban areas primarily and derived support from private and municipal funds. In 1847 Massachusetts opened the Lyman School for Boys, the first to serve the entire state and to be supported by state funds. Now training schools have been established by all state governments, by some county and city governments, and by a number of private organizations, both religious and non-sectarian. The Children's Bureau assembled data in 1939 for a directory of publicly supported training schools in the United States whose primary function was the care of delinquent children.[1] Information was obtained from 158 schools—115 state schools (including schools in the District of Columbia, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico) and 43 county or municipal schools. The coverage of the latter group was incomplete because of the difficulties of obtaining complete lists and of getting returns from them. Little is known as to the location and approximate number of private training schools. Of the 115 state institutions, 56 cared for boys only, 47 for girls only, and 12 for both boys and girls. While most of them cared for both white and Negro children, in some instances housing them in sep-

[1] *See* U. S. Children's Bureau, *Directory of State, County and Municipal Training Schools Caring for Delinquent Children in the United States* (*infra cit.*).

arate buildings, there were nine separate institutions caring for Negro boys, seven for Negro girls, and one for Negro boys and girls. Several states make no provision for the care of Negro girls in state-operated institutions. One of the two states without such provision for either boys or girls passed legislation in 1940 authorizing the establishment of an institution for delinquent colored youth.

The total number of children in training schools under public auspices on June 30, 1939, was 32,597. Of these, 28,652 (20,312 boys and 8,340 girls) were in the 115 state training schools and 3,945 (3,148 boys and 797 girls) in the 43 county and municipal institutions. The capacity reported by the state schools ranged from 40 to 900. A capacity of 400 or more children—between 700 and 900 in four institutions—was reported by 28 schools or 24 per cent of the total. For about thirty schools the population reported was above the figure given as the capacity, and in a few of these the difference between the two figures was large enough to indicate serious overcrowding. Further statistical and other data pertaining to children in training schools for delinquents are published at approximately ten-year intervals by the United States Bureau of the Census and at four-year intervals by the United States Office of Education.

Age limits for admission to the state training schools are generally set by the laws establishing them, for the county and municipal schools by administrative policy or the age jurisdiction of the juvenile court, and for the private institutions by administrative policy. The upper age limit for the state schools, which ranges in general from sixteen to twenty-one years with eighteen years predominating, generally coincides with the upper age limit of the jurisdiction of the juvenile court through which most of the commitments are made. In 26 state schools there is no provision for a lower age limit, which is a protection against the commitment of a young neglected child. For 89 of the state schools a lower age limit, ranging in general from six to twelve years inclusive, has been established by law or administrative ruling or policy.

It is desirable that the basis of administration of the training school be broad enough to insure adequate financial support. Although some of the schools supported by appropriations of state legislatures are far from being adequately financed and some of the county and municipal schools are fortunate in this respect, those in the latter group are frequently handicapped because they are unable to supply the special services and carry on the broad programs which are possible in the schools operating on a state-wide basis. Because of the great variation in sponsorship and support, the private schools probably show still greater variation in equipment and service than either of the other two types of schools.

Provision for the administration of training schools differs considerably from state to state and by type of institution. Private institutions are operated usually by lay boards, county and municipal institutions by local governmental units, and state schools by some unit of state government or a specially appointed board. Eighteen states and the District of Columbia vest responsibility for administration of state training schools in a department of public welfare, which may be organized in functional divisions such as "child welfare," "corrections," or "institution management" to one of which the administration of the training school may be assigned. Fifteen states vest responsibility in a department whose primary duty is institutional administration: three states in the board of education; and twelve states in a separate board, to which in all but one instance some state agency has a supervisory relationship. Decidedly the trend appears to be toward administration of the training schools as part of the total child welfare program of the state and away from identification with correctional institutions for adult offenders; in only four states is their administration placed

in a department, or division of a department, concerned primarily with services to or administration of penal institutions.

Essential to good treatment by training schools are physical plants conveniently located, architecturally sound, and well adapted to their function. Many schools have a rural location which offers essential sites for playground and outdoor activity but may also mean remoteness of facilities for special services and lack of opportunity for community contacts. The help of the Work Projects Administration has made possible much rebuilding and new building during recent years. Many old buildings, however, which hinder the carrying on of constructive programs and frequently present definite hazards to the safety of the children still remain. Often the buildings housing special activities or programs are poorly designed for these purposes and the equipment is far from adequate. Early congregate buildings have been replaced by cottage units but these are generally still too large to make possible the desired approximation of family groups which can best be done if cottages house not more than 30 and preferably not more than 20 children.

Still more important than adequacy of plant and equipment is quality of personnel. Increasingly, emphasis is being placed upon higher qualifications, although as yet institution staff members vary all the way from those with good educational background, professional training and experience in specialized fields, and personality adapted to work with children to those with few or none of these qualifications. In the absence of merit systems generally, it is not surprising that political considerations have sometimes entered into selection of staff for publicly administered institutions. The superintendent may be appointed by the department administering the school or by the board of trustees, and in a few instances from a civil service list. Usually, but not always, he selects and appoints other personnel. As the policy-making and standard-setting person, the superintendent should have a good educational background, although he need not have highly specialized professional training, and should be a good administrator who knows how to use the services of persons with specialized training. Equally important are the attributes of those in direct contact with the children. Administrative officers, teachers, clinical workers, and social workers need professional training. Cottage parents and supervisors need to be physically, temperamentally, intellectually, and educationally qualified for their work. The School of Applied Social Sciences at Western Reserve University has inaugurated a course for the training of persons interested in going into the institution field. In addition, a number of training schools are attempting to develop staff already at work by encouraging their study at professional schools and by programs of in-service training. The circumstances under which staff live and work are increasingly recognized as potent factors in determining their effectiveness and are therefore deserving of more attention.

Private training schools can be selective of intake and accept only those likely to profit from the services offered. Public institutions have little control over intake since they receive most of their children on juvenile court commitment. Due to paucity of local resources for treatment and to the attitudes of the community, the court, and the institution itself with regard to its function, training schools have received dependent and neglected children (sometimes classified as delinquent to secure their admission), children varying greatly in age and level of intelligence, and children with extremely divergent problems of conduct.

Several current developments are likely ultimately to affect intake, including expansion and strengthening of local social services which will tend toward retention in the community of cases that offer promise of profiting by non-institutional care; the establishment, as in several states, of separate institutions for the younger and older age groups; and the replacement of large insti-

tutions by several small schools, similar to the Approved Schools and Borstal Institutions of the British system, to permit differentiation in personnel, program, and equipment according to the treatment needs of the children.

The treatment programs of individual schools represent all stages of the progress from a concept of physical care and supervision to prevent escape to one of individualized approach to the child's problems. It is generally accepted that programs should include provision for medical and mental health services, recreation and leisure-time activities, and educational, vocational, and spiritual guidance and training; nevertheless the character and adequacy of these services vary greatly, as does the way in which they are utilized. The techniques of case work and group work are useful to the training school, and the school offers an excellent opportunity for a combination and integration of the two types of programs. Some schools which afford a variety of services and activities are still in the stage of "individual diagnosis and mass treatment." Other schools are developing clinical services—comprising psychiatric, psychological, and case work service—through which individual diagnosis is made, and ways are sought of bringing the best that the institution has to offer to the solution of the problems of each child. In the absence of complete clinical services other schools are employing social workers to integrate and coordinate their work in the child's behalf. Cooperation with social workers in the community from which the child came and to which he returns is in line with the growing philosophy that there must be continuity of work with the child and his family from the time he comes to the school, while he is in the school, and to the end of the period of supervision after his release.

Formal programs of after-care or "parole" are more properly discussed from the point of view of state training schools because of the greater variation in administration, type of program, and function of the local public and private schools. Ordinarily a child is committed to a state school for an indefinite period and remains under its jurisdiction until he reaches his majority.

Although eligibility for release under supervision should be determined upon the basis of the child's adjustment, some schools still predicate release on the achievement of a stated number of credits, or the elapse of a specified period, or the need for space for new admissions. The new philosophy with regard to release is excellently set forth by Grossman, *infra cit.*, in her discussion of the basis for release from a private training school: "Criteria for 'adjustment' include the development of attitudes toward other children and personnel which indicate that the child has been freed of many of his former unacceptable reactions, an ability to adapt to communal living that is satisfactory to the group, and a genuine desire to make use of newly acquired attitudes in relationships in a wider area."

Responsibility for supervision of the child during his readjustment to community life may rest with the school itself, as in most states; with a central state agency, usually one primarily responsible for work with adult offenders, as in at least one-sixth of the states; or with local departments which furnish probation and after-care service in juvenile cases, generally under the supervision of a state department of public welfare. The techniques of good after-care supervision, like those of probation, are the techniques of good case work. Unfortunately, in many schools the workers assigned to after-care supervision are so few, the case loads so large, and the territory covered so extensive that only a perfunctory type of work can be done. To some extent this condition is being improved as local child welfare services are being established or strengthened and as close working relationships are being developed between them and the training schools.

Among institutional administrators much interest in formulating a philosophy, developing standards, and improving practices

is evidenced. Two professional associations are active, the National Conference of Juvenile Agencies and the National Association of Training Schools, whose published proceedings of annual conferences cover a wide range of interests. Since 1937 the Children's Bureau has had an Advisory Committee on Training Schools for Socially Maladjusted Children composed of training school superintendents and representatives of closely allied fields. The efforts of leaders in the institution group to define the function and place of the training school in the child welfare field are bringing out some fundamental questions as to the nature and extent of certain of its services and activities in the future. In 1937 the Osborne Association, experienced in making nation-wide studies of correctional institutions for adults, undertook a study of all federal and state institutions established to care for delinquent juveniles. Through brief descriptive studies the Association plans to give a nation-wide picture and to call attention to the strengths and weaknesses of particular institutions. The report will be published in nine volumes, each dealing with one geographical area. Two of these volumes had been published by March, 1940.

Group Work and the Treatment of Delinquency

Those interested in the prevention and tteatment of juvenile delinquency have long considered recreational and group activities as potent forces affecting the social adjustment of children and young persons, as is evidenced by the frequently expressed objectives of group work, namely, "character building" and "preparation for citizenship." Offering opportunities for the development of desirable personal characteristics and the acquisition of skills and information which should be of value to the individual, they have been widely utilized by the non-delinquent youth and to a lesser extent by delinquent young people. Group life offers an excellent medium for the training of the emotions as well as the intellectual abilities. The highly selective membership of many groups has tended, however, to attract bright and socially aggressive children. The dull, withdrawn, the extremely aggressive and hyperactive individuals, who may or may not be juvenile offenders, often fail to find interests in the organized group, thus eliminating the possible use of these resources for many children who present overt behavior problems or are "socially isolated." As group workers and case workers recognize the close relation of delinquency to certain factors in the economic and political life of the community as well as in emotional relationships within the family, attention is accorded to the interrelationships of case work and group work activities and the efforts at closer coordination of these services. Motivated by the knowledge that the causes of delinquency are many and varied, social workers have recognized that the treatment must be varied in accordance with the needs of the specific situation. The expansion of method in psychotherapy and in case work fields has provided services for socially maladjusted children who were unable to participate in and benefit from group work.

While therapy in a group is not new in the treatment of behavior difficulties—it having been used for some two decades or more to a rather limited extent by psychotherapists—the use by case work agencies of group experience in the treatment of behavior difficulties represents an extension of traditional case work methods. Recently, workers in the field of psychotherapy have expanded their methods to include "group therapy." The latter is exemplified by the work of Slavson at the Jewish Board of Guardians of New York, who differentiates between "therapy in a group" and "group therapy" as follows: "therapy in a group" is used to describe the practice in which the discussion of the problem of the individual is carried on in the presence of other members of the group than the patient and the therapist; "group therapy" represents group treatment in which interpretation of be-

havior is given only rarely and only under certain conditions.

Basic to the treatment of behavior problems by "therapy in a group" and by "group therapy" is the assumption that the growth and development of the individual is conditioned by the values and attitudes of the group of which he is a part; that in group experience the individual has an opportunity for progressive action which leads from dependency to self-confidence and ability to act independently and cooperatively; that the substitution of satisfying experiences and relationships for unsatisfactory or traumatic situations has definite values in treatment. The group offering opportunities for discovering and testing abilities which lead to skills and cooperative action and the necessity of the individual facing the consequences of his own actions provides the media through which the growth and development may be accomplished. Svendsen in Chicago and agencies in other parts of the country have developed progtams which in the "protected groups" and in the merging of case work and group work insights provide a variation of "group therapy" as described by Slavson.

In general, group therapy is based on four principles (a) that the case worker or therapist acts as substitute for rhe parent or other adult who under normal conditions provides the child with the security of unquestioned love; (b) that through the recognition and encouragement of constructive effort and through the failure of destructive action to bring recognition, the sense of self-worth is achieved; (c) that every child needs an opportunity for creative self-expression; and (d) that the interaction in the group provides significant experience in group relations.

Experience to date has shown the value of the work with certain individual characteristics and with various types of social maladjustment. The fact that the method requires the services of a psychiatrist and group leaders especially trained to deal with emotional difficulties of children has resulted in limiting this treatment to relatively few centers. Although not yet widely in use group therapy offers, beside the services to the individual, an opportunity for further study and exploration in respect to group activities generally.

Studies

Increasing interest on the part of the public in problems of behavior and juvenile delinquency has stimulated the making of numerous studies of the subject during the past few years. Classification of these studies is difficult because of their wide variation in objective, scope, and auspices. Some represent attempts to obtain pictures of existing situations as a basis for arousing specific public interest preliminary to reorganization of existing agencies or establishment of new ones. Mention has already been made of the nation-wide study of training schools by the Osborne Association. The report of the New Jersey Juvenile Delinquency Commission, entitled *Justice and the Child in New Jersey,* is an example of a comprehensive state-wide study. Many studies, the majority of which are unpublished, have been made for the use of individual communities by national, state, and local agencies.

Several studies have as their purpose the evaluation of the results of treatment. For example, the latest publication by the Gluecks, *Juvenile Delinquents Grown Up (infra cit.),* is a follow-up study of the group included in an earlier study of 1,000 juvenile delinquents and carries forward work begun in earlier studies directed toward the formulation of tables for predicting behavior under specific types of treatment. The brief report *Treatment and What Happened Afterward (infra cit.)* by Healy and Bronner is an evaluation of the effectiveness of treatment in 400 cases made five to eight years after treatment by the Judge Baker Guidance Center.

Studies of a different type are experimental projects of the sort being carried on by the Children's Buteau, United States De-

partment of Labor, in St. Paul, Minn., and by the Ella Lyman Cabot Foundation in Cambridge and Somerville, Mass. The first project, under the title *Community Service for Children,* has as its major objectives determination of the types of behavior and delinquency cases which can be handled successfully through non-court treatment, that is, on an administrative rather than an authoritative basis; the methods and techniques and of the types of individual community organization best suited to accomplish this end; and the ways in which parents, teachers, social workers, and the community can be made aware of the factors involved in the causation, prevention, and treatment of behavior problems. The Cambridge–Somerville Youth Study has as its chief objectives the prevention of delinquent careers in a selected group of boys and the measurement of the degree of success or failure in preventing delinquency. A group of boys who will receive help from a staff of trained and experienced counselors for the duration of the study is "matched" with a control group whose members will not receive treatment but whose behavior will be noted.

Illustrative of the type of research which serves as a basis for legislation is that of the Criminal Justice–Youth Committee of the American Law Institute, carried on for several years into the problem of crime among the youth of the United States between sixteen and twenty-one years of age. As a result of that study the Committee drafted two model acts designed to bring about better ways of dealing with youthful offenders under the age of twenty-one years not coming within the jurisdiction of the juvenile court. The first of these, the Youth Correction Authority Act which would create a central state commission responsible for administration of possible court treatment, has already been adopted by the American Law Institute. The second, the Youth Court Act that would set up a court organization with an improved and modified procedure, is receiving final consideration.

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ELSA CASTENDYCK

BIRTH CONTROL[1] as an organized movement in this country gained impetus in 1939 through the formation of the Birth Control Federation of America, Inc., which combined two former national organizations, the American Birth Control League, Inc., and the Birth Control Clinical Research Bureau. The current objectives of the movement, as expressed at the time of the merger, are as follows:

To democratize and make universally available the best scientific knowledge of contraception, and to improve constantly the science of contraception, in order to raise the standards of health for mothers and children and to reduce the infant and maternal death rate.

To encourage the increase of the birth rate where health, intelligence, and favorable circumstances tend to promote desirable population growth.

To discourage the increase of that part of the population perpetuating inheritable or transmissible diseases.

Physicians, social workers, sociologists, and the lay public have become increasingly conscious that birth control is a measure which reduces both maternal and infant mortality and has a positive effect on health. For this reason its extension in this country during recent years has gained the increasing approval of public opinion. The steady growth of contraceptive clinics, under medical direction and serving the underprivileged groups, indicates an increasing awareness of need for such services.

The first medically directed contraceptive center in the country was established in 1923. By June, 1938, there were 424 such centers in 43 states. Two years later, in June, 1940, there were two state-wide child-spacing programs in operation; 549 birth control clinics in 41 states, the District of Columbia, Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico; and numerous other state and regional services in process of being established. There were 96 services in hospitals, 162 in public health quarters, and 223 supported in whole or in part by tax funds.

The two state-wide child-spacing programs were established as a part of the official public health services of North Carolina and South Carolina under the direction of the state departments of health. In North Carolina 70 counties or municipalities were organized to give contraceptive information to those mothers requesting and needing it, while in South Carolina the state's 46 counties established similar services. Public health authorities in three other states have laid the ground work for similar action, the county health departments of each beginning a child-spacing service during the year 1939. A rural and migrant service has been organized in 11 states not yet ready to undertake programs under their state boards of health, with more than 20,000 families receiving advice and contraceptive materials of a simple type during 1939.

The great majority of patients advised at all centers continue to be from the indigent group, or those unable to pay the fee of a physician in private practice for such service. Studies of differential birth rates in this country continue to show that the high-

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

est birth rates are in the groups on relief or in the lowest income levels. As additional children born in such families have a lower survival rate and a higher incidence of sickness, the public health agencies are logically the medium through which such families should receive advice on child spacing as an aid to better health of both mothers and children. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH.

Legal Decisions and Legislation

In January, 1939, the federal District Court in Puerto Rico handed down a decision that contraceptive advice under medical direction was legal, thus clearing the way for continuing the operation of the birth control centers in the island. Despite the 1939 decision of the federal Circuit Court of Appeals for the Second Circuit in the case of *U. S. vs. One Package,* giving physicians the right within the law to advise on contraception "for the purpose of saving life, or promoting the well-being of their patients," Connecticut followed Massachusetts in bringing up for question by state courts the interpretation of a state statute which declares the use of contraceptives to be illegal. In March, 1940, in a three-to-two decision, the State Supreme Court of Errors termed the statute to be constitutional, but designated as incorrect under the law the procedure whereby the birth control clinic in the Waterbury General Hospital was raided in June, 1939. No attempts were made to amend existing laws on contraception during the year 1939 and one restrictive bill introduced in Congress died in committee.

Promotional Activities

With the formation of the Birth Control Federation of America, Inc., in 1939, expanded plans for increased activity were formulated, a larger budget adopted, and new organizational lines laid out and put into effect. The organization was departmentalized, and a public information department, medical department, regional organization department, and national clinic service department set up, each directed by a staff member and having a departmental operating committee composed of members of the board.

The Citizens Committee for Planned Parenthood, made up of individuals—all leaders in their fields and all interested in sponsoring the movement—conducted a campaign for financial support of the new organization. Actively participating in this campaign were the New York State Birth Control Federation, New York City Committee of Mothers' Health Centers, Nassau and Suffolk County (N. Y.) Committee, and Eastern and Northern Westchester (N. Y.) Committee.

Federation-sponsored films on the biology of conception and the mechanism of contraception were shown at 102 meetings of physicians and medical students during 1939, and 10,200 copies of the pamphlet *The Technique of Contraception* were sent to approved medical schools to be used as teaching material. The *Journal of Contraception* (now *Human Fertility*), the only medical journal dealing with the subject in the United States, has completed its fourth year. Lay education went forward through the medium of the *Birth Control Review* (discontinued in January, 1940), through articles published in national magazines and in newspapers, and by distribution of almost half a million leaflets and reprints published by the Federation covering the many aspects of birth control—health, social, economic, and population.

The Federation took part in the 1939 National Conference of Social Work and in the Southern Conference on Tomorrow's Children in Atlanta, Ga., held in November of the same year. Its state affiliates participated, as members, in the state conferences of social work of 21 states. Exhibits and films were shown at over 300 meetings in various parts of the country.

The work of the Federation's regional organization department proceeded steadily in 16 states. Two new state leagues were formed, bringing the total to 31. New

clinics were opened by field workers in six states during 1939. The Federation continued its attempts to develop and test a simpler form of contraceptive, suited to the needs of those in isolated areas or for whom the more complicated types are unsuited.

The National Committee on Maternal Health, Inc., has carried forward a program of biological researches on ovulation, spermatoxins, and the various medical aspects of human fertility.

Public Support

During 1939 growing public support for the movement was evidenced by the increased number of favorable articles appearing in lay magazines, by the larger column space given the subject in newspapers throughout the country, and by the passage of favorable resolutions. The Association of Medical Students at its annual convention urged adequate instruction on contraception, both didactic and clinical. The Economic Conference held in Puerto Rico passed a resolution asking for amendment of the restrictive federal statutes on birth control and also appealed to the United States Secretary of the Interior to cooperate with the Insular Department of Health in advancing birth control. The Georgia State Medical Association at its annual meeting adopted a resolution requesting that the State Board of Health cooperate with individual physicians and public health officials in making contraceptive information available to patients "for the spacing of pregnancies, and for the protection of the life of the expectant mother." The Conference of Southern Mountain Workers urged that "as birth control is now recognized as an integral part of public health and preventive medicine . . . the Commissioners of Health and Welfare of the States of this Mountain Region cooperate in arranging clinics and centers where birth control instruction will be available to underprivileged mothers in each county."[1]

[1] The Catholic Church continued its opposition, on religious grounds, to "artificial" methods of birth control. Its position is well stated in the following memorandum solicited by the *Social Work Year Book* from a leading exponent of the Catholic viewpoint, Rev. Francis J. Connell, C.SS.R., S.T.D.:

"The mind of the Catholic Church on what is commonly known as birth control was expressed thus by Pope Pius XI in his Encyclical on Christian Marriage: 'Any use whatsoever of matrimony exercised in such a way that the act is deliberately frustrated in its natural power to generate life is an offense against the law of God and of nature, and those who indulge in such are branded with the guilt of a grave sin.'

"The Church bases this teaching primarily on divine revelation as interpreted by constant ecclesiastical tradition. Catholic scholars believe that human reason also furnishes an argument for the immorality of contraceptive practices from the standpoint of the law of nature. For, it is immoral to frustrate by a positive act the chief purpose of a function—for example, the chief purpose of speech by falsehood, or that of the nutritive faculties by drunkenness and gluttony. Now, the main purpose of the generative powers is the preservation and the propagation of the human race; and by birth control this purpose is positively frustrated. Those who make use of their sexual faculties in this manner distort the due order of things by making their individual benefit the chief objective and preventing the social benefit. It should be noted that the Catholic Church proclaims the prohibition of birth control, not as a merely ecclesiastical law, like the prohibition to eat meat on Fridays which binds Catholics, but as a violation of the natural law which binds all human beings.

"The Catholic Church does not teach that married couples are obliged to procreate as many children as is physically possible. Reasons of health or of financial stress may render it advisable for a couple not to have more offspring. But in such circumstances the only lawful method of limiting births is abstinence, either total or periodic. The non-use of a faculty is very different from its abuse."

—Editor

Population

Birth rates continued to decline in almost every country in Europe and in the United States, and the problems of an aging and eventually stationary population continued to engage the attention of demographers all over the world. Various plans to stimulate a rise in the birth rate were offered and put into effect in some countries, but the decline continued. There was a slight rise in the rate in the United States in 1937 and 1938.

There are two schools of thought in regard to a declining population; one believes

it to be a national evil and a menace to prosperity, blames birth control for the decline, and wants to use repressive measures against the spread of contraceptive information. The other school believes, as does the National Resources Planning Board (formerly the National Resources Committee), that "the transition from an increasing to a stationary or decreasing population may on the whole be beneficial to the life of the Nation. It insures the continuance of a favorable ratio of population to natural resources in the United States. . . . This supplies the material basis for a high level of living, if these resources are used wisely, and if cultural conditions are favorable to initiative and cooperative endeavor."[1]

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BLINDNESS AND CONSERVATION OF SIGHT.[1] The problems of welfare work with the blind and the work for prevention of blindness and sight conservation differ in so many respects that it is usually desirable for the two programs to be organized separately and carried on with their own highly specialized personnel. For example, the blind and the partially-seeing require special but quite different educational methods. The chief distinction between the two groups is that the blind, who are presumed to have little or no useful vision, must rely on other senses, usually the tactual sense, in acquiring knowledge and skills; while the partially-seeing whose chief need is conservation of vision, use visual methods but require special materials and environment to compensate for their handicap.

Definitions of Blindness and Seriously Defective Vision

Definitions of blindness vary somewhat in different states and sometimes even within a state administering programs for the blind under more than one agency. However, the one in most general use for purposes of

[1] *See* National Resources Committee, *infra cit.*

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

compensation and financial assistance is "economic blindness." This defines a blind person as one who, with eyeglass correction, has central visual acuity of $^{2}/_{200}$ or less in the better eye, or one who has better than $^{2}/_{200}$ central vision but an equivalent handicap due to limitation of peripheral vision (usually to a diameter of 20° or less). This means that the person on the borderline of blindness can just recognize at a given distance detail which a person with normal vision can see at ten times that distance. While he might read capital letters in approximately 18-point type, he would experience as much difficulty as the person with normal vision would in reading 2-point type. If the defect is in peripheral vision, his entire field of vision in the better eye would be less than the size of an ordinary book page at reading distance, and not much larger than the height of a tall man at a distance of 20 feet.

The partially-seeing group includes those having corrected visual acuity between $^{2}/_{200}$ and $^{2}/_{70}$, as well as those with less marked defects whose vision may grow progressively worse.

Prevalence and Causes of Blindness and Defective Vision

State-wide surveys and statistics showing the number of persons on blind assistance rolls give a better basis for estimating the number of blind persons than existing census data. The best estimates available place the figure for the number of blind (as defined above) in the United States somewhere between 200,000 and 250,000, or approximately 1.5 to 2.0 per 1,000 of the general population. The number of partially-seeing is probably higher. It has been found to be about 2 per 1,000 in the school-age group.

Moderate or slight degrees of deviation from normal vision are quite common in the population at all ages and all economic levels. Estimates of their prevalence by type and by degree are impractical, because experts find it difficult to define a "defect," inasmuch as the need for correction depends so largely upon the individual's tolerance of his defect.

A series of studies of causes of blindness inaugurated by the Committee on Statistics of the Blind[1] in 1933 is supplying more adequate statistics than had previously been available. These studies, which follow the Standard Classification of Causes of Blindness developed by the Committee, provide similar data for all groups studied, making possible comparisons and combinations of the figures. They also fill the need for information regarding the underlying causes of blindness, so necessary in formulating prevention programs.

Cause-of-blindness data in which the etiological factors have been cross-classified with the type and site of eye affections, are available at present for more than two-thirds of the blind of school age[2] and for groups of adult recipients of blind assistance in several states.[3] While these samples are not representative of the entire blind population, they indicate the major problems in prevention of blindness. The most important findings to date are the following:

1. The need for intensive research into etiological factors, shown in the lack of such information on records of blind persons examined long after blindness occurred and of those whose blindness was caused by eye conditions such as cataract and glaucoma, the etiologies of which are unknown. Among children, cases which fall in the "unknown" categories are 36 per cent of

[1] The Committee on Statistics of the Blind, jointly sponsored by the American Foundation for the Blind and the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, was appointed in 1929 to study the problems of statistics of blindness and the blind and make recommendations for the improvement of such statistical data.

[2] *See* Committee on Statistics of the Blind, *infra cit.*

[3] The Social Security Board has adopted the Standard Classification of Causes of Blindness for use by agencies administering aid to the blind programs. *See* Social Security Board, *Instructions to State Agencies Participating in the Study of Causes of Blindness Among Recipients of Aid to the Blind* (*infra cit.*).

"prenatal origin, cause not specified"; 10 per cent classified as "undetermined by physician"; and 3 per cent "unknown to science"—a total of 49 per cent in all. Among adult recipients of aid to the blind, the corresponding figures are, approximately, 8 per cent of "prenatal origin, cause not specified"; 16 per cent "undetermined by physician"; and 30 per cent "unknown to science"—a total of 54 per cent.

2. The fact that one-fourth of blindness (24 per cent in children and 23 per cent in adults) is caused by "infectious diseases." The true figure may be considerably higher. In the order of their numerical importance the communicable diseases most likely to cause blindness are syphilis, ophthalmia neonatorum (babies' sore eyes), trachoma, meningitis, and gonorrheal eye infections.

3. Accidents, both occupational and non-occupational, are the cause of 9 per cent of blindness in children and 13 per cent in adults. (The percentage for adults is undoubtedly higher, since those receiving compensation for occupational injuries are not included.)

4. Heredity is responsible for a considerable amount of blindness. It is an established factor in 2 per cent of blindness among children and adults; is presumed to be present in at least an additional 11 per cent of blindness among children; and may be the causal factor in many additional cases among both children and adults whose family histories have not been investigated.

5. Other significant causes of blindness are such "general diseases" as diabetes, nephritis, and diseases of the vascular or nervous systems, which account for 2 per cent of blindness among children and 6 per cent among adults; "neoplasms" (tumors), which account for 3 per cent of blindness among children and 1 per cent among adults; and "poisoning," which accounts for 1 per cent of blindness among adults.

Causes of eye difficulty among the partially-seeing are similar in nature but somewhat different in distribution. For example, there are proportionately many more cases of refractive errors, chiefly high myopia, which cannot be corrected to normal with glasses or which are progressive in nature.

Prevention of Blindness

The program of prevention utilizes a variety of methods and leadership. For convenience, these will be presented separately.

Obviously, the emphasis in prevention programs should be on elimination of underlying causes of blindness. However, when the etiology is unknown, the immediate objective must be treatment for arrest or correction of the eye lesion itself. Two such conditions, unfortunately, are among the major causes of loss of vision:

1. Cataract, in which by needling or removal of the opaque crystalline lens in the eye and provision of glasses, the patient may be given good vision.

2. Glaucoma, in which, if diagnosis is made in the early stages and the patient continues under ophthalmological supervision, useful central and peripheral vision may be retained throughout life.

Infectious diseases, which have taken a large toll of eyes, can be prevented at the source by control of their spread, or be adequately treated to prevent disastrous sequelae. Communicable disease control measures include necessary legislation, such as required use of prophylactics in the eyes of the newborn, and compulsory premarital and prenatal examination and treatment for syphilis. Venereal disease control may play as spectacular a role in prevention of blindness as compulsory vaccination, which has made blindness from smallpox practically a thing of the past. *See* SOCIAL HYGIENE.

Discovery of the new drug, sulfanilamide, which has been demonstrated as a cure for trachoma, provides a new and effective weapon in the age-long war on this disease. Similarly, improved and new techniques in eye surgery now make possible re-attachment of a separated retina, and replacement of an opaque cornea with clear tissue from another eye. Control of hereditary blindness is gradually being accomplished by enlisting the cooperation of those in whom serious anomalies of eye structure are proved hereditary.

Safety education and other measures for elimination of eye injuries in industry, home, and so forth, have proved effective, particularly when supplemented by legislation, as in laws prohibiting sale and use of fireworks and air rifles, codes specifying safety equipment in industry, and so forth.

More and more, individuals considered blind are being removed from this category by the route of adequate ophthalmological examination, followed by medical, surgical, or even mechanical (eyeglass) correction. In fact, the correction and prevention programs of some state welfare departments have developed as a result of the need discovered in examining applicants for aid to the blind.

Maintenance of general health and nutrition is beginning to be appreciated as the ounce of prevention which may protect the eyes from disaster.

Conservation of Vision

Special education to conserve the vision of individuals who without proper safeguards might become blind, or of those with vision so low as to require special materials, can be provided in the public schools in so-called sight-saving classes, of which there are now 605 located in 29 states. In these classes large-type books and typewriters, maps in bold outline without detail, pencils, pens, and crayons that produce broad lines, and so forth, are used. Also, the specially trained teacher adapts the work of the regular grades to the needs of her pupils by permitting them to take their places in the regular classrooms only during periods when no close work is required; even in the well-lighted sight-saving classroom she shortens the periods of eye work and substitutes eye-saving materials and methods whenever possible.[1]

High school education, either in special classes or in regular classes with the aid of a reader, and special vocational testing, guidance, and training are recognized needs of this group, but such facilities are not generally available.

To be adequate, conservation of vision of the children in regular grades, as well as of younger children, should include methods and materials to assure eye comfort and efficiency of the students during the educational process, adequate service for detection of visual defects, community facilities for their correction, and proper school and home lighting. It is recognized that these objectives will not be reached until the basic training of teachers and nurses includes more adequate eye health knowledge. *See* SOCIAL AND HEALTH WORK IN THE SCHOOLS.

Prevention of Blindness Agencies and Personnel

In organizing a prevention of blindness and sight conservation program, the objective should be to integrate eye care into the broad general programs of existing official and voluntary agencies in the community responsible for health, welfare, education, safety, and so forth. The function of a prevention of blindness agency, therefore, is to stimulate and coordinate such efforts. To illustrate: state and local health officers are responsible for enforcing laws requiring use of prophylactic drops in the eyes of the newborn, and for seeing that cases of ophthalmia neonatorum are reported, and adequate medical and nursing care provided in each such case; but the stimulation of these measures in all states has been part of the program of the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness. Similarly, school authorities are responsible for setting up, financing, and supervising sight-saving classes; but public education to show the need for such classes, as well as demonstration of proper training for sight-saving class teachers, is also part of the National Society's program.

State voluntary agencies function in much the same way, although in connection with certain activities they may carry more responsibility for details. When a state agency

[1] *See* Cohen, *infra cit.*

is set up as a division of an official state department, such as the department of welfare, it may function only in the general area of activity of that department, or it may associate itself with a coordinating group representing all other official departments and voluntary agencies concerned and thus enlarge the scope of the program.[1]

Because of the broad nature of the program for sight conservation and the prevention of blindness, leadership and responsibility must be shared by many professional groups. To prepare these groups adequately for work in this specialized field, the National Society has helped appropriate educational centers to organize and finance courses for sight-saving class teachers and supervisors, for medical social eye workers, and for health educators in teacher-training institutions. Short in-service training institutes for public health nurses and others have also been conducted. As part of its educational service, the Society maintains a reservoir of the materials needed by prevention workers including periodicals, pamphlets, films, exhibits, and vision-testing charts, and gives advisory service in the field and through correspondence.

Ophthalmologists working in private offices, operating rooms, and out-patient departments have provided the medical care which is basic in prevention of blindness programs. They are further participating by serving as supervising ophthalmologists and examiners in state programs for aid to the blind, as advisers to departments carrying prevention of blindness programs, and as examiners and treatment specialists in services organized for trachoma patients, as well as for those in rural areas. In addition, through conservation of vision committees of state and county medical societies, this group is making a valuable contribution to public education.

[1] Because of the rapid growth in the number of agencies having responsibility for various parts of the program any list must be incomplete. Inquiries as to resources in any region may be addressed to the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness.

Characteristics of Blind Population

Important as preventive measures are, the fact must not be lost sight of that there are probably an estimated 200,000 persons in the United States for whom prevention comes too late, and who are irrevocably blind. The blind are found in all age groups, all economic strata, and with every variety of social and cultural background. Although accurate statistics are lacking, it is estimated that more than 50 per cent of the blind are past sixty-five years of age, due to the fact that many diseases causing blindness are associated with advancing years.

Changing Philosophy in Social Treatment of Blindness

Throughout history until recent years, the blind have been traditionally regarded as an afflicted, dependent class who lived in a world apart. Measures for their welfare took the form of alms and, later, institutional care. Here and there an unusually talented blind person was able to break through this barrier of protection and isolation and achieve some measure of normal intellectual and social life, but it was not until 1784 that, in France, the first organized efforts for education of the blind took form. Institutional life was the predominant pattern until the end of the nineteenth century. With the turn of the century, however, came a new philosophy—a recognition that blind people were normal individuals who, although they lacked physical vision, shared the joys and sorrows, the hopes and fears, the talents and deficiencies of seeing people. Since that time the trend in work for the welfare of the blind has been toward helping each blind individual to enjoy a normal, active life as a participating member of the community, as nearly as possible like the life he would have if he could see.

Education of the Young Blind

The education of the blind begins, as with the seeing, in the preschool age group. Formerly it was considered necessary to place

blind babies in special nursery schools or institutions so that they might receive suitable training and develop independence in the habits of daily living. Within recent years, however, it is recognized that only in exceptional circumstances is it desirable to remove a blind preschool child from his own home. In most cases it is possible, through advice and instruction to the parents from a specially trained teacher or field worker, to ensure that the child receives the proper training to place him on a par with seeing children of his age and thus avoid the disadvantages inherent in institutional life for the very young.

For children of school age, special educational methods are necessary—the substitution of Braille (an embossed type read with the fingers) for reading and writing by visual methods, the use of special arithmetical equipment, embossed or bas-relief maps, and other tactual devices. The aims in such procedures are to give the blind child an education comparable with that afforded seeing children in the public schools, and to fit him to take his place in a seeing world.

Since blind children are comparatively few in number and scattered through the general population, it is usually impractical except in large centers of population to provide special equipment and special teachers for them in the regular public schools. Expediency demands that they be brought together in a residential or boarding school to receive their education. The earliest of these residential schools—Perkins Institution and Massachusetts School for the Blind, the New York Institute for the Education of the Blind, and the Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind—were founded under private auspices between 1829 and 1832. The first state-supported school for the blind was established in Ohio in 1837. Other states followed suit and now every state in the Union either has a residential school within its borders or makes provision for the education of its blind children at a school in an adjacent state.

These residential schools are educational, not charitable, institutions in which the state provides free education, which is recognized as the right of all children, together with the maintenance made necessary by the removal of children from their own homes. Such schools emphasize particularly physical education to ensute active and robust bodies, manual arts and other forms of hand training to develop the manual coordination and acuity of touch so important to the blind, and music, the art which may be most successfully pursued without sight. Efforts are made to overcome the disadvantages of institutional life, to develop independence among the pupils, and to fit them for self-support in a seeing world. About 6,000 children are enrolled in residential schools for the blind throughout the country, a number which is likely to decrease in the future because of improved methods of preventing blindness among children.

In the larger cities, where the number of blind children of school age makes such a plan practicable, classes for the blind are maintained in the public schools. The first of these was established in Chicago in 1900; and in 1940 about 500 children were enrolled in public school classes for the blind in 21 cities. In these so-called "Braille" classes the customary procedure is to have the child recite in the regular classes, but return to his special classroom for study periods where he may have the use of special equipment for tactual use. The duties of a Braille class teacher include teaching the reading and writing of Braille, reading aloud or providing in Braille such special material as is not already available for finger-readers, and in general adapting the content of the regular curriculum to the special requirements of the blind child. The advantages of such a plan are that it permits the child to live at home while attending school, and provides an opportunity for normal contacts with seeing children both in the classroom and at play.

Both the residential schools and the public school classes for the blind provide fa-

cilities for education through high school. Many blind students, however, seek higher education in a college or university. In doing so they are able, through the use of Braille and the typewriter, to follow the normal curriculum, depending upon readers for the reading of such material as is not available in embossed print. Sixteen states provide state funds for the payment of such readers in order to place the blind student upon an equal footing with his seeing classmate.

Vocational Adjustment

Vocational adjustment of the blind presents two problems—the vocational guidance, training, and placement of those who lost their sight before school age was past (roughly one-third of the total), and the readjustment of those who have become blind in adult life when their vocational pattern was more or less set. In both programs, emphasis is placed on the individual approach—the selection of an occupation in accordance with the abilities, interests, personality, and background of the individual and the opportunities afforded in his community. The trend is away from the traditional occupations for the blind—such as piano tuning, rug weaving, basketry, and broom-making—although since these trades are still taught in the residential schools for the blind many graduates of these schools follow them for lack of better opportunity. There is a growing feeling, however, that the function of the school is to provide prevocational rather than vocational training, and that special skills are best acquired by intensive training after leaving school.

It is estimated that from 15 to 25 per cent of the blind are employable. That the number is not larger is due to the fact that, as noted above, more than 50 per cent of the blind are of such advanced age that they would probably not be employed if they could see. Others are handicapped by poor health, mental or personality defects, or physical disabilities in addition to blindness.

A study made in 1927 of 3,000 blind persons successfully employed in competition with the seeing showed them to be functioning in a variety of occupations—among them, the operation of news and confectionery stands and other small business enterprises; salesmanship of all sorts, from house-to-house canvassing to insurance underwriting; repetitive factory jobs, such as packing, assembly work, and the operation of punch presses, drill presses, and so forth; dictaphone operating and telephone switchboard operating; law, massage, teaching, social work, library work, osteopathy, and the ministry; poultry raising, truck gardening, dairy farming, and bee-keeping; and such domestic occupations as hotel dishwasher, mother's helper, and so forth. In 1936 Congress passed the Randolph-Sheppard Act (Public 732) which permits the operation of news and confectionery stands by blind persons in federal buildings. The Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, administers the operation of these vending stands through working agreements with state agencies for the blind.

Because the public in general, and employers in particular, are often ill-informed as to the capabilities of the blind, however, it is difficult for a blind person to find employment for himself. Therefore many state and private agencies for the blind maintain placement agents whose function it is to find suitable jobs for qualified workers and to explain to the prospective employer that in employing such a person he may expect efficient service and will suffer no monetary loss.

Sheltered Employment

Some blind people, because of age, ill health, or some mental or physical handicap in addition to blindness, cannot compete successfully with the seeing but can earn part or all of their support under favorable conditions. For these, sheltered employment is provided, either in sheltered workshops or in fostered home industries.

As the object of a sheltered workshop is to provide opportunities for paid employ-

ment, not to make a profit, these workshops are usually subsidized from public or private funds. It is felt that the therapeutic value derived by the blind person from such employment justifies the cost. Workshops for the blind manufacture a variety of products, among which brooms, mops, brushes, rugs, door-mats, mattresses, aprons, towels, pillow cases, and other items involving plain sewing are the most common. In 1938 Congress passed the Wagner-O'Day Act which provides that the federal government shall purchase its supplies of brooms, mops, and "other suitable commodities" from workshops for the blind. The list of articles thus purchased by the government is steadily growing and this has given considerable impetus to the workshops in expansion of markets, development of standards, and diversity of industries.

Fostered home industries serve a double purpose—to provide pastime occupation and to provide opportunities for paid employment to those who for some reason cannot find employment elsewhere. The marketing of products of home industries is usually undertaken by a state or private agency for the blind, which also provides some assistance in standardization of product, design, and so forth. Weaving, basketry, sewing (by hand and by machine), and knitting are the most common types of work. In most cases, home industries represent only part-time employment for the worker and the therapeutic value is as important as the amount of earnings.

Social Adjustment

Two-thirds of the blind lose their sight in adult life, and the newly blinded adult has many adjustments to make. The routines of daily living—dressing, eating, walking—must be re-learned without sight, as well as facility in daily household tasks and some means of reading and writing. To help the newly blinded person acquire these new techniques is the job of the "home teacher of the blind" whose task is a combination of case work and instruction. Not least important is the emotional adjustment of the individual to his handicap. Home teachers are employed by state or private agencies to visit the blind in their homes for teaching and other services. Such assistance is not confined to the newly blinded but extends to all blind persons who can benefit by it and includes the teaching of embossed type (Braille or Moon type), typewriting, script writing, sewing and other types of handwork, household activities, and games. The home teacher's task is to help her pupil to lead as nearly as possible the kind of life he would lead if he could see, and her methods are varied according to the needs of the pupil.

Literature for the Blind

Two systems of embossed type which can be read by touch are available for the use of the blind—Braille and Moon type. Braille, devised in 1829 by Louis Braille, a blind teacher in a school for the blind in Paris, is the most universally used. It is based on a "cell" of six dots and various combinations of these dots represent the letters of the alphabet. It has been adapted for practically all languages, and can be written (with a stylus and slate or a specially designed writing machine) by a blind person. In England and the United States, Braille and related systems of punctographic type passed through a series of developments which culminated by international agreement in 1932 in Standard English Braille, a uniform system now in use through the English-speaking world. Moon type, developed in England in 1847 by Dr. William Moon, is a system of embossed characters which somewhat resemble in shape the inkprint characters they represent. It is a "line type" in contrast to Braille which is a "dot system." Moon type can be more readily learned than Braille by those whose sense of touch is not acute, but it is bulkier than Braille and cannot be written by hand.

Many blind persons, especially those who lose their sight in advanced life, are unable to read embossed print with sufficient facil-

ity to make it an adequate substitute for the printed page. To meet their need the talking book has been developed, a long-playing phonograph record on which books or plays are recorded. Work on the development of the talking book was begun in 1932 by the American Foundation for the Blind, and in 1934 the first recorded books were made available for distribution. Talking book reproducing machines (similar to portable phonographs) on which the records are played were developed at the same time. In 1935 the federal government, recognizing that many needy blind people had not means to purchase these machines, authorized a Work Projects Administration project for the manufacture of talking book reproducing machines to be loaned through state agencies to blind persons who could not afford to purchase them. Approximately 25,000 such machines are now in use throughout the United States.

Books ptinted in Braille or Moon type are expensive, partly because of their bulk and partly because of the limited demand which makes the unit cost prohibitively high. In order to make embossed literature available to blind persons who could not afford to purchase it, an extensive system of libraries for the blind has been set up. A federal law permits libraries to circulate books for the blind through the mails free of charge. In earlier days, although the federal government made an annual grant to the American Printing House for the Blind for books used in the education of blind children, funds for the publication of embossed literature for general use were derived chiefly from private philanthropy, and the number of titles available was extremely limited. In 1931, however, Congress enacted the Pratt-Smoot law providing federal funds for the publication of books for blind adults under the direction of the Library of Congress. These books are made available through 27 regional libraries for the blind throughout the United States. The law was later amended to include the publication of sound recorded literature, and in 1940 the authorized federal appropriation for literature for the adult blind was $350,000.

More than fifty magazines for the blind are published in the United States, of which the oldest and best known is the *Matilda Ziegler Magazine for the Blind,* founded in 1907.

Financial Assistance

Special provision for financial assistance to the needy blind from public funds constituted one of the earliest forms of categorical relief. Legislation for this purpose was passed in Indiana in 1840, and in New York City in 1866. A law enacted in Ohio in 1896 was later declared unconstitutional. The oldest state law which has been continuously in effect since its passage is that of Illinois, passed in 1903. State after state followed with similar legislation until in May, 1935, 26 states had made special legislative provisions for financial aid to needy blind persons.

In 1935 the passage of the Social Security Act made federal funds available to reimburse the states for 50 per cent of their expenditures for financial assistance to needy blind persons, provided the state programs met certain requirements of the federal Act. As a result a number of states which had previously made no such provision for their blind people enacted the necessary legislation; and greater uniformity developed in regard to eligibility requirements, administrative procedures, and standards of adequacy in meeting need. In June, 1940, the District of Columbia, Hawaii, and 41 of the 48 states—those not included being Delaware, Illinois, Kentucky, Missouri, Nevada, Pennsylvania, and Texas—were administering aid to the blind under plans approved by the Social Security Board. A total of 47,589 recipients received grants in that month totaling $1,126,856. The average amount per recipient ranged from below $10 in Mississippi, Arkansas, and Alabama to $48.02 in California, the over-all average for the 43 jurisdictions being $23.68.

Categorical assistance for the needy blind

is advocated by its supporters on the ground that the special problems associated with blindness require different standards of adequacy in fixing the amount of the grant from those effective in public assistance for the seeing. The needs of the blind are in general the same as the needs of the seeing —food, shelter, clothing, and so forth—but because of the limitations imposed by blindness and the special devices necessary to overcome the handicap it usually costs more to meet those needs with the same degree of adequacy as obtains for the seeing. Aid to the needy blind under the Social Security Act must be granted on the basis of the needs of the individual.

Another school of thought, however, holds that public assistance for the blind is a type of compensation for loss of sight and should take the form of a "pension" on the ground of blindness with little or no consideration given to individual need. Illinois, Missouri, and Pennsylvania have legislation of this type and do not participate in federal funds under the Social Security Act.

Agencies for the Blind

The state agencies for the blind referred to throughout this discussion are publicly supported departments of the state government charged with responsibility for various phases of the welfare of the blind, including prevention of blindness, conservation of vision, and the social and vocational adjustment of the blind. The earlier state agencies took the form of separate "commissions for the blind" of which the first was established in Massachusetts in 1907. More recently they are found as divisions of a major state department, usually the department of welfare. In 1940 all but a few states had made legislative provision for such services for the blind, although in some states the progtam had not yet been put into effect.

State services for the blind are not to be confused with financial assistance or aid to the blind. Although coordination of the two programs is essential, it is to be noted that "services" are available to all blind residents of a state on the basis of blindness, while "aid" is granted only to the needy blind on the basis of financial need.

In most large cities private philanthropy has provided organizations for the welfare of the blind. These privately supported agencies supplement the services of the state agency and frequently have similar functions. They also undertake experimental projects and such activities as recreation, and so forth, which cannot be adequately provided for from public funds.

There are national agencies for the blind in both the public and private fields. Among the public agencies the Social Security Board, the United States Office of Education, and the Library of Congress all have important functions as indicated above.

In the private field the American Foundation for the Blind, established in 1921, serves as a clearing house of information on all phases of work with the blind, carries on research in mechanical appliances, vocations, education, statistics, and legislation relating to the blind, maintains a reference lending library (in inkprint) on work with the blind, publishes professional literature, and affords consultation field service to public and private agencies for the blind throughout the country. The American Association of Instructors of the Blind and the American Association of Workers for the Blind are professional organizations as their names imply. There are various other nation-wide agencies which carry on special activities in this field, such as The Seeing Eye, which provides trained guide dogs for the blind.

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[1] In this collaboration Miss Kerby prepared the first part of the material through the section entitled "Prevention of Blindness Agencies and Personnel," and Miss McKay the second part, beginning with the section entitled "Characteristics of Blind Population." The list of references to literature was jointly compiled.

BOYS' AND GIRLS' WORK ORGANIZATIONS.[1] The organizations considered in this article are limited to those serving boys and girls under sixteen or eighteen years of age. Activities conducted among young people in the sixteen or eighteen to twenty-five-year age group are discussed elsewhere in the volume. *See* YOUTH PROGRAMS.

Boys' and girls' clubs operate under a variety of auspices. Some are sponsored by Catholic, Jewish, or Protestant organizations; others are maintained by patriotic, fraternal, or labor organizations. Still others are independent agencies. Some clubs function as branches of national agencies, and some in such local groups as settlements, community centers and playgrounds, churches, and so forth. *See* RECREATION and SETTLEMENTS.

In general, boys' and girls' clubs are organized for the promotion of special interests—such as hobbies, athletics, and so forth —or for the attainment of personal or group adjustments in the fields of education, recreation, or social or religious work. Programs, planned to be flexible and adaptable to changing social conditions and needs, are as wide in scope as the natural interests of boys and girls. Some national agencies have a standardized program of activities with certain specific requirements which the local club must meet, others offer a suggested program but allow the local group to adapt it to community needs, and in other instances the local club has entire freedom in the selection of its program.

To meet the needs of varied age groups it is natural that differing programs should be offered. Clubs for children of eight to twelve years of age usually emphasize home and neighborhood life, with many projects carried on in homes and back yards. Pro-

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

grams for children from twelve to fifteen years of age are broadened to include athletics, vocational interests, and hobbies of all sorts, in addition to home projects. For this age group both individual and group activities are encouraged, the former often stimulated by the awarding of merit badges for individual accomplishment. Boys and girls from fifteen to eighteen years of age are more interested in group activities and consequently camping, hiking, athletic contests, experiments in self-government, glee clubs, and any number of group-chosen projects are found among the various club programs planned for this age. Such programs usually center atound an adult club leader or camp counselor.

In recent years interest has been aroused in the methods used by club leaders which aim at the development of the individual in the group and at the creation of group situations providing for integrated, cooperative group action for common ends. *See* SOCIAL GROUP WORK. Among certain well-defined trends in the recent practice of this method may be mentioned the emphasis on autonomous choice of its own membership by the group, the selection of a program by the group rather than by the leader, and the indirect supervision by the leader in the direction and control of activities.

The following condensed statements concerning the purpose and function of a number of typical boys' and girls' work organizations—and also several organizations which include this type of work as part of a larger program—indicate the scope and variety of the recreational, educational, cultural, and personal guidance services offered to young people.

Boy Rangers of America

This organization is for boys between the ages of eight and twelve years. In 1940 there were 1,039 Boy Ranger lodges in 47 states. Volunteer adult leaders called guides are in charge of the lodges.

The program is built upon Indian lore and pioneering and, while complete in itself, tends to lead up to the programs of organizations for boys of twelve years of age and over. Activities designed to contribute to the systematic formation of fine character in growing boys include organized ritual, play, and handicrafts, particularly those familiar to the Indians and early pioneers. Progress is stimulated by a carefully arranged series of related activities for the accomplishment of which definite recognition is made. Outside of the central organization the work is carried on largely by volunteers.

Boy Scouts of America

This is an organization for boys of twelve years of age and over, with a junior division known as Cubs for boys between the ages of nine and twelve. During 1939 there were 1,230,716 boys enrolled as Scouts and 234,953 as Cubs. There were also 411,450 adult members.

The fundamental principle of the organization is the close association of a small group of boys, preferably not more than 32, with an adult volunteer leader or scoutmaster. The local groups of Scouts are called troops, made up of several patrols of approximately eight boys each. Scout troops are organized in connection with schools and churches, or some existing institution such as a grange, a community house, or even a group of citizens. A local council with a paid executive supervises the work of scouting in the local community. Boys living in communities too small to form a troop may become Lone Scouts, under the guidance of an adult leader. Troop and pack leadership and, indeed, all Scout leadership, with the exception of a small number of paid executives, is on a volunteer basis.

Cub packs are usually organized in connection with Scout troops and on the same basis. There is also a senior program for boys fifteen years of age and over. This includes Sea Scouting, a seamanship program of water activities, and Explorer Scouting, a land program. Senior groups are usually organized in connection with the troop.

The program emphasizes character building and training for citizenship, and is epitomized in the Scout oath: "On my honor I will do my best—(1) to do my duty to God and my country and to obey the Scout law; (2) to help other people at all times; and (3) to keep myself physically strong, mentally awake, and morally straight."

Activities include a wide range of interests both indoor and outdoor, but it is primarily an outdoor program, with hiking, camping, swimming, trail building, cultivation of woodcraft, nature study, and the development of physical skills given a prominent place. Merit badges are awarded for achievement and progress in these activities. Each troop plans its own program on the basis of its membership's interests.

Boys' Clubs of America

This is a federation of local Boys' Clubs which have been organized in the main for underprivileged boys. In 1939, 348 such Clubs, providing leisure-time activities and leadership for nearly 300,000 boys between the ages of seven and eighteen throughout the country, were members of the federation. The Boys' Club Federation of Canada, with its 21 member Clubs, is affiliated with the Boys' Clubs of America.

Among the standards of membership designed to insure effective and socially desirable leisure-time activities for boys are the following: the organization must provide a program for and be available within the limit of its capacity and facilities to all boys, without distinction as to class or creed; it must provide suitable facilities, either in a separate building or a definite part of a building, which can be readily identified as a Boys' Club; its facilities must be available to boys at all reasonable hours; it must be under the control of a representative board of directors which functions in the determination of policies and in the management; it must maintain a diversified program of physical, educational, and social activities; and it must employ a full-time executive whose education, training, experience, and character qualify him for the leadership and guidance of boys.

Each Club is an independent unit; the national organization is in the nature of a federation which exercises control and supervision only as authorized by the constituent units. Standards are suggested but no uniform program imposed. More than 50 types of activities are carried on by these Clubs, including athletics, camping, music, dramatics, arts and crafts, and so forth. Usually there is a club building with equipment for gymnasium activities, quiet games, club meetings, and special mass occasions. Often located in neglected communities, these Clubs serve as the meeting place and clearing house for boy-life interests.

Camp Fire Girls

The appeal of this organization is to girls between ten and eighteen years of age, with a separate program offered to the eight and nine-year-olds who belong to the junior organization, Blue Birds. From six to twenty girls in a church, school, or neighborhood form a Camp Fire group under the leadership of an adult volunteer called the guardian. Each group has one or more sponsors or a sponsoring committee from the membership of a civic club. In the larger towns there are local councils composed of responsible citizens who supervise Camp Fire activities and engage an executive to direct the work, including the Camp Fire camp. Executives are trained at the Executives' School, held in cooperation with New York University. Training courses for volunteers are conducted by executives and national field secretaries. The headquarters office provides guidance through publications, training courses, field service, and correspondence.

The purpose of the organization is to provide an opportunity for the girls' personal development through group experience. To this end is offered a program of leisure-time activities designed to be fun for the girls; to provide enriching experiences and help them find joy, zest, and adventure in

everyday life; to cultivate skills; to give them practice in the democratic way of working with others; and to help them become self-reliant, happy individuals and responsible members of society.

The program, revised in 1936, is very flexible and offers a wide choice of activities so that each group, under the guidance of its leaders, may have practice in planning and carrying out a program suited to its own interests, abilities, and needs. It covers the range of girls' interests, including home-making, handicraft, camping, nature study, dramatics, music, literature, games, sports, health, grooming, social affairs, business, and community and world-wide citizenship. The colorful honors, ranks, symbolism, and ritual of Camp Fire appeal to the younger girls, while participation in special projects having community significance is offered the older girls.

During 1939 the older girls' project was called Women of Achievement. The girls collected information on the women of yesterday who had helped to shape their communities, interviewed the influential women of today, and investigated the opportunities for the women of tomorrow.

The total membership as of December 31, 1939, including Camp Fire Girls, Blue Birds, and adult leaders, was 278,451.

Catholic Boys' Brigade of the United States

This national organization promotes the spiritual, moral, mental, social, and civic welfare of boys between the ages of ten and eighteen years by offering a program of recreational, educational, and preventive work. In 1940 approximately 40,000 boys were members of the various local units.

Activities include military drill, physical exercises, signaling, first-aid, civics, music, athletics, instruction, sports, outings, camping, parades, and other congenial activities. These are carried on chiefly under the direction of volunteer leaders selected and supervised by the clergy. Training courses are provided for leaders at the national headquarters, New York City, and a practical course for boys' work directors is included in the course of studies at Notre Dame University and at the various archdiocesan and diocesan training centers. For programs for older boys and young men see Catholic Youth Programs in YOUTH PROGRAMS.

4-H Clubs

The 4-H clubs are conducted by the Extension Service of the United States Department of Agriculture and the state land-grant colleges. The 4-H clubs give rural boys and girls an opportunity to organize effectively for improving their social, cultural, and economic conditions. Reports from county agents showed that in 1939, 1,381,500 rural young people were members of 4-H clubs. The eligible membership age is ten to twenty years. The local club leaders are volunteers.

The average club program covers the following: community-improvement projects, agricultural or home-making projects, individual-improvement projects, and recreation. Boys' activities include gardening, stock raising, crop production and such activities as are involved in conservation, and farm and home safety programs; the girls' primary interest is in such home-making activities as raising and preparing food in keeping with the dietary needs of the family, canning, learning to dress well at small cost, and furnishing their own rooms. Both boys and girls have recreational activities, including summer camps and various kinds of outings. These programs are adjusted continually to meet the social and economic needs of the membership.

County extension agents offer promotional and supervisory services, conduct studies to learn of the problems of club members and leaders, and develop training programs for local 4-H club leaders.

Girl Scouts

The Girl Scout program as revised in 1938 is planned for girls in three age groups: Brownie Scouts from seven to ten years old, Girl Scouts from ten to fourteen or fifteen

years old, and Senior Girl Scouts from fourteen or fifteen to eighteen years old.

The purpose of the Girl Scout movement is to provide constructive group experience which can grow with the needs and desires of its members and which will foster self-reliance, consideration for others, and a sense of social responsibility. Troop organization trains for future citizenship by providing practical experience in the processes of democracy.

The program includes activities in the following fields of interests: home-making, out-of-doors activities, international friendship, arts and crafts, community life, sports and games, health and safety, literature and dramatics, music and dancing, and vocational exploration for Senior Girl Scouts. Physically handicapped girls participate, as far as possible, in the entire program. A western hemisphere encampment at Camp Andree, Pleasantville, N. Y., was held in August, 1940, taking the place of the usual international encampment at Adelboden, Switzerland.

The Girl Scout organization in 1939 made the second largest membership gain in its history. In 1939 there were 573,255 Girl Scouts of all ages in about 5,685 communities representing practically every section of the country. Local councils were operating in 947 communities with jurisdictions ranging from three or four troops to the hundreds of troops found in large metropolitan cities. Activities are carried on under the guidance of volunteer adult leaders.

The national headquarters staff provides field service and training for volunteer and professional Girl Scout workers. Training courses offered in Girl Scout training schools, special institutes, colleges, and schools of social work cover community organization, group work methods, and the special techniques of Girl Scouting.

Jewish Welfare Board

There were 317 Young Men's Hebrew Associations, Young Women's Hebrew Associations, and Jewish Community Centers in the United States and Canada affiliated with the Jewish Welfare Board in 1939. The membership of these organizations was 400,000 of which 30 per cent were twelve years of age and under, and 21 per cent between thirteen and seventeen years.

The facilities of the 238 buildings owned by Jewish Centers include gymnasiums, swimming pools, auditoriums, club and classrooms, game rooms, social rooms, libraries, play yards, and roof gardens. A considerable number of the organizations have the benefit of professional direction.

The activities offered to boys and girls include clubs, groups, and mass activities; commercial, academic, and vocational education; vocational guidance; recreational and social activities; cultural activities such as music, drama, art, forums, lectures, and concerts; physical and health education, including gymnastics, athletics, swimming, and dancing; outdoor and home camps; civic and communal service; and Jewish activities, including educational and cultural courses, religious services, and holiday observances. For the Board's program for boys and young men see Jewish Agencies for Youth in YOUTH PROGRAMS.

Junior Red Cross

The American National Red Cross functions in the school through the Junior Red Cross. Membership is restricted to school pupils, including children in public, private, or parochial elementary and secondary schools and also children who are in regularly organized and graded schools in social welfare and correctional institutions. The membership in 1939 totaled 7,556,306.[1] The purpose of the Junior Red Cross is to promote health, to develop altruistic tendencies in children, to give practice in good

[1] The American Junior Red Cross statistics for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1939, were adjusted to credit only those schools, classrooms, and pupils where all membership requirements had been met. They do not include classrooms and pupils where there was participation in American Junior Red Cross activities but where the requirements of enrolment had not been completed.

citizenship, and to promote international friendliness.

"School work for service" is a basic principle. School work is given a new incentive when, for example, themes of English classes and the studies of modern language classes and history classes are put in the form of letters to children in other countries, or when manual training classes include in their output toys for disadvantaged children or writing tables for ex-service men in hospitals. Covers for books in Braille, as well as Christmas and Easter cards, are made in art classes. Toys are also made for children in schools for the blind.

In the teaching of swimming a prominent place is given to first-aid and life-saving, and certificates are awarded to those who achieve the required standards. Local Red Cross chapters also provide instruction in home hygiene and care of the sick for junior and senior high schools.

From the earliest days the Junior Red Cross has maintained a National Children's Fund for the relief of children at home and abroad and for certain educational projects in keeping with its objectives. Through cooperation with the United States Office of Education and with the approval of and under the supervision of home economics teachers and the general direction of the state supervisors of home economics education, garments have been supplied in large numbers for refugees and evacuees in countries affected by the present European war.

Locally, the Junior membership of the Red Cross is a part of the Red Cross chapter and its work is supervised by the chapter's Junior Red Cross committee. The chairman of the committee is a member of the chapter's executive committee and coordinates the Junior Red Cross work with that of the chapter as a whole.

Pioneer Youth of America

Sponsored by trade unions as a part of the broad workers' education movement, Pioneer Youth promotes the formation of children's clubs under the auspices of the unions themselves. Leaders are furnished by Pioneer Youth or developed within the union, leadership materials are prepared, conferences conducted, and field workers maintained from time to time. Besides the union-sponsored clubs, Pioneer Youth conducts its own groups.

The program varies with the age groups, which include boys and girls from eight to sixteen years of age, but stresses the play approach and the importance of "a good time" under friendly union auspices. The children have many experiences in self-direction and discover their strength in group effort.

Activities carried on by the clubs include craft work, trips to places of industrial and social interest, dramatics, music and folk dancing, games, discussions, and writing. Camps are held at Rifton, N. Y., and Old Fort, N. C. A new development announced for the summer of 1940 at the Rifton Camp is a work camp for fifteen to seventeen-year-old high school students. Groups are conducted among Negro sharecroppers in Alabama. During 1939, 679 children were members of functioning groups. A full-time organizer is located in North Carolina, and Philadelphia has its own branch.

Young Men's Christian Associations

Activities for boys under eighteen years of age form an important part of the program in the Young Men's Christian Association. In 1939 there were 872 Associations carrying on work in regularly scheduled groups with 931,674 enrolments. In 560 Associations 178,003 different boy campers were reported. The program is flexible and varies from group to group. Groups and clubs include the following types: Hi-Y clubs for high schools, Junior Hi-Y clubs in junior high schools, Gra-Y clubs in grade and grammar schools, church clubs, neighborhood play groups, gangs, home clubs for fathers and sons, employed boys' groups, and interest and hobby groups within the YMCA building.

The aim of the Association is to help

boys meet the problems and conditions of present day life through groups which are organized within their own environment and neighborhoods. These clubs are guided in their efforts to seek and achieve desirable social re-direction from a Christian viewpoint among boys with whom they associate, as well as self-development in desirable skills and habits of living in a Christian democracy.

To a large extent the work is carried on by employed, trained boys' work secretaries. The Association secures a considerable number of their professionally trained workers from two affiliated colleges, the George Williams College at Chicago, and the Springfield YMCA College at Springfield, Mass. Local training centers and summer conferences provide supplementary training for secretaries who are in service. Volunteer group leadership also plays an important part in the organization work. Two national secretaries work through area and state supervisory agencies in the stimulation of the efforts of local Associations in their work with boys. Among the distinctive features of the work with boys are summer camps, boys' conferences, father and son activities, gymnasiums and swimming pools for recreation, athletic and aquatic sports, health education, vocational counseling, individual guidance for personal self-development, and group work for constructive efforts at Christian citizenship. For the program for older boys and young men see Young Men's Christian Associations in YOUTH PROGRAMS.

Young Women's Christian Associations

The Young Women's Christian Association has a large membership of girls of junior and senior high school age. These younger members are known as the Girl Reserves and during the year 1939 they numbered 340,000.

Girl Reserve clubs are organized by city, town, and district Young Women's Christian Associations. The principal work with rural girls is carried through district Associations. In communities where there is no local Association it is possible to organize a unit known as a Registered YWCA. This is made up of two parts: the Women's Council and the Girl Reserve club, composed of senior high school students and their advisers. A program is also carried on for Indian girls in reservation school groups. Thus the interracial membership of the YWCA is maintained in the Girl Reserve movement, for there are Indian, Negro, Oriental, and Caucasian members.

The YWCA in its work with the younger girl tries to meet her need for sociability and for personal and social adjustment. Club programs are built on the interests and needs of the members in the group. Considering the interests that most girls have and the purpose of the YWCA it is possible to summarize the subjects most emphasized in Girl Reserve clubs as follows: health; the arts, including music, dramatics, crafts, and literature; discussions of international and interracial problems; vocational adjustment; social problems; boy and girl relationships; relations with parents; and religion.

Girl Reserve club meetings are held at the YWCA, school, community center, or church. Each club is advised by one or more adults who meet regularly with the members. This adult leadership is given through three sources: the professional secretary, the club adviser, and the committee member. In 1939 there were 314 professional Girl Reserve secretaries. Leadership training is provided by the national organization for both the professional and volunteer worker.

In addition to the Girl Reserve program which is for school girls the Association is interested in young employed girls under eighteen years of age and special programs adapted to their needs are provided. Oftentimes this work is carried on through either the business or industrial departments of local Associations. For the program for older girls and young women see Young Women's Christian Associations in YOUTH PROGRAMS.

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CATHOLIC SOCIAL WORK.[1] In the United States, as in other countries, the Catholic Church has striven to assume and carry out the responsibility for service as a necessary and integral part in the functioning of its organic life. It has conceived of service to neighbor as one of the mandates and directions of Christ. It has regarded charity as one of the strong bonds of brotherhood binding together its members. The Church finds the foundation for charitable endeavor and activity in its organic framework of doctrine. Five doctrinal bases for service to fellow man may be cited: every human soul and, consequently, every human person is of infinite worth; man is brother to man, in Christ the Divine Redeemer and under the Fatherhood of God the Creator; service rendered to one in need is in effect extended to Christ Himself; life and property are not given absolutely and unconditionally by God to man, but only in the manner of a stewardship; the life of Christ constitutes for Christians the model of perfection.

The cultural and social traditions of the many racial groups that make up the cosmo-

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

politan membership of the Catholic Church have influenced the forms that Catholic charitable pursuits have taken in this country. The Church has fostered that admirable pride of race and descent which prompted each group to furnish aid to its own members in want. Moreover, many Catholic institutions and agencies have been founded and developed by self-governing religious communities. These bodies of religious men and women, alert to needs, have given stimulation to Christian service toward the poor and the unfortunate.

The wide extent of the charities in which religious communities participate is not generally realized. Nearly 24,000 women members of these communities in the United States are engaged in social work of one form or another, according to an occupational census of the Catholic Sisterhoods taken by the National Conference of Catholic Charities in collaboration with the Russell Sage Foundation during 1934. Although the Catholic social work program depends to a very considerable extent upon religious communities of men and women, it rests basically upon the interest, participation, activity, and support of the lay members of the Church.

Central Diocesan Organizations

In each diocese the central organization for Catholic charitable activity is usually known as "Catholic Charities." This organization is generally a federated body of the constituent self-governing agencies and institutions lying within the canonical boundaries of the diocese. It is the official channel through which there passes to the Catholic charitable agencies and institutions the direction of the ecclesiastical authority, namely, the Bishop or Ordinary of the diocese; it correlates, coordinates, and integrates the various charitable functions and activities; it sets Catholic social work standards and policies; it develops leadership; it helps in general community planning and community financing for social work; it serves as the liaison body between Catholic social work and social work under other auspices; it interprets Catholic social work to the Catholic laity and to the non-Catholic public; and it may act as the organization to solicit and obtain contributions for the complete or partial support of associations, agencies, and institutions belonging to the federation.

Within recent years the most significant aspect of the Catholic Charities program has been the development of these central diocesan organizations. In 1940 there were some 75 diocesan agencies of Catholic Charities in the United States with 81 branch offices. All, with the possible exception of four, have been founded since 1920. Various names in addition to "Catholic Charities" are used, namely, "Bureau of Catholic Charities," "Conference of Catholic Charities," "Catholic Social Welfare Bureau," "Diocesan Bureau of Social Service," "Catholic Charitable Bureau," "Catholic Charities Bureau," "Archdiocesan Charities," "Associated Catholic Charities," and "Affiliated Catholic Charities." In the remainder of this article, central diocesan organizations will be alluded to as "Catholic Charities."

These Catholic Charities have developed according to the demands of and the varying conditions in the different dioceses. Dioceses covering large geographical areas have been slower to organize, due possibly to the scattered Catholic population and the comparative difficulties of transportation. The majority of the dioceses with large centers of Catholic population have more readily responded to the need for diocesan organizations of Catholic Charities to take care of the social problems which transcend parish boundaries and resources. Census figures in the *Official Catholic Directory* indicate that approximately six-sevenths of the Catholic population of the United States live in one-half of the territory, and Catholic Charities have been organized to serve this area; while one-seventh of the population is scattered over the other half of the country, where central diocesan agencies

have not as yet been established. Catholic Charities and agencies first organized to render more effective service to Catholics congregated in the cities have widened their programs to include rural areas through the instrumentalities of rural branch offices, rural workers, and closer cooperation with rural parishes.

In the field of child care, a concern which has occupied a larger place in Catholic welfare in the United States than any other type of work, Catholic Charities have been deeply interested in improving the standards in children's institutions. They have organized a case work service governing intake and discharge and have introduced better standards of medical care. In certain instances, the better to articulate the Catholic conception of the family as the basic unit of society, the intake on problems of child care has been placed in that division of Catholic Charities dealing with family situations. Referral is then made to the appropriate child-caring agency or institution. Through the instrumentality of Catholic Charities, many improvements have been made in the educational and character building programs of institutions. The tendency to abandon congregate methods in dealing with children has been increased. Almost all the new institutions have been built according to the cottage plan. Catholic Charities recognize that one of the important problems is the training of personnel for child-caring homes. Through conferences, institutes, and publications a beginning has been made in this training program.

The social security program has brought to the attention of Catholic Charities the fact that they must concentrate more and more upon the care of dependent children living in their own homes or with relatives. Experience has disclosed that children so cared for are not always in touch with their own church, and that in addition to the services of a public agency they need the ministrations of an agency of their own faith in order that their spiritual welfare may be protected and promoted.

The 46 diocesan agencies of Catholic Charities reporting monthly on family relief during the first nine months of 1939 to the National Conference of Catholic Charities expended a total of $641,147. These figures do not give a complete picture of the extent of relief services rendered, since there were other agencies not reporting whose relief grants were undoubtedly of considerable volume.

The outlook of the family service program of these agencies is much different from what it was before the economic depression. While they believe that they should stimulate some form of relief program in every parish, they recognize that, in large measure, relief has become a public responsibility and are desirous of seeing government assume its full responsibility in this field. They wish to cooperate with the public departments in rendering such supplementary services as they may be able and qualified to give and in using their influence to encourage the best possible standards of public relief administration. *See* FAMILY SOCIAL WORK and PUBLIC WELFARE.

Catholic Charities are thinking a good deal in terms of an effective religious approach to social problems. Their essential hope is not so much in an extensive case work service as in the expansion of the work of the pastoral ministry and the development of a richer and more intensive parochial program. A diocesan-wide case work service must, in the last analysis and in terms of eternal values, remain supplementary to the most important work of the pastoral ministry.

Children's Charities

The early work of Catholic Charities helped immeasurably in the adjustment of immigrants to the strange and complex American scene. Large numbers of immigrant homes were broken by sickness, economic difficulties, various types of mental and emotional conflicts, and other disintegrating forces. One of the most important

concerns which devolved upon the Church was the rearing of children from these broken homes in their traditional religious faith. The Sisters of Charity had, very early in the history of our country, set up combination boarding schools, orphanages, and day schools in Albany, Baltimore, Boston, Cincinnati, New York, Philadelphia, St. Louis, and Washington, D. C.

When the responsibility of caring adequately for dependent and neglected children became too large for the combination boarding school, a special type of institution (orphanage) was established. The other religious communities, founded later in this country or introduced from Europe, tended to follow a similar program. Catholic manual training and industrial schools, established in several places in the latter half of the nineteenth century, represented another type of care for dependent and neglected Catholic children. These institutions, principally for children over twelve years of age, were intended to supplement the care, instruction, and training received in the orphanages.

Many of the first efforts to make provision for immigrant children away from their own homes were centered upon finding sufficient foster homes. These attempts, however, were not always successful, especially when disease-infected immigrant ships and recurring epidemics in cities left large numbers of children on the hands of the Church and its charities.

During the seventies and eighties of the past century, Catholic leaders in caring for children preferred the institutional method. However, subsequent to 1895 a decided change appeared in this attitude. There developed a growing awareness and conviction as to the desirability of having an organized foster home program operating conjointly with an institutional program. The influence of the Catholic Home Bureau in New York City in 1897 contributed to the formation of similar agencies in Baltimore, Detroit, Newark, and Washington, D. C. In 1938 there were in the United States 72 Catholic child-placing agencies with approximately 15,000 children under foster care, and 326 institutions for dependent and neglected children with a total population of 39,545 children. Since 1938, population in Catholic child-caring institutions has declined to about 34,000. *See* CHILD WELFARE.

The Society of St. Vincent de Paul and Other Volunteer Organizations

The Society of St. Vincent de Paul was founded in France in 1833. The first American conference or parish unit of the Society was organized in St. Louis in 1845. The Society is an association of Catholic laymen based upon interest and motives of altruism that are primarily religious. Its inspiration is the Catholic conception of charity. Its wider affiliation is with Catholicism, its narrower and proximate affiliation is with the local parish. The real object of the Society is the individual member's own sanctification and the sanctification of those aided. Visiting and assisting the poor and the unfortunate are the means to this end but not the end itself. In September, 1939, the Society had approximately 2,500 conferences and reported an active membership of 25,035.

Acquaintance with the multitude, diversity, and complexity of problems that arise in society, and association with other social agencies gradually induced the members of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul to realize that work for the conservation of home life and the effective rehabilitation of the unfortunate could not be done by decentralized and unguided volunteer endeavor. The conviction soon arose that an effort should be made to provide the Society's parish conferences with trained leadership on a city-wide basis. Accordingly, between 1900 and 1910, the Society established central offices in several cities to furnish trained leadership for the Society's volunteers engaged in social service.

The Superior Council of the United States conducts the general administration of the

Society in this country, leaving the actual conduct of activities entirely to the parish conferences and the particular councils. The latter are organized in cities, towns, or localities where three or more parish conferences exist.

The leaders of the Society have also made important and pioneer contributions to the development of summer fresh-air work for undernourished children, the organization of boys' clubs, and the establishment of special courts for hearing children's cases. They played prominent parts in the White House Conference of 1909.

The Society's activities also include emergency assistance to families; hospital and institutional visitations; placing orphans and abandoned dependent children in free foster homes for maintenance or adoption; Big Brother work; probation work in behalf of juvenile delinquents; work in behalf of the Catholic seamen in American ports; and, finally, special activities born of local needs, such as boarding homes for working boys, homes for aged men, and free employment bureaus. Many of the important elements entering into Catholic Charities' programs today may be traced to the early interest and efforts of the St. Vincent de Paul Society.

During the year ending September 30, 1939, the number of families assisted throughout the United States by the Society was 105,283 and the number of persons in these families was 507,612. Total expenditures of the Society amounted to $3,293,947. Of this amount, $2,686,733 was expended by the conferences and $607,214 by the particular councils for the various special works referred to above.

In at least five cities full-time workers are employed to direct and supplement the work of the volunteers. The major part of the Society's activities, however, remains on a volunteer basis. Since 1915, services requiring full-time staff members have been turned over increasingly to the diocesan organizations of Catholic Charities.

Several other Catholic volunteer organizations have been active in social work. The Ladies of Charity have organized extensive volunteer programs in New York, Baltimore, and Washington, D. C. The Elizabeth Seton League conducts a settlement for Puerto Ricans in the Puerto Rican section of New York City. The Knights of Columbus have conducted recreational activities for boys in Brooklyn and special case work for behavior problem boys in Pittsburgh. Similar programs for boys have been sponsored by the Holy Name Society in Baltimore and Chicago. The Catholic Daughters of America have financed the placement of children in free homes for children in Pittsburgh. The Council of Catholic Women has provided volunteer service for the Diocesan Bureau in Hartford; the Seattle Council of Catholic Women has operated a child-placing agency; and the Denver Council of Catholic Women has conducted a settlement in the Mexican district of that city.

Specialized Services

Leaders in large centers of population, in addition to satisfying the religious needs of the new immigrants, have organized broad social service programs fot them. Lay groups have established settlements in the immigrant urban areas and effort has been made to match need with service. Some of these organizations have opened day nurseries. Today there are 95 Catholic day nurseries conducted under religious and lay auspices. Others of these groups have furnished health care, while all have offered some kind of organized recreational and cultural program. Religious communities have likewise been active in settlement work. *See* SETTLEMENTS. In 1938 there were about 46 Catholic settlements in operation in the United States. Of recent years, a tendency has existed on the part of Catholic Charities, especially in congested areas, to take over many of the functions formerly exercised by settlements. Many parishes, moreover, now have extensive recreational and social programs for children and adults, the develop-

ment of which is becoming an important function of the junior clergy.

The first national conference of Catholic Youth Organization leaders was held in Chicago on May 17 and 18, 1938. Representatives from 91 dioceses in the United States and Canada were in attendance. The discussion in Chicago revealed that the Catholic Youth Organization has not yet reached any set and fixed pattern and that interest is presently concentrated upon leisure-time activities and particularly athletics. A longing for more of the educational and the cultural in Catholic youth work was indicated. Catholic youth organizations in six cities are financed in part by community chests, and in three cities by diocesan Catholic Charities appeals. *See* Catholic Youth Programs in YOUTH PROGRAMS.

Catholic Charities are very much interested in behavior problems. Inasmuch as one of the principal purposes of Catholic teaching is to provide universal guiding principles for human behavior, Catholic Charities have desired to use all that science has to present in guiding human lives and to profit by whatever sound psychiatry has to offer in a case work program. In the past seven years at least six Catholic agencies have organized psychiatric services under the direction of trained psychiatrists. *See* MENTAL HYGIENE and PSYCHIATRIC SOCIAL WORK.

The care of the aged occupies an important place in Catholic Charities in the United States. In 1938 there were 155 institutions and homes of various types caring for over 16,000 aged persons, while in 1940 there were some 190 institutions for the care of the aged. The number is growing; the old age assistance program of the Social Security Act has increased demands for institutional care. *See* HOMES AND ALMSHOUSES. About a third of the total number of homes for the aged are conducted by the Little Sisters of the Poor.

Hospitals and convalescent homes comprise a very important part of the social work program of the Church. At the end of 1939 the total number of Catholic hospitals and allied agencies (general and special hospitals, medical agencies, institutional agencies, and visiting groups) was 933. The capacity of these hospitals and agencies was 105,170 beds and 13,352 bassinets. In 1939, 2,183,828 patients were served—in free service, part-pay service, and pay service. The total number of persons serving these hospitals in 1937, including Sisters, lay nurses, student nurses, doctors, technicians, and non-professional personnel, was 125,801. The percentage of increase in the number of Catholic hospitals in the United States from 1918 to 1938 was 29.4.

Over 60 Catholic hospitals report active social service departments. *See* MEDICAL SOCIAL WORK. In many places they participate in community chests and hospital councils although occasionally they have organized their own councils under the leadership of diocesan directors of Catholic Charities. All Catholic hospitals belong to the Catholic Hospital Association of the United States and Canada.

Catholic hospitals have become increasingly interested in community-wide plans for hospital group insurance and in central hospital intake. Inquiries in 1938 by the Catholic Hospital Association revealed that in 41 communities in which there were Catholic hospitals, 92 Catholic hospitals were participating in group hospitalization plans. *See* MEDICAL CARE.

Training for Social Work

Catholics are becoming increasingly aware of the need for trained personnel in social work. This is evidenced by the enrolment of an increasing number of Catholics in schools of social work and by the establishment of the following seven Catholic schools: School of Social Work at the Catholic University in Washington, D. C., National Catholic School of Social Service in Washington, D. C., Boston College School of Social Work, Fordham University School of Social Service in New York City, Loyola University School of Social Work in Chicago, St.

Louis University School of Social Service, and Xavier University School of Social Service in New Orleans (for Negroes). The five last-mentioned schools are conducted by the Jesuits. *See* EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK.

National Organizations

The National Conference of Catholic Charities has exercised considerable influence upon the leadership, growth, and standards of Catholic social work in the United States. The Conference, organized in 1910, was the first effort to bring together, nationally, all the groups active in Catholic charitable work. In 1916 the Conference began publication of the *Catholic Charities Review,* a monthly periodical which has appeared regularly since that date. In 1923 it formulated a program for Catholic children's institutions and in 1928 promoted a very extensive study of Catholic children's institutions, the findings of which have been incorporated in *Children's Institutions.*[1] In 1926 it began a study of family divisions of five central diocesan organizations, a report of which was published in 1928.

For several years Catholic Charities leaders have been participating in city-wide and state-wide social work planning in a number of cities and states. In Boston, Buffalo, Denver, Los Angeles, and New York, leaders in Catholic Charities have made very significant contributions to the public housing movement. *See* HOUSING AND CITY PLANNING. During the past few years they have been actively participating in national planning. Leaders in Catholic Charities have participated in the work of the various committees of the recent White House Conference on Children in a Democracy. *See* WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCES. A continuing committee of the diocesan directors has given special attention to the whole federal social security program and to federal social welfare legislation.

The organization of the National Catholic Welfare Conference in 1919 gave great stimulus to Catholic social work in the United States, especially in the sector of social action. *See* SOCIAL ACTION. It added the weight of the Church authority and leadership to the work of pioneer Catholic leaders in social reform. Through its Social Action Department (covering industrial relations, civic education, social welfare, family life, and rural life), its National Council of Catholic Men, and its National Council of Catholic Women, the Conference has provided instrumentalities for making Catholic teaching more widely known and for furthering just social and economic reform.

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[1] *See* Cooper, *infra cit.*

Child Welfare

CHILD WELFARE.[1] There are approximately thirty-six million children under sixteen years of age in the United States and about five million more aged sixteen and seventeen—comprising all together nearly one-third of the population. Each year about two million babies are born. The health, education, training, and well-being of these voteless citizens are encompassed within the meaning of the term "child welfare."

Prenatal and Infant Welfare

The first important experience for a child is to be well born. Eugenic factors of many sorts condition a child's prospects, not only before he is born but even before he is conceived. Consequently it is of importance to the state that sound marriage laws and customs be in effect. The prevention of hasty and thoughtless marriages has been the object of much wholesome legislation directed toward establishing protective regulations around the issuing of marriage licenses. The requirement of a few days' waiting period between the issuing of the license and the marriage ceremony, increases in the minimum age of the contracting parties, and the furnishing of health certificates have all been steps toward ensuring better eugenic control of marriage. Wide variation in state laws continues to handicap progress, however, and a considerable extension of corrective legislation is required before unborn children will have the full protection which is their due. *See* Legal Sanctions in THE FAMILY.

Frank recognition is given these days to the prevalence of the venereal diseases and at the same time the treatment of these diseases is becoming more skillful. Educational efforts now being made in this field should improve the child's prospects for good health by increasing the possibility of his having healthy parents. Education for social hygiene will probably be a more effective weapon for child protection and health than will law, for a good many years to come. *See* SOCIAL HYGIENE.

There has been steady growth in measures for the protection of the health of mothers and infants. It has become almost routine for all expectant mothers to have medical attention, particularly in the urban centers. It is common for new mothers in even the poorest parts of many cities to have nursing advice and aid with their new-born babies. Classes for expectant mothers, and in some cities even classes for expectant fathers, are becoming numerous. The developments in this field under the Social Security Act of 1935 as administered by the United States Children's Bureau have been marked. *See* MATERNAL AND CHILD HEALTH.

The 1939 death rate among new babies in New York City was 37.1 per thousand, setting a new low mark for the city. Anyone who has worked in communities where the infant mortality rate is 200—a not uncommon figure—will realize that the announcement of such a result is outstanding news, particularly when it is stated at the same time that the city's maternal death rate had dropped from an earlier high of 6.4 per thousand to 3.1 per thousand.

Midwifery is an important factor in infant welfare in many communities. It is noteworthy that the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, held in 1940, placed special emphasis on a recommendation that "particular training should be given to nurse-midwives to prepare them for work in remote rural areas, under the supervision of physicians qualified for this purpose."

The Preschool Child

Emphasis upon the educational significance of the child's first years continues. Those who have been concetned with habit training of maladjusted children have come to realize how much the pattern of children's lives is set by their earliest experiences with parents and others in the home, and with playmates in the neighborhood. Attempts at improved parent education are

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

on the increase, and courses on marriage and the family are multiplying in schools and colleges. Books on child development and training have been circulated in great numbers. Some of the talk and writing seems to have shot wide of the mark at times, causing parents to become over-solicitous and, in a sense, to overhaul their children's lives too much. The general trend, however, seems to be in the direction of more thoughtful and intelligent parenthood. Parent education groups, if wisely led, serve to advance the mental health of children. *See* Parent Education in THE FAMILY.

The nursery school movement, already established in the public school system before 1930, met with some reverses when the depression set in a decade ago. In 1933 and later, the federal government brought about considerable development in the field through its work relief activities; and since then there has been an increase in the number of nursery schools operated in a variety of ways and under various auspices. In 1,500 nursery schools operating under Work Projects Administration auspices in 1939, a total of 45,000 children were enrolled; and it was reported that both state and local contributions toward the maintenance of such schools were increasing.

In the best nursery schools the child's health and nutritional needs are carefully looked after; good habits are established; self-management is encouraged; and problems of adjustment are dealt with through procedures of guidance and correction. The child's range of experience is broadened, and his growing individuality recognized and controlled through regulation of his activities rather than by their repression. The objective of the nursery school is to give the young child a well-founded sense of security and self-reliance.

About one-half of all nursery schools operating in 1939 were holding full-day sessions; the other half, half-day sessions. About 50 per cent of them were supported by tuition, 25 per cent by universities, 19 per cent by philanthropic organizations, and about 4 per cent by public schools. More than 41 per cent of nursery school workers in 1939 had master's or doctor's degrees and 31 per cent had bachelor's degrees. Further recognition on the part of public and parochial school authorities that the nursery school should be included in the educational system is called for.

Both housing authorities and welfare agencies have been concerned with the type of service given young children living in public housing projects and in many instances have included nursery school facilities in their planning. *See* HOUSING AND CITY PLANNING. A good many day nurseries have been converted into nursery schools with trained staffs in charge. Church Sunday schools and kindergartens are tending toward the use of nursery school methods in their work.

Public playgrounds and neighborhood houses conduct activities which also play a part in the early life expetience of the preschool child. *See* SETTLEMENTS.

Child Education

There has been a definite long-range trend in the evolution of school philosophy toward considering school as a social situation and learning as an experience within that situation. It is not surprising, therefore, to find social behavior receiving more attention in the school system than ever before. Some interesting attempts have been made to have pupils as well as parents play a more definite part in the total process. Schools are placing an increased emphasis on individual personality and so tend to insist that each individual child, even though handicapped in various ways, should find the optimum opportunity somewhere in the school system.

These developments have resulted in a more effective use of clinic services in connection with the schools, including not only use of physicians, nurses, psychologists, and psychiatrists but also social workers. The last named are known as visiting teachers,

and their chief function is to attempt the adjustment of the child to the school, and vice versa.

In many places there is appearing a tendency for old age pensions and other relief measures to encroach upon the school's financial claims on state and local budgets. There is need for full recognition of the fact that educational processes for the young are the basic consideration in building a society. Even the saving of children's bodies through good health is futile if their minds and characters are left undeveloped for the task of citizenship in a democracy. *See* SOCIAL AND HEALTH WORK IN THE SCHOOLS.

Child Health

The health of children is receiving greater attention from society as well as increased understanding from individual families. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH. The White House Conference on Children in a Democracy found that despite hard times during the past decade considerable progress has been made in knowledge of how to reduce illness and deaths of mothers in childbirth, how to prevent the death of infants, and how to feed and protect the child in its first critical years. We know more about immunization and have a much better understanding of the subject of nutrition today than formerly. There is some very disturbing evidence, however, that in certain parts of the country, where relief has been markedly inadequate, there is malnutrition among children as well as adults. The best obtainable figures for 1939, based on reports from 43 states, show the average amount of family relief per case for the country as a whole to have been $24.87 a month. In the higher bracket stood New York at $36.45, Pennsylvania at $29.46, Connecticut at $29.28, and Massachusetts at $26.67; in the lower, Arkansas at $4.82, Georgia at $5.29, and North Carolina at $6.11. If the average relief family must live on even $25 per month, the effect on growing children becomes evident. *See* PUBLIC ASSISTANCE. The varieties of afflictions which may grow out of poor nutrition are not easily determined and measured. The price to be paid in the disadvantages to children who have been poorly fed during the past decade will continue to be collected for many years to come.

The task of preserving health and treating disease when it occurs calls for a continuous process of health education. It also calls for such improvements in the administration of the school health program as will apply the available medical resources to the children who need them most. Increased attention should be given to case-finding procedures in the application of school medical practice. A recent school health study in New York City[1] concluded with a series of practical suggestions for both discovering and treating defects in the health of school children. These recommendations would bring the parent into closer relationship with the school physician, nurse, and faculty, and would facilitate the ability of the teacher and nurse to select children for the attention of the physician, thus affording a practical means for spreading a limited service as far as possible.

The health of children is dependent on the health of the family. Measures (possibly under governmental auspices) which will make medical service more readily available for all families of low income are urgently needed. *See* MEDICAL CARE.

Physical and Mental Handicaps

On December 31, 1939, the state-by-state registration of crippled children, provided for by the Social Security Act, showed a total of approximately 250,000 crippled children in need of some kind of care. On the basis of an analysis of this registration it has been estimated that the total number of crippled children under twenty-one years of age in the continental United States is approximately 365,000. In addition to these there are many thousands of children in

[1] Wheatley, George M., "Case-Finding Procedures Developed by the Astoria School Health Study," in *The Child*. May–June, 1940.

conditions of health which, if neglected, may result in permanent crippling. It is not known how many children there are who are blind or partially sighted, or deaf or hard of hearing, who need some form of social service as well as special facilities for treatment and education. The provisions of the Social Security Act have brought about a great increase of service to handicapped children. *See* BLINDNESS AND CONSERVATION OF SIGHT, CRIPPLED CHILDREN, and THE DEAF AND THE HARD OF HEARING.

The number of mentally deficient children who need custodial care or training in an institution, or intelligent care and supervision in their community, is unknown. Estimates vary from 360,000 (that is 1 per cent of the 36,000,000 children in the population under sixteen years of age) to figures five times that high. All school administrators know that there is a large number of subnormal or retarded children who require special educational attention. *See* Mental Deficiency in MENTAL HYGIENE.

Child Behavior

The child's behavior is a manifestation of his mental and emotional health, which in turn is closely related to his physical health. It has become evident that many of the child's behavior problems center in maladjusted family relationships. He loses his parents, or they are antagonistic to each other and he is bewildered in an effort to choose between them; or he finds one or the other or both of them rejecting him or treating him unjustly, or subjecting him to difficult experiences which he cannot handle, or forcing him to live in an intolerable social setting which has the marked disapproval of his associates. All of this tends to make the child feel not only insecure, but also causes him to search for ways to strike back at such a world.

Child-caring agencies have come to realize that many children who come to their doors have been seriously affected by such experiences and that thoughtful procedures are necessary in any attempt to deal with them. The use of social case work and group work, medicine, psychology, and psychiatry has proved helpful in any attempt to understand the whole experience and life of the child. Habit clinics, child guidance clinics, and study homes for children have become numerous, although their work is sometimes superficial and many of them are ill equipped with the means for carrying out even superficial recommendations. The advantage of the study home is that it allows a more casual and an all-round approach to the child for observation of his conduct day by day, whereas the hurried out-patient clinic has many hazards for the child patient. The longer the work in this field of child study is carried on, the more evident it becomes that sound social service is basic in any attempt at diagnosis of and prescription for child behavior.

The crystallization of child study experience into sound, understandable principles is being popularly used for prevention as well as correction. Large numbers of parent-teacher groups, mothers' clubs, and so forth include such material in their programs; and to the extent that they are given well-thought-out and correct principles, the result will no doubt be that thousands of children will be saved from the necessity of going to psychiatric clinics for attention. *See* Psychiatric Clinics for Children in MENTAL HYGIENE.

Delinquent and criminal tendencies start early in life and many social conditions are contributing factors to them. For a discussion of this subject see BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS and JUVENILE AND DOMESTIC RELATIONS COURTS.

Child Play and Recreation

The anonymous freedom which modern conditions give the individual creates new problems for social control and makes more necessary the supervision of many aspects of recreation. Those agencies, both public and private, which provide wholesome opportunities for study and play of one type or another protect the community as well as

individual children from costly and perhaps disastrous social experiences. *See* BOYS' AND GIRLS' WORK ORGANIZATIONS, RECREATION, and YOUTH PROGRAMS.

Many parts of our cities are still wildernesses for thousands of small children, in so far as the provision of constructive and real play opportunities is concerned. The menace of casual street associations is little realized by the taxpayers when they refuse to support well-planned playground activities. The White House Conference on Children in a Democracy emphasized the fact that the provision of opportunity for recreation and informal education still lacks full acceptance as a public responsibility and that existing facilities lag far behind desirable standards.

While there is a real need for private agencies to continue their programs in this field, it is evident that government should assume as great a responsibility for recreation as it has for education and health. It is desirable that each community, rural as well as urban, should appraise its own local recreation situation, studying its parks, schools, museums, camp sites, and so forth, to find out whether they are being used, what they are accomplishing, and what might be done to coordinate their services to the advantages of all the children in the community. The further utilization of school facilities for recreational purposes has frequently been urged. Children in rural and sparsely settled areas, those in low-income families, Negro children, and children of other minority groups should have special attention. The children who are just leaving school and not yet adjusted to outside life, including especially those who do not quickly find employment, also need greater recreational opportunities.

The public libraries of the country are still unable, for financial reasons, to reach the more than eighteen million persons under twenty years of age who are still without local library service. There has been an encouraging development of regional libraries and traveling libraries in recent years. The training of library personnel to guide children in their reading constitutes a recent and substantial contribution to child welfare.

The Child in the Economically Inadequate Home

The child must look to his family for the basic necessities of food, shelter, and clothing. In order to serve the child in this respect the family must have a sufficient income. It is startling to realize that in 1939 between six and eight million children lived in families dependent upon various forms of public assistance for food and shelter. To learn that two-thirds of the children in our cities live in families where the income is less than is necessary for a decent living, and to find that even in families not on relief in this country the income per person drops rapidly as the number of persons in the family increases, is to realize for how many children there is inadequate provision. For example, the per capita income in families of two persons in 1935–1936 was $774; three to four persons, $542; five to six persons, $355; and seven or more persons, $221. In the relief group the average family of four to five persons had an income of $165 per capita in the same year. It is quite obvious that under such conditions many children must be suffering and that malnutrition with its attendant evils is present.

The aid to dependent children program established by the Social Security Act is an outgrowth of the mothers' pension or mothers' aid program of earlier years, and is designed to be a corrective for a part of this low-income situation. This program is now aiding more than 700,000 children. *See* AID TO DEPENDENT CHILDREN.

Many child-caring agencies are receiving fewer applications for care of strictly dependent children, and they attribute some of this falling off to the aid to dependent children program as well as to other relief programs. Certainly, without the relief programs effective during the past few years, child-caring institutions and societies

would be burdened beyond all capacity. Work relief as well as general relief has served to provide many children with basic necessities in their own homes. *See* WORK RELIEF. As far as this has been accomplished, something great has been done for child welfare. Where these measures are inadequate the child is paying a fearful price for the social neglect he suffers.

The Child in the Migrant Family

The plight of the child in the migrant family is especially serious. He not only fails to get adequate food, shelter, and clothing but loses the stability of home and family life. In addition he experiences irregular schooling and suffers an inevitable trend toward vagrancy. The country cannot long afford to overlook this situation. A statement in the report of the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy indicates that there are about 300,000 families engaged in interstate migration. One study[1] has shown about 36 per cent of the migrants to be under fifteen years of age. Long-range and nation-wide measures are urged to prevent the necessity for such continuous traveling by families and to bring that migration which is necessary under such forms of social supervision that large numbers of children will not continue to be neglected. *See* MIGRANTS, TRANSIENTS, AND TRAVELERS.

Children in Minority Groups

Since the White House Conference of 1930, when more attention than ever before was given to the handicaps suffered by children in families of minority groups, there has been a growing consciousness of this problem. These children not only experience some degree of social exclusion but are also apt to have less chance for employment and a lesser share of school, recreation, medical, and other public and private services. While Negroes may suffer most in this regard, it is now realized that there are other racial groups who are similarly disadvantaged. There is increasing recognition that these inequalities among population groups are against all the tenets of democracy and justice. The correcting of the situation will necessitate an educational program of long duration. The attitudes of parents and teachers are of first importance if sentiment is to be developed favorably toward this great group of growing American citizens. *See* IMMIGRANTS, INDIANS, and NEGROES.

Child Labor

Child labor is still a serious problem, although the number of children employed in industry has decreased to a marked degree in recent years. Many children under sixteen years of age are still forced to stop their education in order to go to work and many in the sixteen-to-eighteen-year group need safeguards at their employment. The Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, with its basic sixteen-year minimum age, covers the employment of children in the production of goods for interstate commerce. However, there are still many child workers in intrastate industries. Industrialized agriculture, the street trades, domestic service, and industrialized homework also escape legislative control and continue to exploit children.

The White House Conference on Children in a Democracy recommended a minimum age of sixteen years for all children in employment during school years and for employment at any time in manufacturing or mining occupations. A minimum age of eighteen years was urged for employment in hazardous or injurious occupations; and an employment certification of physical fitness advocated for all minors under eighteen years of age. An extension of the principle of double workmen's compensation benefits for illegally employed minors was recommended for its preventive effect in curtailing child labor. The Confetence in a general session passed a resolution recom-

[1] Farm Security Administration, *A Study of 6655 Migrant Households in California, 1938.* 69 pp. and appendixes. San Francisco. 1939.

mending ratification of the Child Labor Amendment to the Constitution of the United States. *See* Child Labor in LABOR LEGISLATION AND ADMINISTRATION.

Foster Care

Foster care in private homes or in institutions is currently provided in the United States for approximately 300,000 children from broken or inadequate homes. The agencies and services devoted to foster care placement occupy the center of what is generally called the child welfare field.

Certain principles, some of which were stated in the report of the first White House Conference in 1909, have come to be considered basic in this field. It is commonly agreed that family life is generally the best experience for a child, and that children should not be taken from their own parents for reasons of poverty alone. As these principles have come to be more widely accepted, there has developed an emphasis on adequate relief for mothers with dependent children, supplemented by housekeeper or day nursery services provided in certain circumstances as a means of keeping the child's own home intact.

The trend is for child-caring agencies, both public and private, to develop and make available the following services:

1. Provision of opportunities for careful hearings of children's troubles, available to any child who is not thriving in his own home.

2. Efforts to understand the individual child and his problems, using in the process the skills of the social worker, physician, psychologist, psychiatrist, foster mother, and friend.

3. Grants of material relief, as needed, either in the child's own home or outside of it if the child must be removed.

4. Attempts at ordering relationships and conditions in the child's own family, so that he may be kept there if at all practicable.

5. Induction of the child into a foster family, selected with skill and care from among either relatives or strangers, if his own home cannot be made suitable for him.

6. Provision of temporary shelter for the child in an institution, for diagnosis or training, if on careful consideration of all circumstances such care is indicated; or in some cases longer-term placement in an institution instead of in a foster home.

7. Placement of the child in an industrial training school, if the extent of his delinquent tendencies so indicates.

8. Frequent visitation of the child, wherever he may be placed, by a worker coming as an intelligent and understanding friend; this visiting and friendship to be directed toward getting the child into profitable relationships with community forces about him such as church, school, library, playground, and so forth.

9. Well-considered arrangements for a child's adoption by new parents when all hope of ties with his natural parents and relatives is gone, and when his capacities and emotional condition give promise of permanent integration into a new family.

10. Service as legal guardian of the child, aiding him *in loco parentis* as long as necessary and seeing him through the process of formal education and induction into the responsibilities and opportunities of adulthood.

The task is large; but when it is realized that the prospect of delinquency, crime, and mental disorder for these individuals, if they are not salvaged, is very great the importance of the undertaking is evident.

Neglect in the home is, of course, one of the chief reasons why children need agency attention; and early detection and more efficient service at this point are considered to be the best preventive measures. To face the facts of child neglect, with all its implications, is to face the whole problem of social and economic maladjustment. Some parents neglect children because they were never prepared for parenthood; others have degenerated because of their living conditions; while still others have given up in despair because of economic difficulties. Alcohol frequently is a factor in this process.

Dependency which cannot be considered due to neglect accounts for many of the thousands of children under foster care.

Even if our general relief measures, our aid to dependent children, workmen's compensation, and other social programs, worked with a much higher degree of efficiency than they now do, there would still be situations in which children would not have their necessities provided for them while living with their own parents. Many children need temporary care during illness of one or the other parent, or pending some readjustment in the child's own home or in the home of relatives. There are some half-orphans whose remaining parent must work and arrange the child's care in some other home; and there are always some dependent orphans. For a considerable time there has been a marked tendency to use foster family care for an increasing number of types of children such as convalescents, the blind, behavior problem children, and those needing day nursery care. The scope of these types makes evident the reasons for the variety of functions outlined above.

The first approach to the problem of the dependent or neglected child is an investigation of his social situation. There is general recognition that practically any experience of neglect or dependency for any child is a physical and mental experience which may effect damage and is certain, at least, to create an emotional condition which must be understood and kept in mind in any effort at adjustment. Social service with capacities for investigation and understanding of such situations is, therefore, the first requirement. High-grade medical skill, available for each child coming into foster care, is becoming routine. This includes not only a thorough physical examination by a skilled pediatrician but the use of laboratories, X-ray, and other clinical facilities as indicated. Corrective measures, such as minor surgery, dentistry, and so forth, to carry out the recommendations of the diagnostic examinations are not so easily provided, but are recognized by child-caring agencies as being of great importance and are being made increasingly available. Adequate dentistry is greatly needed by this large group of children, but is very difficult to provide since it is not always accessible and its total cost bulks large. The growth in the use of psychologists and psychiatrists is probably the most marked development in the child-caring field. The use of these skills serves to emphasize further the great variability among individual children, first because of their natural endowments and second because of the effects of their varied experiences.

The personal variation leads to emphasis upon individual personality and so influences the whole home-finding procedure. The finding of suitable foster families and the development of them into effective agencies for use in placement is recognized as a specialized part of social service for dependent children. The home-finder must have her own special skills and judgments. While more information is sought than ever before about prospective foster parents and their way of living, less emphasis is placed on the bare facts as such and more on the judgment which grows out of familiarity with these facts and the subtleties experienced while obtaining them. The importance of the interview with the foster parents in their own home is receiving greater emphasis than before, while the interviews with references are considered relatively less significant. The home-finder looks for the motivations of the prospective caretakers of the child and gives them more weight than the family's material circumstances. On this basis, seeing applicants for children at the office for the first interview may eliminate many who are not suitable and thereby save much time and money in the investigational process. The home-finders are usually attached to the staff of the child-caring society in a somewhat separate department.

While there are many arguments advanced for a central home-finding bureau in communities where there are various child-caring agencies, it is the conviction of many experienced workers in the field that this method proves too impersonal in an undertaking which in its essence is highly per-

sonal. In small agencies one person must, of course, combine the work of home-finder and visitor. This method has been tried out in the larger societies without marked success. The visitor who has a long list of children to be seen not only routinely but also in numerous emergency situations finds it difficult to take time to be as objective and as careful as the home-finder must be. In both types of service there is need for flexibility, and it seems from an administrative point of view more practical to attain this through differentiated workers.

Once the child is placed, there follows the business of seeing to it that he thrives in his new situation. While this is often spoken of as supervision, the trend is toward substituting the word "visitation"; and the implications of this somewhat change the attitude of the social worker toward the child and the foster parents. While the visitor does represent the placing agency and does go clothed with certain authority, she does not enter the home as an inspector bent upon running down some fault in the foster home, but goes rather as the associate of the foster parents—who are somewhat like members of the staff—and as a friend and comrade of the foster child. The visitor should be a welcome guest in the family and her visits should be as informal as is consistent with maintaining the dignity and authority which on occasion she may need to exercise. The frequency of visits, of course, depends on many factors in the whole situation, but it continues to be a fact that in the country at large great numbers of children in foster family care do not have adequate visitation by representatives of the agencies or societies responsible for them. The best societies strive to have case loads of no more than approximately 40 children per visitor. When a public bureau for child caring has thousands of children placed in foster family care (Massachusetts has over 8,000 in the care of its Division of Child Guardianship), and charges its visitors with responsibility not only for visiting 150 children but with other duties in addition, it is quite evident that the very forces which have assumed responsibility for safeguarding the child from neglect are in turn neglecting him.

The agencies attempting to place the more difficult children—those who have presented behavior problems in their own homes, schools, or neighborhoods—and which are giving these children careful clinical study are more and more impressed with the importance of the feeling of rejection as a factor in a child's experience, recognizing that such feelings are apt to result in anti-social behavior. It is realized, therefore, that moving a child from foster home to foster home is more damaging than heretofore recognized, as the child may assume that such changes are necessitated by his rejection by the foster parents.

Another complicating factor arises when the agency finds it necessary to assign a new visitor to the child. The social worker becomes a real part of the child's life, and the child is often encouraged to depend on the visitor as a permanent friend. If the visitor moves away or is transferred to other duties the child's sense of insecurity is further increased. Whenever changes in foster parents or visitors become necessary they should be effected with the greatest care and understanding. When a child passes from foster care back to his own home, the responsibility of the society which has had him in care has not ended and visitation continues in his own home, gradually becoming less as readjustment is established.

It is believed that in numbers of efficient child-caring offices today there is abundant evidence that meticulous care exercised in the understanding of the child, in the selection of the foster family, and in frequent visitation has reduced markedly the necessity of placing the child in a series of foster homes.

Institutional Care

Of the 242,929 children under foster care in the country at the last report,[1] 140,352

[1] *See* U. S. Bureau of the Census, *infra cit.*

or nearly 58 per cent were in institutions, the others being in foster families of various types such as free foster homes, boarding homes, and work or wage homes. Thus, for the country as a whole the care of children in institutions is a large factor in the child welfare field. The proportion of children receiving each particular type of care varies widely from state to state, institutional care being the largest in a majority of states. At the last counting in 35 states, over one-half of the children were in institutions; and in five southern states and New Mexico the proportion of dependent children in institutional care exceeded 90 per cent.

Institutional care is considered by many to have certain advantages over foster home care: children in an institution can be observed and supervised according to the standards of the agency for twenty-four hours a day; all the factors of health, education, and training can be controlled; and children can be accustomed to many of the demands of group life which modern society places upon its members. If the children have one or more parents living they can maintain their loyalties to them rather than being forced to adopt foster parents as substitutes.

In the minds of many, however, there are marked disadvantages connected with institutional care. Children are not likely to thrive so well under mass care, either physically or socially, as under more individual attention. Living in an institution tends to keep them from learning to use the natural community resources existing in most neighborhoods. High-grade institutional care is generally more expensive than foster family care, and the foster home system can be more elastic as far as numbers of children and overhead costs are concerned. The child who lives in a foster family seems to have the nearest substitute to a home. He experiences all the subtleties of family life day by day and, through family experiences, picks up many of the practicalities of economics and of social living.

It is widely agreed today that all types of care for dependent children should have the intelligent supervision of the state government. Not all people who are moved to establish institutions or agencies for the care of dependent children can be trusted to give high-grade service. Ignorance of the best methods, or limitations on expenditures for necessities caused either by desire to make money or lack of sufficient financial foundation and standing, may result in poor care and very limited opportunity for the dependent children who have fallen into the hands of a particular agency, no matter how fine-sounding a name it may carry. Institutional standards have been fairly well established and set forth in various pamphlets such as one published by the Child Welfare League of America[1] and others by some state departments of welfare. While there are some textbooks and manuals on what constitutes good institutional care for children, there still is need for a comprehensive treatise on this subject.

The trend in recent years as to a division of function between foster family care and institutional care has been in the direction of shorter time care on the part of the institution. More particularly, the emphasis is on giving specialized services, such as the diagnostic facilities now provided by some study homes, and the training furnished for special age groups and for children who, after a short period of such training, might be expected to adjust in foster family care or in their own homes.

Approximately 23,000 children were in state schools for juvenile delinquents on January 1, 1938, according to the report of the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy. The programs of many state schools for delinquents are far from adequate. Most of them are crowded; in some, the children are not sufficiently supervised and individualized; and in many, the children are discharged too soon and sent

[1] *See* Child Welfare League of America, *Standards of Foster Care for Children in Institutions* (*infra cit.*).

back into the very situations which caused the delinquency for which they were committed to the institution. *See* Institutional Care in BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS.

Day Nurseries, Foster Day Care, and Visiting Housekeeper Service

Closely related to foster care of children away from their natural homes are the services of day nurseries, foster family day care, and visiting housekeepers. Day nurseries, where working mothers may leave young children during their working hours, have been established in congested industrial and business centers in many cities. In 1940 it was estimated that there were approximately 600 in existence, although no recent count had been made.[1] The quality of day nursery service is markedly variable although some progress toward uniform standards has been made since 1938 when the National Association of Day Nurseries was formed. It is recognized as important that the staff of the day nursery should know the circumstances in the families of the children in their care and guard against being a means of disintegrating rather than of building up the family and of unsatisfactorily subsidizing inadequate wages.

As time has gone on, day nurseries not directly connected with industrial establishments have expanded their definition of children who may be taken under care. Admission policies vary greatly, but a common consideration is the economic need of the family for the mother's earnings. Increasingly, however, day nurseries equipped for such service have accepted children because of other conditions in the home, such as overcrowding, illness, or emotional stress, or because special care or training was needed by the children. Some of the early day nurseries started in conjunction with free kindergartens, and the better-equipped institutions have increasingly provided for the educational and recreational needs of the preschool group among the children under their care, as well as for their physical needs. In a few day nurseries special attention is given to habit training and correction of behavior problems, and the services of child guidance clinics are utilized for study and treatment. Perhaps the greatest change that has occurred in institutional day nurseries during the past few years is the introduction of case work service provided either by workers on the nursery staff or by a family or child welfare agency. Day nursery programs are increasingly being integrated with other social service facilities in the community, especially with family welfare agencies.

In some half-dozen cities—Philadelphia, Cleveland, Toronto, Pittsfield (Mass.), Wilmington (Del.), and Montclair (N. J.)—there have been interesting developments in the field of foster family day care. Under this program families willing and fit to care for children during the day have been selected and used for that purpose. They operate under agency supervision and are paid by the agency for the services which they render. Working mothers are thus enabled, under social service supervision, to place their children during the day in a family rather than an institutional setting. This has certain obvious advantages of economy, elasticity, and the chance to share in home and family experiences. It also has certain hazards; and it is true that it can easily degenerate into a careless make-shift, unworthy of the name of social service.

Visiting housekeepers are selected women of dependable character, high domestic standards and abilities, and some special training who, for a fee paid by the father or the agency, serve as "substitute mothers" in families where there is no mother or where she must be away from home temporarily. This plan has the advantage of keeping the child in his own home and natural setting. When the service is high-grade, it is socially constructive. The service is usually provided by family welfare

[1] The National Association of Day Nurseries undertook a census of active day nurseries in September, 1940, but the returns were not available in time for use in this article.

agencies, particularly in Jewish and Catholic agencies where there is a close relationship between work for families and child-placing activities. In New York City the Junior League for several years conducted a demonstration of housekeeper service in cooperation with the New York Children's Aid Society, which now carries on this service. There has also been a considerable development of this service under federal and state auspices during recent years. During the first six months of 1940 an average of 33,000 women were employed by the Work Projects Administration on "housekeeping aid" projects throughout the country.

Adoption

Adoption is a legal process into which social procedures have been injected increasingly during the past few years. Through it, parents relinquish their legal rights and responsibility for the care of a child to another person or persons. With increasing provision of social safeguards in adoptions there has developed more strict regulation of transfer of parental rights. The laws of many states require court action for termination of parental responsibility and transfer of the guardianship of a child to an agency or institution with the authority, specified or implied, to place the child for adoption.

The restrictions placed on adoption are of great concern to many people. Applications for children for adoption appear in the offices of child-caring agencies in numbers greatly exceeding the number of children available. Childless families seek far and wide for "satisfactory" children to adopt. Reliable agencies having in their care children eligible for adoption are usually extremely careful in their placements because of the need to protect the interests not only of the child but of the adoptive and natural parents as well.

The more obvious truths about adoption are: first, that it is possible for it to be a very satisfactory relationship for all concerned; second, that it is not, however, a simple and universal panacea for a dependent child's problems or for the needs of childless couples; and third, that it is an undertaking to be approached with caution. There are sound procedures which, if understood and followed, safeguard the undertaking. The main consideration is to know all that it is possible to know about the child's inheritance, his physical and mental condition, and the capacity of the foster parents to meet his needs. Modern social service and medical and psychological skills make a great deal of such knowledge possible. It is necessary to consider very carefully all the factors governing the adjustments which both the family and the child will be required to make to each other. There are many emotional subtleties involved which, if not understood and taken into account, result in disasters even when the best general methods are followed.

It is generally considered wise to allow the child to live with the foster parents for a year before adoption is consummated in court. More extensive precautions are required by the laws of many states, such as reference of the petition to adopt to some child welfare agency for a complete check-up before adoption is allowed.

Because of the absence of official statistics, information in regard to numbers of adoptions has been available only through occasional studies in certain localities. Conditions differ so widely in the various states and cities that the findings of these studies may have only local application. It is known, however, that a considerable proportion of adoptions concern children of illegitimate birth. Children of legitimate birth for whom adoption decrees are granted are in the majority of cases adopted by relatives, as are many of those born out of wedlock. From one-third to more than one-half of the total number of adopted children included in various studies were placed in the adoption homes by agencies licensed or authorized to place children in family

homes. A large number of children are placed for adoption by doctors, nurses, and commercial maternity homes, and by parents and other individuals without the aid of social agencies.

Children of Unmarried Parents

Many children are born of unmarried parents. The exact number is not known but is generally estimated at approximately 75,000, or about 4 per cent of all live births in the United States. Some 35,000 of these children are white and 40,000 Negro. Birth out of wedlock is responsible for a large part of the burden of dependency that is borne by public and private child-caring institutions and agencies. According to the last enumeration by the United States Bureau of the Census of dependent children in institutions and in foster homes (December 31, 1933), 15 per cent (31,776) of the total number were children of illegitimate birth. Of all white children in foster care on the given date, 13 per cent were reported to be born out of wedlock, and of all Negro children, 22 per cent. A considerable proportion of adoptions concern children of illegitimate birth. Because of the informal nature of many transfers of custody these children are in special need of protection from conditions detrimental to their welfare.

Illegitimate births occur in all strata of society, but many children born out of wedlock are handicapped by bad physical and mental heredity. It is necessary to exercise particular care in arranging for the placement of these children who are deprived of their birthright of a normal home. Many of the mothers are themselves children and in need of the care and protection of social agencies. Various studies have shown that girls under eighteen years of age comprise one-fourth or more of the total number of unmarried mothers.

The problem is perhaps as prevalent in small towns and rural areas as in large cities, but provision for special protection and care is concentrated largely in cities. Reports to the United States Children's Bureau by 85 maternity homes located in 39 cities showed that 9,116 women were under care of these homes at some time in 1937; and 47 per cent of these unmarried mothers resided in areas other than those in which the homes were located. Some of them undoubtedly came from other large cities, but most maternity homes receive prospective mothers from wide areas. This problem calls for the service of a variety of agencies such as maternity homes for the care of mothers before and immediately following the birth of their children, social services available to the mother and her family, legal aid aimed at securing support from the father, and the services of child-caring societies for the boarding of the child or for arranging and safeguarding adoptions. There is need for additional broad educational efforts with emphasis on the preventive value of happy family relations, the meaning of marriage and family life, and the rights of children to be well born. It is generally considered that more emphasis in the schools on vocational training and guidance, better employment, and more and better public recreational opportunities should prove important factors in reducing illegitimacy.

Every effort to improve birth registration is an advantage. Records of births out of wedlock should be confidential and open to inspection only upon order of the court and for legitimate school or work purposes. The name of the father should be recorded on the birth certificate only after adjudication of paternity or upon his written consent. In recent years new legislation has been passed making it possible to issue birth records which protect the child. It is now provided in some states that the birth certificate may not disclose any facts except the date and place of the child's birth. In some states births out of wedlock are reportable to the state child welfare agency, and sometimes the state itself becomes the guardian of the child.

Child Welfare Services under the Security Act

Great impetus has been given to child welfare work throughout the country by the provisions of Title V, Part 3, of the federal Social Security Act of 1935. This section of the Act, administered by the United States Children's Bureau, authorizes an annual appropriation for federal grants to the states for the following purposes: (a) "to cooperate with State public-welfare agencies in establishing, extending, and strengthening, especially in predominantly rural areas, public-welfare services (hereinafter in this section referred to as 'child-welfare services') for the protection and care of homeless, dependent, and neglected children, and children in danger of becoming delinquent"; and (b) to pay part of the costs of district, county, or other local child welfare services in these areas. Annual appropriations of $1,500,000 were authorized until 1940 when, by amendment made in 1939, the amount was increased to $1,510,000.

For this program, no fixed ratio of financial contribution by the state or local government to the contribution of the federal government is required. However, a plan directed toward carrying out both of the purposes mentioned in the Act and showing the extent of state or local participation in meeting the cost of the local service must be submitted by the state and approved by the Children's Bureau. Each cooperating state is allotted $10,000 for each fiscal year, and the remainder of the federal appropriation is apportioned on the basis of the plans made, not to exceed for each state "such part of the remainder as the rural population of such State bears to the total rural population of the United States." Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, and the District of Columbia are included in the Act's provisions.

In developing the plans for these services the Children's Bureau has set up an advisory committee of persons experienced in child welfare work, many of them from the private field. The Bureau has approved using federal funds for the payment of part of the cost of district, county, or other local child welfare services in rural areas, and for developing state service for the encouragement and assistance of adequate methods of community child welfare organizations in such areas. In September, 1940, approved plans were in operation in all 48 states, Alaska, Hawaii, and the District of Columbia. Service under these plans has been developed in most states on a county basis, although in some states a regional basis has been used.

This program makes no money available for actual relief or for the boarding of children. The emphasis has been on service and the demonstration of its value; on discoveting needs, both of individuals and families and of neighborhoods, and on putting such persons in touch with possible resources; on integrating the work into the general public welfare program; on instigating preventive measures; and on otherwise stimulating the thought and activity of these especially needy areas in the direction of the conservation and development of their children. A development of better-financed and stronger local child welfare services is resulting from this demonstration work.

On June 30, 1939, in 45 states, a total of 459 child welfare workers were employed by local or state welfare boards in covering 478 local areas with intensive case work services for children, and 690 areas with more scattered service.[1] There is a clearly defined trend toward establishment of civil service merit systems for such work within the states; and wherever such systems are initiated, the Children's Bureau has taken the position that workers in child welfare programs paid in all or part from federal funds should be included. *See* PERSONNEL PRACTICES IN PUBLIC WELFARE. Through these workers, thousands of children and their families have found heretofore unrealized resources available for their specific

[1] *See* p. 136 in *Twenty-Seventh Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor, for the Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1939.*

needs. It is probable that the influence of this program on the standards of public welfare work in general will be considerable.

Child Welfare Agencies

There are many types of child welfare agencies, both public and private, in operation throughout the country. The greatest number of them have as their major function the care of children away from their own homes either in foster families or in institutions. There are approximately 1,600 children's institutions and probably more than 400 child-placing agencies in the United States. Many of these agencies and institutions have included in the services the function of helping children in their own homes. Other child welfare agencies, while not undertaking the direct care of children, work with families and neighborhoods to safeguard individual children and to improve the conditions of living surrounding all children.

Social case work is the basic technique used by child-caring agencies, although it must be admitted that some organizations still attempt to serve children without any case work worthy of the name. Skilled personnel and high standards of performance are, of course, essential to good performance. *See* EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK and SOCIAL CASE WORK.

There continues to be considerable discussion as to whether child welfare work should not be more closely integrated with family social work. *See* FAMILY SOCIAL WORK. There is no doubt that both types of agencies often perform the same functions, and that the child welfare agency places more and more emphasis on attempts at ordering the child's own family with an aim to making it a satisfactory place for the child to live. The fact remains, however, that there are special knowledges and skills which are useful in dealing with children; and that these are often best developed in a children's agency. It is the old story of increased efficiency which can be obtained through specialization. In large communities, at least, there seems to be room for the specialized child welfare agency in addition to the family agency.

The first White House Conference on Child Welfare in 1909 was conscious of the multiplicity of agencies and diversity in methods and standards among them, and recommended that an unofficial national organization for the promotion of child care be established. The Child Welfare League of America was organized in 1915 to effectuate this recommendation. The League is an alliance of organizations caring for and serving children in the United States and Canada. In its membership are approximately 170 organizations including children's aid societies, institutions, state or county welfare departments, and other agencies having direct or indirect responsibility for foster care of dependent and neglected children, and for the care of those children whose homes are inadequate or unable to meet their needs. Articles of agreement for inter-society service have been established and a directory of membership published. The League maintains a continuous clearance of information among its member agencies on the best ideas and methods developed in the field. Through its board, committees, and consultants, standards are worked out and promulgated. Regional conferences are held at which subjects of both a general and technical nature are discussed. The League helps its member agencies relate their work to the broad public welfare services being developed in the country. It publishes bulletins and pamphlets which find circulation not only among the member agencies but also among a large number of professional and lay people interested in social work for children. It has done considerable community survey work and has rendered a great deal of consultant service on social service planning and organization for child welfare. Dr. Carl C. Carstens was its executive director until July 3, 1939, when his death deprived not only

the League but the whole field of child welfare of his outstanding leadership.

The United States Children's Bureau is another organization organized in response to a recommendation of the first White House Conference. The Bureau was established by Congress in 1912. In the beginning its primary function was the collection and dissemination of facts concerning the well-being of children in the United States. It soon, however, became an agency to which anyone dealing with dependent children and seeking to do better work could turn for reliable information as to laws and practices and find a dependable and expert interpretation of facts. Through the years the publications of the Bureau have constituted a veritable library on the many aspects of child life and on the services designed for the betterment of opportunities for children everywhere. The Children's Bureau's administrative responsibilities have been greatly increased under the Social Security Act, which charges it with supervision of the programs of maternal and child health, services for crippled children, and child welfare services.

Beginning in 1909, national conferences on various aspects of child welfare, known as White House Conferences, have been held at approximately ten-year intervals. The most recent was the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, held in January, 1940. This Conference addressed itself to all the interests of all the children of the nation, and to every aspect of child welfare including home life, material security, education, health, and general preparation for the responsibilities of free citizenship in a democracy. *See* WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCES.

In the summer of 1940 the United States Committee for the Care of European Children was organized to find homes in this country for children being evacuated from war-torn Europe. The activities of the Committee were curtailed in October by decision of the British government to risk no more movements of evacuees overseas. *See* Refugees from German Oppression in IMMIGRANTS.

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CIVIC AND FRATERNAL ORGANIZATIONS are not social agencies, by any precise definition of the term. Yet their contributions in support and service to social welfare are generous; and they provide a ready source of valuable citizen cooperation upon which social agencies can, and do, draw. A complete story of their welfare activities would be long and necessarily more searching than the scope of this report permits. The following discussion presents framework information; for more detailed data the reader is referred to reports and other publications of the various organizations.

Men's Service Clubs

The service club movement as a continuous development began in 1905 when the first Rotary Club was founded in Chicago. The first federation dates from 1910 when the National Association of Rotary Clubs, later Rotary International, was formed. Today fifteen or more national or international men's service club federations exist—in addition to the hundreds of purely local community luncheon clubs of similar type without federation affiliations. The roster includes Rotary International, Kiwanis International, Lions International, Exchange National (which claims filial relationship with a Detroit Boosters Club started in 1896), Civitan International, Torch, Gyro, Active, and others—the first four constituting over 90 per cent of the individual clubs as well as total membership. The American membership of these organizations probably exceeds half a million.

Essentially associations of business and professional men who recognize that self-help and community service are interrelated, service clubs have assumed increasing responsibility in civic improvement projects, "good government" programs, and social welfare activities. Thus, along with objectives designed to develop high ethical standards in business and professions, they set forth objectives designed to promote greater citizen participation in government and others to improve the condition of underprivileged children and provide medical care for the needy.

Marden, in *Rotary and Its Brothers* (*infra cit.*), makes certain significant observations. Welfare activities which involve a personal relationship between the members of the club as donors and the beneficiaries of their generosity, he says, are embraced with a greater enthusiasm than activities of a less personal character. Further, these activities as a rule are not sustained or systematic. Usually, also, the underprivileged child strikes the most responsive chord in the service club member's charitable disposition.

Welfare activities of service clubs range from one or more occasional friendly aids to "unfortunate people" to more pretentious, systematic, and sustained activities. Generally all fields of social work are represented among the local clubs' activities. Many of the clubs' programs are self-initiated and conducted; others primarily support the work of established agencies. In

larger communities, where several clubs exist side by side, councils have been formed to avoid duplication of effort.

The following summaries of welfare activities conducted by some of the larger organizations indicate the scope of their programs.

Rotary International, the organization of which all Rotary Clubs are members, pursues no course of corporate action. However, its local clubs carry on a wide range of general activities which Rotary terms "community service." That includes:

1. Youth service activities—embracing, among others, boys' and girls' clubs, establishment of camps, character education, child welfare, cooperation with youth clubs and movements, activities designed to reduce juvenile delinquency, establishment of playgrounds and other recreational facilities, establishment of scholarships, administration of student loan funds, and occupational guidance, training, and placements.

2. Health service activities—embracing, among others, establishment of dental and medical clinics and hospital service, work for crippled children, promotion of fresh air funds and rest camps, provision of nursing service.

3. Civic welfare activities—embracing, among others, relief for the blind, adult education projects, participation in the work of charitable and relief organizations and community chests, establishment of day nurseries, betterment of housing conditions, encouragement of organized recreation, work toward improvement of jury service, efforts aimed toward reduction of vice and crime conditions.

Kiwanis International conducts a similar range of activities through its local clubs. For the year 1939 that organization listed 79 classifications of services rendered, which included: adult relief, assistance to charity organizations, athletics for the underprivileged child, boys' work, camps and educational assistance for underprivileged children, girls' work, institutional assistance, orthopedic assistance, playgrounds and recreation, rural betterment, vocational guidance, youth employment services, and others. Each classification was further subdivided into specific services.

Lions International also maintains a comparable spread of activities through local clubs. The organization reported at its 1939 convention that for one year a total of 41,879 "activities" were carried on within the eight major committees through which all of the association's clubs conduct their work. The committees are: boys' and girls'; citizenship and patriotism; civic improvements; community betterment; education; health and welfare; safety; and sight conservation and blind. The last-named represents one of the major interests of the organization through which Lions clubs conduct eyesight and blind surveys, provide eye examinations and treatment, give free tuition in Braille reading and writing, provide white canes and guide dogs, and give other services.

Women's Organizations

With ideals, ideas, and programs much like their larger and more numerous masculine counterparts, several women's service club organizations function throughout the country. Among them are the International Association of Altrusa Clubs which, begun in 1917, is the oldest; the Quota Club International; and Zonta International. Either individually or in cooperation with local agencies, their local units participate in community and welfare services such as vocational guidance to boys and girls, crime prevention work, and health activities.

The National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs, backed by a membership of 72,500, assumes as its special responsibility the professional advancement of women. In so doing it maintains an active legislative program, supporting such measures as the Child Labor Amendment, federal aid to public education, and the merit system in government.

Social welfare programs which often are more sharply focused than those of men's and women's service clubs are carried on by

such forceful organizations of women as the National League of Women Voters. Operating locally through 560 local Leagues, that organization works on problems of juvenile delinquency, child welfare, relief, public welfare, housing, public health, and many others. Local Leagues not only sponsor meetings, study groups, and forums, but independently or in union with social agencies employ personal suasion, lobbying, the ballot, and concerted publicity drives to push through such projects as construction of juvenile homes, revamping of juvenile courts and laws, modernization of school health regulations, and establishment of adequate recreational facilities. The national office in 1939 issued study kits on juvenile delinquency which have been widely used.

The General Federation of Women's Clubs functions nationally and locally through departments which include the following: American citizenship, American home, legislation, and public welfare. Because of its scope, the last-named department is broken up into the following divisions: community service, child welfare, Indian welfare, public health, and crime control and prevention. The Federation has pledged active support to the follow-up program of the 1940 White House Conference on Children in a Democracy.

The American Association of University Women, through its hundreds of branches, maintains active interest in the study of welfare problems. While many branches long have contributed volunteer service to private social agencies in their cities, the establishment in the national office of a committee on social studies has effected a larger and more coordinated program in this field. The organization has published a guide for the study of welfare facilities in the community and each year issues a supplementary kit of materials covering aspects of the national welfare programs. Engaging the attention of the Association and its branches recently were problems of child welfare, labor standards and legislation, migrants, unemployed young people, health and medical care, relief administration, social security, and others.

The Association of the Junior Leagues of America at its national headquarters maintains a welfare department staffed by professional social workers. The department acts in a liaison capacity between the local Leagues and local professional social workers, and between the locals and national social agencies. It gives advice on welfare projects, the development of volunteer service programs, volunteer placement and training, and other problems—all tying directly into the League regulations which require a continued and specific amount of volunteer service for membership. *See* VOLUNTEERS IN SOCIAL WORK. Local Leagues engage in community programs of health, child welfare, family welfare, recreation, and education and occasionally conduct studies of social needs and resources in their communities.

Fraternal Orders

In Meadville, Pa., in 1869, the then young Ancient Order of United Workmen instituted a fraternal life insurance system embracing all members, irrespective of race or creed. Two years later the widow of an A.O.U.W. member received the first benefit paid by that society—and probably any society in the fraternal system—the tidy sum of $265. How the fraternal benefit system spread during the succeeding seven decades is evident at a glance. The publication, *Statistics, Fraternal Societies*,[1] for January 1, 1940, listed 187 American fraternal societies furnishing insurance as a special feature, with a total of $6,609,444,732 worth of insurance in force among 7,870,259 members.

Some fraternal organizations provide services or insurance benefits as the main motive for membership; others are purely—or primarily—fraternal. Great variety exists among fraternal orders in both general

[1] *See* Fraternal Monitor, *infra cit.*

classifications, with occupational, racial, national, religious, and educational factors governing purposes and programs. Both types maintain welfare activities which generally, though with marked exceptions, are reserved for members and their families.

Thus, a 1938 report on 150 insurance fraternals showed that 75 engaged in welfare activities, while 60 participated in sport and athletic activities, 112 in religious, 66 in educational, and 104 in general entertainment activities. Welfare activities comprised such services as assisting underprivileged children, maintaining summer camps, giving flowers to sick members, providing aid to crippled children, assisting in the support of hospitals, cooperating in child health weeks, and others.

Many fraternal orders operate homes for aged members and for orphans and half-orphans of members, sanatoria for tubercular members, systems of support for fatherless families, and sickness benefits, in addition to their insurance contracts. Some orders maintain camps, milk funds, and scholarship funds for children other than those of members.

The Shriners, members of a branch of the Masonic order, operate 15 orthopedic hospitals exclusively for children from low-income homes regardless of race, color, or creed. The program began in 1922 when, to finance it, the members voted an annual assessment upon themselves of $2.00 each. Since then over 65,000 deformed children have been cured or materially benefited. Total investment in hospital buildings, land, and equipment represents about $6,500,000. The Supreme Council, 33rd degree, Scottish Rite Masons, Northern Masonic Jurisdiction, in 1934 undertook a continuing project of an unusual nature—the financing of research in dementia praecox. The Council grants $50,000 a year which is administered by the National Committee for Mental Hygiene and an advisory committee of psychiatric and medical scientists. Various Masonic jurisdictions either employ social workers or work closely with social agencies.

For some years the Loyal Order of Moose maintained extensive relations with social agencies in its program of subsidizing fatherless families in its membership.

Other organizations operate similarly. As in service clubs, however, the personnel chosen to conduct the welfare activities of fraternal orders often are employed without regard to their knowledge of modern social work practice.

One branch of the fraternal realm in which welfare work has been undertaken with imagination and skill is the college sorority. Some sororities, such as Gamma Phi Beta and Alpha Gamma Delta, maintain summer camps for underprivileged children. Others have sponsored health and community centers and health funds. Alpha Epsilon Phi has operated an open-air camp and day nursery in one city, a bungalow for orphans in another, and dental clinics in two more. College fraternities have not been comparably active, although some recently have provided homes and scholarships for refugee students from other nations.

Welfare legislation, including taxation for welfare purposes, is a major interest of some fraternal orders. The insurance fraternals have a special interest in legal regulations affecting insurance. In some states fraternal orders have been influential in securing legislation for old age pensions.

Other Organizations

Numerous other organizations which exist for some primary purpose other than social work make important impacts on human welfare through service programs. The American Legion is an example of a veterans' organization in that classification. A child welfare program of wide scope and significance has been carried on since 1925 through the American Legion National Child Welfare Division. The purpose of the Legion's child welfare program is: "To assure care and protection to children of veterans of the World War and to improve conditions for all children by influencing

and securing better facilities through public and private resources; to obtain constructive legislation for the benefit of the children . . .; to insure proper and efficient administration. . . ." The Legion has worked effectively in many states toward improving child welfare provisions, supporting revisions of laws affecting children, and improving qualifications of personnel in public institutions, as well as in supporting sections of the Social Security Act which benefit children.

Church groups, parent-teacher associations, labor unions, neighborhood clubs, commercial associations, and many other groups sponsor or operate social welfare activities. Social agencies throughout the country maintain cooperative relationships with them and are alert to any opportunity to win their understanding and support.

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CIVIL LIBERTIES,[1] commonly acknowledged as essential to a democratic state, comprise those public and personal rights pertaining to freedom of speech, press, and assembly which are granted by the federal and state constitutions. Liberty to discuss all matters of public concern is protected, without discrimination, against hindrance by governmental agencies or private citizens. Supplementing these assurances of freedom of expression are the constitutional provisions which relate to the rights of defendants in criminal proceedings and assure equal justice regardless of race or religion.

The rise of totalitarian states, with the attendant suppression of these rights abroad, has awakened in this country an increasing awareness of the significance of civil liberties. Widespread interest in preserving these liberties, heightened by the possibility of American entrance into the war, may be discerned in the addresses of public officials, the editorial pages of the press, the platforms of political parties, and regional conferences on current issues.

Types of Violations

Infringements of civil rights are most frequently experienced by wage-earners attempting to organize, members of unpopular political groups, Negroes, and the foreign born. Generally these infringements take the form of private violence or judicial or legislative curbs on personal liberty.

The usual types of violations generally follow a fixed pattern. Legal or extra-legal obstacles may be placed in the way of minor political parties or candidates seeking to get on the ballot. In the administration of justice defendants may be denied adequate counsel, tried by a hand-picked blue-ribbon

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

jury, or subjected to unlawful search and seizure, the third degree, or tapping of telephone wires. Aliens may be excluded or deported because of their political views. *See* IMMIGRANTS. In the schools students may be penalized for expressing unorthodox opinions in their periodicals or subjected to practices conflicting with their religious beliefs. Teachers may be forced to take "loyalty oaths" or be discharged or barred from employment for holding unconventional views or for attempting to organize for collective bargaining.

In industrial conflicts there may be interference with peaceful picketing and the distribution of handbills in public places, and meetings may be broken up by police or mobs inspired by employers. Strikers are occasionally "deported" from the area of conflict, industrial spies employed, and the state militia called out to suppress strikes. *See* LABOR RELATIONS.

Negroes are beaten, lynched, discriminated against in employment, deprived of the vote through poll taxes, barred from public services, and denied rights equal to those of white citizens by social discriminations, segregation laws, intermarriage bans, and other means. *See* NEGROES. Censorship of motion pictures in advance of showing is exercised by boards in seven states and by official and unofficial police censors in a number of cities. Controversial speeches on the radio are sometimes cut off or expurgated by broadcasting stations. Matter alleged to be "obscene" or "seditious" is excluded from the mails by Post Office authorities. Other issues of civil liberty arise in connection with bans on birth control information, compulsory fingerprinting, and in general the pressures for conformity to conventional patriotism and religion.

On the other hand there is little interference with the right to assemble in city streets, parks, or meeting halls. While most municipalities require permits for street meetings, in only a few cities are they refused or is discrimination shown in granting them. Freedom of the press is rarely attacked except through attempted curbs on distribution of leaflets. Invasions of religious liberty are likewise sporadic, an outstanding exception being the numerous cases involving the right of the Jehovah's Witnesses sect to propagate its beliefs and to refrain from saluting the flag in public schools.

Until recently the dominating issues were associated with the struggle between labor and capital. As the National Labor Relations Board and similar agencies in the states began to settle amicably an increasing number of disputes and the United States Supreme Court strengthened the rights of labor to distribute leaflets, hold street meetings, and picket without interference, the number of strikes dropped sharply with a consequent decrease in strike violence. Exposure by the Senate Committee on Civil Liberties of the extent of industrial espionage and armament in industry went far to eliminate these abuses. Attacks in Congress and throughout the country upon the National Labor Relations Act, however, seem destined to weaken this protective machinery.

Current Emphases

There has been a shift in emphasis since the outbreak of the war toward persecution of unpopular political groups, an apparent yielding to inflamed public opinion. Much of the pressure arises from a vast propaganda and often hysterical efforts to combat the so-called "fifth column" or "Trojan horse" activities of opponents of democracy. Steps to interfere with the rights of labor, the foreign born, and political minorities are also taken in the name of "national defense." Hitherto the widespread propaganda against Communism was directed not so much against the Communist Party as against trade unionism and progressive movements in which Communists participated. Recently, through application of criminal statutes, leading Communists and German-American Nazis have been prose-

cuted by both federal and state authorities and convicted on such technical charges as passport violations, defalcation of small sums, and criminal libel. Partly responsible for what many consider excesses in this connection was the President's proclamation in September, 1939, of a "national emergency," which was followed by increased activity by the Federal Bureau of Investigation and local law enforcement agencies in combating "subversive activities, espionage and sabotage." Such efforts often result in curtailing civil liberties. Public feeling has been further aroused by reports of investigations by the House Committee on Un-American Activities, headed by Representative Dies of Texas. Illegal raids on offices of organizations under inquiry were staged, membership lists sought, and inflammatory hearings widely publicized by this Committee. With the public's fears of foreign influences thus whipped up, proposals have been gaining currency for the suppression of movements regarded as hostile to American interests. Another result was the passage by Congress of the most sweeping assault on civil liberties by law in years, an act which for the first time during peace establishes the federal crime of opinion. It penalizes utterances or publications held likely to cause disobedience in the armed forces, thus opening the door to prosecutions of pacifist literature.

Prejudices fanned by the war and the Dies Committee hearings have produced an animosity toward the foreign born in the United States that has been reflected in over one hundred bills in Congress designed to curtail their rights. One of the measures that became law requires the fingerprinting and registration of all aliens and enlarges the grounds for deportation. While the number of aliens deported for political views has dropped markedly in the past few years, there is an increasing discrimination against them in both private and public employment. A number have been denied citizenship because they have been on relief rolls, and others because of pacifist views.

Other symptoms of repression include intense propaganda against the militant trade union movement and progressive forces. Anti-Semitism, long latent, has come out in the open stimulated by Nazi propaganda, utterances of Charles E. Coughlin, and literature produced by hundreds of self-styled patriotic organizations. Overt lynchings of Negroes have decreased markedly in recent years due to the threat in Congress to adopt a federal anti-lynching law; but underground violence and discriminations continue. A new and dangerous threat to civil liberties is embodied in a number of proposals to take away the vote from all who are on relief. Operation of the Selective Training and Service Act of 1940 is certain to give rise to numerous cases of conscientious objectors refusing to accept service. The Act itself provides partial exemption only for religious objectors.

Recent Gains

These assaults on the Bill of Rights are perhaps balanced by advances permanently safeguarding our guarantees. Largely responsible for this steady improvement have been the milestone decisions of the United States Supreme Court in recent years. By voiding state laws prohibiting pickering, upholding the National Labor Relations Act which gives workers the right to organize free of interference from employers, invalidating municipal ordinances interfering with distribution of handbills and holding of street meetings, and prohibiting state courts from enjoining picketing even where no strike exists, the Court has considerably reinforced the rights of labor. Its ruling against Mayor Hague of Jersey City, N. J., strengthened the rights of assemblage and laid the basis for further use of federal court injunctions to enforce civil liberties. Other decisions outlawed wire-tapping evidence; invalidated a Connecticut law requiring a permit to solicit funds for religious purposes; upheld the right of a Negro student to enter a state university law school; pre-

vented the deportation of an alien because of a brief membership in the Communist Party some years ago; freed four Negroes convicted of murder on the basis of forced "confessions"; voided an attempt in Oklahoma to prevent by law the registration of Negroes for voting; clarified the right of freedom of assemblage in Oregon where a criminal syndicalism act was declared unconstitutional; and reversed the conviction of a Negro Communist sentenced to a chain-gang merely for possession of Communist literature. State and lower federal courts have also rendered decisions advancing civil liberty.

Likewise encouraging have been the freeing of Tom Mooney and Warren K. Billings, long *causes celebrés* for their conviction on "framed" charges in California. Stronger support for civil liberties has come from influential groups such as the American Bar Association, which has created a national Committee on the Bill of Rights and has filed briefs *amicus curiae* in two Supreme Court cases. Public officials in general have manifested a greater respect for the Bill of Rights. The creation of a Civil Liberties Unit in the Department of Justice to investigate and act on civil liberties violations under federal jurisdiction was a step forward. While it has been slow in getting started, the Unit is potentially a force in preventing abuses.

Industry, fearful of governmental regulation, has shown some inclinations, however slight, toward setting up its own civil liberties safeguards. In radio, where the Federal Communications Commission has exerted a form of "back-door" censorship and station program directors have frequently discriminated unfairly in selecting speakers and topics, the National Association of Broadcasters has promulgated a self-regulating code designed to permit the expression of all points of view and to keep monied groups from monopolizing the air on controversial public issues. It seems to have been administered with reasonable fairness thus far.

Pending Issues

Chief among the pending issues involving civil liberties are:

1. A program in Congress designed to strengthen civil rights, including consideration of the Oppressive Labor Practices bill outlawing the use of industrial munitions and labor spies, the anti-lynching bill, elimination of poll tax requirements for voting in eight southern states, the substitution of court proceedings for the administrative Post Office censorship over the mails, a curb on the use of state troops in strikes, a ban on private military organizations or drilling with arms, and a measure abolishing the power of the President to take over control of the radio in a "national emergency." Also of great concern is the final outcome of measures curtailing the rights of aliens and weakening the National Labor Relations Act.

2. Appeals pending in the United States Supreme Court and in higher federal and state courts concern the conviction for contempt of newspaper editors in Los Angeles and St. Louis for commenting editorially on pending court cases, and a similar contempt case involving a labor leader's criticism of a court decision; the conviction of a labor leader under an Iowa criminal syndicalism law; a test of the constitutionality of a law barring Communists and Bundists from employment by the Work Projects Administration; a test of the Oregon law controlling labor unions; the use of the Sherman Anti-Trust Act against trade unions; the denial of citizenship to aliens because they are or have been on relief; constitutionality of a New York State law authorizing return of a family to its legal domicile outside the state if it receives relief within one year of entering; and validity of a California law punishing persons for helping indigent relatives to enter the state.

3. The continued inquiries into "un-American activities" being made by the Dies Committee and the Committee's attempt to force publication of membership lists of organizations.

Agencies in the Field

Among the national organizations set up for the defense of civil liberties the most

active and effective is the 20-year-old nonpartisan American Civil Liberties Union. With headquarters in New York City, it has 6,000 members and hundreds of attorneys and representatives in various sections of the country. Special problems are handled by subsidiary committees: the National Council on Freedom from Censorship, the National Committee on Labor Injunctions, and committees dealing with academic freedom, religious liberties, conscientious objectors, rights of aliens and Indians, labor and employer rights, civil liberties in American colonies, and education for civil liberties. The Union operates by means of legal defense in the courts, tests of laws believed to violate constitutional guarantees, opposition to restrictive legislation, pressure on public officials to protect civil rights, and publicizing of facts on current issues.

In restricted fields there are many other agencies. Among them are: the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, defending rights of Negroes; International Labor Defense, a working-class organization alleged to be under Communist auspices; Workers' Defense League, a Socialist group; National Advisory Council on Academic Freedom, a cooperative body; American Committee for Protection of Foreign Born, specializing in fighting deportation cases; the new National Federation for Constitutional Liberties, a federation of trade unions and progressive groups; the Common Council for American Unity (formerly the Foreign Language Information Service), concerned with the welfare of the foreign born; and the International Juridical Association, which deals with the legal problems of labor and civil rights. A number of professional associations have committees on civil rights: the National Lawyers Guild, American Bar Association, National Education Association, and the American Association of University Professors. Socially minded educators and scientists have organized the new American Committee for Democracy and Intellectual Freedom. A similar group is the Committee for Cultural Freedom. The Southern Conference for Human Welfare has a civil rights committee chiefly concerned with poll taxes, lynching, and labor problems. On particular cases or issues temporary committees composed of representatives of interested organizations are set up. Finally, in many regions local leagues and conferences have sprung up dedicated to "democratic action" and preservation of civil rights.

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COMMUNITY CHESTS. All but four American cities of over 100,000 population[1] now have some degree of federated financing among their voluntary social agencies. *See* FINANCING PRIVATE SOCIAL WORK. The largest city to have recently organized a federated financing plan is New York City which, in 1938, established the Greater New York Fund to supplement the financial efforts of several hundred social welfare and health agencies, by providing funds raised from corporations and their employes. While the Greater New York Fund and the earlier organized Chicago Community Fund, from which the Greater New York Fund is somewhat patterned, do nor follow the traditional community chest pattern of a community-wide appeal for funds from all groups, they do adhere to the second chest principle of distributing funds according to an agreed budget procedure.

With practically all larger cities already on a federated basis, the continuing rapid growth of the community chest movement is obviously in the smaller cities. Many communities of 25,000, 10,000, and even 5,000 population and less have attempted with varying success to form chests. In this connection it is significant that no cities of over 100,000 population have permanently abandoned federated financing after having tried the plan, while about one-third of the cities under 25,000 have abandoned the idea after a period of trial. Chests appear to have been most successful in cities from 50,000 up in population.

Community chests are cooperative organizations of citizens and social welfare agencies which perform the two functions of (a) raising funds each year for the social welfare and health agencies affiliated with them, and (b) promoting the social welfare and health of the communities in which they operate. The funds which they secure are raised by community-wide appeals and are distributed in accordance with agreed budget procedures. Community chests do not always go by that name, many cities having adopted the term "community fund," "welfare federation," "welfare union," "welfare league," or similar designation. A council of social agencies is an organization, generally a part of the chest and always closely affiliated where there is a chest, which takes primary responsibility for the second of the two functions. It may be described as the social planning ally of the chest. *See* COUNCILS IN SOCIAL WORK. The functions of finance on the one hand and social planning and program building on the other, ordinarily associated with chests and councils respectively, are really dual aspects of the same basic function, which is ro provide the best possible program of social welfare and health services for a community. *See* COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION FOR SOCIAL WORK. Thus chests and councils are really inseparable, in terms of close working relationships, although they are separate entities in some cities. If chests and councils are not organically associated, a working relationship is secured through various constitutional and administrative devices which enable them to work closely together in providing social work leadership.

[1] Camden, N. J.; Fall River, Mass.; Waterbury, Conn.; and Wilmington, Del.

History and Growth

While various experiments in federated financing were attempted in earlier years, some of these persisting to the present day in modified form, the first modern chest is credited to Cleveland which organized its Federation of Charities and Philanthropy in 1913. However, Cleveland's example was followed by very few cities prior to the World War of 1914–1918. That event gave the chest movement its first great impetus, since many cities started war chests which were converted into community chests in the years of peace which followed. There were only 39 chests in 1920, raising about $20,000,000, but by 1928 there were 314, raising about $68,500,000.

Community Chests

The depression, beginning in 1929 and bringing another great period of stress and strain, furnished a second marked impetus to the movement. By 1940 the number of chests had increased to 552 with a sum of slightly over $86,000,000 raised. This is the peak in number of chests but not in amount raised, the highest total for any one year ($101,377,537) being in 1932 when chests were still vainly trying to keep pace with depression relief needs, prior to entry of the federal and state governments into the relief picture. While the total raised by chests decreased markedly from 1932 to 1935, there has been an upturn since the latter year and it is significant to note that the average chest for 1940 raised within 10 per cent of the amount it secured for 1929.

Chest Structure

Most community chests are incorporated bodies, with constitutions and by-laws determining their operation. In some cities the agencies, through their delegates, are the sole members of the corporation; in others the givers to the campaigns are the only members; and in still others there are several classes of members including agencies, givers, and those who render service in the campaign or otherwise.

The members select the board of directors, trustees, or executive committee which governs the organization in its operations, and this governing board usually elects a president, vice presidents, and treasurer, all of whom are volunteers and usually are leading citizens. In many cities the executive secretary, who is the chief paid officer, acts as secretary for the board. The executive secretary has charge of the chest office, directs the paid staff, and is generally the one responsible for putting into effect policies determined by the board.

Selected in a variety of ways but ultimately responsible to the board are various committees which are assigned tasks indicated by their names, such as budget committee, campaign committee, publicity committee, and so forth.

Agency Inclusiveness

Most chests consider non-profit agencies, organized and operated primarily for social welfare and health purposes, eligible for participation in the annual budget. This means that religious and sectarian agencies, if their work is essentially social welfare, may be admitted. Probably the majority of chests do not have detailed standards governing admission of agencies, but a number do. These standards sometimes set forth very detailed financial and program requirements. In this connection it should be recalled that "local autonomy and continuous growth are of the very genius of the community chest"[1] and local conditions and opinion largely determine agency membership.

The number of agencies in each local chest varies according to size and other factors. Thus chests raising $1,000,000 and more annually show an average of 83 agency members, while those raising under $25,000 average only eight agencies. The largest number for any one chest is 184 and the lowest, four.

About 24 per cent of all chest agencies give their major service in family welfare and general dependency; 16 per cent in child care; 28 per cent in leisure-time work; 6 per cent in hospitals and 12 per cent in other health work; 4 per cent in care of the aged; and 5 per cent in delinquency; and the small remaining percentage in other fields. The following figures, as reported for 1938, indicate for 187 chests the percentage which included certain local agencies affiliated with national agencies, as well as some others about which inquiry is often made.[2]

[1] Citizens' Conference on Community Responsibility for Human Welfare, *Findings and Discussions of Group Conferences*. Community Chests and Councils, Inc. 1928. P. 17.

[2] Peabody, Mabel Clarke, "Agency Membership in Chests," in *Community Chests and Councils*. February, 1940.

INCIDENCE OF MEMBERSHIP OF SELECTED AGENCIES

Agencies	*Percentage of 187 Chests*
Boy Scouts	92
Salvation Army	86
Y.W.C.A.'s	77
Girl Scouts	85
Y.M.C.A.'s	67
Catholic	61
Red Cross	54
Jewish	44
Hospitals	52
Tuberculosis Associations	34
Camp Fire Girls	23

Raising the Money

About 80 per cent of all chest campaigns are held between September 1 and December 31, and these fall appeals produce about three-fourths of the total raised by all chests. The remainder are scattered through the first six months of the year, with the heaviest concentration in March, April, and May. November is the heaviest campaign month of the year although important elections sometimes shift this concentration to October.

Chest campaigns follow a quite definite pattern. The "army" style of procedure is used with various teams, divisions, and committees being assigned specific tasks under the leadership of a campaign chairman, division colonels or majors, team captains, and committee chairmen. Usually the campaign chairman builds a "cabinet" or campaign committee of leaders and this committee decides matters of campaign policy and procedure, being directly responsible to the board. The executive secretary is usually the campaign director, although about 100 chests employ representatives of outside professional campaign firms to direct the appeals, in which case the chest executive acts as an assistant or is given a special assignment.

There are several types of chest campaigns, the basis of each being a somewhat different approach to prospective givers. The plan most frequently used is a combination of geographical division of prospects with certain groups segregated for special handling, such as big givers, employes (industrial, commercial, and public), corporations, and so forth. Campaign armies often include hundreds of volunteer leaders and workers, with a minute division of labor to assure good results.

Campaign results in terms of coverage are astonishingly high. Some chests have one adult giver in every four of population, and the average for all chests is 17 givers per 100 of population, or one giver in every five or six of the population. The amount raised is about $1.78 per capita of population covered.

Chest gifts of $5,000 and over account for 20 per cent of the total; gifts of $1,000 to $4,999, 17 per cent; and $100 to $999, about 24 per cent; which means that about 61 per cent of the total comes from pledges of $100 and more each. Pledges from $25 to $99 equal about 10 per cent; $5.00 to $24, about 17 per cent, and under $5.00, about 12 per cent. The percentage of total raised in gifts of each size varies with the size of chest, with larger chests producing 67 per cent of the total from pledges of $100 and over each, and small ones only 45 per cent. Likewise the larger chests raise higher per capitas than do smaller ones.

Appeals for 1940 funds conducted in the fall of 1939 showed an increase over the previous year's results, and campaigns held in the spring of 1940 showed a higher rate of increase, in reflection of better business and employment conditions. In general, chest campaign results lag behind changes in the broad economic picture, retreating more slowly in the early stages of depression or showing actual increases, but also lagging behind general recovery in the early stages of business improvement.

From 1929 to 1939 the long-time trend shows increases in amounts from gifts of $5,000 and over and in pledges under $25, but decreases in other brackets of giving. Thus the two ends support the middle; but strenuous efforts by chests to build up giving in the middle bracket may influence this trend in years to come. It should be noted

in this connection that *Statistics of Income*, published by the federal Bureau of Internal Revenue, shows that less than 2 per cent of total income is given in charitable and philanthropic contributions. It is facts such as these that stimulate chests to renewed efforts to build up all classes of gifts, particularly in higher and middle brackets.

Employe giving has loomed large in the chest picture in recent years. From the beginning almost all chest campaigns have included plans for soliciting employes at places of business, with pledges paid in many cases by payroll deduction. Employe pledges secured in this way have in recent years accounted for about 20 per cent of the total. With changing relations between employer and employe, and with the development of employe organizations and unions, the approach to employe groups has required modification. While earlier attempts were made in a number of chests to secure employe representation on chest boards and committees and to develop employe relations in other ways, recent changes in employe organization have furnished a great stimulus to this move.

How Funds Are Distributed

Chest budget committees are responsible to governing boards but it is customary to give them wide powers in their work. Their recommendations with respect to annual agency budget allotments are generally approved and many chests give them authority to govern monthly payments to agencies within the allotments. Even emergency requests from agencies, over and above annual allotments, are handled by some budget committees although these actions especially are reported promptly to governing boards. All budget committee actions are subject to final board approval.

Budget committees are selected in a variety of ways but it is quite customary for agencies to select a portion, sometimes half, of the members. The remainder may be selected by the president with board approval. The committee usually consists of an odd number—seven, nine, or more—large enough to permit the establishment of subcommittees of two or more to handle budgets of agencies in each broad functional field.

While a few chests in early years followed the practice of setting detailed agency budgets after campaigns were completed and results known, it has been the depression which has stimulated this practice. At the present time about one-third of the chests determine agency allotments after campaigns and the number is growing steadily.

On an average, all agencies receive about 38 per cent of their total incomes from chests. Of chest funds distributed to agencies, about 2 per cent go to agencies for care of the aged, 18 per cent for dependent children, 25 per cent for family service and general dependency, 10 per cent for hospitals, 10 per cent for other health agencies, and 24 per cent for leisure-time organizations. Chest and council expenses absorb 10 per cent, and the small remainder goes to miscellaneous services. In addition to agency and administrative allotments, chests set aside an average of 5 per cent for shrinkage in collections and some also have emergency items, although this is not so prevalent as in former years.

That the budget is by no means static is indicated in agency composition figures. For instance, 96 chests added 699 new agencies to their rosters during the period from 1929 to 1939 and dropped 654 during the same period.

Allotments to various fields of service also show considerable shift since 1929. Family service and dependency agencies received 25 per cent of the total for 1929, 39 per cent for 1932, and 25 per cent again for 1939. Hospitals received 11.6 per cent of the total for 1929 and only 10 per cent for 1939. Other health agencies show a slight increase. Leisure-time agencies received 25 per cent for 1929, only 19 per cent for 1932, and 24 per cent for 1939. When viewed in relation to family service

appropriations it will be seen that there was a tendency early in the depression to cut leisure-time activities and develop relief facilities of family service agencies. This reached a peak for 1932 when the process was reversed, until now 1929 percentages are substantially re-established. In 1929, chest and council administration received 8 per cent of the total; in 1932 this had fallen to 7.1 per cent; and for 1939 the percentage was about 10 per cent.

Appropriations of chest funds are in most cases for maintenance only. Capital funds have been included only occasionally, although most chests allow payments of interest on mortgages, and other debatable "current" items are also included even though some consider them "capital." It is not at all unlikely that chests may have to take a more positive part in this phase of agency finance in the near future.

The work of budget committees in many chests has grown into a year-around activity thus facilitating the task of social planning and action.

Other Chest Activities

In addition to collection of pledges and other administrative activities, community chests operate a variety of services of value to the whole program. Thus the chest or council, or both, operates a publicity service which dovetails with publicity programs of the agencies and has as its objective the education of citizens on social needs and programs of service and the desirability of generous giving to the campaign. *See* PUBLICITY AND INTERPRETATION IN SOCIAL WORK. Social service exchanges are under the auspices of chests or councils in the majority of cases, although a few operate as independent agencies. *See* SOCIAL SERVICE EXCHANGES.

Chests and councils do research work on social needs and collect data bearing on these needs as well as the services of agencies, public and private. Such research and fact-finding are indispensable aids to community social planning, and there have been an increasing number of chests and councils which have established or are considering starting research bureaus. *See* RESEARCH AND STATISTICS IN SOCIAL WORK.

One of the inevitable consequences of depression is the increasing care with which expenditures are scrutinized. Citizens want to know why chests need so much money and sharply question many services which they formerly accepted as a matter of course. This attitude, coupled with greater demands for service, has decidedly affected budget procedures of chests as above indicated and has stimulated formation of research bureaus in a number of cities. It has also been the chief reason for many surveys of portions or all of local social welfare programs, some of which have been on a self-study basis, with others employing qualified staffs of outside experts. The results which have been secured in cities conducting surveys and the continuing widespread interest in the survey approach indicate quite clearly what an important part they are to play in social planning in the future.

Community Chests and Councils, Inc.

Organized in 1918 by a few cities using the centralized method of raising philanthropic and charitable funds, Community Chests and Councils, Inc.—as the national association is now called—numbered, in July, 1940, 343 chests and councils in its membership representing well over 90 per cent of all chest population and amount raised. The only members are local chests and councils and almost the entire income comes from these members, over 80 per cent coming from annual dues, and the remainder from field service earnings and sales of publications and syndicated campaign materials.

The program of the national association has been centered around the task of providing chests and councils with an effective central organization for furthering their aims for community social welfare. It has

carried out this program by: (a) arranging periodic or occasional national or regional conferences and institutes where chests and councils may present and discuss problems or new ideas of common interest; (b) stimulating means for the education and training of staff members and executives for chests and councils; (c) assisting chests and councils in securing competent and experienced personnel; (d) collecting and disseminating information and statistics on central planning and budgeting of social work, campaign methods, and so forth; (e) assisting, when requested, in the establishment or reorganization of chests or councils, including local welfare surveys on a contract basis; (f) exerting leadership nationally on behalf of chests and councils in relation to the contributing public, principally through the annual Mobilization for Human Needs; (g) observing important trends or developments in federal administrative or legislative policies in the field of social welfare, ascertaining and mobilizing nation-wide opinion of chests and councils for the proper protection or advancement of their interests in relation thereto, and, on occasion, sponsoring federal or state legislation clearly in accord with sound policies of chests and councils; and (h) representing the broad interest of chests and councils in dealing with national social work organizations. *See* NATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS IN SOCIAL WORK.

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RALPH BLANCHARD

COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION FOR SOCIAL WORK. There is general agreement among most social workers that there is used within the field of social work a process distinct from social case work and social group work, which does not concern itself primarily with individual relationships nor with relationships within a single group, but with inter-group or community relationships. There is disagreement, however, as to what this process should be called. During the past twenty years the most commonly used term has been the generic one "community organization." Recently there has been increasing dissatisfaction with this term, although none of the substitutes suggested, such as "social welfare planning," "social organization work," "social welfare organization," or "intergroup work," has yet met with general acceptance nor seems likely immediately to supplant the older term. The title of this article is intended to denote the process without attempting to suggest what its permanently accepted name may prove to be.

In general, community organization for social work may be said to comprise social

welfare planning, organization, and coordination.

Planning

Obviously the word "planning" suggests only a preliminary part of what would be a desirable and completed process of community organization. Indeed when the planning is done by experts from outside the community who are to have no part in carrying the plan into effect, the technique used is primarily that of research and has little in common with what may be regarded as the primary technique of community organization. When the social study of Pittsburgh[1] was completed and published in book form in 1938, a social work executive in that city was asked which chapter of this large volume would be most useful as illustrating, for students, the essential process of community organization. He replied, "The process of community organization is still to begin. It remains for us to try to get the community to accept the recommendations which the experts have left with us." It is well known that our libraries contain thousands of dollars worth of theoretically sound "social planning" bound in hundreds of volumes of survey reports, and that most of this effort is sterile awaiting the application of a technique which will secure community acceptance.

However there are two kinds of social planning which are to be regarded primarily as community organization rather than social research. *See* RESEARCH AND STATISTICS IN SOCIAL WORK. One is the community self-study in which many laymen participate actively on committees and subcommittees. Although, from the standpoint of sound research, this method is subject to the probability of errors and superficiality, it is to be considered an important tool in community organization. Its major purpose is interpretation. By gathering the facts themselves and arriving at their own conclusions under discrete and skillful professional guidance, the laymen who possess power to carry the recommendations into immediate effect are strongly motivated to do so.

The other type of community planning, which also is in itself a tool in community organization rather than a preliminary to such process, is the so-called joint planning that takes place in some councils of social agencies. Where representatives of divergent groups collaborate in social planning, a cohesion and reconciliation of competitive ambitions may result which may be of more importance to the community than the immediate plans produced.

Organization

The building of such cohesion is the essential object of the community organization process wherever it takes place. It is obvious that the process does not result in organizing a community in the geographical sense. Therefore the term is regarded as a misnomer. However, in another sense, a community *is* organized; for a second meaning of the word "community" is a body of people having a common interest. It is the building of this community of interest in behalf of the particular cause which he represents which is the main task of the community organizer, whether he is fostering the work of a particular agency or department or seeking to further the entire cause of social work through a council.

The initial process in building this community of interest has been likened to commencing to roll a large snowball. The important thing at the start is to build the hard, central core—to get cohesion at the center. The critical question is whether, by human warmth and pressure, the central core can be made to "pack" and to attract further particles in concentric layers. If the initial process is well started the desired growth will occur and result in a substantial organizational product.

This technique of building a community of interest is, of course, not the sole possession of the social worker. It is older than

[1] *See* Klein and others, *infra cit.*

history and has been used by all religious and political leaders from earliest times down to the formation of the latest "pressure group."

While the community of interest is generally built within a readily discernible geographical community, this need not always be the case. The Pilgrim Fathers and their families were a migrant community having a distinct existence in Holland and on shipboard before arriving at Plymouth. The Esperanto Society is a world-wide community, united by an interest in a universal language and with its members pledged to render many minor services to fellow members in various parts of the globe when called upon by letter or by visit. In the early history of social work this process of building a community of interest usually proceeded with unwise haste because of an emotional impulse to meet needs quickly and with little social planning or preliminary research. With professional training for social work has come a clearer recognition of the importance of building more slowly and wisely on a factual, as well as an emotional, basis.

Here two important principles in community organization should be mentioned. The first is that indirect leadership tends to be more effective and lasting than direct leadership. The plan which is built upon the popularity of a direct leader rests upon an insecure foundation; its support by the public tends to wane when the leader's popularity wanes. The indirect leader avoids basing the new organization he is building upon the community's acceptance of him personally. He thus builds a safer and more enduring structure, which will outlast his time.

The second principle is that community organization for social work is not a process set going only by professional "community organizers." A rank-and-file staff member, whose major duties involve case work or group work techniques, may initiate the community organization process if he has the vision to see community need and the skill to awaken appreciation of that need on the part of those who can take effective action to meet it. Indeed, it is doubtless true that every social worker who has any contact with the public is unconsciously engaged in community organization to the extent that his very presence in the community affects lay sentiment for or against social work and increases or weakens that community of interest which must be fostered and enlarged if social work is to develop as it should. If it is true that social work cannot rise much above the understanding and consent of the average citizen, then the interpretation and community organization in which the average case worker or group worker is continually (albeit unconsciously) engaged is of vital importance.

While staff members, unless they are publicity specialists, seldom engage consciously in community organization, every executive of a public or private agency engages in it continuously and consciously. There is a large community organization component in most administration, wherever the executive is responsible for interpreting the work of the agency to the public or for so leading his board that they become a cohesive unit back of the agency's program and influence a steadily enlarging group of laymen to increasing acceptance and support of the work.

Coordination

Until the 1920's the process of community organization for social work dealt primarily with the promotion of the programs of particular social agencies rather than with the whole field of social work. This promotion was largely competitive and was for the most part conducted by executives of local agencies or by field representatives of national organizations. These efforts were mainly exerted in behalf of the support of private agencies and not for the development of social work under public tax-supported auspices.

With the coordination of money-raising efforts through the growth of the community chest movement, however, came a de-

mand to "see social work whole" in most American cities. This gave impetus to the development of councils of social agencies, sometimes as an integral part of the community chest and sometimes as distinct from but closely related to the coordination of private agency financing. *See* COMMUNITY CHESTS and COUNCILS IN SOCIAL WORK.

The continuation of the depression has stimulated the coordination of social work. This is seen in the increasing number of efforts to re-plan the entire structure of social work in a community through an expert survey such as the Hartford (Conn.) Survey made in 1934, the Providence (R.I.) Survey in 1936, the Social Study of Pittsburgh in 1934–1936, and the Stamford (Conn.) Survey in 1938. Studies of this sort have generally been financed by the local community chest and have been undertaken by outside experts in various areas of social work in collaboration with the local council of social agencies. The surveys have been largely motivated by the necessity for proving to the public the integrity of existing social agency structure, in view of the increasing difficulty of raising funds from both private and public sources for the support of social work. The pattern of social agency structure in most of our communities has grown in such a haphazard fashion and with so little planning as to raise questions as to whether it is not capable of many improvements and economies. Although the experts' findings have confirmed this supposition, it must be admitted that the difficult process of carrying out their recommendations has been slow and fraught with many obsracles such as inertia, tradition, and the opposition of vested interests.

The coordination movement in social work and the operation of chests and councils of social agencies have resulted in a group of social workers giving all or most of their time to what has been clearly recognized as community organization. As stated above, community organization for social work had theretofore generally been performed by persons whose chief duty was the administration of direct service programs. Today, with the recognition of the fact that secretaries of councils devote practically their whole time to community organization, there is a somewhat naïve assumption on the part of some that this field of coordination is the whole field of community organization and that the technique of coordinating agencies' efforts is the whole technique of community organization. In the field of private social work the bulk of the community organization process is still being conducted by agency executives and others whose duties are so various that they are not generally recognized as "community organizers." As the field of public social work grows with the stimulus of federal and state funds, it is evident that the biggest tasks of the future in social planning, organization, and coordination will be performed by social workers under governmental departments and bearing such titles as "field representative," "area director," and the like.

Government and Community

The increasing operation of social work by government during the past decade has had a marked effect on the community organization process. Prior to the depression new social services were generally initiated and demonstrated by private agencies and then taken over by government. But in recent years, especially in the federal area, we have seen many experimental pieces of social work embarked upon governmentally without prior demonstration with private funds. Many of these developments have been reflected in extensive reorganization of welfare services on the state level. *See* PUBLIC WELFARE.

There are those who predict that with the expansion of federal and state government activities in the field of social work, the local community will become a less important area for the practice of community organization. To those who believe in the importance of sound community organization this

tendency to seek social work objectives through the "community of the state" or the "community of the nation" is both hopeful and dangerous. It is hopeful because so many of our larger social work objectives cannot be attained by local governmental action because they lack either jurisdiction or financial resources. Thus state and local communities are powerless to deal effectively with problems of interstate migration and the care of transients. Again, no state acting alone and without federal cooperation can safely tax its industries to finance an unemployment insurance scheme, lest they be unable to compete with industries in other states not so taxed. In this and many other ways the superior taxing power of the fedetal government is making taxation an effective social instrument. Few social workers will agree with the view frequently expressed that this effective use of federal power, as the only means of successfully coping with nation-wide social problems, is a setious threat to our federal form of government and to state sovereignty.

There is real difference of opinion among social workers, however, as to the extent to which social work functions should be administered directly from Washington or from the state capital as against a system of local administration with state and federal grants-in-aid, standard setting, and supervision. One of the strongest arguments for local administration relates to the process of community organization. The process is in essence one that proceeds from the bottom up rather than from the top down, and involves slow and steady building rather than administrative orders from above unsupported by local public opinion. It is urged that a democracy cannot hope permanently to establish any social reform through national governmental action unless it is possible to "sell the home folks" in at least a majority of American communities. As proof of the soundness of this process, its proponents cite the failure of the Eighteenth Amendment and the comparative success of the Townsend Clubs. It is further urged that participation of the "home folks" (by sharing in local administration of the program) is the best way to keep them "sold," while long-distance administration is always in danger of losing permanent support.

As the Social Security Board moves forward toward its objectives there will be many opportunities to test the extent to which governmental social work may be established with, or without, the community organization process. In the present controversy over the establishment of local merit systems as a condition of obtaining federal grants, the representatives of the Board are relying quite as much upon local interpretation, negotiation, and compromise as upon the power of the Board to withhold funds.

Another possible threat to sound use of the community organization process incident to increased governmental operation of social work may lurk in the resistance of many governmental administrators to working with lay boards. To social work executives interested primarily in efficiency, such boards (indispensable to sponsor private social work) are regarded as unnecessary and undesirable when the program has become public. To those who have faith in the community organization process such boards, as a means of interpretation by participation, seem as desirable in official as in unofficial social work.

Looking Ahead

Social work leaders, interested and active in the process of community organization, agree that as yet there has been too little scientific inquiry into the nature and characteristics of the process. Leaders interested in social case work spent over seven years analyzing that process through the Milford Conference, finally producing the report entitled *Social Case Work, Generic and Specific*. Group workers undertook a somewhat comparable analysis when the efforts of local study groups were focused at the National Conference of Social Work in

1936, resulting in what is now the American Association for the Study of Group Work. A similar study may ensue from the work of local discussion groups that have been inquiring, during the past two years, into the nature and characteristics of community organization.

The efforts of these local groups were reported upon at the 1939 and 1940 National Conferences of Social Work in two documents: a preliminary report in 1939 and a further one in 1940—prepared by a committee under the chairmanship of Robert P. Lane.[1] The second report recommended the creation of a fairly small group of persons of recognized competence, on a nation-wide basis and independent of the Conference, to assume responsibility for stimulating and focusing the continued study of the concept and practice of community organization. This recommendation was accepted and a steering committee of three was chosen as a nucleus, with the understanding that the committee, when formed, will have complete freedom to enlarge its membership.

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CONFERENCES OF SOCIAL WORK[1] serve to publicize and interpret social needs and social work accomplishments among lay groups, to provide social workers with opportunities of learning what is going on in other localities and in other branches of social work outside the fields of their immediate interests, to stimulate creative thought on the variety of practical problems which are a part of the social work scene, and to present, in some cases, platforms for social action. They are general or special in subject matter, local or national in scope, brief or extended in duration, depending on their origin and purpose.

The National Conference of Social Work

Ever since the National Conference of Charities and Correction was organized in 1874 at a meeting of the American Social Science Association, social workers and interested laymen from all over the country have met together once a year to discuss the ways and means of effecting social improvement. The Conference has met independently since its third year and under its present name, the National Conference of Social Work, since 1917. For the past several years Conference attendance has hovered around the 5,000 mark, with a year-round membership of over 7,000.

[1] *See* Lane, *infra cit.*

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

Conferences of Social Work

The Conference is strictly a forum for discussion, being forbidden by its constitution to formulate a platform or to engage in any type of social action. Its annual session covers a full week of meetings devoted to the consideration of the innumerable social and human relationships now encompassed by the total field of social work. In 1940 there were 266 meetings held in connection with the Conference. Seven were general sessions where prominent persons spoke on topics of broad and timely interest. The rest were sectional, committee, and associate group meetings, specialized in content and often small enough to allow for free discussion from the floor.

In order to facilitate program planning the Conference is organized into five sections, each with a chairman, a vice chairman, and nine committee members elected by the Conference at large. The sections continue from year to year, with program continuity provided through staggering of the committee members' three-year terms. In 1940 (and since 1936) the sections were:

I. Social Case Work
II. Social Group Work
III. Community Organization
IV. Social Action
V. Public Welfare Administration

Each sectional committee arranges a program for each conference morning where the presentation of formal papers usually is followed by brief discussion. In recent years most of the sections have broken up into small meetings after holding large sessions on the first day.

In addition to the sectional meetings there are shorter programs for the consideration of subjects of significant interest not directly provided for in the sections. These are arranged by special committees appointed each year by the Conference program committee. In 1940, programs were arranged by nine special committees:

Committee on Delinquency
Committee on Education for Social Work
Committee on Interstate Migration
Committee on Older Children
Committee on Refugees
Committee on Social Aspects of Housing
Committee on Social Work in Rural Communities
Committee on the National Health Program
Committee on Unmarried Parenthood

Afternoons of the Conference are given over to the meetings of associate or special groups, many of them national organizations which hold their annual meetings in connection with the Conference. In 1940 the following 54 groups arranged meetings at the Conference:

American Association for Applied Psychology
American Association for the Study of Group Work
American Association of Medical Social Workers
American Association of Personal Finance Companies
American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers
American Association of Schools of Social Work
American Association of Social Work Students
American Association of Social Workers
American Association of Visiting Teachers
American Association on Mental Deficiency
American Council on Community Self-Help Exchanges
American Foundation for the Blind
American Home Economics Association
American Legion, National Child Welfare Division
American Public Welfare Association
American Red Cross
Association of Leisure Time Educators
Association of the Junior Leagues of America
Big Brother and Big Sister Organizations of the United States and Canada
Birth Control Federation of America
Child Welfare League of America
Church Conference of Social Work
Conference on Immigration Policy
Council of Women for Home Missions
Episcopal Social Work Conference
Family Welfare Association of America
Indian Affairs Forum
Joint Committee of Trade Unions in Social Work
Legal Aid Group
Life Insurance Adjustment Bureau
National Association for Aid to Dependent Children
National Association of Day Nurseries
National Association of Goodwill Industries
National Association of Training Schools
National Child Labor Committee
National Committee for Mental Hygiene
National Committee on Supervised Homemaker-Housekeeper Service
National Committee on Volunteers in Social Work
National Council for the Physically Handicapped
National Council on Naturalization and Citizenship

National Girls' Work Council
National Institute Conference of International Institutes, Local Councils and Leagues for the Foreign Born
National Probation Association
National Society for Crippled Children of the United States of America
National Society for the Prevention of Blindness
National Travelers Aid Association
National Tuberculosis Association
Salvation Army
Social Service Exchange Committee
Social Work Publicity Council
Social Work Today
Social Work Vocational Bureau
Young Men's Christian Associations of the United States of America, National Council
Young Women's Christian Associations of the United States of America, National Board

The *Proceedings* of the National Conference, published annually since 1874, include papers selected by an editorial committee from those presented at the general, sectional, and committee sessions. Their editor, the Conference's general secretary, is also editor of a quarterly bulletin issued as a house organ to Conference members. A cumulative index of the first 60 volumes of the *Proceedings* was published in 1935.

Though the Conference meets each year in a different locality—including occasional meetings in Canada—it is set up as a permanent organization with headquarters at Columbus, Ohio. All powers not otherwise delegated are held by an executive committee composed of the Conference officers and 21 members elected by the voting members of the Conference. A paid staff consisting of a general secretary, an assistant secretary, and clerical help is in charge of the office and records, conducts the business and correspondence, and promotes membership. In addition to the editorial committee there are four other standing committees: resolutions, time and place, nominating, and program.

The Conference is financed mainly by membership dues and attendance fees, although since 1939 expenses incident to the annual meeting have been shared by local convention bureaus. Membership dues range from $3.00 to $25 a year, varying with type of membership—active, sustaining, institutional, or contributing. The attendance fee is $1.00.

During the past few years the Conference has developed a year-round service to state conferences. Bulletins covering many of the problems of state conference secretaries are distributed in the fall and winter, a handbook for the use of people who run conferences has been prepared and published, and a clearing house for the exchange of conference material among conference secretaries is maintained. The National Conference provides secretarial service for the Association of State Conference Secretaries—an informal organization effected at the 1924 meeting of the Conference—and during the fall and winter holds regional meetings for conference secretaries in various parts of the country, working for the improvement of state conference machinery and programs through discussion and exchange of experience.

The National Conference of Social Work also serves as the National Committee in the United States of the International Conference on Social Work, which meets quadrennially in times of peace. *See* INTERNATIONAL SOCIAL WORK.

Specialized and Regional Conferences

There are hosts of specialized conferences organized either on racial, religious, or functional lines. Some, as has been pointed out, meet with the National Conference of Social Work; others meet independently but with their programs overlapping that of the National Conference by a day or two. Still others meet quite separately. Among the latter, in 1940, were the National Conference of Catholic Charities; the National Conference of Jewish Social Welfare; the National Citizens' Conference, sponsored by Community Chests and Councils, Inc.; the American Prison Congress, the annual meeting of the American Prison Association; and the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy.

In addition to the specialized conferences with national scope there are many regional

conferences organized on functional lines. These are of two types: those which have arisen spontaneously from the desire of persons or agencies with similar problems to meet for an exchange of ideas and experience; and those which have been stimulated by a national organization as a service to its membership agencies. Among the former are the Southern Conference of Community Chests and Councils, the Pacific Coast Conference of Community Chests and Councils, the New York–Pennsylvania Conference of Community Chests and Councils, the Association of New England Community Chests and Councils, and the Midwest Conference of Community Chests and Councils, each meeting annually in two-day sessions; and the New York Conference of Suburban Community Chests and Councils which holds a one-day meeting of chests and councils of New Jersey, Connecticut, and New York State areas close to New York City. Though the national organization, Community Chests and Councils, Inc., stands ready to give these regional conferences consultative service and to furnish speakers, the conferences have developed independently from the organization and are in no way responsible to it. With the formation of the Southern and New York–Pennsylvania groups in 1940 a regional conference became available to every community chest and council throughout the nation. Community Chests and Councils, Inc., also sponsors two regional summer institutes devoted to the professional instruction of agency executives: the Great Lakes Institute, held in Wisconsin; and the Blue Ridge Institute, held in North Carolina.

Other functional, spontaneous conferences which have recently expanded to nation-wide coverage are the regional conferences on probation and parole of which there are now five: the Western States Probation and Parole Conference, the Central States Probation and Parole Association, the Atlantic States Probation and Parole Conference, the Southeastern States Probation and Parole Conference, and the New England Conference on Probation, Parole, and Crime Prevention. All have developed within the past decade and are still rather loosely organized. Most of them sprang up as conferences on parole but at the suggestion of the National Probation Association enlarged their programs to include probation. Including in their registrants governors, prosecutors, wardens, and politically appointed probation and parole officers as well as social workers, they are not entirely free from political coloration. However, those interested in raising probation and parole standards see possibilities in them for professional stimulation. None of these conferences are membership associations. They are financed entirely from registration fees. A unique regional conference of the spontaneous functional type is the New England Conference on Child Protection which held its first meeting in 1939. Formed by several child protective agencies in the New England area, it confines its discussions to technical matters.

Among the national organizations which directly sponsor regional conferences as a service to their constituency are the Child Welfare League of America, the Family Welfare Association of America, and the Council of Jewish Federations and Welfare Funds. For several years the Child Welfare League has stimulated meetings in four areas: South, Midwest, Middle Atlantic, and New England. In 1940, during the League's reorganization, indications were that these areas might be broken up into smaller regions to form seven conferences in all. The League's regional conferences have always been self-supporting through registration fees. The content of their programs has been directed exclusively to professional practitioners and executives.

The Family Welfare Association of America holds regional conferences in the years between its biennial meetings, and in some instances every year. Nation-wide coverage is attained through conferences in six regions: North Atlantic, Middle Atlantic, Southern, Mississippi–Rocky Mountain, Pa-

cific, and Great Lakes. The conference programs, planned by local committees with the help of the Association's regional representatives, are arranged with the view of offering to board members of member agencies as well as to professional workers an opportunity to pool experiences and ideas. These regional conferences are supported partly by registration fees, partly by assistance from the Association. Supplementing the regional conferences are many smaller inter-agency conference groups, meeting from one to four times a year. Some of the regions also conduct two-week institutes or study groups as an opportunity for keeping abreast of current developments in the family welfare field.

The Council of Jewish Federations and Welfare Funds sponsors one-day annual meetings in six regions: East Central, West Central, Western, Southeastern, New England, and Upstate New York–Ontario. The programs, which revolve around community organization, are directed primarily to local lay leadership. The conferences are locally financed, usually by registration fees.

Standing by itself as an unspecialized, geographical conference grown from regional needs is the Southern Conference for Human Welfare. Not specifically a conference of social work, it includes social work as one phase of an over-all discussion and action program for raising standards of living in the South. It sprang up spontaneously following the *Report on the Economic Conditions of the South* submitted to President Roosevelt by a group of southerners in 1938. Through its meetings, the first held in the fall of 1938 and the second in the spring of 1940, it has attempted to coordinate the activities of various southern organizations for the promotion of social and economic planning and the protection of civil tights. With membership open to any southerner, the Conference draws participants from church, farm, labor, industrial, Negro, youth, and educational groups. It maintains a paid executive who works with elected officers, a board, and a council representative of each southern state and of the various interest groups. Between meetings special committees attempt to execute the resolutions passed by the entire Conference body. One of the most active following the 1940 meeting was the Civil Rights Committee which was bending every effort to effect the abolition of the poll tax in the South. The Conference is financed by contributions and its registration fees.

State Conferences[1]

Similar in organization to the National Conference of Social Work are the 46 state conferences of social work. Some of these date back to the last century, the oldest, Wisconsin's, having made its appearance in 1870. These conferences spread with the growth of social work till in 1940 only Nevada and New Mexico were without them and indications were that New Mexico would have one soon.

State conferences are not strictly the province of social workers. Some of the earliest to appear were originated by socially conscious laymen bent on calling attention to evils which could be corrected by statewide action and legislation. But as social work became more and more professional many conferences became preoccupied with theory and technique with the consequence that lay interest declined. Today most conferences are made up of at least 75 per cent professional membership though in at least three—Nebraska, North Carolina, and Wisconsin—lay membership predominates.

Open forums and round table discussions are basic to all state conferences although some conferences go farther and use these meetings as foundations on which to build programs of social action. This is true in particular of many of the older conferences which were initiated by lay persons as a channel for social expression. Now more than half the state conferences claim to engage in some type of social action although

[1] For a list of state conferences see STATE AGENCIES—PRIVATE in Part Two.

it is evident that they do so with varying degrees of effort and effectiveness. California maintains a paid staff member to follow the movements of the state legislature, to engage in lobbying activities, and to draft proposed legislation. In others this work is done by the executive secretary or a continuing committee of the conference. Others limit their social action to the passing of resolutions. *See* SOCIAL ACTION.

Conference action in recent years frequently has been aimed at the establishment of unified public welfare systems within the states, or the reorganization of outmoded systems. The consolidation of the state welfare functions in Wisconsin in 1939 was the result of a bill drafted by the Wisconsin Conference of Social Work. In the same year the Minnesota conference helped to effect a reorganization of its state welfare department, though the result was not entirely to its liking. The Texas conference also exerted active leadership in bringing about a unified state welfare department. Conference activity has also been successful in effecting legislation concerned with children. The Wisconsin Children's Code, first adopted by the state legislature in 1929 and recently revised at conference advice, was originated and sponsored by the state conference. The New Jersey conference helped to bring about important revisions in the state adoption law; the Nebraska conference to establish its state child welfare department. Other conferences are still working on goals set up years ago: Maine in trying to persuade its legislature to establish a juvenile court system; Illinois in working for aid to dependent children; Kentucky in endeavoring to get children out of almshouses. The California Conference of Social Work and the Missouri Association for Social Welfare provide for the voluntary registration and certification of social workers. It is hoped that through the demonstration value of this service the conference will succeed eventually in its efforts to induce the state legislature to pass a bill for social worker registration. *See* SOCIAL WORK AS A PROFESSION. More than a third of the conferences, however, do not engage in social action of any type but confine their functions to the discussion of social problems, social work theory, and job techniques. Some of these, such as those of Pennsylvania and New York, are in states where there are other closely aligned organizations to carry on the burden of social action.

To many conferences the sudden expansion of social legislation in the past decade and the increase in the numbers of people engaged in social work have posed two conflicting demands: the need for lay participation, in order to channel effectively the new floods of social legislation; and the cry from the new workers for help in carrying on their jobs. Thus the conferences are being pulled in two directions as far as program content is concerned: toward discussions of general interest to attract the laymen, and discussions of technical interest to satisfy the person on the job. The renewed emphasis on lay education is reflected in new conference names, the result of a recent tendency to delete the word "conference" and substitute a phrase with more functional implications. Examples may be found in the names of Arkansas Association of Social Work, Iowa Association of Social Welfare, Michigan Welfare League, Missouri Association for Social Welfare, New Jersey Welfare Council, Oklahoma Social Welfare Association, and Texas Social Welfare Association.

Many of the conferences concerned with social action respond to demands for programs with professional content by holding institutes before or simultaneously with the annual meeting. These are small study groups with registration limited to persons engaged in specific types of social work. They are conducted by competent social work instructors, often recruited from the schools of social work. *See* EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK. A few of the strictly round-table conferences also include institutes as part of their services.

A recent trend among state conferences is toward regional meetings for the consideration of local problems and for the convenience of social workers who cannot attend the annual meeting because of distance. In New York and Pennsylvania, where the conferences are strictly forums for discussion, the regional meetings have become their most important function. In other states, such as Nebraska, regional meetings focusing attention upon local community problems are being promoted as a means of interesting lay persons in the work of the conference. In Texas, in 1939, the regional meetings were used as a means of making a study of the basic social needs throughout the state, and the findings of the study were accepted as the foundation for the conference's 1940 program of social action. Nearly half the state conferences held regional meetings in 1940, six having begun the practice since 1939. The number of regional meetings of each conference varies from two to fourteen annually, depending somewhat on the size of the state and the conference's financial strength. In some states regional meetings have been built up by the conferences out of already existing social workers' clubs. *See* SOCIAL WORKERS' ORGANIZATIONS.

Other conference services include the publication of proceedings, periodicals, and special bulletins, which are usually issued free to members. About one-fourth of the conferences publish the proceedings of their annual meetings, about one-third issue periodical bulletins, and others put out legislative bulletins, special reports, and planning sheets for aid to various types of social agencies.

Since adjoining states often have similar problems, occasionally two or three state conferences will hold joint meetings. Sometimes these amount to no more than a delegation from one state attending the conference meeting of the other. At other times the meetings are jointly planned. The latter type has been carried on successfully by the Kansas and Missouri conferences and by the conferences of Iowa, Nebraska, and South Dakota.

Because of the differences in age and emphasis of the state conferences, they vary considerably in size and organizational setup. Some of the new ones in sparsely settled rural states like Wyoming, where social work was practically unknown prior to the passage of the Social Security Act, have only from 85 to 100 individual members. Others, in states like California and New York where social work has long been established, have individual memberships reaching large totals, that of the California conference being 3,114 in 1940. Twenty-one conferences manage to maintain a paid staff, twelve on a full-time and nine on a part-time basis. The rest carry on their activities through the volunteer services of elected officers and committee members. Because of the periodical turnover in elected officers many of the latter conferences find it difficult to maintain continuity in their programs.

With a few exceptions the state conferences depend almost entirely upon membership dues and registration fees for their financial backing. Though there are usually provisions for organization memberships, by far the largest proportion of dues comes from individuals. Individual membership dues vary from $1.00 to $3.00 per year. Some conferences receive large contributions either from interested lay persons or from foundations. A few receive community chest contributions from the large cities within the state. Two conferences, those of Illinois and Ohio, receive contributions from the state welfare departments. In Illinois the welfare department meets over 70 per cent of the conference's expenses, about one-third in the form of a grant and the rest through the services and travel expenses of state welfare officials working for the conference on state-paid time. Five other conferences receive small contributions from their states in the form of executive or clerical service or office space. One conference, that of South Carolina, receives clerical serv-

ices from the National Youth Administration.

The proportional distribution of funds among conference activities depends largely on the amount of the budget and the complexity of the conference program. Those with continuous programs carried on by paid staffs spend from 40 to 60 per cent of their funds for staff remuneration. As a rule these are the conferences in which membership dues and registration fees are supplemented by contributions of some kind. In these conferences the next largest proportion of expenditures usually goes toward expenses incidental to the annual and regional meetings, averaging 25 per cent of the budget. A few large conferences, however, such as those of California and Missouri, have been successful in arranging for the cities or chambers of commerce where the annual meetings are held to assume the major part of their cost. But in those conferences with small budgets and no paid staff the meetings consume from 40 to 100 per cent of the funds. The next most common claim on funds are the institutes, which account for from 10 to 40 per cent of conference budgets. Additional registration fees, however, are customarily charged for institute attendance, and when separate accounts are kept it is sometimes found that the institutes are self-supporting.

Variations in methods of bookkeeping make it difficult to generalize on the amount of funds spent on legislative programs. In the California conference, one of the most active, there is a separate legislative account which equals about one-third of the total budget. In some confetences much of the legislative work comes under publication expenditures, as the conference's main legislative activity is furnishing informational matetial to influential organizations in the state. Most conferences with action programs spend from 2 to 10 per cent of their funds on legislative work. Publication expenditures run from 2 to 25 pet cent of conference budgets when the issuance of proceedings is included, from 1 to 15 per cent when they are limited to bulletins and special leaflets. Approximately a third of the conferences do considerable promotional work before their meetings which costs them an average of 10 per cent of their funds. Total conference budgets run from less than $200 in the small conference run entirely by volunteers to over $11,000 in the large conference with a heavy social action program.

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KATHRYN CLOSE

CONSUMER INTERESTS.[1] Few indeed are the families in the United States today who produce directly for themselves any appreciable proportion of the things they need to live on: most of the required goods and services they buy for money. The days of the self-sufficing farm are gone. Small-scale local industries are disappearing in many fields. The close association which used to exist between the processes of production and consumption has been broken by the development of our modern commercialized economy. As a result of this, it has now become necessary in the treatment of economic and social problems to give specific attention to what we call our "consumer interests."

Consumers are interested in getting the best kind of living they can from the resources of time, energy, and money at their disposal. For those with low incomes the problems involved are particularly serious.

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

Recent studies by the National Resources Planning Board (formerly the National Resources Committee) show that in addition to the families actually on relief there are many others whose incomes are inadequate to maintain even a minimum standard of comfort. Two-thirds of the families in this country in 1936 had incomes of less than $1,500; one-third had less than $800. The average American wage-earner with his wife and children have to make ends meet on $22 a week. And this often comes to them quite irregularly. If people are to be successful as consumers they need all the help they can get in deciding which of their wants are most urgent and in getting good value for all money that is spent. The demand for this kind of help is increasing.

More is being done for consumers today than ever before. This development, however, is still only in its initial stages. It is significant not so much because of what has been accomplished thus far as because of the indication it gives of the progress to be expected in the future. Social workers have an important part to play in promoting consumer welfare, as they help directly to work out solutions, or partial solutions, for many problem cases. In addition to this they exercise indirectly a wide educational influence. An understanding by them of the total consumer movement as it is developing in this country should be beneficial.

Education

Home Economics

The story of consumer education begins with the story of home economics. Originally, home economists were concerned only with teaching people to "do" things, with the teaching of skills such as sewing and cooking. It was found, however, that the home-maker was not occupied merely with "doing" and "making" things; she was also directing and planning tasks. There came to be included in the field of home economics the solution of buying and choice-making problems. The home-maker also found that the home could not be made satisfactory without a knowledge of the child. Knowledge of the family, its intricacies and relations, became an important part of home economics. *See* THE FAMILY. There was further development in the attempt to make this science serve the needs of a rapidly changing home. Scientific discovery and mechanical invention had stimulated the production of goods and services outside the home and had made radical changes within. A study of the economic problems of the family led to consideration of such social questions as public health, housing, and recreation.

The services of the home economist have been of great value to social agencies. They look to her for the preparation of minimum adequate budget standards and for the periodic review of these in the light of new scientific knowledge or of changes in the price structure. When funds are depleted the home economist is often regarded as the person who can suggest ways to extend available money so that as little hardship as possible falls upon the families in terms of their health and well-being. In rural communities home economists are often attached to the staffs of the Extension Service of the United States Department of Agriculture, the Farm Security Administration, and to the county public health units. Public relief agencies have turned increasingly to home economists for assistance in problems of diet and budgets; private welfare societies, too, are regularly employing them to work as consultants with the staff and with individual clients.

Federal Agencies

The Bureau of Home Economics in the United States Department of Agriculture is the largest unit in the federal government devoted entirely to the interests of consumers. Its function is to apply scientific knowledge to consumer problems relating to food, clothing, housing, household equipment,

management of the family income, health, and maintenance of good living standards. The Bureau assists in the establishment of standards for consumer goods. Information for the average consumer is provided through buying guides.

In addition to the Bureau of Home Economics a considerable number of other government agencies contribute to the education of consumers. The Department of Agriculture includes more consumer services than any other single department. Of special interest is the Consumers' Counsel Division, set up in 1933 under the Agricultural Adjustment Administration to inform consumers about the marketing agreements that were being put into effect and to represent them at conferences where the terms of the agreements were being worked out. The current work of this Division includes the publication of a free biweekly magazine, *Consumers Guide,* written in simple, readable style, which carries general information of importance to consumers. The Office of Information of the Department of Agriculture, which is a clearing house for all the department work, issues *Housekeepers' Chats.* These are daily syndicated releases to 300 radio stations which include consumer news. The Extension Service of the Department of Agriculture, working with the land-grant colleges in the 48 states, is, according to the American Association for Adult Education, "the largest enterprise for adult education known in the world today." A staff of 2,500 agents, covering almost every county in the country, conducts an effective educational program for improved home and family living. Each year this program reaches over 2,000,000 rural women and girls. The Extension Service has done much to inform rural consumers about their problems and about the best means of meeting them. *See* RURAL SOCIAL PROGRAMS.

The Bureau of Fisheries in the Department of the Interior has an educational program the purpose of which is to inform consumers of the nutritive value of fish and of the methods to be used in its preparation. The Consumers' Counsel Division in the Department of the Interior has as its job the protection of the coal consuming public in connection with the administration of the National Bituminous Coal Act. It represents the ultimate consumer of coal at all coal hearings.

In the Department of Labor the Bureau of Labor Statistics collects data on retail food and other prices which are circulated widely to the press. Helpful to consumers interested in starting cooperatives are data collected and issued by this Bureau on new developments. The Federal Security Agency, through the Office of Education, assists in the training of consumers by offering special classes and by supplying teachers and study groups with subject-matter outlines and bibliogtaphies.

The Adult Education Division of the Work Projects Administration has organized consumer education classes in cities all over the United States. Some of these classes are concerned with general consumer welfare problems; others deal specifically with product information. Membership is drawn from consumers in all walks of life.

Under the George-Deen Act, passed by Congress in June, 1936, provision was made for further development of three types of vocational education: home-making, agriculture, and disttibutive occupations. With these new funds, courses in consumer education are now being offered increasingly in secondary schools with emphasis on project work of practical significance to young consumers. Courses for young people out of school are developed to deal with certain aspects of home-making and are designed to meet the specific needs of the groups served. Classes for adults are conducted in 3,300 centers and are organized so as best to utilize the family buying and financial experiences of the men and women enrolled in them. The program in distributive occupations operates indirectly to the consumer's advantage by providing a training program for employes and managers of retail

stores. This training helps to reduce the cost of distribution. The consumer benefits further by being able to secure more nearly accurate and unbiased information.

Non-Governmental Services

An important type of non-governmental educational service is that offered to consumers by a group of non-profit consumer testing organizations. The first of these, Consumers' Research, was established in 1928 as an outgrowth of the interest in Chase and Schlink's popular book, *Your Money's Worth*. It was set up to serve as a research agency and clearing house for consumer information. Consumers' Research issues regular monthly bulletins to its members, part of which are confidential.

Consumers' Union was organized in 1936 as an offshoot from Consumers' Research after labor difficulties had caused a split in the membership and staff. Its stated purpose is to give information and assistance on all matters pertaining to the expenditure of earnings and the family income; and to initiate, to cooperate with, and to aid individual group efforts of whatever nature and description seeking to create and maintain decent living standards for the ultimate consumer. Its monthly magazine contains many items of general interest to consumers, such as articles, for example, on the telephone bill, summer camps, significant congressional legislation, or information on price changes. Consumers' Union also reports on various branded products and prints labor information whenever available on the industries whose products they have tested. Labor conditions do not affect the commodity ratings themselves, which are based on quality and price.

A third testing agency, Intermountain Consumers Service, with offices in Denver, also provides confidential information and ratings. It is described as a research and information service not conducted for pecuniary profits.

The regular services of these agencies, for which a consumer pays $3.00 to $3.50 a year, are beyond the budget of many low-income wage-earners, but a more limited service dealing especially with low priced products is offered by Consumers' Union at $1.00 per year.

Further education of the consumer comes from a group of non-profit voluntary organizations. One is the Consumers National Federation, an association of other associations, all of which have a consumer interest though it is not necessarily their primary one. The Federation was set up with the purpose of exchanging and disseminating information among its members to achieve effective protection of the consumer. Beginning in December, 1939, the War Prices Committee of the Consumers National Federation began the biweekly publication of a bulletin on prices and products. The Federation is currently attempting to serve as a watchdog against excessive rises in consumer prices due to the war.

Various cities throughout the country such as Chicago, Cincinnati, and St. Louis have consumer councils composed either of organizations or of individuals whose purpose it is to educate the consumer in any way that presents itself according to the needs of the community. The Cincinnati group works actively with retailers to provide informative advertising and labeling as an aid to consumer buyers.

The Institute for Consumer Education, established in 1937 at Stephens College, Columbia, Mo., by the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation, aims to promote the best interests of consumers individually and as a group. Its program is entirely educational. It prepares pamphlets for popular reading on consumer subjects; is developing a special library in the field of consumer education; publishes a monthly newsletter during the school year on subjects of importance to consumer educators; attempts to discover the consumer problems of secondary school students in order to prepare adequate study materials; works with various women's club groups to develop a program of consumer

education for adult study; and organizes a yearly conference for educators interested in the field.

The Consumer Education Association, formed early in 1939, is made up of educators whose purpose is to exchange ideas on their common problems and to develop better means of teaching consumer education. Its *Consumer Education Journal* is issued periodically.

The most important and most far-reaching development of education for consumers has been, of course, in the schools and colleges of this country. Surveys show that with increasing frequency consumer values are being stressed in curriculums and courses of study. Consumer education is the property of no single department. In secondary schools, business education departments seem to be making the greatest progress in the development of individual courses. Social science and home economics departments are also evidencing great interest in planning consumer education classes. On the college level, separate courses are most frequently offered in connection with home economics, but general economics departments and social studies groups are increasingly devoting attention to consumer problems. Consumer education is often taught as a part of older, more firmly established courses in the curriculum.

Hitherto in business education and social studies, and even to some extent in home economics, there was a tendency to leave undeveloped the practical applications of the course materials to the affairs of daily living. The rapid spread of consumer education courses and courses in fields such as mathematics, English, and science which give consideration to consumer training can be attributed to the interest students and teachers alike are showing in solving these problems of individual and social consequence.

Governmental Protection

In addition to the attempts being made to educate the consumer, there are many services performed by his government to protect him.

Weights and Measures

Under the Constitution, power is specifically given the federal government to regulate weights and measures used in both interstate and intrastate transactions. However, the government has rarely used this authority; rather, it exercises an advisory influence over the states in an effort to encourage uniform state action. Since 1836 the states have been using the uniform standard weights and measures sent to them by the federal government.

When the National Bureau of Standards, United States Department of Commerce, made a survey in 1909 it found much defrauding of the consumer through short weights. The Bureau worked out a model law and standard inspection manuals for officials, both of which have been adopted by a majority of the states. The greatest weights and measures frauds from which consumers have suffered in recent years have been in deceptive and non-uniform packages. The three container acts passed by the federal government in 1915, 1916, and 1928 were beneficial to consumers only indirectly for they regulated the size of containers used in wholesale, not retail, trade. The Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act of 1938 (described later) required the quantity of all packaged foods, drugs, and cosmetics entering interstate commerce to be given on labels in terms of weight, measure, or numerical count. It also provided that containers should not be made, formed, or filled so as to be misleading.

Since most of the regulation of weights and measures has been left to the states, there is great variation in control and efficiency from state to state. Even within each state there are differences between localities. Some do not have any regulation at all. Where there is regulation the duties of the inspectors are to check devices used in weighing and measuring, to find any fraudulent or dishonest practices. They also try

to teach the sellers their responsibilities for giving full weight, and to educate consumers to protect themselves and to appreciate their rights and duties under the laws.

Foods, Drugs, Cosmetics

Another important service performed by the government for the American consumer is to afford him protection against dangerous foods, drugs, and more recently, cosmetics. The earliest law of this type was passed in Virginia in 1848. During the twenty-six years from 1880 to 1906 a small but determined group of people worked for a federal bill to outlaw adulterated and misbranded products in interstate commerce. Although the law they secured in 1906 helped to protect both the health and pocketbook of the consumer, it fell short of what was required. Years passed before the nation as a whole realized the inadequacies of the 1906 law. One after another bills were voted down in Congress during the thirties, until the "elixir sulfanilamide case" burst tragically on the front pages of the daily papers in September, 1937. Seventy-three people are known to have died as a result of taking this patent medicine which manufacturers had tested for flavor but not for effect on human life. So inadequate was the law that, even in the face of these deaths, had the manufacturer used the word solution instead of elixir, the Food and Drug Administration, United States Department of Agriculture, would have been powerless to remove this deadly product from the market. A new law—the Federal Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act—which had been hanging in the congressional air for more than five years, was passed a few months later, in June, 1938.

The new law is more inclusive than the old law of 1906. Regulation of cosmetics and curative devices has been added to the regulation of foods and drugs, and enforcement provisions are strengthened through heavier fines and provisions for court injunctions. The Act makes mandatory the adequate testing of new drugs *before* being offered for sale. A drug is now misbranded if it fails to give adequate directions for use. Provision is made against misbranding by false and misleading statements on the label of an article. This protection has become essential since the extension of packaged and canned goods has been so widespread.

Some of the provisions of this new Act did not go into effect until June, 1940, two years after its enactment. It is impossible yet to be sure of the effectiveness of the law. Many persons feel that it is still woefully inadequate, but there can be little doubt that the interests of the consumer will be better protected than under the old law. The outstanding weakness in the protection now afforded consumers is that the federal law can regulate harmful products only when they are shipped in interstate commerce. Many state laws are ineffective as checks of abuses against the consumer. They leave him open to deception by misbranded, fraudulent products. This problem of divided control serves to make the consumer's position even more difficult than it otherwise would be.

Other Governmental Measures

The federal Food and Drug Administration enforces two other consumer protective acts. The Insecticide and Fungicide Act of 1910 provides that goods of this class in packages must be labeled as to quantity and that labels on insecticides must state also the amounts of arsenic and the amounts of inert substances present. Household disinfectants and germicides are included in this Act. Section 8 of the Tariff Act of 1897 provides that all articles of foreign manufacture shall be plainly and conspicuously marked in English so as to indicate the country of their origin and the correct quantity of their contents.

The Federal Trade Commission has power to help the consumer through its trade practice conferences. Rules which carry requirements for compulsory labeling are worked out in consultation with members

of a particular industry. All interested persons, including consumers, have an opportunity to appear at hearings after the rules have been outlined and before they are definitely passed on. Trade practice rules promulgated by the Federal Trade Commission in the past three years include for mandatory labeling the following industries: cotton converting, fur trade, macaroni and noodles, mirror manufacturing, preserve manufacturing, rayon, and silk.

There are few state laws for the compulsory labeling of commodities other than foods and drugs. Seventeen states, the District of Columbia, and two large cities regulate the labeling of bedding and upholstered furniture.

The Wheeler-Lea Act, passed by Congress in March, 1938, is also significant because for the first time it gives power to the Federal Trade Commission to protect the consumer by placing under the Commission the control of food, drug, and cosmetics advertising which is false in any material respect.

The Consumer Protection Division of the Advisory Commission to the Council of National Defense, established in 1940, is the newest federal agency in this field. Its purpose is:

1. To study all aspects of the defense program as it affects consumers and to make recommendations for consumer protection. The Division is responsible for knowing the needs of consumers and seeks to insure adequate supplies of consumer goods and to prevent undue increases in the cost of living.

2. To coordinate the defense activities of the government in the welfare field and to promote a healthy and effective population.

3. To deal with public and civic organizations, disseminating information and encouraging activities designed to maintain the flow of goods and to promote civilian fitness and well-being.

Milk Control

Protection with regard to milk is a matter of particular importance to consumers. Many epidemics of infectious diseases have been traced in the past to the milk supplies of communities and the danger still exists. For these reasons public authorities, municipal, state, and federal, have found it necessary to provide special protection for consumers of milk. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH. Municipal authorities have given most attention to the problem. The effectiveness of the regulations varies from town to town and from city to city. In many areas the dairy farms licensed to ship fluid milk have to pass inspection periodically and certain methods of handling the milk are provided by law. Even more universally there is licensing of the dairies, stores, and restaurants that sell milk to consumers; if certain sanitary standards are not met the license is revoked. In some cities the chief milk inspector publishes a weekly or monthly report giving for each dairy the results of the tests made by his department both on fat content and bacteria count. At the present time efforts are being made to bring greater uniformity into the milk regulations applying in different areas. To that end the United States Public Health Service has developed a Standard Milk Ordinance which it recommends for adoption by municipal authorities. According to the January, 1940, report of the Service, there are more than 150 communities in which raw and pasteurized milk sold to the final consumer is produced in accordance with the ordinance.

With increasing interest in the protection of consumers from harmful milk diseases has come a concern over the prices charged for milk distribution. The consumers of New York City, through settlement house clubs and organized committees, have been untiring in their work for reasonable milk prices. One of their important demands has been for a single grade of milk, since studies made by Consumers' Union in 1936 showed that the three cent price differential between Grade A and Grade B milk actually gave the consumer only fifteen one-hundredths of one per cent more butterfat. In

New York, Chicago, and Boston more than one-half of all milk sold comes from two large distributors in each city. Their large volume of sales makes them important factors in setting the price of milk and in maintaining a nearly constant gross spread for distribution, despite wide fluctuations in prices paid to farmers and by consumers.

To combat the growing monopoly in New York, the Consumer-Farmer Milk Cooperative was formed by farmers and consumers for their mutual benefit. New York City has also taken the lead in setting up municipal milk stations and in distributing surplus milk to the unemployed.

Consumer Finance

Besides the governmental protections afforded the consumer in purchasing commodities, there are various services to assist him in dealing with his financial problems.

Small Loan Regulation

Most persons of modest means are compelled to borrow from time to time either to meet unforeseen expenditures or to tide them over periods of reduced income. The cost of making and collecting small loans on inadequate security is necessarily high. But in the absence of adequate regulatory legislation, moneylenders frequently take advantage of the ignorance or necessity of borrowers and exact exorbitant charges.

In an effort to protect small borrowers, the Russell Sage Foundation in 1916 drafted the Uniform Small Loan Law and recommended the enactment in each state of statutes based on this model. The Uniform Law applied to lenders of sums of $300 or less except banks, credit unions, and other institutions specifically authorized by law. It required such lenders to be licensed and bonded and subjected them to public supervision. Licensees were compelled to state and to compute their charges as an inclusive interest rate on unpaid principal balances which could not exceed 3.5 per cent a month. Criminal as well as civil penalties were provided for infraction. The Uniform Law has since been amended six times. Early amendments imposed further restrictions and requirements upon licensees and provided additional protections against evasive practices; while later drafts have given wide discretionary power to the supervising official and have reduced the maximum rate permitted licensees.

Twenty-seven states and the Territory of Hawaii have enacted small loan laws closely resembling the model draft. Ten states have enacted small loan laws which depart in varying degrees from the model; and eleven have no regulatory small loan laws.

The National Conference of State Small Loan Supervisors, organized in 1934 among officials charged with the administration of small loan laws, meets annually for the purpose of standardizing and improving techniques of supervision and law enforcement and for the purpose of exchanging views and experiences with respect to the problem of protecting small borrowers.

Credit Unions

One development of particular help to the consumer confused in the purchase of consumer credit has been the credit union. A credit union is a cooperative agency organized to help the man of small income with his personal finances. Its purposes are to promote thrift by instalment saving, to make useful loans to members at reasonable costs, and to help members use their savings and credit as effectively as possible. The problems which any person has in adjusting his income to his expenditures are apt to fall into two classes: in order to meet emergencies he has either to save up for them in advance, or to borrow money with which to meet them. The credit union, according to the director of the Federal Credit Union Section of the Farm Credit Administration, is an aid to better living because it is designed to serve both these needs.

Any group of people numbering 80 or more, closely associated with each other in occupation, association, church, or residence can form a credit union under federal or

state charter. These organizations are true cooperative thrift and loan companies belonging to and absolutely under the control of their members. Each member has but one vote. There is no difference in operation between a state and federal law credit union. All but seven states have passed laws regarding the incorporation and regulation of credit unions. Most of the legislation in this field was secured by the Credit Union National Extension Bureau. The Bureau went out of existence in 1934 and its activities are continued by the Credit Union National Association. The interest rate charged on loans made to members is usually 1 per cent per month on unpaid balances. Some states allow a maximum rate of 1 per cent per month; others allow a "reasonable" rate. Supervision of credit unions is lodged with a division of one of the state departments, often the state department of agriculture. The credit union movement has grown rapidly in this country for the past ten years. It has demonstrated to the man of small means its sincere objective to help and not to take advantage of his needs.

Instalment Buying

Another important means by which consumers obtain credit is through instalment buying. Next to open account charges this form of credit is the most common among consumers. The volume of instalment sales in 1936 was estimated at four and one-half billion dollars or $150 per family. Yet this large expanding business has been almost without regulation by the government. It is recognized today that instalment buying is an important form of consumer credit. It has an established position in the credit structure. Yet concealment of the true rate of interest is an almost universal practice, and one which makes the intelligent buying of consumer credit difficult. Powerful legal instruments are abused by the seller in taking action against slow accounts. Consumers, ignorant of the law and its consequences, will often permit themselves to be victimized rather than face the unknown dangers and embarrassment of court action. With regulation necessary to protect the public interest from these abuses, efforts have been made in the past few years to regulate instalment selling practices. An Indiana law, passed in March, 1935, was the first comprehensive law regulating the business of instalment selling and financing. This law was declared unconstitutional in 1936. Wisconsin and Utah have passed regulatory bills.

Instalment sales agencies have not been able to regulate themselves even to their own satisfaction. The abuses are of as grave concern to the reputable companies as they are to the general public interest. "Probably fewer than 15 per cent of instalment dealers," says Foster "are guilty of the worst frauds; yet the whole industry suffers because of the acts of the buccaneering minority."[1] A bill pending in the Massachusetts legislature in 1940 attempts to license instalment sellers under state supervision, and also requires that a clear, unambiguous statement of all costs and all terms of credit be given to the buyer at the time of sale.

Life Insurance

Another set of consumer problems arises in connection with the buying of life insurance. Unfamiliar mathematical tables and constant pressure from agents bewilder the consumer, who may be making the largest single purchase of his life. It is important that anyone interested in the protection to be bought through life insurance learn about it from the consumer viewpoint. He should know something about industrial, ordinary life, and group insurance; which would best suit his needs; and what are the relative costs. Abuses in life insurance practices have led to the recognition that insurance companies are affected with a public interest which carries with it grave responsibilities. The first department for the regulation of insurance was founded in 1855 in

[1] *See* Foster, *Public Supervision of Consumer Credit* (*infra cit.*).

Massachusetts. New York established regulation in 1859. Investigations of scandals in 1905 and 1913 led to widespread control. Today most companies enjoy a high position of respectability. The insurance business is not equally well regulated in all states since each state has its own set of laws, some of which are more strict than others.

A problem of real consequence has been the adjustment of insurance loads for those who are in temporary financial straits. Since 1931, in an attempt to solve this problem, the Life Insurance Adjustment Bureau has been operating for the benefit of relief clients. The Bureau, supported by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, Prudential Insurance Company of America, and John Hancock Mutual Life Insurance Company, and under the management of a social worker, offers its services without charge to all public and private social agencies in the United States for the adjustment of insurance in dependent families. This service is, of course, limited to advice concerning insurance issued by the three cooperating companies, which issue a very large proportion of all industrial life insurance sold.

The adjustment procedure is simple. When changes in a client's insurance budget become necessary, case and insurance information forms are sent by the social agency to the Bureau which recommends several alternative adjustments. A plan is decided on by client and agency. Then a call by the company's representative completes the transaction. Second adjustments are always possible when necessary.

One tangible result of the 1905 investigation was the establishment of the "Massachusetts plan" of savings bank life insurance sponsored by Louis D. Brandeis. Since 1907 the savings banks of Massachusetts have been empowered to sell policies to residents of the state or to those working there regularly. This now famous system permits the sale of policies in small amounts and allows premiums to be paid monthly. There are no agents nor commissions. Expenses of operation therefore are low, for example, 5.02 per cent in 1935 as compared with 13.67 per cent for ordinary companies. Investments have been so well made that returns earned are consistently higher than those of large competing companies. Until 1938, Massachusetts was the only state which had such a system. In that year a similar plan was inaugurated in New York. Attempts to pass laws of this nature in other states have been unsuccessful so far.

Cooperation

In addition to the help that consumers get from the educational programs that are being carried on for their benefit and from the protection afforded them by various government agencies, many are now getting help from one another through cooperation. Mention has already been made of this in connection with credit unions. Through the development of consumers' cooperatives, consumers have found ways of doing things for themselves in groups which they could not possibly do for themselves as isolated individuals. Interest in the possibilities of cooperatives as a means of dealing with consumers' buying problems has been growing rapidly in the past few years.

It is through the organization of coopetative stores that consumers can take initiative in getting from producers exactly the kinds of things they want. These stores are set up to act as the buying agents for consumers. Even when operating on a comparatively small scale, they can have a good many of the products they handle made to meet their own specifications and conform to their own quality standards. When they cannot get what they want at satisfactory prices from established producers, there is always some possibility that they can undertake production economically on their own account. Cooperative stores have a special duty to provide what are really good values rather than merely to stock lines that sell well. How far they succeed in doing this is questioned by some. However, the cooperatives do lead in giving customers infor-

mation about products. Quality grades, supplemented by informative literature available in the stores, are usually indicated on labels of products for which grades have been established. Specifications for paint are given on the label; pastes, oils, soaps, cereals, and many other products carry complete descriptions.

Since consumers are owners of the cooperatives, there is no reason to make special inducements for buying through advertisements which emphasize the exciting or glamorous features of the product. Advertisements that appear indicate to the consumer the exact nature and content of the product being bought. Membership is expanded through personal contacts more than through advertising appeals, while for the maintenance of loyalty and continuing appreciation of their services, the cooperatives depend principally on their social and educational programs. Cooperators believe that business carried on according to their principles is not only socially more desirable but is economically more efficient than that conducted for profit by commercial enterprises. They advocate it as a "type of business which will function more equitably, which will tend to undermine monopoly price structures . . . and which will buttress our political and social democracy by creating a supporting economic democracy."[1]

In other countries cooperatives have been most successful where they have been able to effect economies in distribution or where their competitors were charging monopoly prices. They came on the scene in the United States somewhat late, after the economies of straight-line mass distribution had already been extensively exploited by the chain stores, mail order houses, and large department stores. For that reason and others they have not had here the initial advantage they had abroad. American consumers, having become particularly responsive to price appeals, are not easily won away from the private stores by assurances that the cooperatives will give them better "real values." Then, too, many people accustomed to the variety of products on display in ordinary stores feel that cooperative buying limits their freedom of choice to an extent greater than can be compensated for by the promised gains. Cooperatives have undoubtedly a real contribution to make to consumer welfare; directly to those who like doing business according to their methods, and indirectly to all through their attacks on monopoly prices. In view of the difficulties that confront them, however, it is hardly to be expected that in this country they will quickly solve the problems of any large proportion of the buying public.

An interesting phase of the movement has been the development of so-called self-help cooperatives. These groups were started during 1931 and 1932 when destitute unemployed who were receiving inadequate relief banded together to help themselves by bartering idle man-power for needed goods and services. Under the Federal Emergency Relief Act of 1933 a Division of Self-Help Cooperatives was set up in the Federal Emergency Relief Administration (FERA) which aided groups, principally through small cash grants of working capital. The advent of this federal aid brought the second phase of the movement—the development of production and processing of goods not obtainable through barter. Up until the virtual termination of the FERA in December, 1935, about 250 groups or 100,000 persons were given aid. A representative list of activities carried on by self-help production cooperatives included baking, dairying, coal mining, carpentry, repair of automobiles, handicrafts, and operation of barber shops and cafeterias. The third stage of the movement came with the necessity for finding a cash market for part of the products produced in order to have funds for raw materials and for partial cash compensation to workers. When groups desired to enter the cash market they agreed to accept FERA funds as loans to be repaid to the state. During 1935 and 1936 California, Utah, and Washington appropriated

[1] *See* Stephens College, *infra cit.*

funds for the aid of self-help units within their borders. At the close of 1938 there were 140 self-help organizations in 18 states with about 5,500 members. Their number has been decreasing steadily since 1935 although several successful units have been started since that time. It seems probable that a few self-help cooperatives will become permanent, particularly in those regions where unemployment remains widespread and in those cooperatives whose members are too old to be needed in private industry but who still can and want to work.

Other Problems

Three more problems of consumer importance, treated in detail in other parts of this volume, deserve mention here. Through the Federal Housing Administration and other agencies the government is beginning to help solve the problems of that one-third of our nation which is ill housed. City and state planning boards are attempting to make amends for their lack of planning in past decades. *See* Housing and City Planning. The consumer's medical problems, particularly the needs of the middle class worker who lives just within his income, are beginning to be treated in a realistic manner by the development of health insurance and preventive medicine plans. *See* Medical Care. Finally, the aids offered to consumers of small means are being extended to afford him more nearly adequate protection where before he has had little but intimidation. *See* Legal Aid.

The consumer is today being offered many services by commercial companies and professional associations. For example, some are publishing booklets with consumer information of which the Better Business Bureau Fact booklets are a good example; others are placing seals of approval on products that reach a certain standard, such as the seal of the American Dental Association for dental products. These are but two among many furnishing information to consumers. In fact, the mere number of groups offering services makes it difficult to appraise the value of their work. It is important for consumers to be alert to the biases which may exist in the consumer material of business concerns whose primary aim is not education but profit. Consumers should also beware of those organizations which purport to be organized in behalf of the consumer but whose only aim is to influence him in a particular direction.

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COUNCILS IN SOCIAL WORK.[1] Although councils in social work as we now know them are a relatively recent development, there have been a number of movements in the field during the past sixty years characterized to some degree by both planning and coordination, two of the main functions of councils. During the decade 1877–1887 a number of cities founded "charity organization societies" designed to prevent duplication and coordinate the social services of the community. In 1905 and succeeding years a number of national organizations were established, made up of agencies having a similar function or designed to promote the type of work carried on by agencies in the same field of endeavor. *See* NATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS IN SOCIAL WORK. Although the purpose of these organizations was primarily to raise standards of service and develop broad policies relating to objectives and operation on a national scale, they contributed to the planning and coordinating function. From 1908 to 1920 the precursors of the modern council of social agencies were being established in Cincinnati, Denver, Milwaukee, Pittsburgh, St. Louis, and other cities.

The council movement is rooted to some extent in the traditional American method of operating through groups and committees. The "town meeting" of the New England variety, the civic councils and community church idea which followed, and the realization that added strength is to be found in communal planning have all contributed to their development.

The basic purposes of councils in social work are to coordinate efforts and programs in social work and to substitute cooperative effort for competitive activity. This they attempt to do through a better factual basis for community planning, better teamwork among social agencies, better standards of social work, better public understanding of social work, and better support of social work. One of the most important results of a successful council program is that it centers the attention of citizens, social workers, and agency executives alike on the needs of the community rather than on agencies. The ideal sought is a getting together of the whole family of agencies into an effective federation of social forces for each community.

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

Types of Councils in Social Work

There are three general types of councils in social work. All have the same general objectives but each differs somewhat in organization and method.

1. Central councils of social agencies. These councils, which are found in most large cities, are usually characterized by a membership composed almost exclusively of social agencies with a few individual memberships, including some laymen; and by the division of their activities into functional fields, such as family welfare, child welfare, work for the aged, and the like. In recent years there has been some deviation from this pattern and organization has taken place around case work, group work, health, institutional service, and so forth. A third outstanding characteristic of the central councils is that they function for a city as a whole and usually embrace all of the various functional fields of social work. The usual form of organization has been a representative body composed of delegates, generally the executive and a board member, from each public and private agency. The larger councils employ professional staffs.

2. Neighborhood, regional, or community councils. Such councils are situated either in neighborhoods, regions, or boroughs of large cities (notably in Los Angeles, New Haven, Conn., New York, and Pittsburgh) or in small cities or towns where they function for the city or town as a whole. These councils differ from central councils in that for the most part they include in their membership not only social agencies but civic organizations, libraries, schools, and churches. Only a comparatively few, taking the country as a whole, employ professional staffs. In the larger cities, however, the neighborhood or regional councils are now acquiring staff to a greater extent.

In some instances these councils are older in point of years than any central council of social agencies in the country, a fact which is generally regarded as indicating that they have an important place in our culture and act as a medium of expression and action for neighborhood groups to a degree not possible for the larger central councils of social agencies. While the relationship between the regional councils and the central councils differs in various cities, it can be described in general as the maintenance of complete autonomy on the part of the regional or neighborhood council, based on an affiliation with the central council. In New York City, for example, the salary of several field secretaries who work with the regional councils is borne in part by the Welfare Council of New York City.

3. Coordinating councils. This type of council was first established in Berkeley, Calif., in 1919, but the movement did not gain headway until 1932 when similar organizations were established in Los Angeles and other sections of California. Coordinating councils were originally organized to center the attention of the community on plans designed to prevent delinquency, an emphasis which has now become subjected in most cases to the broader purposes of the coordination of agencies and the planning for all welfare services in the community. There is now rather general recognition that delinquency is so much a part of the total life of the community that any efforts at prevention and treatment must be related to the entire social welfare program of the neighborhood or city.

While there has been some spread of coordinating councils in the Middle West and East, they are still largely confined to the West Coast. Los Angeles County alone has 72 such councils. In some communities in New Jersey there has been an interesting tie-up of the councils with the public schools.

In basic purpose and organization these coordinating councils differ but little from the general councils of social agencies in small towns in the East or the neighborhood or regional councils in the larger cities. In recent years there has been an increase of participation on the part of public

welfare departments in these councils and in some cases in the West public agencies have taken a leading part in their organization and development.

Community surveys made in Hartford, Conn., in 1934 and in Providence, R. I., in 1936 recommended the decentralization of central councils into district or neighborhood councils. Such decentralization is important because it brings to a given neighborhood the opportunity for residents to study and act upon problems indigenous to their own districts, and gives an increased opportunity for board members and other laymen to participate actively in social planning.

By another method of classification the three types of councils discussed above may be thought of as falling into two rather than three groups: first, the central, city-wide council, usually organized along functional lines and including in its membership only or primarily social agencies; and second, the regional or neighborhood, small town, and coordinating councils, built largely around geographical or neighborhood problems and interests and including in their membership civic as well as social agencies. Those in the latter group are more flexible than the larger central councils, as is shown in their tendency to organize activities around specific problems of community concern, bringing into play on almost every problem representatives of various functional fields. This is in contrast to the general practice prevalent in most central councils of social agencies where the general tendency is to keep rather rigidly to functional lines. The large number of agencies with which the central councils must deal in each functional field is somewhat responsible for this. A number of larger councils are now organizing inter-functional committees and other devices to overcome this disadvantage.

An interesting experiment which should be noted is taking place in the metropolitan area of Boston where the Council of Social Agencies has been active in bringing into closer relationship with itself and the community fund a number of councils and chests in the wide metropolitan area which constitutes Greater Boston. This move is unique in that it represents the first outstanding effort on the part of a council in a large city to extend social planning under its auspices to outlying districts which, though they feel the independence and autonomy of most New England towns, recognize a certain dependence on the facilities of Boston.

Relation of Councils to Chests

Since 1914–1918, when this country raised money on a large scale for war sufferers, there has been established all over the country in practically every city of over 25,000 population some form of community chest. *See* COMMUNITY CHESTS. The purpose of these organizations has been to federate the money-raising activities of the community and to distribute the money thus raised on an equitable basis to all participating agencies.

In some instances chests were set up originally as financial bureaus under the councils. In other communities they were organized entirely as distinct units, and in still other instances the councils were organized as departments of chests. There are also instances where the two organizations are staffed and housed jointly with interlocking membership on both boards and committees.

In some cities where a close relationship exists between the chest and the council, it has been found difficult to support sufficient staff adequately to man both the money-raising and planning functions. The result has been in all too many cases that the urgent demands of the money-raising job have overshadowed the council efforts. During the past few years there has been considerable criticism of this tendency, with the result that in Chicago, Cleveland, New York City, and other cities various plans have originated designed to retain as many advantages as possible of the chest-council re-

lationship and at the same time avoid the most serious difficulties. There is evidence that some of these experiments have been fruitful, and while they diffet somewhat the most successful are charactetized by participation by both chest and council members iu decisions as to what amount of money shall be raised, what agencies should be admitted, and how money shall be allocated. Plans of this nature are instrumental in helping contributors, social agencies, and council and chest executives to see the financial requirements of agencies in the light of the needs of the community. As social planning and budgeting are inseparable, there is every reason to believe that those cities which are moving in the direction of a closer working and administrative relationship berween chests and councils are proceeding on sound principles of community organization.

Experience throughout the country reveals that there arises from time to time differences of opinion between budget committees of chests and councils on various aspects of the total task facing both bodies. A number of these differences have been around the question as to whether the chest or the council should undertake community studies. While there can be no general rule in respect to this matter, in view of the wide differences that exist in the organization and administration of different chests and councils and the differences in their relationship in various cities, the prevailing view seems to be that the council should determine broad questions of social service policy and conduct community studies in connection with this function, provided, of course, that it has the staff and the facilities. The main principles involved here are that community studies and studies of individual social agencies should have the backing and the participation of the community as a whole at the outset; that the findings should be interpreted, as they unfold, to all those having any relation to them; and that all agencies involved should participate in the acceptance and carrying out of the recommendations. This implies that a study may be conducted by either the council or the chest or under the auspices of a joint committee of both bodies, depending upon whether the council or the chest maintains the closer and more inclusive relationship to member agencies on a social planning basis, and which of the two bodies maintains the budget and staff for research. In general, however, the structure and main purposes of councils would seem to fit them best for this function.

Structure and Function

The traditional method of organization of the central council of social agencies has been to separate the representatives of the member agencies into divisions or sections organized along functional lines, such as family service, child welfare, medical social work, day nurseries, and so forth. The sections or divisions thus formed elect executive committees and chairmen, which then authorize the appointment of such other committees as the projects to be undertaken by the section or division suggest. The executive committee is responsible in most instances to the executive committee of the entire council which in turn is usually appointed by the board of directors. A form of council organization which is still uncommon but which has been tried in Cleveland is one comprised of separate councils working in close cooperation with a central planning committee. These councils include case work, group work, and health councils. They are, however, related to a central executive committee as well as to a common planning group.

Councils of social agencies usually maintain small professional staffs, which are assigned to the sections or divisions of the councils and act in the capacity of executive secretaries or group leaders working closely with the chairmen of these units.

In addition to the sections or divisions most councils have a number of committees which address themselves to problems or subject matter which do not fall logically

under any one section or unit but relate to all or several of the sections or divisions. Examples are committees on children's institutions (which in some councils do not fall within an established section), chronic illness, social legislation, and Negro welfare.

Central councils of social agencies are becoming increasingly aware of the necessity for some common planning committee or group within the council structure or closely attached to it. The councils in several of the larger cities have already established such planning groups or have provided for them in their long-range plans of council organization. Briefly, such planning committees receive major recommendations of sections, divisions, or committees of the central council and in some instances of regional or neighborhood councils, and upon this basis function in somewhat the same capacity as a city planning commission proceeds in laying out a physical plan for a city.

In addition to the coordinating and planning activities, practically every council of social agencies maintains certain direct or common or central services, such as the social service exchange, publicity (which is generally confined to publicizing or interpreting the general needs of social work in the community), and in most instances some type of information service. *See* PUBLICITY AND INTERPRETATION IN SOCIAL WORK and SOCIAL SERVICE EXCHANGES. The latter may be confined to giving information to social agencies as to where they can obtain certain services for their clients or may be devoted to giving information to individual clients. Councils also frequently publish and distribute the directory of social agencies for the community. Another type of common or central service is social research. This includes the collection of service statistics from member agencies either monthly or annually. *See* RESEARCH AND STATISTICS IN SOCIAL WORK. A number of councils have conducted local studies as an essential basis for social planning in the community. An increasing number of these, however, although locally planned and promoted, have been actually carried on by outside agencies or individuals and an increasing number have been participated in or actually conducted by national social work organizations. It has been shown that in many instances local studies are more accurately projects in community organization rather than research, designed to interpret to local leaders, both lay and professional, the status of local social conditions and to assist them in starting a process by which needed modifications in the social work structure of the community can take place. *See* COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION FOR SOCIAL WORK.

It is the prevailing view that a council should not engage in any direct service to clients of a nature which can be properly performed by individual agencies in the community. There are instances, however, where a council has undertaken, upon the consent and recommendation of the social agencies involved, a direct service to clients such as a clearing bureau for unattached and transient men and boys, a referral bureau for the aged, and the like, but such activities are usually undertaken only until such time as other and permanent auspices can be arranged for them.

Membership Policies

In the early years of the organization and operation of central councils of social agencies the main emphasis quite logically was to encourage all social agencies in the community to join, with the exception of those whose standards of operation were so low as to make it obviously unwise for them to be included. It was thought that to plan successfully for the social welfare of the community and to raise standards of work in individual agencies, it was essential to bring into the "council family" all social agencies that could be induced to join. In recent years the experience of councils has brought about certain changes of policy on this question. It has been found desirable to establish membership requirements and

place some responsibility on social agencies to measure up to these qualifications before admission is granted. This trend has been increased by the tendency of financial federations and chests to insist on certain requisites for admission to their membership. In a number of councils the various functional divisions or sections draw up their own membership qualifications, based on the standards of the particular field in which they operate. In most cases these follow closely the standards of service formulated by national agencies in the same fields.

Membership in regional or neighborhood councils and the coordinating councils is more inclusive, although in many cases certain requisites are established in so far as social agencies are concerned. The fact that these councils have a broad membership base makes it logical that they should place less emphasis on membership requirements based on standards of service.

Most councils, both central and the smaller neighborhood or regional councils, have some provision for individual memberships other than agency or organization memberships. In some cases these are dependent upon contributions but in many instances board members and other interested citizens are admitted on the basis of their participation or interest in community planning. In Yonkers, N. Y., under a plan of reorganization effectuated in 1939, a newly created Social Planning Council—heir to the functions of a council of social agencies, several neighborhood councils, and a coordinating council, and to certain planning activities of the chest—has integrated its several types of membership through establishing two "houses of delegates" in addition to a citizens' committee and a board of 36 persons elected by the membership. Individual membership is open to anyone who agrees to render service in Council divisions or on member agency boards.

The many indications that central councils of social agencies are tightening up on membership requirements are probably due to several reasons. Perhaps the most important is that it has become increasingly difficult to raise funds for private agencies. This has led to a close scrutiny of existing agencies to be sure that only those which really merit support are encouraged to continue. Another reason is that experience over a period of years has brought councils to the realization that those agencies which do not measure up to accepted standards militate against the whole process of community planning, deter progress in social welfare, and undermine the confidence of the general public not only in planning and federated financing but in social work as such.

Public Agencies in Councils

During the early years of council development in large cities the more influential private agencies with well-trained executives and with board members having social and financial status supplied the main leadership. In those days public agencies were frowned upon somewhat, or at best were considered inferior to the larger private agencies in both standards of service and personnel.

During the past ten years there has been a decided change in the prevailing opinion regarding public agencies. *See* PUBLIC WELFARE. This is due largely to the phenomenal improvement they have made since the economic depression placed upon them the major share of responsibility in carrying the public relief load. In many cases, councils which include representatives of both public and private agencies have taken the leadership in reorganizing and strengthening public agencies, helping to set up their programs, and interpreting their function and the need for their support to the community at large.

In central councils of the larger cities and in the regional councils of smaller towns and rural areas, public departments take a leading part along with representatives of private agencies in the day-by-day activities of councils. While at times there is a tendency for the private agencies to bring pres-

sure on the public group and in other ways regard them as separate units, the trend is more and more in the direction of both public and private agencies working together within the council structure on the whole job of planning for the welfare of the community.

Financing

The financing of councils in social work presents more difficult problems than the financing of agencies giving direct services to people. It is easier to interpret to contributors and the general public the need for and the functions of an agency which deals directly with children or families than the relatively indirect functions of councils.

The main sources of council income are from individual and agency memberships and individual, foundation, and chest contributions. In recent years foundation contributions have greatly decreased but to some extent income from agency memberships has increased. In those cities where there is a close administrative or cooperative relationship between the chest and the council, the chest contributes to or in some instances furnishes a large share of the budget of the council. Only in a relatively few instances do the regulations governing public agencies permit them to pay membership dues to councils.

Current Problems and Criticisms of Councils

As indicated earlier in this article, councils of social agencies are relatively young. With the exception of a few regional or neighborhood and coordinating councils the central councils as we now know them did not actually get under way until after 1920. Councils emphasized at first the coordination of services based on bringing agencies together for a discussion of common problems, and then as a logical later step the pointing out and pointing up of community needs with planning for more adequate coverage of these needs as the main objective (an emphasis which sees coordination as a by-product rather than an end in itself).

There are certain criticisms of the council movement which in the minds of some people are so basic as to raise the question as to whether councils as presently organized and functioning can ever effectively serve the purposes for which they exist. Foremost among these and by far the most fundamental is the claim that an organization made up principally of staff and board members of social agencies can never rise sufficiently above identification with their own agencies to furnish the active and vigorous leadership needed if the social work structure of the community is to be effectively modified. In support of this criticism it is claimed that councils of social agencies tolerate low standards of service, as the continued existence of certain agencies would appear to testify, and make little or no impression on the basic social work structure of the community. It is also held by some that most councils are not sufficiently related to labor and other groups devoted to social action to make them really effective.

Responses have been made to these criticisms to the effect that any lasting changes in social work as in other fields must be made slowly and with the participation and eventually the consent of those concerned. It has been stated, moreover, that social action which is too precipitous or which departs from the will of the majority of member agencies of a council will jeopardize if not destroy the main purposes for which councils were established. Those who hold this view aver that while councils must give far more attention than at present to the selection of community projects for council action in order that the time and effort involved may be placed where they count the most, and that while more vigorous leadership must be given in the matter of raising standards of agency work, there is no authority inherent in councils as such to dictate to individual agencies or to "legislate" basic changes in community social work structure. To assume this responsibility would mean, they insist, that a council would cease to be a council and become an instru-

ment endowed with more direct power and authority than now resides in most governmental bodies.

The prevailing view is that councils obtain the most effective results through the long, slow process of education and that they must therefore base their philosophy and methods of operation on this tested experience.

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CRIPPLED CHILDREN.[1] Notable work for crippled children has been carried on by public and private organizations for many years. Services were not generally available to children in need of care, however, until federal aid to the states was provided. The Social Security Act has made possible medical care of high quality to crippled children on a nation-wide scale. The greatly expanded programs of medical, surgical, and after-care service have not been limited to physical restoration or, more narrowly, surgery alone but have had as their goal the total welfare of the crippled child.

Number of Crippled Children

The 1930 White House Conference on Child Health and Protection estimated that there were 368,325 crippled persons under twenty-one years of age in the United States, basing their estimate on a ratio of three to every 1,000 of the total general population. *See* WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCES. The Secretary of Labor, in apportioning funds to the states for services to crippled children, has used a tentative ratio of six crippled children per 1,000 population under twenty-one years of age.

Since the passage of the Social Security Act registers of crippled children have been established by each state agency administering services to crippled children. The children listed are those under twenty-one years of age, living in the state or territory, who are suffering from crippling conditions as determined by the diagnosis of a licensed physician under the definition given in the state or territorial law or administrative ruling. Registers include children under care or awaiting care by the official crippled children's agency and children treated under other public or private auspices. The registers of crippled children in the 48 states, Alaska, Hawaii, and the District of Columbia on December 31, 1939, included the names of 248,627 crippled children. The numbers of children reported ranged

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

from 173 in Nevada to 29,849 in New York. Comparison of the numbers registered per 1,000 population under twenty-one years (1930 census) showed a range from 1.1 in Louisiana to 9.7 in Illinois. The rate for the entire group of 51 programs was 5.0. The variations in the ratios of registered crippled children to child population reflect primarily differences in the completeness of the respective state registers rather than true variations in the incidence of crippling conditions.

The term "crippled children" is variously defined in the several states. A review of state laws reveals differences extending from a definition restricting services to children with motor disabilities to a broad definition under which services may be extended to all physically handicapped children, exclusive of those whose only handicap is incurable blindness or deafness and those whose mental limitations are such that they cannot profit by medical, surgical, or educational aid. Handicapped children requiring permanent custodial care have been considered beyond the scope of the state programs. In order to learn the extent of crippling among children, the United States Children's Bureau encourages the states to include in the registers all crippled children rather than to restrict them to children requiring orthopedic or plastic services.

Causes of Crippling

The principal causes of ctippling in children enrolled on state registers are, in the order of the number of children affected: poliomyelitis (infantile paralysis), cerebral palsy, other birth paralysis, clubfoot, harelip or cleft palate, tuberculosis of bones and joints, osteomyelitis, scoliosis (curvature of the spine), rickets, and burns. Except for certain congenital defects, the causes of crippling or the physical disabilities which result are to some degree preventable. In the majority of cases proper treatment, promptly given, will result in physical restoration or at least will materially reduce the child's handicap.

An overwhelming preponderance of children with orthopedic and plastic disabilities was shown in an analysis of state registers as of June 30, 1938. Approximately 97 per cent of all crippled children registered had orthopedic or plastic conditions and only 3 per cent had other types of crippling conditions. Types of crippling conditions among children for which little provision for care has been made include disabilities arising from impaired vision and hearing, rheumatic heart disease, and diabetes.

Private Organizations

Private organizations, including Rotary International, Kiwanis International, Civitan, and other "service clubs," and the Elks, Shriners, and American Legion, are active supporters of work for crippled children. They have been effective not only in providing care for handicapped children but also in interpreting their needs to the public, in sponsoring legislation in their behalf, and in urging appropriations from public funds for the extension of services.

The Shriners maintain a number of hospitals which provide both clinic and ward care for crippled children. The Junior Leagues in several cities support convalescent homes, curative workshops, or other special services for handicapped children. In a number of states, voluntary state-wide societies have organized local committees in many counties that provide direct services for crippled children and promote public understanding of the social, educational, and medical needs of children handicapped by orthopedic conditions. In numerous ways these private groups are supplementing the work of the official state agencies and assisting them to develop broad and adequate programs.

The International Society for Crippled Children, founded in 1921, has done pioneer work in directing public attention to the needs of crippled children. In 1939 the National Society for Crippled Children of the United States of America was organized

as successor in this country to the International Society for Crippled Children. It fosters the development of voluntary crippled children's agencies in each state, conducts training courses for workers with the physically handicapped, holds an annual convention, participates in international conferences, and publishes a magazine and other bulletins.

The Georgia Warm Springs Foundation, a 110-bed institution founded to treat persons with infantile paralysis and to organize a national fight against this disease, accepts pay patients and a limited number of part-pay and free patients. Each year since 1934 nation-wide celebrations of President Roosevelt's birthday have been held to raise money for the fight against infantile paralysis. Prior to 1938 the proceeds were used to support the work of the Georgia Warm Springs Foundation. In 1938 they went to the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, the organization of which was sponsored by President Roosevelt. The purposes of the Foundation are to assist in research on the medical problems involved in the cause, prevention, and treatment of infantile paralysis. In the early part of 1939 the National Foundation organized local chapters in various counties throughout the United States in which a part of the funds raised each year will be retained for direct service to individual cases.

The Nemours Foundation was established in 1936 for the purpose of "the maintenance and support of and the making of contributions to charitable institutions operated for the care and treatment of crippled children, but not of incurables." This Foundation has provided free hospital and convalescent care for many crippled children in Delaware. At present it has under construction in Wilmington a large medical institution for the treatment of handicapped children.

Federal Participation

The passage of the Social Security Act in 1935 marked a forward step in the assumption of governmental responsibility for meeting certain needs of the people on a nation-wide scale. Responsibility for the administration of Title V, Part 2 of the Act is placed upon the Children's Bureau. The purpose of this part of the Act is to enable each state, through federal grants, to extend and improve (especially in rural areas and areas suffering from severe economic distress) services for locating crippled children and for providing medical, surgical, corrective, and other services and care, as well as facilities for diagnosis, hospitalization, and after-care for children who are crippled or suffering from conditions which lead to crippling. Grants to the states are made by the Secretary of Labor upon approval by the Chief of the Children's Bureau of annual plans for these services submitted by the states.

The Social Security Act as amended (1939) authorizes an annual appropriation of $3,870,000 for services for crippled children. Of this appropriation the sum of $20,000 is allotted to each state (total $1,040,000) and the sum of $1,830,000 is apportioned by the Secretary of Labor according to the need of each state after the number of crippled children in need of care and the costs of furnishing care have been taken into consideration. These amounts (total $2,870,000) must be matched by state, local, or private funds under the complete supervisory control of the official state agency. The remaining amount, $1,000,000, is available for allocation to the states without the requirement for matching by state funds. It is allotted by the Secretary of Labor according to the financial need of each state for assistance in carrying out its state plan, after taking into consideration the number of crippled children in need of the services and the cost of furnishing such services to them. This additional fund makes possible the extension of services to many children awaiting care in states with limited financial resources, expansion of the program to include other types of crippling conditions, especially rheumatic heart disease, and pro-

vision for meeting epidemics or emergencies.

Several states have expressed particular interest in initiating or expanding programs for the care of children suffering from heart disease, or from conditions leading to heart disease, that offer a reasonable expectation of improvement. During the initial stages of these programs primary consideration will be given to the provision of services to children suffering from the first attack of rheumatic fever and to the use of established treatment centers where facilities and services adequate to maintain a high quality of care are available. By May 1, 1940, 10 states had submitted plans for a supplemental program for children crippled by heart disease, which were approved by the Chief of the Children's Bureau, and were allotted funds without marching requirements by the Secretary of Labor.

The program of care for crippled children is particularly significant because of the variety of services that must be coordinated to make up an effective, well-rounded program. The Children's Bureau has established a Crippled Children's Division to administer this program under the direction of a physician assisted by special orthopedic and cardiac consultants and by a medical, medical social, and public health nursing staff to give consultant service to the state agencies in formulating their plans and carrying on their activities.

State Programs

Before the passage of the Social Security Act 37 states had passed laws relating to medical care and services for crippled children. Several state hospitals devoted to the care of crippled children had been established. In many of the states, however, the appropriations were so small that relatively few children could be cared for, and in only 11 states was it possible to conduct a statewide program for any substantial number of crippled children.

By March, 1939, all the states, Alaska, Hawaii, and the District of Columbia had established services for crippled children under the provisions of the Social Security Act. Under the terms of the Act as amended (1939) Puerto Rico became eligible on January 1, 1940, for federal grants to initiate a program for the care of crippled children. Responsibility for the administration of crippled children's services has been placed in a variety of state agencies—26 departments of health, 14 departments of welfare, 5 departments of education, 5 crippled children's commissions, and one state university hospital. In Puerto Rico the Insular Department of Health has been designated as the official agency to develop a program for the care of crippled children. There has been a trend toward transfer of administrative responsibility to departments of health and direction of the program by a physician, indicating recognition of the medical factors involved.

Annual plans as developed by the state agencies have followed no set pattern. In no two states are the plans identical, for no two states are sufficiently alike to duplicate each other's programs satisfactorily. Each state has studied the number of its crippled children and their needs, evaluated its resources, ascertained gaps in its services, and evolved its own program adapted to its particular situation. The programs have changed year by year as new possibilities for improving the quality of care have been presented.

A consistent emphasis on medical care of high quality has been maintained. On the one hand, the futility of concentrating on pathology alone and, on the other hand, the importance of understanding and treating the patient as well as the disease have been demonstrated over and over again. The crippled child is not just a twisted spine or a paralyzed limb. Provision of skilled surgical services to straighten crooked spines and limbs is not enough to fulfill the purposes of the social security program for crippled children. The whole child, not just his crippling condition, is given consideration in the provision of adequate medical

care. Many supplementary services, all interdependent and each indispensable, are integrated in a satisfactory program. The extent to which each state can provide such a program depends on many factors, such as the stage of development of the program, the adequacy of funds, the availability of facilities meeting acceptable standards, and the scope and quality of the services of state and local health and welfare agencies.

A state plan usually provides for a state administrative staff composed of one or more physicians, public health nurses, medical social workers, and physical therapy technicians. Amendments (1939) to the Social Security Act include a requirement effective January 1, 1940, that the various states must provide in their plans for employment of all personnel on a merit basis, either under a state civil service system or under a merit system plan of personnel administration established by state executive action. Recommendations of national professional organizations and standards set by national examining boards as to essential qualifications for professional personnel are being used by state agencies as guides in establishing requirements for the selection of members of the state staff. Special provision has been made in most of the states for staff development programs. Stipends have been granted to members of the professional staff for courses in medical social work, in public health nursing, in orthopedic nursing, and in physical therapy.

Services for Crippled Children

1. Locating crippled children. The state agency has an obligation to search out children who are crippled or who are in danger of becoming crippled. Early location of a crippled child may have direct bearing upon whether his condition can be corrected so that he will have no residual handicap, or whether his crippling condition can be only alleviated so that he will have some permanent impairment of function. Community understanding of the program has encouraged the early referral of children with physical disabilities to the state agency. Stimulation of the interest of physicians, nurses, social workers, teachers, citizen groups, and individuals constitutes a strong factor in building up a continuing case finding service. Additional sources of information include the school census, epidemiological reports, birth certificates, and special surveys. In a number of states the department of health has made provision for reporting birth injuries and congenital abnormalities on the new standard birth certificates. The general adoption of this policy would be an effective aid to the states in enabling them promptly to locate children with such disabilities.

2. Clinic care. After a handicapped child has been located he receives skilled diagnostic services by qualified pediatricians and surgeons at state clinics situated in permanent centers or held periodically in various communities so as to be accessible to all parts of the state. A satisfactory policy adopted by the majority of the states has been to set up no restrictions in regard to admission for diagnosis. Only after the examination and recommendations for treatment have been made is a decision reached concerning acceptance for further care. Eligibility for medical care is based on the child's need rather than on the parent's ability to pay.

Of particular concern to the state agencies has been the problem of seeing that crippled children in migrant families and in families of minority groups, such as Negroes, Indians, and Mexicans, receive the services they need. Facilities for these children are often deplorable or entirely lacking, and problems of legal residence may complicate the provision of care.

Experience has demonstrated that the rush and tension of a busy clinic, the unaccustomed experience of clinic attendance, and the frequently unfamiliar processes of a physical examination often constitute a rather formidable ordeal for the crippled child and his parents. Hence the state agencies have found that it is important for the

surgeon to discuss the child's condition with the parents and for the medical social worker to learn the child's and the parents' reactions to the medical recommendations and to assist them in adjusting any difficulties that might interfere with treatment. An opportunity for discussion and planning lessens the possibility that parents will leave the clinic confused and apprehensive and increases the probability that they will cooperate throughout medical treatment.

3. Hospital care. About 75 per cent of the crippled children examined at clinic require care that can be provided at home but the remaining 25 per cent may require a period of hospital care ranging from a few days to many months. The state agency arranges for admission of these children to approved hospitals as near their own homes as possible.

Many social problems are associated with hospital care. Every child who requires a long period of hospitalization needs continuity of school work, recreation, contacts with his parents through correspondence and visiting, and some individual attention. The ability of the hospital to adapt its services to meet the particular needs of each child rests to a large extent upon the ability of the state agency to make available pertinent social information, and to work with the personnel of the hospital in meeting social needs. The hospital depends for its consideration of the child as a whole upon the effectiveness of systems whereby it is informed of the child's environment, personality, relationships, progress in school, and possible future. The medical social staff of the state agency is frequently responsible for developing such systems.

4. Convalescent care. It is essential that the period of hospitalization be made as brief as is consistent with good medical care. Adequacy of planning for the discharge of crippled children from hospitals is predicated upon knowledge of the child and his environment and upon preparation of the home for his return, as well as upon knowledge of his physical condition, the medical recommendations, and the probable outcome of treatment. Children living in areas distant from medical centers, who require skilled medical supervision, frequent physical therapy treatments, or complicated dressings may need further care in a convalescent home or in a foster home. There is a lack of institutions for convalescents in many states, but child welfare services have often developed sufficiently to provide valuable assistance in the selection and supervision of foster homes for these children. *See* CHILD WELFARE.

5. After-care. Many diversified services are required for crippled children following hospital and convalescent treatment and for children who are not hospitalized but who are under medical supervision. Every phase of family life and personal life may be affected by the illness or crippling of one member of the family. Any factor that serves to center attention on one member to the exclusion of the others results in lack of balance. Hence the parents and the crippled child may need assistance in wisely bridging the gap between a medical regimen and normal living.

Crippled children who have a favorable prognosis as far as any permanent handicap is concerned may none the less have to undergo a period of temporary physical impairment or disfigurement. A child who is handicapped or different in any way from other children arouses attention and concern. Children who are healthy and active may shrink from a crippled child or may repulse him through physical or psychological cruelty. The parents' attitude toward a handicapped child may range from extreme solicitude to rejection. They may feel responsible for his condition and wish to protect him in every way, or they may feel insulted by his handicap and wish to punish him. Not every child with a crippling condition presents emotional problems that appear to influence the medical situation or the child's adjustment to it. Many children even with serious crippling conditions are able to make satisfactory adjustments to the

limitations that are imposed. However, it is important for the state agency to understand the meaning to the child and his parents of his crippling condition and its treatment and to be sensitive to the social factors affecting him at home, in the hospital, at school, and in the community. In these programs the medical social staff of the state agency has responsibility for treating each child as an individual in relation to his total needs, and in providing case work services for children whose social needs influence the effectiveness of medical treatment or the adjustment to their physical handicaps. *See* MEDICAL SOCIAL WORK.

Nursing service is an important factor in the crippled children's program. The direct service given by the local county nurse can make an effective contribution to the program when orthopedic nursing is included in the general nursing service. This necessitates close cooperation between the orthopedic public health nurses engaged by the crippled children's agency and the public health nurses on the staff of the state health department. A well-balanced public health nursing program stresses comprehensive follow-up care, including health instruction, so that parental understanding and cooperation may contribute to the maximum results to be expected from orthopedic surgery. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING.

The department of education in some states makes provision for the education of crippled children through establishing special classes or schools for the handicapped, furnishing transportation and teachers especially trained to work with crippled children, and making possible teaching service in hospitals or convalescent homes. Education should be planned with the particular medical condition and social traits of each child in mind. Special schools for the handicapped may meet the need of some children but may heighten the anxiety of others over their difference from other children. Therefore, in deciding whether or not to send a child to one of these schools it is essential to understand the particular child's feelings about his handicap. Wisely used, these schools are a valuable resource for providing education for a severely handicapped child or for a child whose ability to move about is temporarily limited. In general, however, the state agencies attempt to meet the educational needs of crippled children with minimum emphasis on the handicap. In the many communities where special educational facilities for crippled children do not exist, considerable ingenuity is required to devise means of transportation to school, arrangements for home teaching, or stimulation of the community to provide the needed facilities. *See* SOCIAL AND HEALTH WORK IN THE SCHOOLS.

Effective relationships have been established in many states between the state crippled children's agency and the state department of vocational rehabilitation. In many states children with permanent handicaps are referred on a selective basis for vocational guidance prior to the age at which they may be accepted for vocational training. If education and training are to be successful they must be adapted to the individual child and must be directed toward attainable objectives. Over-optimistic efforts may leave the crippled child emotionally unprepared to meet the restrictions imposed by his physical handicap. If the crippled child is to find his place in the competitive world, increased employment opportunities and organized assistance in job placement are necessary. *See* VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION.

In the provision of services for crippled children there is need for consistent pooling of information, continuous joint planning, and coordination of activity on the part of health, welfare, and educational agencies, public and private, if the goal that has been set—the total welfare of the child—is to be achieved.

Prevention of Crippling

Prevention of crippling is a fundamental part of an effective program for crippled

children. Better maternal care will reduce birth injuries and crippling due to syphilis. *See* MATERNAL AND CHILD HEALTH. Hygienic living conditions for children, proper food, cod liver oil, sufficient exposure to sunlight, and protection against infections will reduce the incidence of deficiency diseases, rheumatic fever, and tuberculosis. Periodic medical supervision of children, especially in the preschool period, will frequently reveal potential physical disabilities and incipient disease at a stage when treatment can be most effective. Measures to protect children against accidents in the home and elsewhere and safety campaigns to prevent highway and other accidents will lessen the number of children injured and possibly crippled. The additional federal funds available to the state crippled children's agencies are making it increasingly possible during epidemics of diseases such as infantile paralysis, encephalitis, or meningitis, immediately to provide expert diagnosis and skilled treatment to prevent or correct any crippling condition.

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THE DEAF AND THE HARD OF HEARING.[1] Persons who from birth or early childhood are entirely without the sense of hearing, or practically so, do not learn to speak unless specially instructed. For the purposes of this article they are referred to as "the deaf," and the term "the hard of hearing" is used to apply to persons with many different degrees of hearing impairment, including those who have lost all power to hear after the establishment of good speech.

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

The Deaf

It has been estimated[1] that there are from 90,000 to 120,000 deaf persons in the United States. Their status in the community depends, perhaps more than the status of any other citizens, upon the success of their education. Their primary difficulty, of course, is that of communication. If while at school they learn to speak intelligibly and to read the lips of others, or to communicate readily in written English, they tend to be absorbed in the general population. Many, however, are isolated by the social barrier imposed by their deafness and seek the society of others similarly handicapped.

In 1940 there were 213 schools for the deaf in the United States, 66 of which were state residential schools, public or semi-public, 19 private and denominational schools (residential), and 128 public day schools. All of the states except four have state residential schools. The distribution of the day schools is sectional, five states (California, Illinois, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin) having 80 of the entire 128, and 22 states having none at all. Opinions differ widely as to the value of the day school or class as contrasted with the residential school, but studies indicate that each has a valuable place in the educational scheme.

Three methods of communication have been used in the schools—speech, finger spelling, and the sign language. Many schools are now entirely oral, but some have manual classes which are taught by finger spelling. Some permit the use of the sign language on the playgrounds and in the auditoriums.

Most schools for the deaf do not cover high school work, but a few give full high school courses. There is also an increasing tendency to encourage deaf pupils to attend high school among the unhandicapped. More than 430 have received diplomas in high, junior high, and vocational schools within the past twelve years. This tendency is evident also in more advanced work, 70 deaf students having received degrees in accredited colleges and universities during the same period. Only one institution—Gallaudet College, conducted at Washington, D. C., by the federal government—offers higher education especially for the deaf.

The education of the deaf is now compulsory in most states, but the laws, like such laws for hearing children, are not uniformly enforced and many children are still being denied educational opportunity.

The most significant recent trend in the education of the deaf is the increased use of residual hearing. It has been proved that more than half of the pupils in the average school for the deaf have some power to appreciate sound. This fact, coupled with steady improvement in electrical hearing aids, is exerting a marked effect on methods of instruction. For example, the Pennsylvania School for the Deaf, the largest school for the deaf in the country, now has 30 per cent of its pupils in classes where hearing aids are in coustant use and has been obliged to revise its standards for graduation because the academic progress of those pupils has been so greatly accelerated. Teachers in all parts of the country are demanding courses to prepare them to use the instruments properly, and every summer school for teachers of the deaf in 1940 offered such courses.

For the totally deaf, as well as their more fortunate schoolmates with partial hearing, there is help in the increased use of the tactile and kinesthetic senses, the latter pertaining to consciousness of one's own muscular movements. Another hope for the improvement of their speech lies in the recent invention of electrical voice pitch indicators, now in use in a few schools.

Deaf adults are usually self-supporting though, like any other handicapped group, they suffer disproportionately from an economic depression. The type of their employment, like their social adjustment, tends to be in accordance with their educational

[1] American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf, *Volta Review*, February, 1938.

success. They are found in a surprisingly wide variety of occupations—professional, clerical, and industrial.

All state schools for the deaf and many day schools attempt to educate their pupils vocationally as well as academically. From 2 to 35 different occupations (a total of 88) are taught in various parts of the country. Recently there has also been a great increase of interest in the deaf on the part of state agencies. Minnesota and North Carolina have had special employment bureaus for them for several years. Now such bureaus exist also in Michigan, New York, and Pennsylvania. Laws relative to the discovery, education, and employment of the deaf and the hard of hearing have been passed in these states and are under consideration in many others. State rehabilitation bureaus are making increased efforts to understand the needs and aptitudes of their deaf applicants and to train and place them intelligently. The United States Office of Education distributes information about all types of handicapped citizens, and there is evident a growing willingness on the part of the public to recognize their difficulties and grant them equal opportunity with the unhandicapped.

All national agencies for the deaf are primarily educational in purpose except those whose membership consists of the deaf themselves. There are two of these—a well-organized insurance company with many local chapters, and an organization successful primarily in meeting recreational needs. Little social work in the modern sense has been done on a national scale.

The Hard of Hearing

While no census of the hard of hearing has ever been taken, various group tests in different sections of the country indicate there are approximately ten million adults in the United States with hearing impairments in varying degrees. It is estimated that between two and three million children have deficient hearing. The United States Public Health Service has published seven preliminary reports concerning a clinical investigation of hearing in the general population, *infra cit.*

The hard of hearing adult faces the difficult problem of readjustment. He must prepare himself to overcome depression, sensitiveness, suspicion, and a feeling of inferiority if his rehabilitation is to be complete. This is best done by acquiring the art of lip reading (understanding the speaker's thought by watching the movements of his lips) and by using one of the excellent modern electrical hearing aids. These two rehabilitative factors are invaluable in the educational, economic, and social life of the hearing-handicapped.

In 1919 the American Society for the Hard of Hearing was formed for the conservation of hearing, the prevention of deafness—particularly in children—and the rehabilitation of hard of hearing adults. At the time of its formation there were only nine organizations for the hard of hearing in the United States and Canada; in 1940 there were 170, of which 123 were chapters of the Society. There is no organized work for the hard of hearing in Arkansas, the Dakotas, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, North Carolina, West Virginia, and Wyoming.

Lip-reading practice and a variety of social activities are provided by all organizations for the hard of hearing. Many of the larger chapters offer lectures and entertainments by means of group hearing aids, consultation service in regard to individual hearing aids, employment bureaus which work in cooperation with state rehabilitation bureaus, classes for hard of hearing children of preschool age, voice training classes, clubs for the study of current events, and special activities for junior groups. Chapters strive to help the hard of hearing outside of their own membership by urging lip-reading classes in the public schools; carrying on campaigns to have theaters, churches, and municipal auditoriums install group hearing aids; working in behalf of adequate legislation; and acting as informa-

tion centers on problems of the hard of hearing. Thirty local societies receive appropriations from community chests; the remainder are financed by membership dues, contributions, and fund-raising efforts.

Defective hearing may cause a child to be aggressive, or morose, or shy. His educational development is retarded; his personality may become warped. If he is not given the proper educational and social attention he may become a maladjusted adult and an economic burden on the community.

The American Society for the Hard of Hearing believes that any adequate program of work for hard of hearing children should include hearing tests, examinations by ear specialists, and treatment when indicated; instruction in lip reading in the regular schools for slightly hard of hearing children so that they may keep up with their grades, and speech instruction if needed; special classes in the regular schools for children with hearing losses so marked that they must have hearing aids and special instruction in addition to training in speech and voice; and vocational guidance.

Statistics covering the school year 1938–1939 showed that in the 893 cities, towns, and counties reporting, the hearing of 1,871,031 children was tested. Of this number 130,755 had impaired hearing and 17,708 were receiving instruction in lip reading in the regular schools. Public school classes for the severely hard of hearing child, held in schools for normally hearing children, are provided in some of the cities of California, Illinois, Iowa, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, New York, and Ohio. Many schools for the deaf also have special classes for severely hard of hearing children.

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DISASTER RELIEF.[1] A disaster may be defined as any situation, usually catastrophic in nature, where numbers of persons are

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

plunged into helplessness and suffering, and as a result need food, clothing, shelter, medical care, and other basic necessities. When distress is caused by economic maladjustments resulting from the hazards of industry and agriculture, governmental as well as private action is required. Relief in these latter circumstances, while dealing with mass distress, is not considered in this article as disaster relief. *See* RURAL SOCIAL PROGRAMS and WORK RELIEF.

Since its founding in 1881, the American Red Cross has served as the nation's disaster relief agency and is today recognized as the agency with primary responsibility for coordinating and directing the sympathy and resources of the nation in time of disaster. This position enables it to obtain needed personnel, equipment, and facilities from the federal, state, and local governments and from private agencies.

Its congressional charter of January 5, 1905, charges the Red Cross "to continue and carry on a system of national and international relief in time of peace and to apply the same in mitigating the sufferings caused by pestilence, famine, fire, flood and other great national calamities." Under its charter the Red Cross has a quasi-governmental status which facilitates its support in time of disaster by many governmental agencies; at the same time it functions as a private organization financed through private contributions rather than government funds. The Red Cross organizes and extends relief immediately upon the occurrence of disaster without awaiting official or other invitation or proclamation.

During the nearly sixty years of its existence the American Red Cross has extended relief following more than 2,600 disasters, about 600 of which were insular and foreign. From 1881 through 1920 it extended relief in an average of five disasters a year. Since then the number of domestic disasters has increased until in the five-year period just ended they averaged 118 annually. This increase is due more to greater alertness to the responsibility, and in some measure to increased density of population, than to any material increase in the actual incidence of disasters. Since the close of the 1914–1918 World War period no state has been immune from disaster. Of the 3,070 counties in the country, 2,032 have been aided.

From the standpoint of numbers of disasters requiring Red Cross aid, hurricanes, tornadoes, and other destructive wind storms represent the largest single group with 37 per cent of the total; floods comprise 22 per cent; fires 17 per cent; and all other types the remaining 24 per cent. Floods distinctly lead the list as regards persons affected and relief expenditures: 43 per cent of all persons aided needed assistance as a result of floods, and 60 per cent of all domestic disaster relief expenditures was on behalf of disaster flood sufferers.

Disaster relief is financed through contributions at the time of the disaster and through appropriations from the general revenues of the Red Cross derived principally from its annual membership Roll Calls. Nearly $100,000,000 has been expended by the Red Cross for domestic disaster relief since the close of the 1914–1918 World War period. Of this, nearly $80,000,000 was expended in 13 major disasters each involving an expenditure of a million dollars or more. Nation-wide campaigns for funds were held in only six of these disasters: the 1927 Mississippi Valley flood, the hurricanes of 1926 and 1928, the drought of 1930–1931, the spring floods and tornadoes of 1936, and the Ohio and Mississippi Valley flood of 1937. Eliminating these, the costs have been met from the general funds of the national organization and chapters and by special appeals limited to the territory primarily affected. While 95 per cent of the funds required for the six large disasters came from nation-wide appeals, and 5 per cent from general sources, in the other disasters roughly 35 per cent came from general sources and 65 per cent from contributions received in response to the limited appeals.

Disaster Procedures

There is a clear division of responsibilities between the Red Cross and governmental agencies. Red Cross responsibility in disaster relief is to assist families and individuals to the extent that their needs are caused by the disaster and cannot be met by the families themselves, including: warning, voluntary evacuation, and rescue; medical and nursing aid; food, clothing, and shelter in the emergency period; and rehabilitation of families, including the repairing and rebuilding of homes and the provision of household furnishings, farm supplies, livestock and equipment, and occupational training, equipment, and supplies. Governmental responsibility in time of disaster is in general the same as in normal times: the protection of life, public health, welfare, and property, and the maintenance and repairing of public property.

In each disaster an early understanding is reached between the Red Cross and other agencies—public and private—on the proper division of responsibility. Generally the Red Cross assumes the temporary maintenance of families not on agency rolls and deals with the rehabilitation problems of all affected families applying for Red Cross aid. Families receiving relief from public or private agencies continue in that status.

In short, problems arising from the disaster are dealt with by the Red Cross while pre-disaster problems continue to be met by the established public or private agencies of the community.

Basic general policies of the Red Cross in disaster relief may be summatized as follows: (1) Financial and administrative control are inseparable. The Red Cross will assume responsibility for a disaster operation only when funds raised for relief are placed under its control. (2) The Red Cross welcomes the services of volunteers, both individuals and organized groups. (3) All local resources are expected to be utilized fully. (4) Relief is given to disaster sufferers only, and deals only with problems created or aggravated by the disaster. (5) Relief is based upon need and not loss. Families are expected to use their actual and potential resources in meeting their needs. (6) Relief is on an individual family basis. Mass relief is extended during the emergency period but is terminated at the earliest possible date. Further assistance, determined by case work processes, is given in the rehabilitation period upon the basis of the needs of each individual family. (7) The Red Cross does not make loans to disaster sufferers; its relief is given freely and not lent. Aid is extended in whatever form or forms will contribute most effectively and speedily to rehabilitation. (8) Assistance is extended without political, religious, or racial discrimination. (9) Public benefits available through tax sources are considered as family resources. (10) Cash grants are given when the facts established in the case investigation indicate conclusively that this is the best way to help the family. (11) Families moving away from the disaster area receive the same consideration as those remaining. (12) Individual awards and case records are considered strictly confidential. (13) Medical relief supplements the work of public and private health agencies and of the medical and dental professions. (14) The Red Cross does not directly assist commercial or industrial concerns. It does not directly aid educational, charitable, or religious organizations as they are supported from public funds or themselves seek contributions for their work. (15) The Red Cross does not assume responsibility for governmental functions, federal, state, or local. (16) In so far as possible all Red Cross relief expenditures are kept in the normal channels of trade in the affected areas. (17) The Red Cross never confiscates supplies nor commandeers services.

The Red Cross is organized to take immediate action when disaster strikes. Its local unit is the chapter, of which there are 3,700, with 7,000 branches and an adult membership of 7,100,000. Through this nation-wide organization the Red Cross is

at the scene wherever and whenever disaster occurs, immediately extending emergency care and remaining as a continuing service agency. The national organization where necessary supplements the resources and personnel of the chapters or assumes responsibility for directing relief.

The total staff of the national organization—which approximates 900, of whom about 400 are in the general executive, service, and field staffs—augments the very small regular staff which devotes its full time to disaster preparedness and relief. Through understandings with many social work, business, and other organizations, there is a reserve staff of several hundred workers employed normally by such agencies who may be assigned temporarily to Red Cross disaster work. Enough persons of executive and supervisory experience are thus available on the national, chapter, and reserve staffs to fill the more important positions in any disaster operation. The Ohio-Mississippi Valley flood of 1937 necessitated rapid expansion to a total staff, in addition to volunteers, of some 11,000 with a maximum of between 4,500 and 5,000 employed at one time.

Preparedness Activities

The charter of the Red Cross, in addition to imposing upon it the obligation to tender relief following national calamities, adds the injunction: "to devise and carry on measures for preventing the same." Obviously, the Red Cross cannot prevent national calamities, but through its preparedness activities it does contribute toward reducing the suffering resulting from disasters. It relies upon governmental and other sources for engineering and other data required in its preparedness plans. Upon each chapter is placed responsibility for enlisting community leadership and resources and maintaining a committee on disaster preparedness and relief with subcommittees for surveying disaster hazards and local resources, obtaining cooperative understandings with public and private agencies, and developing adequate disaster preparedness plans and organization.

The Red Cross nationally coordinates the chapter activities and conducts those phases of the work which by their nature must be done on a national, regional, or other territorial basis larger than a chapter. Some of these functions are: (1) Dealing with well-defined hazards extending beyond individual chapter boundaries, such as the hurricane area in Florida and the flood areas in the Ohio and Mississippi Valleys and elsewhere. (2) Furthering the cooperation of other agencies with the Red Cross and facilitating such cooperation through formal or informal agreements. (3) Continuing, or developing where not already in existence, appropriate state understandings and plans. (4) Making available to chapters data on areas of hazard furnished by the United States Weather Bureau, the United States Army Corps of Engineers, and other agencies. Such data enable the Red Cross to know the areas and to estimate the population that will be affected by waters reaching various flood stages, and to plan in advance of the flood for the care of the families needing assistance. (5) The conduct of institutes for chapter officers and workers with detailed disaster preparedness and relief instruction. (6) Making the results of national, chapter, and other agency experience available through appropriate instruction material covering the complete procedure and technique for handling disaster situations.

Cooperation of Other Agencies

Red Cross responsibility in disaster relief could not be conducted successfully without the cooperation of many governmental and private agencies which for years have made available to the Red Cross large-scale services, facilities, and supplies. The Red Cross has formal or informal understandings covering the nature and methods of assistance and cooperation of many agencies including: General Staff and Corps of Engineers of the United States Army, United States

Coast Guard, National Guard, United States Weather Bureau, United States Public Health Service, Civilian Conservation Corps, Work Projects Administration, Farm Security Administration, Federal Surplus Commodities Corporation (now Surplus Marketing Administration, United States Department of Agriculture), Disaster Loan Corporation, United States Office of Education, Home Owners' Loan Corporation, Tennessee Valley Authority, American Medical Association, American Dental Association, Conference of State and Provincial Health Authorities of North America, American Legion, Boy Scouts of America, commercial communication companies, amateur radio groups, transportation companies, and case work and health agencies.

Governmental cooperation includes flood and hurricane forecast and warning service; personnel and facilities for rescue work; boat, truck, and airplane transportation; tent, cot, and blanket supplies; communication service; and surplus commodities. Governmental agencies also continue to provide funds through their own administration for projects such as channel improvement, levee protection, clean-up of public property, and the restoration of certain governmental facilities.

The fundamentals of effective disaster relief are acquaintance with the problem, advance planning, and an adequately financed nation-wide organization characterized by unity, simplicity, and flexibility.

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EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK[1] is the result of formalizing the content of professional practice in a profession whose development has been rapid and subject to frequent change within a short period of time. *See* SOCIAL WORK AS A PROFESSION. Not more than forty-one years of effort are represented in organization, curriculum, and requirements of the professional schools which now offer preparation for the field.

Formal education for social work at first adhered very closely to the needs of social agencies and differed little from the content of apprentice training. Early, however, two powerful influences began to modify the apprentice focus of these efforts and to encourage a preparation based on scientific knowledge and conducive to practice in a changing field. The first was the establishment of schools of social work within university framework which furthered a recognition of fundamental knowledge upon which professional study could be based, and the gradual relinquishment of the concept of training for specific agency needs. Mileposts in the field of social work were a second and even greater influence. Social reforms, the increasing variety of social services, and new demands upon personnel in the field occasioned a considerable impact from the field toward broadening the educational efforts then under way.

The expansion occasioned by the needs of the World War of 1914–1918 and the profound change in social work organization of the post-war period carried forward these developments. The depression of the

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

1930's ushered in another period of growth in the social services, first to meet the needs of the prolonged period of unemployment and later to provide a degree of permanent security against the social risks accepted as a part of the present economic and social system.

Prior to the World War, the establishment of schools of social work had proceeded slowly, usually resulting from the efforts of practicing social workers in the important centers of population. The first to be established was the New York School of Philanthropy in 1898. Subsequently were organized the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy in 1901, the Boston School of Social Work in 1904, and the Philadelphia Training School for Social Workers and the Missouri School of Social Economy in 1908. The social service needs occasioned by the War led the American National Red Cross to grant small subsidies to colleges and universities to aid in the establishment of short courses for the preparation of personnel needed in the provision of services to soldiers and sailors and their families. Exclusive of a number of isolated programs which did not long survive, 19 universities and colleges and independent schools responded to the invitation to form the Association of Training Schools of Professional Social Work in 1919. In 1933 the name of this organization was changed to its present title, the American Association of Schools of Social Work.

The period of the 1920's was one of gradual development. It was followed by rapid expansion in the number of schools in the 1930's to meet the demands of new and extended programs under public auspices. Thus in June, 1940, the American Association of Schools of Social Work included 41 schools within its membership and 10 more were known to be seeking recognition by the Association.

Educational Standards and Organization

The approved educational standards to which the schools must conform in order to obtain membership in the American Association of Schools of Social Work are most easily indicated by brief reference to the evolution of membership standards within the Association. In 1919, when the Association of Training Schools of Professional Social Work was organized, the charter member schools complied merely with the provision that "Any educational institution maintaining a full time course of training for social work covering at least one academic year and including a substantial amount of both class instruction and of supervised field work may become a member." The first Association became an informal conference group of educators, many of whom held widely different views concerning preparation for the field of social work as it was known at that time. More definite requirements for membership were formulated in 1927 and have been expanded and changed as the content of the curriculum has been more clearly defined. Although as standards developed they were first applied only to the new schools seeking admission to the Association, they represented a desirable minimum to which the majority of members already subscribed as the result of agreement reached through experience and exchange of comment and discussion over a long period of time. In 1934, by amendment to the constitution, the standards applicable to new schools were made binding upon member schools in the group; and since 1937, when this action became effective, applicant and member schools have been governed by the same requirements.

According to the present standards of the American Association of Schools of Social Work, which are the acceptable criteria, the professional curriculum in member schools is based on four years of undergraduate study in a liberal arts college; it is offered by faculty academically and professionally qualified; it includes the basic curriculum and an approved program of field work; it comprises a curriculum leading to a professional degree or certificate; and it is

recognized as an autonomous unit with university administration, with defined professional objectives, and administered by a director qualified to give it the leadership it requires.

Two types of schools offering graduate programs hold membership in the Association. The Type I school provides a one-year curriculum for which the professional certificate is suggested and the Type II school offers a two-year curriculum for which the professional degree is recommended. To assure the general academic standing of the institution where the curriculum is offered, both types of schools are required to be organically related to a college or university which is on the list of the colleges and universities approved by the Association of American Universities.

To be eligible either as a Type I or Type II member, a school shall offer an organic grouping of relevant courses of instruction into a separate curriculum for the purpose of professional education for social work; it shall be under the direction of an executive head empowered in cooperation with the faculty to exercise control over admission requirements within the limit of university regulations; and it shall have an annual budget for teaching and administrative salaries adequate to carry out the program of the school and shall have the assurance of maintenance by the college or university for at least three years following the date of admission. Criteria for determining the qualifications of the director shall include professional experience, graduate study, and familiarity with the problems of education. Instruction in fundamental social work courses and the practice of social work shall be given by persons who have had valid and authoritative experience in social work; and it is assumed that instruction in other courses in the curriculum shall be given by persons qualified in their respective fields.

The Type I school is asked to provide a curriculum consisting of not less than one academic year of work in graduate professional social work, the courses to be drawn from the basic minimum curriculum of the Association unless given in addition to this curriculum. The Type II school is asked to provide a curriculum consisting of not less than two academic years of study in graduate professional social work, including the courses of study which cover the basic minimum curriculum of the Association. Both Type I and Type II schools are asked to present approved programs of field work under the educational direction of the schools; and field work is defined as "planned and supervised experience in the practice of social work as social work is carried on concurrently by recognized social agencies."

In a Type I school at least two persons shall give their full time to the work of the school, and in a Type II school at least three persons shall give their full time to the work of the school. It is assumed, of course, that part-time teaching faculties will be used wherever desirable. In addition the Type II schools shall have the leadership of a full-time director, while in the Type I school this leadership under certain circumstances may be shared with another department.

The essential differences between the two types of schools are in the length of the professional curriculum and the teaching and administrative leadership required. The distinction is quantitative rather than qualitative. The completion of one year of graduate study implies no unity in itself, but merely that the students have completed one year of the accepted two years of professional preparation. The Type I schools will, it is hoped, be established only where resources and personnel demands from the field indicate that students will seek employment following a single year of study.

The membership in the Association in June, 1940, was as follows:

ASSOCIATION SCHOOLS

Note: In the following list the first year in parentheses is the date of founding, the second year is the date of admission to the Association, and "C. M." indicates that the school was a charter

member of the Association at its organization in 1919.

1. Atlanta University, School of Social Work (1920; 1928). Grants degree of Master of Social Work; also diploma. Type II.
2. Boston College, School of Social Work (1936; 1938). Grants degree of M.S. in Social Work. Type II.
3. Boston University, School of Social Work (1936; 1939). Grants degree of M.S. in Social Service. Type II.
4. Bryn Mawr College, Carola Woerishoffer Graduate Department of Social Economy and Social Research (1915; C. M.). Grants M.A. and Ph.D. degrees; also certificate. Type II.
5. Buffalo, University of, School of Social Work (1931; 1934). Grants degree of Master of Social Service; also certificate. Type II.
6. California, University of, Department of Social Welfare, Berkeley (1919; 1928). Grants M.A. and Ph.D. degrees; also certificate. Type II.
7. Carnegie Institute of Technology, Department of Social Work, Pittsburgh (1914; C. M.). Grants degree of Master of Social Work. Type II.
8. Catholic University of America, School of Social Work, Washington, D. C. (1935; 1937). Grants degree of M.S. in Social Work. Type II.
9. Chicago, University of, School of Social Service Administration (1901; C. M.). Grants M.A. and Ph.D. degrees. Type II.
10. Denver, University of, Department of Social Work (1930; 1933). Grants M.A. degree. Type II.
11. Fordham University, School of Social Service, New York City (1916; 1929). Grants M.A. degree; also diploma. Type II.
12. Graduate School for Jewish Social Work, New York (1926; 1928). Grants degrees of Master of Social Service and Doctor of Social Service; also certificate. Type II.
13. Howard University, Graduate Division of Social Work, Washington, D. C. (1936; 1940). Grants certificate. Type I.
14. Indiana University, Training Course for Social Work, Bloomington (1911; 1923). Grants M.A. degree. Type II.
15. Iowa, State University of, Division of Social Administration, Iowa City (1936; 1938). Grants M.A. degree. Type II.
16. Louisiana State University, Graduate School of Public Welfare Administration, Baton Rouge (1937; 1940). Grants M.A. degree. Type I.
17. Louisville, University of, Graduate Division of Social Administration (1935; 1937). Grants degree of M.S. in Social Administration; also certificate. Type II.
18. Loyola University, School of Social Work, Chicago (1914; 1921). Grants degree of Master of Social Work. Type II.
19. Michigan, University of, Curriculum in Social Work, Ann Arbor (1921; 1922). Grants degree of Master of Social Work. Type II.
20. Minnesota, University of, Graduate Course in Social Work, Minneapolis (1916; C. M.). Grants M.A. in Social Work and Ph.D. degrees; also certificate. Type II.
21. Montreal School of Social Work (1919; 1919; withdrew 1928; readmitted 1939). Grants diploma. Type II.
22. National Catholic School of Social Service, Washington, D. C. (1921; 1923). Grants M.A. degree; also diploma. Type II.
23. Nebraska, University of, Graduate School of Social Work, Lincoln (1937; 1940). Grants degree of M.S. in Social Work; also certificate. Type II.
24. New York School of Social Work, affiliated with Columbia University (1898; C. M.). Grants M.A. degree; also diploma. Type II.
25. North Carolina, University of, Division of Public Welfare and Social Work, Chapel Hill (1920; 1920; withdrew 1932; readmitted 1936). Grants degree of M.S. in Social Work. Type II.
26. Northwestern University, Division of Social Work, Chicago (1934; 1936). Grants M.A. degree. Type I.
27. Ohio State University, School of Social Administration, Graduate Program, Columbus (1916; C. M.). Grants degree of M.A. in Social Administration. Type II.
28. Oklahoma, University of, School of Social Work, Norman (1936; 1938). Grants M.A. degree; also certificate. Type II.
29. Pennsylvania School of Social Work, affiliated with the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia (1908; C. M.). Grants degree of Master of Social Work; also certificate. Type II.
30. Pittsburgh, University of, School of Applied Social Sciences (1919; 1919; withdrew 1922; readmitted 1934). Grants degree of M.S. in Social Administration. Type II.
31. St. Louis University, School of Social Service (1930; 1933). Grants degree of M.S. in Social Work. Type II.
32. Simmons College, School of Social Work, Boston (1904; C. M.). Grants M.S. degree. Type II.
33. Smith College School for Social Work, Northampton (1919; C. M.). Grants degree of Master of Social Science; also certificate. Type II.
34. Southern California, University of, School of Social Work, Los Angeles (1920; 1922). Grants degree of Master of Social Work. Type II.
35. Toronto, University of, Department of Social Science (1919; 1919; withdrew 1928; readmitted 1939). Grants diploma. Type II.
36. Tulane University, School of Social Work, New Orleans (1927; 1927). Grants degree of Masrer of Social Work. Type II.
37. Utah, University of, School of Social Work, Salt Lake City (1938; 1940). Grants certificate. Type I.

38. Washington, University of, Graduate School of Social Work, Seattle (1934; 1934). Grants M.A. degree. Type II.
39. Washington University, George Warren Brown Department of Social Work, St. Louis (1925; 1928). Grants degree of Master of Social Work. Type II.
40. Western Reserve University, School of Applied Social Sciences, Cleveland (1916; C. M.). Grants degree of M.S. in Social Administration; also certificate. Type II.
41. William and Mary, College of, Richmond School of Social Work (1917; C. M.). Grants degree of M.S. in Social Work; also certificate. Type II.

At the present time all of the active member schools within the Association are affiliated in some way with a college or a university and no school can today be accredited unless university or college sponsorship is definite and real. An analysis of educational auspices under which these schools are functioning indicates a broadening interest in the support of professional education for the field of social work. Thirteen schools are established within state or provincial universities, one within a municipal university, one within a national university, and twenty-six within or associated with private universities and colleges. Seven schools have been developed under sectarian auspices, of which six are Roman Catholic and one is Jewish. Four are found within women's colleges, three, however, admitting men as well as women students. Three receive a substantial amount of state aid. Recently two Canadian schools which had previously been members of the Association were reaffiliated with the group.

One of the problems of professional education which has attended the organization of curricula within the colleges and universities has been that of clarifying the difference between academic and professional study. While autonomy within university administration has gradually been achieved, the schools of social work are in many instances still subject to the supervision and control of the graduate schools where certain traditions with reference to the master's degree have been established. The objectives of the professional curriculum have been difficult to clarify in situations where the curriculum has been classified as semi-professional, and although administered independently has still been subject to the dominating philosophy of the graduate school. Happily, an increasing number of programs have been established as independent professional schools.

Enrolment

The student enrolment in the schools is compiled annually and reflects significant trends in the field. The more rapid increase in enrolment reported in 1936 has not been fully sustained in subsequent years. On November 1, 1939, there were enrolled in the member schools of the Association 5,839 students, a decrease of 270 under the enrolment of 6,109 on November 1, 1938. Two factors are significant in relation to these enrolment figures. First, the period of rapid expansion in personnel and the immediate effect upon the schools occurred during the years 1933 to 1936. Since that time growth has been more gradual. Second, the Association provided in 1937 that all member schools should offer a completely graduate program by October 1, 1939. The discontinuance of the undergraduate programs especially in one or two instances has accounted for some decrease in total enrolment reported by the schools.

Since these enrolment figures include students electing isolated courses in the schools but not specifically preparing for employment in the field, a more significant comparison is related to the number of students majoring in social work. In this instance the 1939 figures indicate an increase over the 1938 figure. In November, 1939, the number of students majoring in social work was 5,103 as compared with 4,956 in 1938; and as compared with 2,863 in 1932. It is significant in this connection to note that the number of students receiving degrees or diplomas increased from 1,220 in 1938 to 1,365 in 1939. The comparison is even more striking if the 1939 figure is related to the 1935 registration which was the first

annual enrolment of students following the change in membership requirements of the American Association of Social Workers in July, 1933. The number of students majoring in social work increased from 5,296 in 1935 to 5,839 in 1939, yet the number of students completing the work for the diploma or degree increased from 840 to 1,365 in the same period. This increase is some indication of the extent to which students are remaining to complete the degree or diploma program and the extent to which they are remaining by desire or by necessity only long enough to complete the requirements for membership in the American Association of Social Workers. A consistent growth in the profession is indicated by these figures.

The large proportion of part-time students in the total enrolment which has been noticeable during the past five years is again revealed in the 1939 registration which reported 2,560 full-time and 2,543 part-time students majoring in social work. This represents a slight gain in full-time enrolment over the 1938 figures, when the part-time students outnumbered the full-time students by 244. The present trend sustains the conclusion that the student enrolment in the schools represents a consistent growth in numbers of students who accept the complete curriculum as an objective, in contrast to the shorter periods of residence or the isolated courses which were characteristic of the emergency period.

The increasing number of men students in the schools is significant. In 1935 one out of every six students was a man, and in 1939 one out of every five students was a man. The actual number of men enrolled in 1935 was 880 and in 1939 had increased to 1,120; while the number of women students enrolled in 1935 was 4,416 and in 1939 had decreased to 3,983.

For several years student organizations have been active in various schools of social work, their main purpose being to foster closer understanding between faculty and students. In 1940, 22 schools had such organizations with a total membership of approximately 3,000 students. A national organization, the American Association of Social Work Students, meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work and also holds regional conferences during the year.

Admission Requirements

The recruiting and selection of promising students for the field has been no easy task for the schools, and their efforts have frequently been criticized by practitioners and laymen in the field sensitive to the importance of qualities of personality. The generous admission policies of a number of schools which were adopted to meet the emergent need for workers in the field have been gradually modified as the emergency period has passed and the need for workers with capacity for leadership has been made clearer. The fact that the profession of social work is developing and expanding and offers employment opportunity to qualified persons is attracting the interest of numbers of young men and young women, some of whom show promise while others, unfortunately, lack the personal qualifications for effective performance in the field. Educators and practitioners are together conscious of the need for greater selectivity in the admission of students, and much thought and study are being directed toward this problem. At the present time, while progress is being made in this direction, there is also the recognition on the part of the tax-supported institutions of a certain obligation to maintain a somewhat less selective basis in admission than may be characteristic of private institutions. However, policies differ so greatly within the group of tax-supported institutions that a general conclusion is impossible.

Tuition fees in the Association schools range all the way from the nominal charge of $10 a semester made by a state university (Oklahoma) to $125 a quarter (New York). Practically all the Association schools, as well as some others, are able to

make financial assistance available to a few students. These financial aids range all the way from small loans and spare-time employment opportunities to tuition scholarships, part-paid student assignments, and fellowships of varying value, the last named covering in some instances the total cost of tuition and maintenance. Scholarships and fellowships are almost invariably awarded upon a competitive basis.[1]

The present policy of the schools of social work toward prerequisite subject matter is to recognize economics, political science, psychology, and sociology, including social anthropology, as pre-professional subjects most closely related to the social service curriculum. It is considered desirable that the entering student know something about each of these sciences, although no one of the subjects has been designated as more important than the others. This policy with reference to the social sciences is supported by the membership requirements of the American Association of Social Workers, which specify in addition to the professional equipment that the applicant must have completed fifteen semester hours of social and biological sciences for junior membership, and twenty semester hours of social and biological sciences for senior membership. Sociology, economics, political science, psychology and psychiatry, and anthropology may be offered to meet these social science requirements although certain other courses are acceptable substitutes.

While approving this policy as embodied in a Report of the Association of Schools' Curriculum Committee on Prerequisites in Social Work in 1937, the Association schools differ in the extent to which they conform to it in administering requirements which they have adopted for their own purposes. An observation of practices in the schools during the past two years, however, lends weight to the conclusion that the schools are giving more recognition to the social science content and that the liberal arts colleges are making greater efforts to prepare students for future work in the professional schools. The increasing desire of social science faculties in the liberal arts colleges to cooperate with the professional schools is significant and marked.

The Professional Curriculum

Professional education as offered in the schools of social work has become a general preparation which combines a variety of skills and which is applicable to a variety of situations. In contrast to the early efforts toward formal preparation for the field which offered a specific training for specific agency jobs, the schools have accepted the principle of a basic curriculum that is believed to be applicable to practice in the entire field of social work. At the present moment this principle has found expression in the basic curriculum approved by the Association in 1932, which was the result of an attempt by the Curriculum Committee "to find some body of knowledge which may be called basic and which is or should be given by all schools engaged in training for social work."

This curriculum is based on the assumption that the first year of professional study constitutes a basic preparation for all students. The content of the curriculum covers both classroom and field instruction and it is assumed that field work will constitute not more than one-third of the credits to be earned during the first year. The spread of courses from which selections are to be made has been classified according to four groups. Group A includes case work, medical information, and psychiatric information, all of which are required; Group B includes community organization, specialized case work, and group work, two of which are required; Group C includes public welfare administration, child welfare, and problems of labor and industry, two of which are required; and Group D includes social statistics, social research, social legislation, and social aspects of the law, one of which is required.

[1] A list of scholarships and fellowships is published annually in *The Compass*.

At first, only applicant schools were asked to offer this basic content, but later when the membership standards became pertinent alike to new and to member schools, all Association schools were expected to offer the prescribed subject matter. As it stands at the moment, this basic curriculum is the focus of much criticism. There is evidence to indicate that its substance has not kept pace with the developing content and new emphases in the field. Happily, it is the subject of study by the Curriculum Committee of the Association and modifications are anticipated at an early date.

Considerable progress has been made by the professional schools over a period of years in broadening and enriching the content of professional study. This process has been greatly accelerated by the recent expansion in the public social services with subsequent demand for curriculum modification and change. Marked differences of opinion have developed within the schools concerning the extent and content of classroom instruction, the administrative arrangements and objectives in field work instruction, and the division of student time between classroom and field. Differences have logically developed with reference to the scope of the field for which the schools are preparing, and the extent to which the recent expansion under public auspices constitutes significant departures from the traditional procedures and practices of social work. These and other questions are the foci of attention in the schools holding membership in the American Association of Schools of Social Work. There is agreement among these schools that the entire curriculum should have a substantial content of skills and information which is interchangeable between agencies and programs serving individuals, and which has certain traditions that can be carried over experimentally to new undertakings.

If the subject matter offered in the professional curriculum is re-examined without reference to course titles, the content will be found to comprise (a) the understanding of individuals, (b) basic practices in services to individuals and groups, (c) administration, (d) public welfare, (e) research, (f) the structure and function of agencies, (g) the framework of the community in which these services function, and (h) field work practice. Brief comment will clarify the objectives to which this subject matter is related and thus indicate the nature of the experience to which the student in the school of social work is exposed.

As the individual in society is the focus of interest in social work, the understanding of his behavior mechanisms and manifestations is fundamental to the processes of case work, group work, and community organization, and is accepted as basic to the field. For this understanding, social work has looked to the related fields of medicine, psychiatry, psychology, and social anthropology, and has adapted materials for courses in the professional curriculum which deal with individual development. The basic course in medical information emphasizes the periods in physical development of the individual including prenatal, infancy, childhood, adolescence, maturity, and old age. The major physical disorders which affect such growth are also considered. Throughout the material as usually offered, the social implications of the growth and the organic deviations are emphasized. The basic course in psychiatric information follows the same sequence of development in the mental and emotional life of the individual. The tendency is to emphasize the phenomena of normal development and attending conflicts. To a lesser extent the schools have been influenced by the belief that specific adaptations from the field of psychology have a place in the professional curriculum. Here and there, however, are effective demonstrations of the way in which such materials can be integrated with other phases of the curriculum.

Case work, group work, and community organization are considered as basic methods or tool courses which acquaint the stu-

dent with the processes of practice in the field. Within this group, case work is the most highly developed; yet encouraging progress is being made in a clarification of the group work process and its place in the field, and increasing attention is being given to community organization as a process. Case work is the method by which the service of the social agency is made available to the individual. *See* SOCIAL CASE WORK. Practice applicable to all social case work agencies and practice adapted to agencies having special functions constitute subject matter which is fundamental in curriculum planning in all the schools of social work. Group work is the method of utilizing the processes of interaction within groups for the individual development of members of the group and for the development of the group as a whole. *See* SOCIAL GROUP WORK. Courses in group work may be offered in a specialized sequence designed to prepare students for practice in group work agencies, or as orientation to group work practice for students who plan to prepare themselves for the case work field. As with group work, the basic course in community organization may be one of a sequence of specialization for the field of community organization work offered to mature and experienced students only, or it may be a single course offered to enrich the preparation of the students interested in case work or group work or in general administration. *See* COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION FOR SOCIAL WORK.

Courses in administration as a tool in social work emphasize the problem of organization and management of social agencies from the standpoint both of the staff worker and of the executive. *See* ADMINISTRATION OF SOCIAL AGENCIES. Preparation for supervision and administration is offered in the schools of social work for students who have had a satisfactory experience in the practice of social work. The general curriculum of courses and field work have presumably laid the foundation for successful performance and promotion to positions of further responsibility, and efforts are made to lay this foundation in the early instruction of the student.

Functional fields in social work are closely related and are subject to much overlapping. Change in organization within the field is frequent, and any effort to isolate specific backgrounds of the present-day programs only emphasizes the flexible nature of organization in the field. Considerable attention is given in the curriculum to the understanding of historical backgrounds and present functioning of agencies, but due to the reasons that have just been cited the methods used in the various schools are less comparable than in the other areas.

Another phase of curriculum planning to which there is a variety in approach is the subject matter relating to the social and economic setting in which social work functions. The understanding of social forces and their relationship to social planning in the field is believed to be vitally important. Granting that students come to the professional schools with an adequate background in the social sciences, the need to associate the reality of professional practice with community forces at work introduces a new approach to the use of the social science materials and one that belongs primarily in the professional curriculum.

Social research is included in the curriculum of a number of schools, serving to acquaint the student with methods in the field, to develop on his part the attitude of scientific study of programs or procedures, and to give him some basis for understanding and evaluating social data. *See* RESEARCH AND STATISTICS IN SOCIAL WORK. Research is increasingly stressed by the schools, although considerable difference of opinion exists as to the place of research in the preparation of workers for the field. With almost no exception, thesis research is required for the diploma or the degree and is the partial recognition that some understanding of research methods is considered necessary for all workers in the field today. The present emphasis in the field upon the

study and evaluation of methods and programs has stimulated this development in the schools, and it is now generally accepted that every student should be equipped with the tools of research method in order to interpret and utilize data.

In connection with the preparation of students for the field of social research, the schools have frequently engaged in research undertakings of considerable proportions. Publication of research findings and of materials of value to the field have followed in some instances. The achievement of the University of Chicago in this respect is notable, and the series of social service studies and monographs prepared under the leadership of the faculty has made a significant contribution to the literature of the field. The New York School of Social Work has issued a number of studies and publications which represent the contribution of faculty members. Occasional publication of student research has been undertaken by other schools in the Association, but the extent of such materials is not very great.

Field Work

Field work is recognized as an integral part of the preparation for practice in a particular area. In utilizing supervised practice as an educational experience, the schools of social work have made a contribution which is almost unique. In one sense, field work is a course of instruction in case work, group work, or community organization work offered as practice in the social agency setting and under the guidance and oversight of selected supervisors. In each instance it parallels the courses in the same area in the curriculum and becomes the point at which these and other courses in the curriculum assume an organic relationship to each other and to practice.

Field work practice in case work provides for actual experience in carrying through the processes of social case work under supervisors selected and provided by the school. In group work, field practice is designed to give the student experience in group leadership, in the supervision of volunteer group leaders, in committee participation, and in administrative procedures in group work agencies. In community organization work, field practice is much less standardized than in case work and in group work. In administration also, field practice is highly experimental and there is no widespread agreement that a sound educational experience can be provided for students in this area.

The selection of field work centers, where an opportunity for a learning experience can be assured, requires a close relationship between the schools and the agencies in the community. Administrative arrangements and suitable work loads are not easily developed and require a high degree of cooperation and understanding on both sides. An additional problem is the changing nature of the field of social work and the necessity of maintaining a practice experience for students which assures to them a content that is applicable in a variety of situations. The importance of the public welfare field necessitates a wider use of the public agencies as field work centers. *See* PUBLIC WELFARE. At the same time, adequate field work arrangements are not as easily secured in the public field for a number of reasons, principally those related to the stage of development in the programs. These problems have led an increasing number of schools to shoulder a portion of the cost of the field instruction, either through appointment and payment of agency supervisors or through the appointment to the school faculty of field work instructors who carry the responsibility for such supervision of student practice work.

Criteria for the selection of agencies suitable for field work placements include: the professional standing of the agency, the interest of the agency in the future development of its own staff and acceptance of a share in the training of future social workers, established personnel practices, satisfactory physical facilities to permit the placement of students, quality and extent of suit-

able clinical material, and available supervisory personnel. Criteria used in the selection and approval of field supervisors include: the certificate or degree from an accredited two-year school of social work as professional equipment, eligibility for senior membership in the American Association of Social Workers, or membership in a cognate professional organization which is more nearly applicable, professional experience of two or more years in a satisfactory agency experience in supervision or demonstrated ability as a supervisor, and ability or capacity for teaching in the supervisor-student relationship. Exceptions are made where necessary to assure an adequate variety in practice and competent supervision of students.

The philosophy of field work practice and the organization of student work in the field varies from school to school. By some schools the educational content of field work is emphasized, and by others the close relationship of field work to professional practice is stressed. A combination of the two is the goal toward which the schools are striving. The achievement is not easy, however, and there is no phase of the professional curriculum which has received as much attention as has the field work plan.

Effect of Expansion in Public Social Services

Expansion in the public social services and the demand for personnel have stimulated the enrolment of students in the professional schools now members of the Association. These factors have also stimulated the establishment of new schools of social work, especially in those areas not previously served by existing educational resources. Since January, 1938, 10 schools have been admitted to the Association. Two of the number, however, are located in Canada. With two exceptions, the new schools in the United States are found within tax-supported institutions and have been prompted by the desire to prepare students for generalized service in the public agencies set up or expanded under the Social Security Act. The location of five new schools in the Mississippi Valley and the Far West is a further indication of the desire to establish facilities in areas not now generally served by schools of social work. Perplexing problems have resulted from this regional emphasis, which has led in a few instances to the establishment of schools in two tax-supported institutions within a single state, both of which look to the same state legislature for support.

The movement to establish schools of social work in land-grant and state institutions has been a significant development of the past five years. Of the six state universities admitted to membership in the Association since January, 1938, two are also land-grant institutions. Six of the ten schools soon to be applicants for membership are located in land-grant institutions. This movement had its origin in several factors. Among those cited by leaders in the effort were the discrepancy between the demand and the supply of social workers; the fact that certain sections of the country were not yet served by schools of social work; the locations of existing schools frequently too remote to be available to students who anticipate a return to low-salaried positions; the increasing emphasis upon residence requirements which tends to localize employment and requires more equable distribution of educational facilities; and the responsibility of preparing students for employment opportunities which is accepted by the state universities serving particular regions.

Acting within the spirit of this responsibility, a number of land-grant colleges and state institutions set about establishing training programs designed to equip students for immediate placement in public agencies operating under the Social Security Act. In some instances these programs were established in conformity with the philosophy and objectives of professional education for social work. In others, the programs were at considerable variance with these standards, either through differences of opinion

as to educational planning or through lack of understanding as to the distinction between general academic training and professional training to which the schools of social work were committed. The work of a committee of the Association, appointed in 1936 to consider any specific problems confronted by state institutions in their efforts to meet the standards of the Association, was one contributing factor in the modification of membership requirements which established two types of schools in the Association. As indicated in an earlier paragraph, this change makes possible the limited functioning of a university in a region where resources do not justify the establishment of a two-year course of study and where for financial reasons few students could remain to complete such a curriculum if it were offered.

Important curriculum adaptations have also been effected in response to the changes in the field which the public programs have occasioned. These have included a greater emphasis upon the normal physical and emotional development of the individual in the courses adapting material from psychiatry and medicine; greater effort to develop generic content in the teaching of case work; a re-examination of course content in administration and community organization in order to present a subject matter which is common both to public and private agencies; an expansion of course content in administration, in part by the use of curriculum offerings in related departments; the enrichment and expansion of the subject matter of public welfare and the addition of courses in social insurance and public health organization; and further effort to orient the curriculum to the social and economic setting of the larger community. Further work in the area of curriculum study is clearly indicated.

The extension and development of field practice centers in public agencies have been stimulated, and experiments in new types of practice experience are under way in several of the schools. Such experiments include field practice in supervision and in administration, and efforts to develop field practice centers in rural areas. In many instances these experiments, especially the rural field work centers, have been attended by difficult problems in educational planning. Field work problems are common to universities and colleges located in urban and rural areas. The solution for the slight amount of rural field work practice is hardly to be sought in the establishment of schools located primarily in rural centers, although this has been advocated by some university administrators and agriculturists in these areas.

Civil service selection of personnel in social work has become increasingly important. The recent amendment to the Social Security Act providing for merit selection of personnel employed in the administration of the Act became effective in January, 1940, and has already had significant influence on the personnel policies established by the various state authorities. *See* PERSONNEL PRACTICES IN PUBLIC WELFARE. Merit selection is being introduced in the formative period of development in the services. At the present time, neither the standards of the agencies nor available personnel in the field make possible the recognition of professional education on a very broad scale. Constant effort should be applied to raising standards in which the schools must share in order to ensure the future of students who have invested resources in two years of professional education.

Professional Education and Staff Development

Staff development is a recognized part of social agency administration. As defined at present such a program includes the use of educational leave with or without salary for professional study in schools of social work, time allowance for staff members who desire to further their education by part-time study in near-by schools of social work, and formal staff study programs properly called

"in-service training" which are related to agency objectives and are administered by agency personnel.

Educational leave is being encouraged by both public and private agencies in the field, and the schools of social work have furthered its use by special provisions of one kind or another made for students who are resident in the schools for short periods of time pending return to agency employment. The increasing number of part-time students in the schools, which has been cited in a previous paragraph, indicates the extent to which the schools have been serving groups of staff workers allowed time for courses at the schools. While special courses for employed workers have been established here and there, the usual practice is to admit such students to those courses in the regular curriculum for which they are qualified. The resources of a few schools have been extended to employed social workers in communities adjacent to those in which the schools are located. But difficulties in assuring educational content in these courses have been cited as well as the conviction on the part of the schools that present resources need to be conserved for resident students in the schools. Further experimentation may throw more light on the place of the extra-mural program and the part-time curriculum, which is now the occasion of a special study by a Committee on Part Time Students of the American Association of Schools of Social Work.

In-service training programs are properly considered the responsibility of the agency since the content of such staff instruction is pointed toward agency objectives and agency needs. The schools assist in the development of such programs at the request of the agencies, but their advice and assistance stop short of actual responsibility for administering the program, which is properly the province of the agencies. Confusion between in-service training and professional education has frequently followed any other course of action; and at the present time there is common agreement among the schools that their resources may be utilized, but that the development of in-service training institutes and discussions is wisely a part of the general development of agency standards.

Trends

More effective work by the American Association of Schools of Social Work has been made possible by a secretariat maintained since May, 1938. The interpretation and development of standards of education in the new schools being organized and within the member schools desiring such services has thus been made possible. Through this program more emphasis has been placed upon the relationship of these schools to the institutions in which they are located. A clearer recognition of the objectives of the professional curriculum and of the place of these schools of social work within the university or college framework has been achieved.

The broadening of the professional curriculum in social work is a noticeable trend. While the immediate impetus for this has come from the public social services, the present objective in curriculum study is to forward the development of a program of preparation that would meet the needs of the entire field. The integration of the student's experience in classroom and field is increasingly believed to be desirable, and considerable attention is being given to this problem in educational planning.

A significant factor in professional education is the present interest in meeting the personnel needs in the expanding social services under governmental auspices. This interest is shown through research study, made possible by a grant of money from the Rockefeller Foundation, which included both an examination of the training needs of the agencies and the educational resources of the schools of social work pertinent to these needs. The results of the study are to be published in 1941 and will have significant effect upon the educational programs of the future.

Employment Services

The schools are giving greater attention to the operation of civil service laws in the field and their relation to professional education. It is conceivable that post-entry education will be increasingly important and that more students will apply for admission to the schools after a period of employment in the field. Already there is a noticeable increase in the number of students who have had previous experience in social work, if incomplete returns from the schools may be relied upon.

The schools are trying to meet a number of varied demands, with resources which are not expanding at a corresponding rate. It is apparent that adequate financial support for the schools is not yet assured by the universities and colleges with which they are affiliated. The future of professional education depends in part on the extent to which this problem can be met and the schools enabled to meet adequately the challenge from the field for the preparation of competent personnel.

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EMPLOYMENT SERVICES.[1] The effectiveness of the contribution of employment services to the organization of the labor market is measured by the degree to which they match the requirements of the job with the capacities and characteristics of the applicant, thus reducing turnover and increasing the effectiveness of the working relationship. Employment services fall into three groups—public, private agencies not established for profit, and private agencies conducted as a business. This article gives major attention to the public employment services.

Private Agencies

There are no comprehensive statistics on the number of private agencies in the United States, but New York City alone was licensing about 800 such agencies in June, 1940.

The operation of fee-charging agencies has been attended with abuses which have led to the enactment of legislation by municipalities and states to regulate their licensing, bonding and fee charging, premises, and other matters of management; to prohibit specific abuses; and to provide for inspection and penalties. At the present time 42 states have legislation which directly or indirectly regulates the conduct of private employment agencies. The legality of such restrictive legislation has been before the courts in several instances. According to decisions of the United States Supreme Court a state may license and regulate private agencies but cannot prohibit

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

their operation altogether nor fix the amount of their fees. As a result of a recent conference between representatives of the federal and state departments of labor, new draft bills for both federal and state regulation of private employment agency business have been prepared for legislative consideration in 1941. In general these draft bills propose a more careful control of this business by including labor contractors and other employment agents within the scope of regulation.

In 1933 the International Labor Organization adopted a convention providing for the elimination of private fee-charging employment agencies. While this convention has so far been ratified by only five countries it is indicative of a trend which may soon lead to serious consideration of such legislation in this country.

In addition to private agencies conducted for profit, placement facilities are also provided by various philanthropic organizations, trade unions, and associations of employers. Agencies for the placement of professional workers, such as teachers and nurses, are also numerous. They may be operated free of charge or on a fee basis, and often provide a valuable service for limited groups.

History of the Public Services

The growth of the public employment service in this country since the passage of the Wagner-Peyser Act in 1933 has been so much more significant than in the preceding periods that there is an inclination to date its real beginnings from that year. In many respects that is inaccurate. It is true that the state and municipal employment services in existence before 1933 were spotty and, with a few exceptions, of mediocre or poor quality. But it is also true that most of the employment service ideas and techniques which have been expanded in recent years had their roots in programs that began prior to 1933.

There are a number of state employment services which have a long history of continuous operation. The services in Ohio (1890), New York (1896), and Wisconsin (1901)—to mention only a few—run back for four or five decades. Most of these earlier state services were in the eastern and northern states, but there were some in every section of the country.

The federal government entered the field in 1907 when a division of information to advise immigrants on employment opportunities was set up in the Bureau of Immigration. Soon after the outbreak of the World War in 1914 immigration practically ceased and the immigration offices were changed into employment offices, grouped in 18 employment zones. A Farm Labor Service was also created. In 1918, because of the need of better facilities to service the American war effort, the employment offices were separated from the Bureau of Immigration and the United States Employment Service was established in the Department of Labor with the states as the operating units. Early in 1919 the Service comprised 854 local offices. Its annual budget at that time exceeded $5,500,000.

With the passing of the war emergency Congress drastically curtailed the appropriation of the Employment Service and its activity was largely restricted to the placement of veterans and farm workers. The federal government continued to operate some employment offices and maintained a cooperative arrangement with state and municipal agencies. For these, however, it did little more than provide standard forms and the franking privilege. In general the offices were ineffective because of meager appropriations, poor quarters, and inefficient personnel.

Several efforts to enact legislation in Congress to coordinate federal, state, and local services were unsuccessful. Such a measure passed Congress in 1931 but was vetoed by President Hoover. Congress then voted an appropriation to the Department of Labor which resulted in an enlarged federal employment service with offices in every state.

In many instances the federal offices were established in competition with state agencies and it was quite apparent that political considerations rather than the provision of an efficient service were paramount.

The failure of the effort to promote a coordinated federal-state program in the decade of the twenties led to the establishment of certain foundation-supported demonstration programs in 1931 and 1932. There were four such centers established: at Rochester, N. Y.; Philadelphia; in the three cities of Minneapolis, St. Paul, and Duluth; and at Cincinnati. Out of the Rochester experiment station came a recognition of the importance of attractive employment office layouts and a demonstration of effective use of modern office routines and procedures. The Philadelphia program experimented with the organization of employment service work along the lines of major occupational divisions. From the Minnesota program, which was in some respects the most extensive demonstration, came a renewed emphasis on the importance of advisory councils, with the beginnings of a program of occupational research and the use of tests and selection techniques in public employment offices. The Cincinnati center conducted valuable studies of the opportunities for absorption of workers in the community and experimented with the classification and assignment of workers on relief projects.

The Public Employment Service Under the Wagner-Peyser Act

The Wagner-Peyser Act, passed in June, 1933, re-established the United States Employment Service as a bureau in the Department of Labor charged with the responsibility for developing a national system of employment offices for men, women, and juniors and maintaining a placement service for veterans, farm labor, and for the District of Columbia. To assist in coordinating public employment offices the Employment Service was authorized (a) to develop and prescribe minimum standards of efficiency, (b) to promote uniformity in the administrative and statistical procedures of employment offices, (c) to publish information on opportunities for employment, and (d) to maintain a system for clearing labor between the states.

The development of the Employment Service in the past seven years might be divided into three periods—a period of great growth in size and scope of the Service from 1933 to 1936; a period of more intensive qualitative development from 1936 to 1939; and during 1939, a period of transition.

From 1933 to 1936 the physical growth of the Employment Service was amazing. At the beginning of that period there were only 129 offices in the larger cities of some 24 states, with a total staff of approximately 500. By the end of 1936 there was a nation-wide employment service structure, predominantly comprised of the state employment services affiliated with the Employment Service, although supplemented by the offices operated by the National Reemployment Service.

The National Reemployment Service

It was apparent in the summer of 1933 that the state employment services did not have an adequate number of employment offices and were not sufficiently well organized to meet the requirements of the federal emergency work program. Accordingly the National Reemployment Service was established under the direction of the United States Employment Service, to refer workers to federal and state emergency work projects in states with no employment offices and to supplement the work of the existing offices in other states. This Service was financed through funds provided by the Federal Emergency Administration of Public Works, the Federal Emergency Relief Administration (and later by the Works Progress Administration), and other emergency organizations. Supplementing its support from federal emergency funds the National

Reemployment Service had the cooperation and assistance of many state relief administrations, counties, local communities, and other local agencies. At the peak of its operations the administrative costs of the National Reemployment Service were at the rate of about $17,000,000 annually, of which more than 90 per cent was supplied from federal sources. This contrasts with a figure of approximately $7,000,000 available in the same year under the terms of the Wagner-Peyser Act. Of this amount $4,000,000 was from federal funds and $3,000,000 consisted of matching state funds.

During its history the National Reemployment Service rendered important services in the classification and referral of workers to the Civil Works Administration, Public Works Administration, and the Works Progress Administration, as well as the regular public work agencies of the government such as the Bureau of Public Roads and the Army Engineering Corps. *See* WORK RELIEF.

As the state services were expanded for their part in the administration of unemployment compensation the facilities of the National Reemployment Service were contracted. Many of its offices and part of its staff were absorbed in the state systems. This emergency service was discontinued June 30, 1939.

Development of Employment Service Techniques

The period from 1936 to 1939 presented an opportunity for the qualitative development of the Service. There was some further physical expansion as availability of funds from the Social Security Board made possible replacement of the National Reemployment Service's emergency activities and further expansion and stabilization of the state employment services. At the same time considerable attention was given to the development of the operating plans of state employment services. Efforts were made to stabilize local office organization by setting minimum standards of premises, staffing, and procedures.

There was general acceptance, after some early difficulties, of the merit system of qualifying personnel in all state services. This achievement represents one of the major accomplishments of the United States Employment Service, since it was secured despite the lack of specific authorization in the Wagner-Peyser Act. The basic success of the merit system promoted by the Employment Service laid a groundwork which has made possible the extension of the merit system principle into broader fields of federal-state relationship as the Social Security Act has come into operation. During this period a program of statistical reporting of important activities of the employment services was standardized, making available for the first time a cross-section record of the job-seekers of the nation.

One of the significant developments in this period is represented in the various phases of the Occupational Research Program of the United States Employment Service. Occupational information was accumulated by the Employment Service on a vast scale, both nationally and locally. Job descriptions for many industries were produced nationally, supplemented by similar descriptions developed locally by state employment services for many more occupations and industries. As a capstone on the national development of occupational information the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* (*infra cit.*), recently published, presents in concise form a first approach to information about all types of occupations. Nearly 30,000 job titles covering 17,500 distinct occupations are defined and classified.

Considerable attention was also given during this period to the development of occupational tests and special selection techniques. Many larger employers having their own well-developed personnel departments were beginning to utilize the facilities of

the Service, very largely as a result of the development and application of these special selection techniques in the employment offices.

During 1938–1939 a new emphasis was placed on the development of junior placement and counseling services. For two or three years the National Youth Administration had cooperated in the development of counseling and placement divisions for juniors in 100 to 150 offices scattered throughout something more than half the states. This activity has been very largely taken over and expanded so that by 1940 there were 341 offices with special junior counseling and placement facilities. Particular attention has been given in these offices to the use of occupational information and counseling techniques.

Service to physically handicapped applicants has likewise been given more attention. Cooperative efforts with the Division of Vocational Rehabilitation of the United States Office of Education have resulted in improving the working relationships between state employment services and state rehabilitation agencies. Special studies have been made of the suitability of certain types of work opportunities for individuals with particular handicaps.

Transfer of the Employment Service to the Social Security Board

The Social Security Act, passed in 1935, had greatly increased the responsibilities of the public employment offices. The portions of the Act dealing with unemployment compensation required that, in order to qualify both for the administrative grants provided for in the Act and for the certification of their laws under its tax-remission features, the state unemployment compensation administrations must make provision for the payment of benefits solely through public employment offices or other approved agency. *See* UNEMPLOYMENT COMPENSATION. The advent of unemployment compensation gave rise to many difficult problems for the state employment services. Some state authorities proceeded on the view that the two functions of placement and unemployment compensation should be separately administered and vested the two activities in different departments or divisions. Others felt that these functions should be closely integrated.

On the national level serious problems arose by reason of the location of the employment service function in the Department of Labor and unemployment compensation in the Social Security Board. A major difficulty derived from the inadequacy of the employment service funds for the expanded organization required for unemployment compensation administration. As emergency funds available through the National Reemployment Service declined, recourse was had to the moneys provided under the Social Security Act for administrative grants to the states for unemployment compensation.

The President's Reorganization Plan No. I transferred the United States Employment Service from the Department of Labor to the Social Security Board on July 1, 1939. The Employment Service was consolidated with the former Bureau of Unemployment Compensation of the Social Security Board to form a new agency called the Bureau of Employment Security. As a result of this transfer some duplications and conflicts of authority between the two formerly independent federal bureaus have been eliminated. Certain energies which were utilized in competition are now being devoted to cooperative effort. There have been some difficulties, however. The involved procedural mechanics—which may be an inevitable by-product of a large integrated program such as that of the Bureau of Employment Security and the Social Security Board as a whole—complicate the problem of relationships and in many instances almost eliminate direct contact between the states and the federal staff working on employment service problems and policies.

Current Trends and Problems

At least three major trends may be observed in the current employment service program. First, there is a trend toward emphasis on state control of the program and state responsibility for the development of techniques and procedures, with a proportionate diminution of federal leadership and responsibility in these fields. This development would seem to be both inevitable and desirable so long as a federal-state system is the operating pattern. Whether there will be unevenness of performance from state to state which may lead to a demand for a straight federal system of operation or a return to a greater emphasis on federal control in the federal-state program is a question for the future.

The second trend which seems to be developing is toward the decentralization of federal operations into regional offices. Although this is a general trend which characterizes many federal agencies and is endorsed by most authorities in the field of government management, there is some question as to its desirability in certain respects in the employment service field. Where a federal bureau is dealing with 48 state agencies a program of decentralization into 12 regions may have a tendency to emphasize the federal-state relation in terms of operating plans and budgetary negotiations, and to make difficult the development of the technical staff functions at the federal level. It is not clear that a technical staff attached to 12 regional units offers much improvement over a technical staff attached to state staffs. There are, of course, many advantages in the more immediate contacts with the states offered by a regional form of organization. How these advantages may be secured without hampering the more important technical services which should be developed by the federal unit is a difficult problem.

A third trend seems to be toward further integration and consolidation of the employment service and unemployment compensation functions into one enterprise. This integration is proceeding somewhat more rapidly at the federal level than the state level. Prior to the consolidation of the Employment Service with the Bureau of Unemployment Compensation the separate and distinct character of these two activities and concepts was over-emphasized to the detriment of the necessary cooperation and coordination. In the moves made to eliminate these difficulties, there is a serious risk of over-simplifying the problem and destroying the fundamental identity of the problems involved. There are, after all, two basic problems—not one.

Whether it is possible for the federal organization to offer the necessary leadership to the states in developing these two important functions by a process of channeling both employment service and unemployment compensation policies, procedures, and techniques to the states through a single set of regional representatives is not as yet satisfactorily demonstrated. Some of the dangers of over-simplifying the problem of integration are pointed up in the effort to substitute the single concept "employment security" for the two titles and functions of employment service and unemployment compensation.

An employment service is a recognizable concept in the public mind and clearly identified. Considerable good will has been developed for that name and concept. Similarly, unemployment compensation or unemployment insurance is a clear-cut idea in the public mind. These two concepts, and indeed these two titles, have been common throughout the leading industrial nations in the past two or three decades. A local office of a state department of employment security is not as yet a clearly identified agency in the public mind, and a representative of the Bureau of Employment Security may for some time need to explain the nature of his activities.

In recent months there has been a marked increase in the need for more accurate in-

formation regarding the availability of qualified workers in various categories, particularly those required for the defense program. With respect to tool and die makers and certain types of machinists, such as those required in the production of machine tools, the problem of the adequacy of supply has become pressing.

Employment Service Statistics

Table I shows the number of new applications and placements made at the offices of state employment services and the National Reemployment Service by fiscal years (ending June 30) since the Wagner-Peyser Act went into effect.

July of 308,000 were 8 per cent above the level of July, 1939, while complete private placements of 260,000 were the highest for any July in the history of the employment service and were 22 per cent above the level for July, 1939. Nearly one-third of a million placements were made in August, of which more than 280,000 were with private employers, the highest August volume on record, and about 10 per cent above the total for August of last year.

As of June 30, 1940, there were 1,492 full-time employment offices and 3,115 part-time or itinerant points, with a total local office personnel of 18,634, in the federal-state system.

TABLE I

	Applications			*Placements*		
Fiscal Year	*State Employment Services*	*National Reemployment Service*	*Combined Services*	*State Employment Services*	*National Reemployment Service*	*Combined Services*
1934	3,445,553	9,189,421	12,634,974	1,551,096	5,481,392	7,032,488
1935	1,922,566	2,214,446	4,137,012	898,793	2,275,858	3,174,651
1936	3,365,513	2,897,675	6,263,188	2,557,963	3,221,536	5,779,499
1937	2,390,715	1,485,857	3,876,572	2,369,204	1,862,601	4,231,805
1938			6,546,134			2,900,056
1939			6,587,309			3,134,011
1940			6,325,982			3,536,908

Table II presents for the past five years an analysis of placements by private and public employment and relief employment.

During the first two months of the fiscal year 1940–1941, placement activity continued at a level materially above previous years. New applications in July exceeded those of the same month a year earlier, but in August declined; while the active file dropped from nearly 5,750,000 at the end of June to less than 5,250,000 at the end of August. Total complete placements in

Household Employment

Household employment has been and is an important field in the work of the public employment offices. About 1,500,000 women were working in this field at the time of the 1930 census. The employment offices have been conscious of the need for higher standards and better placement since the demand for competent household employes as a rule far exceeds the supply. The section of the federal Social Security Act relating to unemployment insurance exempts

TABLE II

Analysis of Placements

Placements	*1936*	*1937*	*1938*	*1939*	*1940*
Private employment	1,160,244	2,100,606	1,962,765	2,225,114	2,995,518
Public employment	1,751,724	1,846,269	894,745	876,423	507,976[a]
Relief employment	2,867,531[b]	284,930	42,546	32,474	33,414
Total	5,779,499	4,231,805	2,900,056	3,134,011	3,536,908

[a] Includes relief. [b] WPA and relief.

household workers from its provisions, although in New York State domestic servants under certain circumstances are covered by the state law. In but one state (Washington) are domestic employes protected by hour legislation, and only one state (Wisconsin) has set minimum wage rates for such workers. Only in Connecticut and New Jersey are household employes included like other workers in the provisions for accident compensation, and Connecticut exempts employers of fewer than five workers, naturally the great majority.

During the past four years two types of programs for the training of women as household workers have been carried out by the Division of Women's and Professional Projects of the Works Progress Administration and its successor the Work Projects Administration (WPA). The first scheme, known as "household workers' training," was inaugurated in February, 1936, in 17 states, New York City, and the District of Columbia. Under this plan 9,272 young women were registered in the WPA centers by January 1, 1937, of whom 5,685 had been trained and placed with private employers. In mid-1937 a somewhat different plan, designated the "household service demonstration project," was launched. While the first scheme was established largely for training, the second offered not only training but employment in WPA demonstration centers. The household training and service demonstration centers had 5,963 enrollees in 1937 in some 23 states and the District of Columbia. At the beginning of 1938 about 2,616 of these had received certificates of proficiency while 347 others had accepted employment as household workers before receiving certificates. By December 31, 1939, approximately 22,300 persons had completed these training courses of whom approximately 17,200 had been placed. For a number of years various national and local organizations have been concerned about the employment conditions of these workers, and in 1928 a National Committee on Household Employment was formed. This organization is made up of employers, employes, and representatives of public and private social agencies and educational organizations. It acts as a clearing house for all plans to improve working conditions and relations in household employment. The state employment services have cooperated in the effort to improve conditions in this field of employment. Illustrative of the growing public concern with the problem of improving standards in household employment was a symposium on this subject conducted in New York City in November, 1939. Participants in this symposium, including Mrs. Franklin D. Roosevelt and representatives of federal, state, and local government agencies as well as private groups such as the National Board of the Young Women's Christian Associations of the United States of America, National Consumers League, General Federation of Women's Clubs, and the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, united in urging the adoption of improved standards in this neglected field.

Vocational Education and Training

The guiding principle of legislation having to do with vocational education is that the education given must be under public supervision and control and designed to train persons for useful employment, whether in agriculture, the trades, industry, home economics, or commerce.

The Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 appropriated federal funds on a graduated scale, beginning with an appropriation of $1,500,000 and continuing until 1926 when maximum amounts of $7,000,000 were reached and became the annual appropriations to be continued indefinitely. These amounts, to be available to the states, had to be matched by equal sums expended by the state, the local community, or both. Within ten months of the passing of the Act all 48 states had accepted its provisions and set up the requi-

site machinery for carrying on vocational education. The benefits of the Act were later extended to the territories.

The need for further development was recognized by acts supplementary to the Smith-Hughes Act. The latest, the George-Deen Act of 1936, authorized on a permanent basis increased appropriations to the states and the territories for vocational education in the fields already aided and, in addition, in the field of the distributive occupations. For a period of five years the funds are granted on condition that 50 per cent of the appropriations are to be matched by state or local funds, or both. After June 30, 1942, the matching appropriations required of the states are to be increased 10 per cent annually until, for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1947, and annually thereafter, 100 per cent matching is required as in the Smith-Hughes Act. This Act requires, however, that from its inception funds for preparing teachers, supervisors, and directors of agricultural, trade and industrial, and home economics subjects shall be conditioned on equal matching by the states.

The administration of the Smith-Hughes Act and supplementary acts was in the hands of a salaried Federal Board for Vocational Education of seven members until 1933 when the functions of the Board were transferred to the United States Commissioner of Education and a Vocational Division was organized in the Office of Education with an assistant commissioner for vocational education as the administrative head. The members of the former Board act in an advisory capacity without compensation.

Under the President's Reorganization Plan No. I the Office of Education was transferred from the Department of Interior to the new Federal Security Agency, effective July 1, 1939. No major change in organization or functions of the Office of Education resulted from this transfer. Total grants for vocational education and teacher-training increased from $1,855,587 for the year ending June 30, 1918, to $19,433,394 for the year ending June 30, 1939.

The enrolment in vocational classes for 1939 for the country as a whole, including Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico, as reported by state boards for vocational education, totaled 2,085,427. This represented an increase of 275,345 or 15.2 per cent over 1938. It is double the number so engaged ten years ago, in 1929 (1,047,976).

The Federal Committee on Apprenticeship, appointed by the Secretary of Labor to determine policy on the promotion of apprenticeship, has been in existence since 1934. Members include representatives of employers, organized labor, the Department of Labor, the United States Office of Education, and the National Youth Administration. The work is administered as a section of the Division of Labor Standards in the Department of Labor.

As of October, 1940, state apprenticeship agencies in 22 states were cooperating with the federal agency in promoting apprenticeship. Apprenticeship committees were functioning in some 25 trades or occupations in 30 states. The requirements of the defense program have given a new emphasis to this development. The number of joint apprenticeship committees increased from 208 in December, 1939, to 528 in September, 1940. Plans call for an expansion of the apprenticeship field staff to meet the emergency by the assignment of qualified apprenticeship technicians to the 33 major industrial areas of the country, with emphasis on the training of skilled mechanics for the manufacturing industries. It is hoped that this cooperative procedure will be furthered through greater activity on the part of trade associations and unions working in cooperation with state and local apprenticeship committees, and through action on the part of individual employers and local labor organizations.

Occupational Information and Guidance Service

An Occupational Information and Guidance Service has been set up in the Office of

Education as a new activity. Its functions include:

Securing, compiling, and making available to the states and schools comprehensive and up-to-date information about occupations.

Making studies and investigations relating to tests, measurements, and personnel records necessary in programs of guidance.

Furnishing a consultation and field service to the states in the promotion and organization of programs of guidance.

This Service works through state and local educational authorities and cooperates with the Employment Service in the dissemination of occupational information and the promotion of guidance programs. *See* VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE.

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WILLIAM H. STEAD

THE FAMILY,[1] generally regarded as the oldest and most fundamental of social institutions, today faces a complex world which has grown upon and around it. Embedded in "the cake of custom," reinforced by and reinforcing precepts, traditions, and loyalties, the family is by nature a conservative institution. Can it in this day and age meet the challenge of social change as every social institution must if it is to maintain a vital role in the new order?

In its long history the family has undergone many metamorphoses. Its survival to the present time is definitely related to the fact that it has not been a static institution. Today, however, there is a new factor to be reckoned with. This is the greatly accelerated rate of social change. Can the family keep pace? If it does succeed in adjust-

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

ing itself to the inexorable changes that are occurring, what will be left of it; will it of necessity relinquish so many vital functions that it will no longer play a significant role in human affairs?

Social work, which has increasingly put its emphasis upon the family as the unit of service, is deeply concerned with the answers to these questions.

Changing Functions of the Family

The record shows that the family has been definitely affected by the main currents of modern social change, and that in the process it has already lost many important functions. Dr. William F. Ogburn has outlined seven major historical functions of the family: economic, status-giving, educational, religious, recreational, protective, and affectional. These seven functions, he says, may be thought of as bonds that formerly tied the members of a family together. Now in modern times, he adds, the first six of these seven functions have been greatly reduced as family activities. "They have been transferred from the family to other institutions, schools, factories, stores, clubs, commissions, and so on. What is the family's loss is the gain of the state and of industry."[1]

The economic function may be cited as an example. The household is no longer the self-sufficient unit of colonial times, when it directly provided for most of its material needs through agriculture and stock-raising, preserving, butchering, spinning, weaving, woodcutting, furniture-making, candle-making, and the like. The age of steam and electricity, of mechanical invention and mass production, has taken industry out of the home and, during working hours, the wage-earner as well. Thus a certain unity of the household has been broken, and with it has gone to a large extent the more stable mode of life attached to the ownership of the means of production, of the land, and of the homestead. In its place have come shifting industrial populations concentrated in cities and in the dismal, insanitary, crowded dwellings which are the transient abodes of a large part of the working group. In 1820, 93 per cent of the people of this country lived in rural communities; in 1930, only one-fourth of the people lived on farms, and more than half the population in cities.

Accompanying this loss of function is the steadily growing rate of divorce and the increasing number of broken homes. It is also frequently said that the home is losing its hold upon youth. The automobile and various forms of commercialized recreation are taking youth out of the home in the pursuit of pleasure and are affording new opportunities for boys and girls to associate under other than family auspices that are at best considered doubtful. Chaperonage is largely a thing of the past. Discipline and respect for parental authority are said to be disappearing phenomena, even among young children still embraced in the family circle. Self-expression seems to be the order of the day. Husbands, and many wives too, lead a much greater part of their existence outside the home, and are thrown in less constant association than formerly. All members of the family appear to be affected by the distractions of modern life. The home is no longer the center of activity that it was.

Here in substance are the trends which are cited as pointing to the lessening prestige of the family as a social institution. What is their meaning? An examination of the six declining functions of the family outlined by Dr. Ogburn shows that, while these functions in their more organized forms have been taken over by other institutions, important aspects of each of them still remain in the family. Economically speaking, the family is no longer a unit of production, but it remains an important unit of consumption. The economic fate of its members still depends upon the family income. The standard of living is also determined to a considerable degree by the skill of the housewife in managing and budgeting to secure the greatest value from

[1] *See* Ogburn, "The Changing Family," *infra cit.*

a given income. As to the other functions mentioned, the social status of the individual is frequently determined by the vocational and cultural opportunities which the family affords him; child training and character development are essential aspects of education which the family retains; the radio and television are bringing recreation back into the home; protection of the child through health, nutrition, and emotional security is clearly a family responsibility; and family influence is still potent in the spiritual growth of its members.

May it not be that those aspects of each of these functions which the family has relinquished were more or less extraneous to the essential character and quality of family life—"excess baggage," the removal of which may potentially strengthen rather than weaken the family in fulfilling its social purposes? The home that is not a factory, for example, may serve all the better as a home.

Significance of Divorce Rates

With regard to divorce and broken homes and other factors that affect the composition and stability of the family, the statistics bear careful analysis. The average size of the American household (including servants, relatives, and lodgers) dropped from 4.30 persons in 1900 to 4.01 in 1930. As distinct from the household, the average size of unbroken families, considering only parents and children, was 3.57 in 1930 as compared with 3.67 in 1900—a decline of less than 3 per cent in thirty years. The percentage of the population that is married has been steadily increasing, due principally to a trend toward earlier marriages presumably attributable to birth control. *See* BIRTH CONTROL. In 1890, of those fifteen years of age and over, 55.3 per cent were married. This percentage has shown an increase in each decade and reached 60.5 per cent in 1930. The ratio of all married women gainfully employed outside the home more than doubled in forty years, increasing from 5.6 per cent in 1890 to 11.7 per cent in 1930.

The number of divorces per 1,000 population in this country has increased steadily since 1880 at the average rate of about 3 per cent a year. The rate of increase slowed down between 1920 and 1930. This decade taken alone showed a ratio of increase of only about 1.5 per cent. In 1930 one divorce was granted for every six marriages contracted, and from this fact and the general trend of the divorce rate, Ogburn predicts that more than one in six of the marriages contracted in 1930 will end in divorce. Desertions are now estimated at about 50,000 per annum in the United States, and annulments less than 5,000. Taking families in which the wife was forty-four years of age or younger and the husband, if he were the survivor, forty-nine years of age or younger, Ogburn shows that in 1930 about one in every seven or eight families recorded was broken by divorce, separation, annulment, desertion, or death.

It is erroneous to assume that the divorce rate directly reflects the proportion of broken homes in which children are concerned. Divorce occurs with much greater frequency in childless marriages. Figures for 1928 show that in 63 per cent of the divorces granted there were no children in the family; in 20.5 per cent, one child; in 9.5 per cent, two children; in 3.9 per cent, three children; in 1.7 per cent, four children; and in 1.4 per cent, five children or more. Cahen has calculated that 71 per cent of childless marriages end in divorce, while only 8 per cent of husbands and wives having children become divorced. Divorce appears therefore as more of a marriage than a family problem, concludes Una Bernard Sait in citing these figures.[1]

While clearly indicating trends that reflect the conditions of modern life, the statistics when carefully analyzed show no sudden and revolutionary changes, no alarming disintegration in family life, particularly where children are involved. It must be

[1] *See* Sait, *infra cit.*

recognized that when separation and divorce do occur they are merely external symptoms of an affectional life that has already failed. The fact that marriages are more readily and frequently dissolved today may signify that a larger percentage of those marriages that remain unbroken are held together by a real and lasting affection and form the basis for the kind of home in which it is desirable to bring up children.

Character of Family Ties

As to the commonly observed changes in the behavior patterns and attitudes of children and youth with respect to family authority and supervision, there are indications that positive forces may today be replacing authoritarian or negative controls. In the best expressions of the modern family at least, instead of outright dictation of conduct there is sufficient freedom of choice to enable a child to profit by experience and to encourage self-reliance. In place of stern authority, there is more companionship between parents and children. There is respect for one another as persons. There is confidence and frankness. The honest question is honestly answered. As children grow older, they participate in family councils and have a sense of sharing in family affairs. As a consequence, parents and children may be bound by deeper, more powerful, more sympathetic ties than in the strict, authoritative type of family.

By their own testimony as set forth in the Maryland study of the American Youth Commission,[1] even the older children, sixteen to twenty-four years of age, maintain close ties with their parents. Although the median age for all youth interviewed was 20.4 years, four out of five were shown to be living with parents or relatives; one out of five was helping to support or was completely supporting parents. Sixty-five per cent of the single girls and half of the single boys said they turned to their parents when worried or troubled. Only 3 per cent of the single youth living at home said they would prefer to live away from home. Only 8 per cent of all youth interviewed expressed no wish eventually to have children. The report concludes: "Between their expressed satisfaction with the parental home and their apparent enthusiasm for homes of their own, the continued existence of the family as the fundamental social unit seems reasonably well assured."

Apart from the evaluation of changes occurring in the family and the interpretation one chooses to put upon them, the critical test of the survival and continuing usefulness of any social institution is whether it has an essential character which time and circumstance are not likely to alter or make less important. Social changes come and go. Today doctrines of violence and revolution threaten to engulf the free and democratic peoples of the world. Nevertheless there are basic traits of human nature which appear to be enduring. Persons of opposite sexes will continue to be attracted to one another, will mate under some form of social sanction (marriage), will beget children, will have the natural parental desire to protect and rear their children, and will take parental pride in their development and accomplishments. Young children at least will still look to their parents for physical care and protection and for emotional sustenance to satisfy their need for belonging, for affection, and for security. Human beings, child and adult alike, as social creatures will still find deep satisfactions in the intimate associations of a close kinship group. The family in its essence is but the outward form of expression of these basic traits of human nature.

It is these essential aspects of the family which are included in the seventh of the functions in Ogburn's list, which he calls affectional. This function, he states, may be claimed to remain as vigorous and extensive as in prior eras. Indeed, it seems likely that in terms of these fundamentals the family will be as enduring as the basic traits of human nature from which it has

[1] *See* Bell, *infra cit.*

sprung. What Dr. Ogburn calls the affectional function is in fact a group of biological, psychological, social, and cultural functions inextricably woven together to make the fabric that is the family. Divested in large part of its separable functions, the modern family rests upon these inseparable functions which are of its essence and make it distinctive and unique. Formerly the family was accorded a primary place in the social order by reason of its status as a social institution: its authoritative control in a patriarchal society, its vested rights in property, its primary role in meeting the physical and material needs of the members. The modern family, largely divested of these formal institutional aspects and stripped to its essentials, must be judged rather by its potency and usefulness as a social *force* in molding the personalities of its members.

Social Values of the Modern Family

It is of special interest to observe how the social evolution of the family accords with the evolution of social thought about the family. It is a significant coincidence that as the family becomes more and more concentrated upon its essential and distinctive functions, modern knowledge is revealing new and hitherto unrecognized values surrounding these functions. Findings coming from the newer dynamic psychology and sociology, from the practice of psychiatry and social work, from studies of child development, and from the field of parent education reveal that human personality is not fixed at birth but is largely molded by life experience, especially in the early years. Thus new attention is focused upon the family as the social group which receives the individual upon his arrival into this world and embraces him with a degree of closeness in a common whole of group life which no other social group will ever approach. The family holds the individual, moreover, in almost exclusive possession during those formative years when the deep basic traits of personality are being molded—molded mainly by the give and take of personal relationships within the family circle.

As Healy and Bronner have concluded after carefully tracing the origin of delinquent behavior to its source in the blocking of the needs of the child for satisfying personal relationships in his family: "The most immediate, most influential, and most conditioning environment of young human beings is that of family life and its relationships."[1] Dr. John C. Thurrott, psychiatrist, has said: "While personality is probably not hereditary, it is nevertheless predictable. From the emotional life of the parents can be foretold the emotional life of the children."[2]

In the same process of molding the personality of the child, the family plays an equally primary role in transmitting to him the social heritage of the race and in putting upon him the impress of its own particular cultural concepts and patterns. His ideas about life, his beliefs, his loyalties, his prejudices, his ideals, and what he regards as accepted ways of doing things reflect the culture as exemplified and interpreted by his family. Not only personality, but the culture, resides in individuals. They merge into one when we speak of the social personality, the anti-social personality, the bigot or the liberal, the cooperative individual, the aggressive individual, and so forth.

To point to its leading role in the development of personality and the transmission of the culture is but another way of saying that the family bears the major responsibility of preparing the child for social living. This is a peculiarly heavy responsibility in a democracy which, while maintaining the rights and liberties of the individual, is in turn dependent upon the way in which individuals exercise those rights and responsibilities. Democracy is as strong as the ability and willingness of the people in it to

[1] *See* Healy and Bronner, *infra cit.*

[2] Paper presented at New York State Conference on Marriage and the Family, April 29, 1939 —published only in abstract.

work freely and effectively together for the common good. Totalitarian regimes recognize the supreme need of preparing the rising generation for their way of life. All the more must democracy be concerned to equip its children for the democratic life. The difference is that totalitarian training means State regimentation almost from the cradle up, leaving to the family little but the biological task of physical reproduction. Democratic training means putting the family foremost in the development of the individual and the encouraging of the finest type of family life. It is significant that the changes already noted in the patterns of family life in this country have been in the direction of democracy. Those ideals of democracy—freedom, justice, fairness, faith in others, identification of self-interest with group interest—must first be learned and exemplified within the small and intimate social group of the family if the individual is to be capable of giving them meaning and practical effect in the democracy of the state and of society.

There are signs which indicate that a modern type of family is beginning to appear as the result of adaptation to modern social change. Mobility, ease of communication, the growing number and growing importance of social contacts, all demand that the individual be fitted for a wider and more intensive social life. The virtues that are needed today are those that peculiarly grow out of the modern family at its best: emotional maturity; the ability and courage to be oneself, coupled with regard for the rights of others and respect for their individuality; the capability, in the light of individual differences, of working loyally with others for common social objectives.

It must be emphasized, however, that this is said with reference to the potentialities of the modern family under favorable conditions. It cannot be denied that amidst the distractions of today's manner of living and the forces that make for family disintegration, the attainment of this goal is beset with many difficulties and requires a more conscious and directed social effort than ever before.

Importance of Economic Security

When adverse economic conditions exist the difficulties are enormously increased. The report of the recent White House Conference on Children in a Democracy points out that, while the standard of decent living in this country has been raised to conform with advancing knowledge, and while there have been notable gains in health care and prevention of illness, nevertheless there is widespread actual need: "many children as well as many adults lack sufficient food and adequate shelter, and many millions of Americans lack needed medical attention."[1] It is shown that some one-half to two-thirds of children in American cities live in homes where the family income is less than the equivalent of $1,260 for a family of four. Although less exact figures are available, it is stated that the economic condition of farm families is no better. Moreover, per capita income decreases sharply as the size of the family increases.

Economic circumstances that make impossible a decent standard of living almost unavoidably put a blight upon family life, as social workers can eloquently testify. When the family is under economic strain, when worry is ever present, when ways of living have to be sharply circumscribed, the atmosphere becomes tense, personalities clash, and irritation, blame, and distrust may spring up unawares. When the best abiding place the family can afford is a dark, unwholesome tenement or a miserable shack where there is crowding, lack of privacy, depressing and demoralizing surroundings, what kind of home life can be expected? If relief becomes necessary, even in those communities where public relief is reasonably adequate, is it to be expected that the finest fruits of family life can blossom from a relief budget? There is no margin here for the things that spell living rather than

[1] *See* p. 13 in U. S. Children's Bureau, *infra cit.*

existence, in a budget scientifically calculated as the minimum for health and decency but no more. Relief is not a way of life, much less a way of family life. At the same time, it must be recognized that social security and public assistance programs, such as aid to dependent children and old age assistance, are large factors in preserving home life for many families which formerly would have been broken up by the institutionalization of their members; while unemployment insurance, old age annuities, home loan and home buying aids, and, to a limited extent, public housing have also contributed to the maintenance of home and family life. *See* PUBLIC ASSISTANCE. Economic security sufficient to permit a reasonable standard of living must be recognized as an indispensable prerequisite to the realization of those potentialities of the modern family which have been indicated. *See also* CONSUMER INTERESTS.

Most disturbing of all is the impact upon youth of social and economic obstacles to marriage and home-making and, if marriage is achieved, to having children. In a recent report[1] to the New York State Conference on Marriage and the Family, a committee of youth outlined these problems as follows: (a) the complexity of urban life and the individualistic character of most leisure-time pursuits are obstacles to the natural associations through which young men and women may meet and form friendships; (b) the home formerly was the place where young people were educated and prepared for marriage and family life; this function has been largely dissipated through changes in the social control of the family, but has not been adequately taken over by any other educational institution; (c) the prevalence of unemployment and economic insecurity has had serious effect on the possibilities young people have for marrying and establishing stable homes.

[1] *Youth and Marriage.* Report to the New York State Conference on Marriage and the Family as drawn by a committee of youth, April 12, 1940.

Legal Sanctions

Definite legal rights and sanctions surround and support the family as a social institution. Among these are divorce laws, but such laws can scarcely perform a protective function—they merely give legal countenance to the dissolution of a union which has already failed. Laws which affect the right to marry, however, may be considered to be of a preventive nature, seeking to make sound the basic structure upon which the family is established. While law can never be a primary factor in ensuring successful marriages and families, carefully drawn statutes well enforced may forestall many undesirable unions.

In establishing legal sanctions, government displays its concern in the soundness of a basic social institution. The recognition of common-law marriage, of course, defeats the purpose of marriage statutes. The trend in this country is away from such recognition. New York State has prohibited common-law marriages since 1933. About half the states have now taken similar action. It appears that common-law marriages have been mainly resorted to by persons who were unable to comply with statutory requirements, and were therefore entering into a relation that had been publicly condemned by being disallowed under statute.

The majority of states now have laws designed to prevent hasty or so-called "Gretna Green" or "gin" marriages. In a number of these states a delay of several days is required between the application for a marriage license and the issuance of the license. New York State passed a law in 1937 which required a delay of seventy-two hours between the time of issuance of a marriage license and the solemnization of marriage. This interval, however, was reduced to twenty-four hours following the passage in 1938 of legislation requiring a test for syphilis prior to marriage, which necessarily results in a delay in the issuance of a license. An interval between the application and issuance of the license is preferable to that

between the issuance of the license and the performance of the marriage ceremony, as the latter form lends itself more readily to evasion.

A most notable recent advance has been the enactment of laws in 20 states which require both applicants for a marriage license to present medical certificates to their licensing authorities. *See* SOCIAL HYGIENE. These certificates are based in every case on an examination which includes a blood test for syphilis. In half of the 20 states these statutes were enacted as recently as 1939 and 1940. Wisconsin was the pioneer, having enacted a limited statute in 1913. Most states forbid the marriage of insane and epileptic persons but these statutes have been difficult of effective enforcement.

While the large majority of states have made the legal age of marriage higher than the common-law requirements of fourteen for males and twelve for females, they have not generally attained the ages of eighteen for males and sixteen for females, which are considered a desirable standard. All states ban the marriage of brothers and sisters, including those of half-blood, and of uncles and nieces, aunts and nephews. In addition 29 states do not sanction the marriage of first cousins. Twenty-nine states also forbid the intermarriage of certain racial stocks; these statutes exist principally in the southern and southwestern states, with reference to the marriage of whites and blacks.

The Uniform Marriage Evasion Act aims at reciprocity among the states to prevent residents of a given state from evading the marriage laws of that state by contracting a marriage in another state. Only five states —Illinois, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Vermont, and Wisconsin—up to 1939 had entered into such reciprocity. There is also a Uniform Marriage License Act setting up common standards with respect to the method of obtaining and qualifying for licenses and the officials who can issue licenses, perform ceremonies, and so forth. This has made little progress.

In the absence of federal regulation, the achievement of uniformity, so important in establishing effective standards, is slow and difficult. Richmond and Hall, in their book on *Marriage and the State,* have convincingly shown that even more important than new legislation in the protection of marriage is the intelligent and forceful administration of the laws that already exist.[1]

The Rediscovery of the Family

The facts and considerations brought out by modern studies have led in recent years to the rediscovery of the family—a new awareness of its social significance. Many professional practices, disciplines, and movements devoted to the well-being of mankind are tending to converge upon the family and are finding there a common meeting ground.

The formal aspects of education long since have passed from the home to the school. Now the school, through its visiting teachers, attendance officers, child guidance clinics, and growing cooperation with social work, is turning to the home in the realization that the school cannot successfully build upon a personality warped or frustrated by unfavorable family influences. *See* SOCIAL AND HEALTH WORK IN THE SCHOOLS. Medicine and public health are coming to see that physical health, mental health, and social health are three inseparable aspects of individual well-being. The physician is attaching new importance to the contribution of the medical social worker, the public health nurse, and the social case worker in public and private social agencies. Leaders in the field of eugenics have of late been stressing a new approach to practical eugenics which places emphasis upon good home environment in the early years of childhood as being at least equal in importance to heredity. In the field of law, progressive leaders are pointing more and more to the necessity for positive effort in improving family life as the one effec-

[1] *See* Richmond and Hall, *infra cit.*

tive means of cutting off the intake to juvenile, domestic relations, and criminal courts. *See* JUVENILE AND DOMESTIC RELATIONS COURTS. The church has been steadfast in its emphasis upon family influences in the building of character.

Family Social Work

Social work may claim to have been in the vanguard of this movement toward the family. Organized social work originated as a means of dealing with poverty in an orderly, intelligent, and constructive manner. In a very pragmatic way, social workers learned that they could not effectively deal with material and other needs without coming to know and understand the individual behind the need. Practical experience showed that individual adjustments are social adjustments, involving above all family relationships, and that individual needs could be dealt with only in terms of the entire pattern of family needs and relationships. Thus one important branch of social case work, with no less emphasis upon the individual, became family case work. In 1919 the national association of these agencies, the Family Welfare Association of America, officially recognized "the need of centering our work around the welfare of the family" by incorporating the word "family" into its name, and local agencies made similar changes in name. The monthly journal of social case work published by the Association is called *The Family. See* FAMILY SOCIAL WORK.

More and more these agencies have emphasized the reconstruction and preservation of the family and the promotion of the best values of family life as the most effective method of helping the individual and of meeting human needs. While continuing to give a rounded case work service to families needing assistance with financial, health, home management, and many other problems of a practical kind, private family agencies have within the past decade been giving an increasing amount of service to families and individuals not in need of financial assistance. The discontinuance of the "charity" labels in agency names, and the emphasis upon the family in their titles reflect the purpose of these agencies to make their services generally available throughout the community. Although the term "counseling" has been principally applied to developments outside the field of social case work, as will be noted presently, the fact is that family case work as practiced by family service agencies throughout the country, with their staffs of professionally trained and skilled case workers, is family and marriage counseling in its most fully developed and extensive form. With these agencies, a question of ways and means is involved in bringing about a fuller public understanding of the fact that case work services are by no means limited to the dependent and marginal-income group, and in overcoming any hesitation on the part of economically independent persons to avail themselves of such service. A few of these agencies have set up counseling centers as distinct units. Such a center is the Family Consultation Service which has been established under the auspices of the Associated Charities of Cincinnati.

Parent Education

The parent education movement began in this country more than fifty years ago, with the establishment of the Child Study Association of America and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. In the beginning the movement was child-centered. Its interest was not in parents *per se* but in parents as a means of reaching children. Study groups of parents were organized for the purpose of improving their techniques in disciplining and managing children according to the prevailing concepts of the day. The most significant development which has taken place in the movement over the past ten years, as one authority points out, is "the recognition of the family rather than the individual child as the center of concern. Parents are seen as persons and not merely as technicians who might impose

their skills as minders of children: and their problems are those of human beings living in relationship with other human beings, especially as members of the family."[1]

State and other universities have made important contributions to the field of parent education through their work in child development research and through the training of students in courses on child development and family living. Full-time parent education specialists are now employed under public auspices by some 16 states. That these persons are now known as specialists in "family living" or in "family relationships" is an indication of the newer emphasis in this work.

A wide extension of the parent education movement to many who would not otherwise have been reached has been made possible in connection with the public relief developments of the past decade. Projects and personnel of the Work Projects Administration and National Youth Administration have been utilized for introducing educational programs through sewing groups and other rehabilitation centers, and for organizing classes of mothers around nursery schools, play schools, and other enterprises. In a number of states the adult education division of the Work Projects Administration has organized family life programs and has been instrumental in developing lay leaders for groups in education for family life. These programs under the Work Projects Administration and public relief auspices at one time included nearly a quarter of a million enrolled adults.

It is significant that, while private family social work during the past decade has been broadening its base to include service to families not in economic need, parent education has likewise been broadening its base in the opposite direction by extending its field from the educated and privileged group to include those on work and home relief. Thus the two fields have been drawn closer together around their common interest in the promotion of family well-being throughout the community.

The need of parents for personalized assistance and guidance became apparent in the problems and questions expressed by them in group meetings. To help parents in direct ways with their particular problems, the Child Study Association of America some years ago organized a family guidance and consultation service. This service is directed by a psychiatrist, with a staff consisting of a psychiatric social worker and several consulting child guidance workers. Consultation services for parents have also been established at the Merrill-Palmer School in Detroit, the University of California, and other centers.

Family Counseling

In addition to developments in the field of family social work, there has been a rapid growth in recent years of premarital, matital, and family counseling services throughout the country. It is estimated that there are at least one hundred such counseling centers under a wide range of auspices, including parent education, social hygiene, eugenics, birth control, maternal health, education, child guidance, psychology, and the ministry. This development is tangible evidence of the way in which the various fields devoted to human well-being are converging upon the family as their primary common concern. These centers have sprung up in large part in response to a growing demand for this kind of service. Under the stress of modern life upon the individual and upon marriage and the family as social institutions, many people in all walks of life are consciously seeking guidance in dealing with their personal and social problems, and of removing handicaps to satisfactory social living. When such a demand exists, facilities for meeting it—good, bad, or indifferent—are bound to arise. Conspicuous examples of the two latter kinds have appeared in radio programs, pulp magazines, and among the self-appointed counselors who advertise in the classified

[1] *See* Gruenberg, *infra cit.*

columns of newspapers. Even under auspices of recognized fields of work, searching questions are still in order as to the competence of those who serve as advisers to others.

Counseling services naturally reflect in their emphasis and in what they have to offer the training and equipment of the counselors and the auspices from which they spring. These services include advice and counsel in sex and sex problems, birth control, parenthood, child management, education, health, law, recreation, budgets and financial management, and the more basic problems of family life and family relationships. Counseling, apart from social case work, is by no means a coordinated or homogeneous movement. No definite professional standards or methods have been established, and only recently a beginning has been made in organizing graduate study for those who plan to act as marriage counselors.

Expression was given to the common interest of many different fields in the family and in family and marital counseling by the organization in 1936 under the leadership of Rabbi Sidney E. Goldstein of the New York State Conference on Marriage and the Family. In 1938 the National Conference on Family Relations was organized under the leadership of Paul Sayre, Professor of Law at the University of Iowa. The stated purpose of the National Conference is to "advance the cultural values that are now principally secured through family relations for the advantage of the individual and the strength of the nation. It seeks to unite in this common objective persons now working in the different fields of family research and welfare, biology, child study, education, eugenics, family social work, family and marriage counseling, home economics, law, maternal health, medicine, parent education, parent-teacher work, psychiatry, psychology, religion, social security, school and home visiting, and sociology." The National Conference meets annually. It also encourages the holding of regional, state, and local conferences. At the present time there are four regional conferences—New England, Midwestern, Northern Pacific, and Southern. In addition five states have organized affiliated state conferences. Twelve other states have state committees which are affiliated with the National Conference. The Conference publishes a quarterly magazine, *Living*.

Education for Family Living

All of these developments have combined with the growing interest of schools and colleges in courses related to everyday life to form a new and widespread movement in education for family living. This movement is based upon the conviction that the chances of success in marriage and family life can definitely be enhanced by preparation. It aims to give young people the benefit of modern knowledge, both with respect to the practical aspects of home-making and the psychological factors in marriage and family relationships. The high school is the greatest single medium for reaching the majority of young people. Many high schools are now including courses for both boys and girls in home-making, sex hygiene (frequently in connection with courses in biology), mental hygiene, and in social relations as a part of social studies. This is in keeping with the closer orientation of the entire curriculum to real life. More advanced courses in the family, its biological, psychological, and social functions, as well as in child study and parenthood, are being given and eagerly received in many colleges. At the other end of the scale many progressive nursery schools and elementary schools are laying important groundwork for life in the family in the development of right habits and attitudes. Thus schools and colleges join hands with social work, parent education, youth organizations, public health forces, the churches, and other agencies in the new social movement of education for family living.

The functions retained by the family in the modern world are unique and inalien-

able. They include not only biological functions but the psychological and social functions which so largely mold the personality and determine the fitness of the individual for cooperative, harmonious, and satisfying life with others in society. It may truly be said that the level of a social order can rise no higher than the level of its family life. Then certainly no social effort can be so important as education for family living and the application of the best knowledge and skills of the day for the protection and development of the highest standards of family life.

The place accorded the family in present-day thought and practice is significantly epitomized by the most recent of the distinguished series of White House Conferences devoted to the well-being of the nation's children. The *General Report* of the 1940 White House Conference on Children in a Democracy,[1] states: "Home and family are the first condition of life for the child. They are first in importance for his growth, development, and education. The child has food and shelter if his family has a home and provides food. He is content and happy if he is well, if he has parents and others to love and be loved by. Education begins in the home, where he learns to speak, to walk, to handle things, to play, to demand, to give, to experiment. Religious faith is imparted in the family long before he goes to church. Adventure and safety, contentment and rebellion, cooperation, sharing, self-reliance, and mutual aid are family experiences. In spite of the great changes which have occurred in family life, especially in cities, there is still no more far-reaching educational institution than the family. It can be a school for the democratic life, if we make it so."

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[1] *See* U. S. Children's Bureau, *infra cit.*

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STANLEY P. DAVIES

FAMILY SOCIAL WORK[1] consists of services rendered by agencies whose purpose may be said to be "to assist families and individuals in developing both the capacity and the opportunity to lead personally satisfying and socially useful lives."[2] The feature which distinguishes family social work is its focus on the family as a social unit of primary importance to the individual and to society. The underlying concept is that of the family as the matrix within which personality is formed and the closest personal relationships develop. *See* THE FAMILY. The family agency may work with an individual member of the family, with several members of the family group, or with a single, unattached person, but its emphasis throughout is on helping people with the problems which affect the unity and welfare of the family. Special attention is therefore given to the preservation of those strengths and values in family life which have the greatest significance for family unity and for individual growth.

Persons come to family social work agencies with problems arising from lack of work, illness, dislocated personal or family relationships, and similar causes. They may be in search of material assistance or may seek only a counseling relationship that will help them work their problems through to a solution. Applicants come sometimes on their own initiative and sometimes on the suggestion of others familiar with the agency's services. Traditionally it was the poor who came, for financial assistance, but in the past decade an increasing number from the marginal economic groups have sought help from the family agency, and persons of so-called higher educational, financial, and social status have also asked for case work services.

Family social work is practiced within agencies supported by both private and public funds. There are agencies performing family social work operating under important sectarian auspices, Catholic, Jewish, and Protestant. *See* CATHOLIC SOCIAL WORK, JEWISH SOCIAL WORK, and PROTESTANT SOCIAL WORK. In addition to these public and sectarian organizations there is a large group of community-wide, non-sectarian family welfare agencies which constitute the center of what may be termed the family social work field. These agencies frequently occupy a pivotal position in urban social work because of the diversity of the problems which come to them for attention and treatment or referral.

Historical Development

The family social work movement began in England in 1869 with the founding of the London Charity Organisation Society, which was designed to coordinate and systematize the services, particularly relief giving, of existing voluntary agencies. The first charity organization society developed along these lines in the United States was the Buffalo society, established in 1877. Several family agencies had been established earlier, though primarily for relief purposes. The new program of the charity organization society movement not only stimulated the organization of new agencies but also led to changes in the older societies. An inherent part of the program was the use of "friendly visitors" whose function it was to become acquainted with individual families, study their needs, and help with counsel, encouragement, and friendly interest; and then to canvass community resources, relatives, employers, and others to secure needed relief funds. Thus the charity organization societies not only coordinated existing work but also developed individualized services carried out by their volunteer workers.

In the early period, attention was largely focused on poverty and what were considered associated problems, such as ill health, inebriety, unemployment, and poor financial management. Increasing interest in the causes of poverty led to efforts to improve community conditions by fostering the es-

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

[2] *See* Swift, *infra cit.*

tablishment of better facilities for health care, thrift, housing, employment, and so forth. Some of these projects resulted in the development of separate promotional organizations, such as the National Tuberculosis Association. The interest in poverty and social conditions also led directly to a closer study of the causes of individual family maladjustment and further consideration of methods of helping families.

In the later years of the nineteenth century the volunteers, or friendly visitors, began to be replaced by professional, salaried workers. The need for better personnel equipment was acutely felt as boards and staffs studied the complex problems of family life. Training courses were set up for workers, first under the auspices of the agencies themselves. The first professional school of social work, the New York School of Social Work established in 1898, was sponsored by a charity organization society. In 1909 the Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation was established with Mary Richmond as its director. In 1911 the Family Welfare Association of America, under the direction of Francis H. McLean, was organized for the purpose of pooling experience and stimulating further development in the family field. Certain basic principles of individual social study, evaluation of data, and treatment were slowly evolved in the practice of family social work. The description and analysis of these principles in Miss Richmond's book, *Social Diagnosis* (*infra cit.*), marked the culmination of this period of deepening knowledge and the development of techniques for dealing with social problems on an individual basis. The World War of 1914–1918 and the cultural changes following it awakened a new interest in the psychology of the individual and brought to the social case work field an infiltration of knowledge from the psychiatric and psychoanalytic fields. *See* MENTAL HYGIENE. Family social work during the 1920's was engaged in assimilating this enriched understanding of human personality and adapting its techniques to make use of the new knowledge.

When the 1929 depression came, family social work agencies followed their long tradition of adapting to current conditions. As many departments of public welfare were in only a rudimentary state of development, the private agencies contributed as much as they could from their funds during the transition period and helped organize tax-supported agencies to undertake the task of mass relief. The laymen of many family agencies served on the boards of these new agencies, and trained staff members were released for supervisory and administrative positions. Through this leadership some of the basic case work principles, such as hearing the family's own statement of its problems, estimating the amount of financial assistance on the basis of the individual family's need, and enlisting the family's efforts in its own behalf, were incorporated into the policies of many of the new public agencies. *See* PUBLIC ASSISTANCE and PUBLIC WELFARE. Since 1933, with the establishment of state and federal programs for unemployment relief and social security, the private family agency has continued its trend of increasing its understanding of human needs and developing its skills to help people solve their family problems.

The Program of Family Agencies

The primary service given in family social work is that known as social case work. *See* SOCIAL CASE WORK. Individualized assistance is given in helping people develop and make use of personal capacities "through social case work treatment of strengths and handicaps which lie in the personality or the immediate environment of the individual."[1] Family social work thus deals with both the inner and outer factors (that is, with both psychological and environmental factors) which affect family life and the individuals composing the group. In the family field the focus of attention is in the way

[1] *See* Swift, *op. cit.*

a family maintains itself as a unit, economically and socially. The use of relief, therefore, involves one of the skills particularly developed and used by family case workers.

The number of families in the country receiving family case work service is very large, although no complete figures as to coverage are available. Many departments of public welfare consider themselves as relief-giving agencies only, although there is a group of such departments giving family case work service. The total number of different cases handled by 57 large private agencies (two Catholic, nine Jewish, and 46 non-sectarian) was 148,143 in 1939.[1] The average length of time these cases were active during the year was three and one-half months, a period of care shorter than formerly prevailed, probably indicating better focused work and a willingness to undertake many incidental services of value to families.

While family agencies give service directly to a large group of families, they also give indirect service to many others in the community. They are used as consultants by other specialized social agencies (such as group work agencies that confer about clients who have difficulties in making adjustments to group activities) or by groups outside the field of social work (such as churches that confer about productive ways of handling the social and family problems of its members). Family agencies take part in many cooperative plans with other organizations such as schools, camps, and industrial concerns, either for an individual family or for groups of people in need of counseling service.

A variety of services closely related to their case work programs are also given by family agencies. These services are usually set up to meet special needs of the people of the community, and after their general usefulness has been demonstrated often become incorporated in separate, community-wide agencies. Among those most frequently offered are employment and vocational services for adults and young people, special services to children, housekeeper services, group and camp work, health and legal aid services, work with transients and the aged, and so forth.

Another function of family welfare agencies consists of engaging in "community activities leading toward the correction of community conditions which lie outside the control of the individual but which block his capacity to lead a satisfying and socially useful life."[2] *See* SOCIAL ACTION. Through their experience gained in actual practice with many individuals and families, their first-hand observation of social conditions, and their special research studies, family agencies acquire much valuable information about family life and the effect upon it of unemployment, mental and physical ill health, housing conditions, economic and cultural changes, and so forth. Such study of family life and community needs is often combined with a program of social education and publicity. *See* PUBLICITY AND INTERPRETATION IN SOCIAL WORK. One of the usual responsibilities of family social work is to create opportunities and channels for lay service to the community, and not only the case workers but also the board members take an active part in the community activities of the agency. Board and staff members serve on boards of public welfare, housing authorities, and health units, and sponsor experimental work in the courts, group work programs, and so forth.

Family agencies have contributed to the development of better conditions by helping to organize, and participating in the coordination of, social services such as is achieved through councils of social agencies and community chests. *See* COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION FOR SOCIAL WORK. They frequently take part in community-wide surveys and in addition have, since early days, based improvements in their own services

[1] *See* Hurlin, *Operation Statistics for Selected Family Casework Agencies: 1939* (*infra cit.*).

[2] *See* Swift, *op. cit.*

on thorough-going self-study.[1] Three recently published self-evaluations of agencies, undertaken by board and staff members, are examples of such self-studies; another is an evaluation of a year's work with a selected group of clients, directed by a board member of an agency.[2]

Another major contribution of family social work is that given to the development of the profession of social work, not only through its case work services, community activities, and research, but also directly in the training of students and in further professional development of the staff. *See* SOCIAL WORK AS A PROFESSION. From their beginning, family agencies have been interested in the development of progressively sounder practice for the service of their clients. Student training for the professional schools of social work is closely related to the welfare of clients, for it is the means of providing competent future service. In 1938, out of a total of 2,147 full-time graduate students enrolled in 33 of the schools which were members of the American Association of Schools of Social Work, 701 graduate students and 61 undergraduates were placed in 74 member agencies of the Family Welfare Association of America for field experience. *See* EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK. In addition to student training, many family agencies sponsor a program of staff development consisting of seminars, lectures, staff study and discussion groups, leaves of absence for study, time off for attendance at institutes and conferences, and so forth, to supplement graduate professional training in the schools and to facilitate the exchange of experience and methods of practice in various agencies.

Organization of Family Social Work

Most private family agencies are incorporated, have a membership of lay people, and function under the administrative control of elected boards of directors. These boards vary in size, the majority ranging from 15 to 30 members. Catholic agencies are organized as part of the diocesan structure. Public agencies variously function with or without administrative boards or advisory committees. One of the most heartening developments in the family social work movement in recent years has been the steadily increasing participation of board members in the inner and community-wide affairs of their agencies.

Family agency staffs vary in size from those consisting of a hundred or more professional workers to those having but one worker who serves both as executive and case worker. In January, 1939, there were 2,079 professional staff members of 207 private family agencies within the membership of the Family Welfare Association of America. Responsibility for professional leadership, for administration, and for supervision of the workers—who in turn carry direct responsibility for clients—may fall to one or more staff members depending upon the size of the agency. Persons with special functions, such as physicians, psychiatrists, and home economists, are also included in the staffs of some of the larger agencies. The professional equipment currently demanded by family agencies is indicated in the findings of a recent study.[1] During 1939, 207 of the member agencies of the Family Welfare Association of America who participated in this study employed 452 new professional workers. Fifty-eight per cent of these had completed a two-year graduate course at a school of social work and 31 per cent had had some professional education but less than the full two-year graduate course. The evidence points unmistakably to a strong demand for case workers with formal professional training and shows the progress made in raising the professional standards required by boards of agencies.

[1] *See* Family Welfare Association of America, *Studies Made by Private Member Agencies* (*infra cit.*).

[2] *See* Family Welfare Association of America, *Three Studies of Family Case Work Programs* (*infra cit.*); and Colwell, *infra cit.*

[1] *See* Hurlin, "Recent Hiring Practices of Private Family Agencies," *infra cit.*

Private family social work is supported in a great variety of ways. *See* FINANCING PRIVATE SOCIAL WORK. A large proportion of support comes from community chest funds, although the sectarian agencies also draw upon special resources. Endowments and special fund raising bring an appreciable amount to a few agencies. The following table shows the amount of income received from chests by 202 private family agencies, in relation to their total income:

Population Served	*Number of Agencies*	*Total Income of Agencies*	*Amount of Income from Chest*
Under 100,000	99	$ 1,606,621	$1,151,681
100,000–300,000	62	3,490,866	2,001,164
Over 300,000	41	8,531,793	5,937,261
Total	202	$13,629,280	$9,090,106

The Family Welfare Association of America

Most of the agencies in the family social work field belong to one of the national associations of family agencies.[1] The Family Welfare Association of America, which is generally accepted as the standard setting body for the field, is "a voluntary federation of 224 leading public and private family agencies in the United States and Canada, serving about a half a million persons per month. Through the Association member agencies become part of a larger field, with access to the personnel, experience, and information of the field of family social work as a whole."[2] In July, 1940, there were 211 private and 11 public agencies in the Association. They were located in 36 different states, the District of Columbia, Hawaii, and Canada. Twelve were Jewish, three Protestant, and the remainder non-sectarian. Forty-nine were located in cities of 300,000 population or over, 65 in cities of 100,000 to 300,000, 84 in cities of 25,000 to 100,000, and 24 in cities under 25,000. Nine were in the Pacific region, 11 in southern states east of the Mississippi, 28 in the Mississippi–Rocky Mountain states, 50 in the Great Lakes region, 48 in Middle Atlantic states, 59 in New England and New York, and 6 outside of the United States proper.

Requirements for membership in the Association are the crystallization of joint efforts over a long period by many interested family agencies to define their conception of a family social work agency. A study of these requirements, which are frequently revised, is therefore a useful approach to an understanding of the field. The basic activity of a member agency must be family social work. (In the case of public agencies the requirements recognize that the extent of case work services may be affected by the size and character of their responsibility for relief.) There must be a responsible and active lay board or governing body, which may be an advisory board in the case of a public agency; joint participation of the governing body, executive, and staff in the conduct of the agency; a paid staff competently trained for family social work; a well-defined financial policy, with major support of private agencies coming from private sources; and a lay constituency which understands and supports the work of the agency.

The services of the Association, coordinated through its national staff and committees of the membership, are as follows:

1. Field service. The United States and Canada are divided for this purpose into six regions. To each is assigned a regional secretary who, with the assistance of a regional advisory committee, forwards the objectives of the membership and the Association. The field staff has direct contact with members through visits to agencies and through conferences and correspondence.

2. Information and statistics. Informa-

[1] Family Welfare Association of America, National Conference of Catholic Charities, National Conference of Jewish Social Welfare, and American Public Welfare Association.

[2] Family Welfare Association of America, *Family Welfare Association of America: Its Services.* Rev. ed. 3 pp. January, 1940.

tion on developments in the field are systematically gathered and summarized.

3. Publications. The Association publishes *The Family*, a journal of social case work; *Highlights*, the news monthly of family social work; and many special pamphlets and reports.

4. Development of standards of performance, based upon continuous study of individual agencies and of general practices.

5. Personnel. Placement and consultation with family agencies, candidates, and schools, carried on by field staff and general staff in cooperation with the Social Work Vocational Bureau.

6. Interpretation. Consultation on publicity and the development of new media and methods of describing family social work.

7. Directory. Annual listing of family welfare agencies under agreements on interagency communication and service.

Through general services, through contacts made by the field and headquarters staffs, and through committees (having a total membership of 300 representative lay and professional people) the Association is working constantly to stimulate the development of family agencies both in their organized search for knowledge of human behavior and in their direct service to individuals and families in communities throughout the country.

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FEDERAL AGENCIES IN SOCIAL WORK. During the 1930's the federal government rapidly extended its activities in social welfare and related fields. This extension was an inevitable result of the bewildering variety of social and economic changes initiated or brought sharply to public attention by the depression. Governmental participation in social welfare activities did not originate during this period; it had been increasing steadily for several decades. For the most part, however, the earlier development had taken place at the state and local level. Until the depression, federal agencies had restricted their efforts largely to work of promotional, educational, and research character. Since 1933 both established agencies and newly created units of the federal government have engaged in the direct operation and supervision of a wide variety of social welfare activities, a very large proportion of the funds expended has been provided by the federal treasury, and federal agencies have made notable contributions both to social work philosophy and social work practice.

The proximate causes of this development are rather easily discernible. As the depression got well under way it quickly became

apparent that local and then state governments were quite unable to deal with the rapidly increasing volume of unemployment or to meet the tremendous demands for assistance. The federal government stepped in to help pay the bills. The provision of funds was naturally followed by the development of instruments of control—the creation of federal agencies to help administet relief and welfare programs; to improve administrative, personnel, and financial standards; and to assist in the application of efficient methods of operation. This movement was stimulated by the inadequacies of existing state and local welfare machinery in many areas and the extreme variations in welfare standards in different parts of the country.

A more fundamental reason for the development lay in the gradual public realization that profound changes were taking place in the national economy. Industrial maturity was bringing new problems and accentuating the seriousness of those previously existing. The disappearance of the frontier, various population changes, the rapid shift from a debtor to a creditor economy, the steady trend from competition toward monopoly or oligopoly, increasing price rigidities, the shift to technological changes of a labor-saving rather than plant-expansion character, and the increasing demoralization of foreign trade contributed importantly to the economic nose-dive of the 1930's. The immediate tangible result was an unprecedented volume of unemployment and distress, requiring the outlay of vast sums on relief and recovery programs. Less tangible but no less powerful was the influence of the belief that this depression marked the end of an era of carefree, individualistic expansion and that the period to follow would be one of insecurity for large numbers of people; a period in which emerging national problems must be dealt with on a nation-wide basis, and in which the federal government must intervene on a broader front to correct evils brought by our economic development.

Periods of Development

The development of federal policy may be classified conveniently into a number of fairly distinct periods. As previously indicared, the last decades of the pre-depression era were charactetized by a steady increase in the financial and administrative participation of local and state governments in welfare activities. The federal government continued its policy of abstention from direct participation in this field, although increasing its educational, advisory, and research activities.

The first important evidence of change in federal policy came near the close of the Hoover administration, with the provision of federal aid on a considerable scale through loans to states and municipalities for relief purposes. The early years of the Roosevelt administration may be indicated as the period of rapid and undifferentiated growth of federal activity. Grants largely replaced loans for relief and a number of emergency agencies were established to deal with problems of unemployment. One of these agencies, the Federal Emergency Relief Administration (FERA), contained the germs of many larer developments.

The fourth period, starting in 1935, was one of differentiation of approaches and clarification of objectives. The FERA was replaced by the Social Security Board, Works Progress Administration (now Work Projects Administration), Resettlement Administration (now Farm Security Administration), National Youth Administration, and a number of other agencies. This development was a natural response to the realization that the problems faced and the types of existing need varied markedly among different groups, and that these required specialized treatment. It was accompanied by rapid changes in administrative organization at state and local levels to adapt to the changed federal structure. This period was also one of increasing recognition of the permanence of much of the new development and of stabilization in certain fields.

Federal Agencies in Social Work

The determining characteristic of the current period is probably the growing realization of the need for coordination, integration, and improvement in administration. This movement culminated in the President's Reorganization Plan of 1939 which, among other matters, grouped most social welfare and related activities under two giant agencies, the Federal Security Agency and the Federal Works Agency. This grouping had been preceded by a considerable integration of activities at state and local levels, resulting in considerable part from the work of the Social Security Board.

The Reorganization of 1939

The Federal Security Agency was established by the President's Reorganization Plan No. I to promote social and economic security, educational opportunity, and the health of the citizens of the nation. Under it were grouped in July, 1939, the Social Security Board; United States Employment Service, formerly in the Department of Labor; United States Office of Education, formerly in the Department of the Interior; United States Public Health Service, formerly in the Department of the Treasury; National Youth Administration; and the Civilian Conservation Corps.

The Federal Works Agency was established at the same time to consolidate agencies which deal with public works not incidental to the work of other departments, and which administer federal grants or loans to state or local governments or other agencies for purposes of construction. Under it were grouped in July, 1939, the Federal Emergency Administration of Public Works, re-titled the Public Works Administration; Work Projects Administration; United States Housing Authority; Bureau of Public Roads (formerly in the Department of Agriculture), re-titled the Public Roads Administration; Public Buildings Branch of the Procurement Division of the Department of the Treasury; and the Branch of Buildings Management of the National Park Service—the last two agencies being consolidated and re-titled the Public Buildings Administration.

In addition to setting up the Federal Security Agency and Federal Works Agency the Reorganization Plan established a Federal Loan Agency. Under it were grouped the federal lending agencies which had earlier been established to stimulate the financial, commercial, and industrial enterprises of the nation, including such agencies as the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, Federal Housing Administration, Federal Home Loan Bank Board, and the Disaster Loan Corporation.

It is as yet too early to judge the effectiveness of the reorganization. The duties and responsibilities of both the Federal Security Agency and the Federal Works Agency are only vaguely defined. Both have proceeded cautiously, neither has built up a large overhead organization, and neither has brought about any major consolidation of subsidiary agencies or functions. Certain minor functions, such as library, printing, and tabulating services, are now being consolidated and conferences have been organized for the joint discussion of certain interagency policies, but the subsidiary agencies are still substantially autonomous. It appears probable, however, that the initial period of exploration and planning will be followed by more far-reaching changes.

Judged at least by available literature, there has been surprisingly little discussion of the reorganization plan by social workers or other persons. Consideration of the existing structure at once raises a number of questions. To what extent does the Federal Security Agency provide a satisfactory substitute for the long-desired federal department of public welfare? Is the Work Projects Administration primarily a work or a relief agency, and should it be grouped under Federal Security Agency or Federal Works Agency? Would it not have been preferable to coordinate the work of the employment offices and of unemployment compensation under the Department of Labor; to transfer the Children's Bureau and

perhaps the emergency grant program of the Farm Security Administration to the Federal Security Agency? Should not the educational activities of the National Youth Administration, Civilian Conservation Corps, and the Office of Education be more closely integrated? Should not the work programs now operated by the first two of these agencies be transferred to the Federal Works Agency? Is the division sound by which the Federal Works Agency provides the major assistance for needy employables while the Federal Security Agency is charged with primary responsibility for job training and retraining for employment?

These and similar questions should be given more attention by social workers than they have received. Thus far it does not appear that close coordination and integration of federal welfare activities have been achieved. The real problems of bringing order and working efficiency out of the regrouping are yet to be dealt with, and the question of whether the Reorganization Plan will eventually secure its stated objectives cannot now be answered with finality.

The Federal Services

The range of federal activities of interest to social workers is extremely broad. The more important of these are mentioned briefly below, under general functional groupings. Shifts and realignments are continually taking place; and changes have been especially frequent in recent months as a result of the various reorganization plans. For current information the reader is referred to the *United States Government Manual* (*infra cit.*).

A fuller description of major social work programs will be found elsewhere in this volume in topical articles dealing with labor legislation and administration, old age insurance, public health, and so forth. The directory of public national agencies in Part Two gives formal information concerning addresses, executives, purposes or activities, and periodicals of those federal agencies which are most significantly related to social work.

Public Assistance

The chief public assistance programs of the federal government are those providing grants-in-aid to states with approved plans for aid to dependent children (40 states, Hawaii, and District of Columbia), aid to the blind (41 states, Hawaii, and District of Columbia), and old age assistance (48 states, Alaska, Hawaii, and District of Columbia). These programs are conducted by the Bureau of Public Assistance of the Social Security Board. *See* Aid to Dependent Children, Blindness and Conservation of Sight, Old Age Assistance, and Public Assistance. Direct relief to distressed farm families in the form of emergency subsistence payments is distributed by the Farm Security Administration of the Department of Agriculture. The Surplus Marketing Administration of the Department of Agriculture has succeeded the Federal Surplus Commodity Corporation (since June 30, 1940) in conducting an extensive program of public assistance in both urban and rural areas through the free distribution of surplus commodities to needy families, and through a recently developed stamp plan which supplements the purchases of needy families with additional supplies of designated items, mostly foods.

Social Insurance

The social insurances, which provide payments to beneficiaries on the basis of "right" rather than "need," now include old age and survivors' insurance and unemployment compensation. *See* Social Insurance. The old age insurance system, which is federally administered, became fully effective in January, 1940, by amendment to the original Social Security Act. *See* Old Age and Survivors' Insurance. Unemployment compensation programs are operated by the states on the basis of plans approved by the federal government. Such programs are now in operation in all states, the Dis-

trict of Columbia, Alaska, and Hawaii. *See* UNEMPLOYMENT COMPENSATION. The insurance programs cover a wide list of industries but exclude such important groups as domestic and agricultural workers. They are administered by the Social Security Board through the Bureau of Employment Security and the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance.

The federal government also operates retirement plans for a number of special groups through the United States Civil Service Commission, Railroad Retirement Board, and Veterans Administration, and provides unemployment compensation for railroad workers through the Railroad Retirement Board. *See* RAILROAD WORKERS' INSURANCE and VETERANS. Workmen's compensation is provided to federal employes through the United States Employees' Compensation Commission. *See* WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION. Although there is growing interest in health insurance, no federal program in this field has yet been adopted. *See* Health Insurance in MEDICAL CARE.

Work and Construction Programs

One of the most important social welfare programs operated by the federal government is that of the Work Projects Administration, designed to aid needy unemployed by providing work on useful public projects, in cooperation with state, local, and federal sponsors. Work Projects Administration workers are paid a "security wage" for one hundred and thirty hours' work a month and are selected from lists certified as in need by local welfare agencies. A wide variety of construction and non-construction projects has been operated under the program, for the most part under a system of day labor. *See* WORK RELIEF. A somewhat similar employment program for youth, with particular emphasis on training, is operated by the National Youth Administration, and the Civilian Conservation Corps conducts a program of emergency conservation work and non-combatant training for youth. *See* YOUTH PROGRAMS.

The Public Works Administration provides employment on construction projects through loans and grants to state and local bodies and by financing federal projects. Employes on Public Works Administration projects are selected without certification as to need and are paid prevailing wages. Public Works Administration projects are operated generally under a contract system. The agency is now engaged in the completion of projects previously approved, as no additional appropriation for Public Works Administration construction was made for the fiscal year 1940–1941.

Employment Services

The nation-wide system of employment offices formerly operated by the Department of Labor was transferred to the Social Security Board in July, 1939, and combined with the Bureau of Unemployment Compensation to form the new Bureau of Employment Security of the Board. The primary function of the employment offices is to make placements in private employment; in addition these offices register all claimants for unemployment compensation benefits and certified employes of the Work Projects Administration, and refer workers for Public Works Administration employment. A number of other federal agencies such as the United States Civil Service Commission provide placement services for specialized groups. *See* EMPLOYMENT SERVICES.

Labor Programs

The federal government has greatly extended its services in the field of labor during recent years. The programs of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, Women's Bureau, Children's Bureau, and Division of Labor Standards of the Department of Labor have been considerably expanded and strengthened. Among items of recent legislation the National Labor Relations Act of 1935 and the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 are most important. The former Act, administered by the National Labor Relations

Board, declares unlawful specified unfair labor practices which abridge or deny the right of collective bargaining. The latter, administered by the Wage and Hour Division of the Department of Labor, establishes minimum wages and maximum hours for workers engaged in or producing goods for interstate commerce. Federal mediation and conciliation services are provided through the National Mediation Board, Maritime Labor Board,[1] and the Conciliation Service of the Department of Labor. *See* LABOR LEGISLATION AND ADMINISTRATION and LABOR RELATIONS.

Child Welfare

A comprehensive program of infant and child welfare is carried on by the Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor. This program includes maternal and child health services, services for crippled children, child welfare services under the Social Security Act, and the enforcement of legislation relating to the employment, wages, and hours of children. Public assistance to dependent children is administered through the Social Security Board. *See* CHILD WELFARE.

Public Health

The growing interest in public health has already been reflected in a considerable expansion of federal activity in this field. It seems probable that further development will take place in the next few years. The protection of public health and prevention of the introduction and spread of disease, extension of existing health services, control of the manufacture and sale of biological products, maintenance of federal hospitals, and the provision of medical services in federal prisons are responsibilities of the United States Public Health Service. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH. Maternal and child health activities, the care of crippled children, and a public health nursing service are directed by the Children's Bureau. *See* CRIPPLED CHILDREN, MATERNAL AND CHILD HEALTH, and PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING. Hospital and domiciliary care for veterans is provided by the Veterans Administration. A sizeable program of nursing, public health, and health education projects is conducted by the Work Projects Administration. Better coordination and integration of public health activities are needed at the federal level; the Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities has made considerable progress in this direction.

Farm Programs

Two decades of agricultural maladjustment have caused a rapid growth of federal services to farmers. In addition to such general aids as crop control payments, commodity loans, easier credit facilities of other types, crop insurance, soil conservation programs, the purchase and disposal of farm surpluses, the provision of rural electrification facilities, and education in improved farm practices, a number of programs designed specifically for the relief and rehabilitation of distressed farmers have been undertaken. A farm tenant aid program conducted by the Farm Security Administration provides loans to competent farm tenants, sharecroppers, and laborers to enable them to become farm owners. This agency also conducts a rural rehabilitation program, making loans to destitute and low-income farm families, and provides emergency subsistence grants to farm families in extreme distress. *See* RURAL SOCIAL PROGRAMS. Debt-burdened farmers are aided through the activities of voluntary debt adjustment committees.

Housing

The collapse of the construction industry during the depression and the realization, as shown by various studies, that a large proportion of the population was ill housed have led to a variety of federal programs designed to eliminate slums and provide

[1] According to Section 1012 of the law creating the Board, "this title shall expire at the end of three years from the date of its enactment"; i.e. June 23, 1941.

low-cost housing on a broad scale. While these programs have been helpful they have not yet succeeded in bringing about an expansion of housing activity of the magnitude required to meet existing needs. The two principal federal programs are those of the United States Housing Authority, which provides loans and subsequent annual subsidies to local public housing agencies for the construction and operation of low-rent housing and slum clearance projects; and the Federal Housing Administration, which insures lending institutions against losses on loans for repairs, improvements, and alterations to property and insures mortgage loans on residential structures. A credit reserve for home-financing institutions such as building and loan associations is provided through the Federal Home Loan Bank Board. *See* HOUSING AND CITY PLANNING.

Education

The educational and vocational training activities of the federal government likewise have grown rapidly during recent years. The extensive research, informational, and advisory service performed by the Office of Education has been accompanied by increased grants-in-aid for certain types of educational work. The Work Projects Administration has conducted large and effective programs of adult and workers' education, the National Youth Administration has assisted large numbers of needy youth to continue in school through part-time employment, and various bureaus of the Department of Agriculture, notably the Extension Service, have provided instruction in home economics and agriculture in rural areas. *See* ADULT EDUCATION.

Vocational training activity appears destined to undergo a vast expansion as a result of the defense program. Fears of labor shortages and hopes of rapidly increasing employment have already resulted in additional appropriations to the Office of Education for vocational education, and rapid expansion of the training facilities of the National Youth Administration, Civilian Conservation Corps, and the Work Projects Administration is projected to supply additional workers of types which it is believed will be needed. *See* Vocational Education and Training in EMPLOYMENT SERVICES.

Recreation

Federal recreational facilities are, for the most part, conducted as incidental functions of agencies primarily concerned with other matters. As a result, these activities are not well coordinated. The recreational programs of the Work Projects Administration and National Youth Administration, conducted on a project basis by local sponsors, and the Civilian Conservation Corps program represent perhaps the most important federal activities, although many other agencies concerned with social welfare conduct some recreational work. *See* RECREATION.

Prisons and Parole

The administration of federal prisons, the custody of federal prisoners, and the administration of the federal probation law are responsibilities of the Bureau of Prisons of the Department of Justice. Paroles are granted and revoked by the Board of Parole of the same Department. Employment and vocational activities in penal institutions are supervised by Federal Prison Industries, Inc., functioning under the Bureau of Prisons; these activities have been handicapped by a variety of restrictive legislation and by the expiration of the Prison Industries Reorganization Administration in 1938. *See* ADULT OFFENDERS.

National Defense Program

An Advisory Commission to the Council of National Defense was appointed by the President in May, 1940. To one of its members was assigned the responsibility of "consumer protection," including the "prevention of undue increases in the cost of living" and the maintenance and strengthening of living standards "to insure the country a people physically and mentally fit

to meet their defense responsibilities."[1] This responsibility extended to problems in the health and welfare area as they relate to national defense. Advisers were named and a social worker assistant appointed for the purpose of developing this program. A special committee of the Council of National Defense has also been established to advise the Council on matters connected with health and medical care, both military and civilian.

Other phases of the work of the Advisory Commission which are of particular interest to social workers include the activities of the commissioner in charge of employment, who deals with problems of labor supply in defense industries and the preparation for the training of men for non-combat duties, and those of a defense housing coordinator, who is responsible for planning the defense housing program and for its prosecution subject to standards set by the commissioners.

Some Questions of Policy

The rapid and frequently experimental development of federal welfare activity has resulted in wide divergence of public opinion on many basic policy questions. It is hardly to be expected that there should be general agreement at this early stage. It is now quite clear, however, that federal participation in relief and welfare activity on a broad scale is here to stay; it is therefore important that these questions receive more careful deliberation than has yet been given them.

There is need for careful consideration of the coverage which should be provided by such services, of concepts of eligibility, of gaps in existing services, and of the interstitial groups which inevitably develop in a categorical system. The extension of services in new fields such as housing and medical care demands further attention. So do such anomalies as the fact that the major residual relief program in many areas is a by-product of the operations of the former Federal Surplus Commodities Corporation, created to dispose of troublesome surpluses of farm products. Greater agreement also should be reached as to the standards of relief and welfare services which are to be provided, their adequacy, and the uniformity with which they are applied under the various programs.

Controversy regarding the share of the national income which should be devoted to relief and welfare services has been exceedingly bitter. This subject needs thoughtful analysis rather than partisan debate. Relatively little consideration has been given to the manner in which funds should be secured; the result in some cases has been taxes so regressive that the main burden has fallen on the low-income groups which most need assistance. *See* FINANCING PUBLIC SOCIAL WORK. There is also extensive disagreement as to the form in which certain relief and welfare services should be supplied. The old argument over cash relief versus relief in kind is not dead, but it has been pushed to one side by the newer controversies over the proper fields of direct relief, work relief, and public work, and the methods by which medical care should be provided.

Some of the most controversial problems center about administration, especially those relating to the division of authority among federal, state, and local governments and the issue of federal administration versus grants-in-aid. *See* PUBLIC WELFARE. Meanwhile the trend toward centralized control continues, bringing forth a variety of new administrative devices deserving of further study, such as the establishment of direct relationships between municipalities and the federal government, the development of regionalization and of semi-autonomous federal corporations, and the growth of the administrative agencies.

There is now rather general agreement that federal participation in relief and welfare activities will continue on a scale far

[1] Office of Government Reports, "The National Defense Program," p. 56 in *United States Government Manual*. July, 1940.

Financing Private Social Work

beyond that of the pre-depression period. The process of stabilization, improvement of administration, and integration of function is already under way in certain fields, notably those of the three public assistance categories and of unemployment and old age insurance. Other programs, such as work relief, public works, and aid to youth, are still in the formative stage. In still others, notably public medical care and general relief, federal participation on a permanent and comprehensive scale is yet to come. The influences of the present European war upon these developments are still largely unpredictable, but it seems certain that these influences will be profound; and it is probable that among them will be a tendency toward increased centralization, stimulation of developments in some fields and retardation in others, some diminution of over-all relief needs (less, however, than is generally supposed), and changes both in the form and adequacy of a number of existing welfare services.

In a situation as fluid as that which now exists, the need for increased public agreement on basic questions of policy appears especially important. One profitable approach lies through dispassionate and careful study of the extent and characteristics of the problems and the methods devised for meeting them, followed by a program of public education concerning the findings of such study. It is unfortunate that, for a variety of reasons, studies already made or now in process appear likely to make only limited contributions to this end.

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FINANCING PRIVATE SOCIAL WORK.[1] The problem of financing private social work has attracted increasing attention in the past three decades. Early books on social work, such as the first edition of Warner's *American Charities and Social Work,* devoted little or no space to the problems and techniques of raising money. Today there is an entire body of literature dedicated to the subject.

Several developments are responsible for this change. Chief of these is the increase in the size of private agency expenditures. Public relief was in an earlier day, and in some respects still is, one of the most retarded areas in American life. Hence private agencies everywhere were under pressure to enlarge their programs in order to rescue as many as possible from the almshouse and from the punitive doles of the poor law authorities. Moreover new needs were identified in such fields as child care, group work, and health education. Increased funds were required if these needs were to be met.

This clamor for enlarged resources met with limited success. Although comprehensive figures are wanting, the general trend of the development is clear. Most agencies slowly managed to achieve some increase in revenue. Few, if any, obtained enough to meet the needs they encountered in their work. This was generally true, even in the cases of those private agencies that solicited and accepted subsidies from tax funds.

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

The demand for more money threw into sharp relief some of the basic weaknesses in the total program. Social work was already characterized by extreme segmentation. In most cities it was not uncommon to find a half-dozen or more private agencies and one or two public agencies operating in a single field, such as the field of family welfare. Inevitably this led, in some cases, to competition among the organizations, each of which was obliged to make annually an effective appeal for funds.

Protection of Contributors

The frequency of the appeals also led to misunderstanding and distrust. With charitable drives following fast upon the heels of one another, the average citizen lost his capacity to differentiate. It seemed incredible that there could be a need for so many overlapping or duplicating services. Moreover the confusion invited exploitation by the racketeer. Cases occasionally came to public attention in which funds had been collected for a non-existent charity. Solicitors paid on a commission basis—sometimes 50 cents or more on the dollar—also broke into the news periodically. Such occurrences were highly detrimental to the reputable agencies and enhanced the difficulties of raising money.

The early efforts to cope with racketeering in the charitable field were initiated by private agencies. These agencies investigated organizations seeking public support and supplied prospective donors with reports concerning them. Although other methods of dealing with fraudulent charities have been developed, a few private agencies still continue this service. The Community Service Society of New York City, for example, maintains a Contributors Information Bureau which has been in continuous operation since 1906. In the fiscal year ending September 30, 1939, this Bureau gave out 2,125 reports on charities or alleged charities seeking support in the community.

A number of cities now make use of the licensing procedure to suppress fraudulent charitable solicitation. In New York City the operation of this safeguard is entrusted to the Department of Welfare. In the period from January 1, 1938, to June 30, 1939, the Department issued 392 licenses, denied 8, and initiated action against 54 fake charities.[1] Although it is still possible for fake charities to evade the licensing requirements by incorporating under a religious title, the procedure in New York City suggests the line along which development in this field may be expected to occur.

Control of the licensing of charitable drives is in some cities entrusted either to the police department or to an independent board. Cincinnati has a three-member board and St. Louis a nine-member commission to pass upon requests for licenses. In Detroit the mayor issues permits on the basis of reports prepared jointly by the Police Department and the Chamber of Commerce.

Some of these official agencies have worked out standards to apply in passing upon a request for a license. In the main, however, the standards relate only to integrity and ignore such questions as need for the program and quality of service rendered. Often the ordinance will exempt a few well-known agencies, such as the community chest or the American Red Cross. Moreover even where such exemptions are not provided in the ordinance they are nevertheless frequently made in practice.

In many cities the regulation of charitable drives is still in the hands of voluntary organizations. The chamber of commerce frequently provides this service through a charities endorsement or subscriptions investigating committee. Two methods are commonly used: the committee may elect to publish a list of endorsed or approved agencies; or it may withhold publication, supplying information to inquirers on request only. The latter method enables the committee to provide much more complete in-

[1] *See* Department of Welfare, City of New York, *infra cit.*

formation to a prospective donor than can be given in a published list.

On the whole the standards worked out by the charities endorsement committees are somewhat better than those thus far developed by official licensing agencies. In Chicago, for example, social workers are employed to assist in the endorsement function. An effort is made to evaluate the quality of service offered by the agency and endorsement is sometimes made contingent upon the adoption of improved practices, such as registering cases at the social service exchange.

Charitable racketeering is not limited to the local field. Fraudulent appeals are also encountered at the national and international levels. The National Information Bureau was organized in 1917 to deal with this problem. The membership includes, in addition to individuals, many corporate groups such as banks, commercial firms, chambers of commerce, community chests, and churches. The Bureau investigates organizations allegedly engaged in national, interstate, and international social work and transmits reports concerning them to its members. In addition it publishes annually a bulletin entitled *Givers' Guide to National Philanthropies,* in which are listed the national agencies that meet minimum standards of responsibility. *See* NATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS IN SOCIAL WORK.

Federated Financing

The advent of federated financing enormously increased both the numbers of contributors and the funds available to private agencies. The first community chest was organized in Cleveland in 1913. In the preceding year approximately 5,000 donors contributed $350,000 to private social work in Cleveland. In 1937, a total of $3,321,652 was contributed by approximately 290,000 donors. The experience in Cleveland is typical of the expansion brought about by the chest in all cities.

The chest movement was not, in the main, initiated by social workers. In most places it was sponsored either by big givers or by commercial organizations, such as chambers of commerce. Those who fostered the movement hoped to achieve at least three results: (a) to protect givers from multiple solicitation by substituting one joint annual campaign for the multitudinous independent campaigns then so common in American cities, (b) to reduce competition among agencies and to promote cooperation, and (c) to introduce businesslike methods of administration into social work. These objectives have been substantially achieved in most cities. Modern accounting methods have been set up by the chest and are now used by a great majority of private agencies. The chest has also brought about a great improvement in the quantity and quality of statistical material routinely compiled by the agencies. These data, so essential in community planning, were previously practically non-existent.

The chest method of budgeting has also been serviceable in reducing the lag between social planning and the reorientation of private agency services. The budgeting procedure necessitates an annual decision as to whether the program should continue along existing lines or whether it should be modified in some respect. If this opportunity is used intelligently, improvements in agency structure and in the interrelationships of programs are bound to ensue. There is, of course, always the concomitant danger that the budgeting power may be used unwisely to the disadvantage of agencies conducting programs that are ill-understood or that run counter to the interests or prejudices of the budget committee.

Inevitably the gains introduced by federated financing have been purchased at a price. Socially minded citizens are asked to contribute largely of their time to carry on the essential fund-raising and budgeting activities of the chest. This means that such persons have less time to give to the agencies and their programs. A good many agencies believe they are, as a result, less well understood in the community and that

it is harder for them now to get the quantity and quality of lay citizen interest they formerly enjoyed.

The annual campaign for a large sum of money has also accentuated the problem of coercion in giving. The evidence suggests that coercion was used here and there in some agency campaigns before chests were organized. The large sums involved in chest drives and the large numbers of volunteer solicitors utilized are undoubtedly the factors chiefly responsible for the more frequent occurrence of this problem since the advent of joint financing. Although the chests instruct their solicitors not to use strong-arm methods in obtaining pledges, they sometimes find it difficult, if not impossible, to control their army of volunteer campaigners. The captain of a team of solicitors may be in private life the manager of a foundry. In his enthusiasm to put his team "over the top," he may use direct or indirect pressures to obtain pledges from his employes without the chest's knowing that he has done so. Sometimes the wives or other dependents report the matter to the chest and point out that the family cannot afford to make the contribution. It is a common practice among chests, under such circumstances, to cancel the pledge. Large industrial plants and other organizations with numerous employes are nevertheless a natural target in chest campaigns. Many of the employes contribute willingly and gladly. Others undoubtedly do so reluctantly through fear of incurring the ill will of their foreman or their fellow-workers. In such cases, of course, the contribution becomes a tax rather than a free-will offering.

No one knows the exact number of chests now in existence in the United States and Canada. The reason is that many small communities claim to have a "chest" when, in reality, they may have only a roughly organized annual drive for some specific purpose, such as the financing of Christmas baskets for the poor. In 1940, however, there were 552 known chests that raised slightly over $86,000,000 for private social work. *See* COMMUNITY CHESTS.

The chest movement has spread so widely and so rapidly that there are now only four cities of more than 100,000 population in the country without some form of joint financing. Chicago and New York City were the last two large cities to undertake the joint approach. In those two cities the plan differs from the usual chest method in several respects—chiefly in not attempting to supply the total budgetary deficit of the member agencies. This means, of course, that the campaign for funds does not supplant the individual agency efforts but is, in effect, one additional annual drive in the community. Leaders in the Chicago federation use the term "community fund" to describe their plan in an effort to distinguish it from the type of "community chest" found in most cities. In actual practice, however, there is a tendency, both in Chicago and elsewhere, to use the terms "chest" and "fund" interchangeably.

In some cities the Catholic and Jewish agencies have organized financial federations that are separate from and independent of the community chest. Buffalo provides perhaps the best-known illustration of this arrangement. In 1938, independent Catholic federations in 10 cities of 100,000 population or more raised $4,646,059 for member agencies. In the same year in 56 other cities of 100,000 population or more Catholic agencies and institutions received $3,907,084 from community chests, and raised an additional $4,630,017 from other sources. *See* CATHOLIC SOCIAL WORK.

Independent Jewish fund-raising organizations are known to exist in only 12 cities with Jewish populations of 1,000 or more. In many towns with a Jewish population of less than 1,000, independent fund-raising operations are carried on, usually through women's organizations. The exact number of communities in which this arrangement prevails is not known. In recent years Jewish communities have been faced with the necessity of raising large sums for national

and overseas programs to succor refugees. At the close of 1939, organizations to collect funds for this purpose were in operation in 235 communities though in some instances their efforts were integrated with or closely related to the campaigns for support of local work. Figures from 98 cities for the year 1938 indicate that the total revenue received by Jewish agencies was $18,517,000. Of this amount, 69.8 per cent was obtained through their own fund-raising efforts, 26.4 per cent was supplied by community chests, and 3.8 per cent came from other sources. *See* JEWISH SOCIAL WORK.

Endowments and Contributions

Endowments and bequests are of varying importance in private agency financing. In general such funds are of greater size and importance in the East than in other sections of the country. Also, in the main, institutional agencies have been beneficiaries to a wider extent than non-institutional services. In 1938 the per capita expenditures from endowments in 29 cities accounted for only 51 cents out of a total per capita expenditure for welfare purposes of $44.01. Thus, for the field as a whole, income from invested funds still plays a minor role in the support of private social work.

Because endowments for specific purposes have so often outlived their usefulness, there has been a trend in recent decades toward giving funds to community trusts. These organizations provide a means by which decisions can be currently made as to the wisest use of the income from gifts and legacies. Although a large number of community trusts have been created throughout the country, the total amount of money involved is still relatively small. Funds in the community trust in New York City were valued at $8,779,225 at the end of 1939 and disbursements for the year totaled $205,028. The Chicago Community Trust, created in 1916, now has capital funds amounting to approximately $5,000,000. In 1938 this Trust distributed $108,120, of which 26.6 per cent was given to group work agencies and 26.8 per cent to health agencies. *See* FOUNDATIONS AND COMMUNITY TRUSTS.

Individuals who pay federal income taxes are permitted to deduct from their returns the amounts they contribute to charitable, religious, and educational purposes, provided the total exemption claimed does not exceed 15 per cent of the taxable net income. Corporations are allowed a similar exemption not to exceed 5 per cent of the net income. Reports issued by the United States Treasury Department show that in 1937 a total of 3,817,003 income taxpayers claimed deductions for charitable contributions to the amount of $440,010,000.[1] This represented 1.8 per cent of the total income reported, with a range from 1.58 per cent of total income reported by low-income groups (those under $5,000) to 7.37 per cent among those with incomes of $1,000,000 or more. The great majority (3,255,412) of these exemptions were claimed by persons with annual incomes of less than $5,000. Contributions reported by persons in these brackets amounted to $221,397,000. Exemptions claimed for charitable contributions mounted steadily up to 1923, reaching a maximum of $534,797,000 in that year. Thereafter a tendency to decline manifested itself culminating in 1933 in the low figure $252,251,000. Out of the total $440,010,000 reported in 1937, exemptions totaling $4,919,000 were claimed by persons with no taxable net income.

State income tax laws likewise permit deductions for charitable contributions. At present 23 states and the District of Columbia permit exemptions not to exceed 15 per cent. Five states allow deductions for charitable contributions not to exceed 10 per cent. Alabama grants an exemption of not more than 5 per cent and West Virginia authorizes a deduction without stating any specific maximum. Massachusetts provides,

[1] *See* U. S. Treasury Department, Bureau of Internal Revenue, *infra cit.*

by administrative regulation, that "donations by a taxpayer for purposes connected with the operation of his business, when limited to charitable and educational institutions and hospitals conducted for the benefit of his employes or their dependents, are a proper deduction under the personal income tax from the business income affected by such contributions." A small group of states, of course, have no state income tax law.

Trends

The best figures available on trends in private philanthropy relate to 171 cities from which statistics have been gathered by Community Chests and Councils, Inc. This series covers the period 1925–1939. Contributions to chests in these cities reached a peak in 1932, amounting in that year to $78,542,387. In 1939 the amount contributed was $56,669,217. This is almost the same as the total raised in 1925 ($52,574,319) and may indicate a tendency toward the stabilizing of private giving at or near the present level. In certain fields, such as general home relief, private funds now care for a negligible proportion of the community's problem. In other fields private funds loom large in the total picture. For example, in 29 urban areas from which figures were assembled covering the year 1938, private contributions (31.6 per cent) nearly equaled public expenditures (33.6 per cent) in the field of group work.

It seems now quite clear, however, that private funds will in the future be quantitatively unimportant in the total welfare picture. There is general agreement that the importance of privately financed work will depend rather upon the quality of its program and upon the influence it can bring to bear upon standards in the public field. Evidence on this point is widely available. The Social Security Board has published data, for example, showing that private agencies in 116 urban areas spent 1 per cent of the total disbursements for family welfare in 1939. Figures collected by Community Chests and Councils, Inc., showed that in 29 urban areas in 1938 private contributions accounted for $2.44 out of a total per capita expenditure of $44.01. The major problem in social agency finance is therefore at present in the field of taxation. *See* FINANCING PUBLIC SOCIAL WORK. In the private field it appears that attention will be directed in the immediate future mainly to such questions as consolidations of agencies and economies in operation, except in so far as the impact of the national defense program may make it necessary for voluntary services to be sharply expanded in and near training centers and in communities where war industries are located. Such developments are necessary if the private agencies are to be in a position to make the kind of contribution to community welfare that increasing numbers of their supporters envisage.

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WAYNE MCMILLEN

FINANCING PUBLIC SOCIAL WORK. Governmental expenditures for welfare and health services include those for publicly supported hospitals, institutions, and agencies for the care of delinquents, defectives, and dependents; public assistance, including direct and work relief and aids to special categories such as dependent children, the aged, blind, crippled, and war veterans; and activities of a preventive nature such as public health, probation and parole, and social insurance. Before 1930 most of the money spent for such purposes was provided by local government (cities, counties, and townships). The states supported certain institutions and some provided small amounts for other welfare services such as mothers' pensions and assistance to the aged. The federal government spent relatively little for welfare other than for war veterans.

During the 1930's a radical change occurred in welfare financing. The depression forced an enormous expansion in public relief expenditures. The mounting volume of destitution, the decline in revenues, and the impairment of local credit broke down the prevailing system of financing social work. The states and finally the federal government were forced to assume the major share of this emergency burden. The tradition that relief was a local function and not a federal responsibility was first broken by loans for relief from the Reconstruction Finance Corporation in 1932, then by grants from the Federal Emergency Relief Administration from 1933 to 1936. The Federal Emergency Relief Administration was replaced by the Works Progress Administration, later the Work Projects Administration, through which the federal government continued to spend billions but in the form of wages to persons employed on work relief projects, leaving direct relief to the states and local units.

Under the Social Security Act of 1935 the federal government provides grants to the states for needy aged, dependent children, the blind, and certain other categories, now totaling over a billion dollars annually. These grants have resulted in greatly increased state welfare expenditures. The payroll taxes established by the Act introduced a significant and highly productive innovation into the tax system. These taxes support federally administered old age insurance and state unemployment benefit plans. The last decade, therefore, has brought not only great expansion in publicly supported social work, but also distinct

changes in its financing. *See* PUBLIC ASSISTANCE and PUBLIC WELFARE.

Unlike private social work financed by voluntary gifts, public social work is supported by compulsory contributions (taxes) collected and spent by governmental authority. *See* FINANCING PRIVATE SOCIAL WORK. This provides much larger sums for welfare by forcing more individuals to contribute. It is recognized that the burden should be distributed widely and in proportion to each person's ability to pay.

Budgeting Public Social Work

The public support of social work is part of the general problem of government and cannot be considered as sharply separated from the financing of other public services. When funds are raised and spent for any public purpose such as welfare, education, or protection, there arises a major budgetary problem of deciding how much shall be spent for each service and the manner in which funds shall be used. In a democratic government this necessarily is a political question; and in practice it is influenced by lobbies, pressure groups, personalities, and political parties. For instance, if a movement for extravagant old age pensions has sufficient political strength, there may result either a rise in the aggregate cost of government or the diversion to such pensions of an undue proportion of existing revenues, or both. The extra money spent for pensions might give greater social benefit if expended for some other purpose such as the care of dependent children, public health work, or education. Already in a majority of states more than 50 per cent of the funds expended for public relief to needy individuals is disbursed in old age assistance payments, although far more persons in need are in the group under sixty-five years of age.

There is no "scientific" solution of the central problem of budget making. A general principle is that public money should be expended in such amounts for each of the various governmental services as will result in maximizing social well-being. The advantages from spending should outweigh the social costs. It is wasteful to spend a tax dollar for one purpose when it would bring greater social advantage if spent in another direction. Opinions differ concerning relative social usefulness, but in a democracy the people's representatives must decide how much shall be spent, how it shall be distributed, and how the revenue shall be obtained.

The various types of public revenues differ as to the basis of their justification. Three recognized principles for their imposition are: ability to pay, value of benefit received, and cost of service rendered. Taxes on motorists build highways, consumers are charged for electricity or water from public enterprises, and special assessments are levied against property which is enhanced in value by a public improvement such as paving a street. These are illustrations of the benefit and cost principles. Except for contributions for social insurance and charges for certain institutional services, it is inappropriate if not impossible to apply the benefit or cost principles in financing public social work. Rather, it is accepted that public welfare funds should be expended according to need for assistance and raised in accordance with some measure of ability to contribute.

Throughout our history property has been considered an appropriate measure of tax-paying ability and has been a principal source of revenue for public welfare. Only relatively recently have other measures of tax-paying ability been introduced to provide funds for welfare. Prior to 1930 the bulk of the cost of public social work was met by local government and about nine-tenths of the revenue of the latter was derived from the property tax. This tax was also extensively utilized by state governments, although for constitutional reasons the federal government did not use it. The expansion of governmental services placed an increasing strain on this tax which brought insistent demands after 1930 for

"tax relief for real estate." The decline in incomes and property values during the depression made the relatively rigid property levies more burdensome and led to an alarming volume of tax delinquency at a time when the need for unemployment relief had become abnormal. Approximately one-fourth of the states adopted over-all property tax limitation measures, some by constitutional amendment. Several states enacted homestead exemptions, which contract the property tax base. These factors forced the introduction of additional sources of revenue, particularly the sales tax and, after the repeal of the Eighteenth Amendment, the liquor revenues.

Only the federal and state governments are able to tap those sources of revenue which are increasingly productive. The property tax apparently has approached its limit as a revenue producer. To provide more funds for welfare, the state and national governments have been compelled to finance a much larger share of the cost. Not only are there wide differences between communities in the amount of taxable property but in the need for additional revenue for welfare. The poorest communities commonly have the greatest need for funds in proportion to their taxing ability.

Federal-State-Local Relationships

The urgency of relieving distress and the financial inability of many local units have resulted in marked changes in public welfare administration and inter-governmental relationships. The fiscal dilemma arising from the fact that most of the taxes other than the property tax must be centrally administered has been met in three ways: (a) the assumption by the central government (federal or state) of both the administration and support of certain welfare services, (b) the direct sharing of state-administered taxes with local units, and (c) federal and state grants-in-aid to political subdivisions. Any of these may be employed specifically for welfare purposes but even when used for other services, such as schools and roads, may leave more funds for welfare than would otherwise be available.

Examples of federal administration and support of welfare activities are: the Work Projects Administration, the Civilian Conservation Corps, the National Youth Administration, and the old age and survivors' insurance system. State welfare administration has expanded in the past decade, particularly through the establishment of agencies to administer public assistance. Administration by a central government (state or federal) permits a uniform policy throughout its jurisdiction and lessens the confusion resulting from different and often conflicting policies in its subdivisions. Thus the uniformity and simplicity of the national system of old age and survivors' insurance are in marked contrast to the 48 different state systems of unemployment insurance. Centralized administration avoids many of the complexities of inter-governmental fiscal relations, such as conflict over the basis of distributing funds so common in the tax-sharing and grant-in-aid plans. It also permits a high degree of equalization because funds are more likely to be spent in areas of greatest need while the taxes tend to be collected for the most part in the wealthier areas. Some welfare services, however, can be administered more appropriately by local units of government than by the state, and others can be carried on more efficiently and economically by the states than by the national government.

The second method by which central governments assist their political subdivisions, namely, the sharing of certain centrally collected taxes with them, is not used by the federal government but is common among the states. The gasoline tax and motor vehicle license taxes, the ones most frequently shared, usually must be devoted to financing highway costs. The revenue from shared taxes is allocated between receiving units in various ways, generally according to the place of origin of the taxes collected. This means that the wealthier areas receive most of the revenue distributed

while the poorer sections of the state which normally have the greatest need for assistance receive the least. Thus the shared tax is particularly inappropriate for financing welfare services because it tends to operate inversely to need. The amount received from a shared tax depends not only upon the basis of distribution but upon the yield of the tax. Most taxes decline in yield in depression years when the need for welfare funds is greatest. Other criticisms of the shared tax are the general lack of effective central supervision and the danger that such "easy money" will not be spent most economically. The government which levies and collects the taxes has a moral obligation to its citizens and taxpayers to see that their money shall be spent wisely.

The third method, that of giving grants-in-aid, is ordinarily distinguished from the shared tax method in that the amount received does not depend upon the yield of a particular tax. The conditional grant, the usual type of grant-in-aid, is predicated on the compliance of receiving units with requirements stipulated by the government giving the money. The grant has long been a familiar device in financing education and highways. In the welfare field, particularly since the adoption of the Social Security Act, the conditional grant has become increasingly important both fiscally and as a control device.

There are different types of grants and different purposes in using them. If the object is to stimulate receiving units to greater activity in a particular direction, the matching or percentage grant is usually effective. It may over-stimulate, however, and lead the receiving unit to over-tax itself in order to receive the grant. Where particular welfare categories are singled out for assistance, the matching grant may divert resources from other activities and result in disproportionately large expenditures for the subsidized services.

If the primary purpose of a grant-in-aid is to relieve financial strain upon receiving units, the unmatched grant is more appropriate than a percentage grant. The unmatched grant, however, lacks inducement toward economy whereas the percentage grant requires additional taxation in proportion to the amount received.

The equalization grant is widely accepted in financing education and is increasingly demanded in the welfare field. Extreme variations exist in the taxable capacity of the political subdivisions of states and also between states. The per capita income of the people of the wealthiest state is over four times greater than that of the poorest state. Furthermore, there is great inequality in the need for funds; and, as has been said, the units with the greatest need commonly have the least ability to raise revenue. A function of general concern such as education, highways, or public assistance cannot be left entirely to local support, and the demand for a minimum standard of service throughout a state or the nation necessitates the giving of relatively larger grants to the poorer sections. The equalization grant best achieves this result. All grants for welfare tend to give some degree of equalization, because the benefited individuals are in the low-income groups while the taxes to provide the grant are collected in large part from other groups. The equalization grant is really an extension of the ability-to-pay principle of taxation. Richer areas should contribute in taxes more than they receive in grants in order that poorer sections may receive more from grants in comparison to the taxes paid.

The distribution formula for an equalization grant requires some measure of need for funds and also some measure of ability of the receiving units to raise taxes. Various indexes of need may be utilized, such as the number eligible for assistance, actual expenditures, or an approved budget for the purpose for which the grant is given. The measurement of taxable capacity encounters even greater difficulty but is essential to determine the proportion of the cost that should be raised by the receiving units and the variable share to be provided by the

equalization grant. In the case of grants to local units it is necessary to know the yield of a prescribed minimum tax rate upon the *equalized* valuation of property because the ratio of the assessed valuation to the full value of property usually varies widely in different taxing units. The determination of the equalized valuation of property in the several taxing districts within a state should be a regular duty of the state tax commission in connection with proper supervision of assessments.

Federal equalization grants to the states would require the determination of the relative taxable capacity of the states. The per capita income or wealth of the people of each state, the estimated yield of a model tax system, and various other statistical bases have been proposed for this purpose. Any method of measuring the taxable capacity of states raises controversial questions. For instance, if per capita income is the basis, should the measure be income produced within a state or income received by individuals in that state?

Sources of Funds

The great expansion in governmental expenditures has forced an increase in total federal, state, and local tax collections from the pre-depression peak of ten and one-half billion dollars in 1930 to thirteen and eight-tenths billion dollars in 1939. Nevertheless, there has been a large federal deficit each year since 1931 and many state and local governments have also had operating deficits. The heavy expenditures for public assistance, in addition to the cost of the other functions of government, necessitate a further increase in tax collections. Demands for agricultural subsidies, federal aid for public schools, liberalization of social security grants, national health insurance, costly old age and veterans' pensions, and many other current proposals portend still heavier drains on public revenues in the future. The recent enormous expansion in expenditures for national defense means that federal revenues particularly must be greatly augmented.

The percentage distribution by sources of the total federal, state, and local taxes collected in 1939 was as follows: property, 31.7; personal and corporation income, 18.3; social security payroll, 11.2; gasoline and motor vehicle, 10.8; alcoholic beverage, 5.8; tobacco, 4.7; general sales and use, 4.1; inheritance, estate, and gift, 3.6; all others, 9.8. The most important taxes introduced in the past decade are liquor revenues, the sales tax, and the social security payroll taxes. Half of the states have a general sales tax, and in most of them it is the largest single source of state revenue. Sales and commodity taxes are regressive in incidence (that is, they bear more heavily on low-income groups), but because they are such a productive source of revenue their extensive use appears to be inevitable. When such taxes provide funds for welfare, however, their regressivity on the whole is less than if used for general purposes.

All of the states except one have inheritance or estate taxes and a majority have an income tax, but these sources usually produce a small proportion of the total revenue. Progressive personal income and death taxes most nearly fulfill the requirements of the generally accepted principle of taxation according to ability to pay. Any great increase in the productivity of these taxes, however, appears to depend upon federal rather than state action. Administrative difficulties and the fear of driving business and wealthy individuals out of the state limit the fiscal productivity of state income taxes.

The principal means of increasing the yield of the federal income tax are the elimination of tax-exempt securities and of certain other exemptions and deductions of questionable wisdom; the reduction of the personal credits or exemptions allowed, thus adding to the number of income tax payers; and the raising of rates in the lower and middle income brackets. The rates in the higher brackets already are so heavy that

further increases might result in the long run in less rather than more revenue. Another way of augmenting federal revenues is the adoption of a manufacturers' sales tax or other national tax on consumption. Such a tax could yield large sums but it would heighten the regressivity of the revenue system and would be less equitable than modifying the personal income tax.

Although the greater part of welfare expenditures is paid from general funds, there has been a strong tendency toward the dedication or earmarking of taxes for welfare services. In half of the states specified revenues (state, local, or both) have been earmarked for at least one of the social security assistance programs. Liquor revenues and sales taxes are the state taxes most commonly set aside for this purpose. Special millage levies on property constitute the prevailing form of earmarking local revenues for welfare.

The dedication of revenues is an accepted practice in highway finance and is extensively employed in financing education. In view of the intense competition for funds between the various public services, the demand for earmarking revenues for welfare is understandable but of questionable wisdom. Earmarking is more appropriate in the case of revenues justified primarily by the benefit principle of taxation. Thus the dedication of motor vehicle taxes to highway expenditures and of the social security payroll taxes to old age and unemployment insurance is a corollary of the benefit principle upon which these taxes are based. The earmarking of other taxes is contrary to the best budgetary practice, which is to spend available funds in a manner that best contributes to the maximum advantage of the political unit as a whole. In periods of prosperity earmarking may provide a particular service with more funds than are needed while in periods of depression, when the need for welfare funds is greatest, the yield of the dedicated taxes diminishes. The extension of the practice of earmarking revenues impairs the flexibility of the budget and thus interferes with the proper support of those services financed from general funds. Consequently, those interested in adequate funds for welfare should oppose the earmarking of taxes for any purposes, except where justified by the benefit principle.

Public borrowing is a useful adjunct of welfare financing but is not a substitute for taxation as it merely postpones the period when extra taxes must be collected. Since the yield of most taxes, especially the income tax, declines in periods of depression, the ability to borrow at such times is essential for providing funds for relief and other services. Debt limits, constitutional restrictions, the impairment of credit because of previous excessive borrowing and debt defaults often make it impossible for many cities, counties, and even states to borrow when current revenues are inadequate to cover necessary and socially desirable expenditures. The federal government, on the other hand, has been able to borrow billions because of its supetior financial strength. Federal credit has been a valuable cushion to absorb the shock of the depression, but deficit financing is only a temporary solution. Eventually not only must the budget be balanced but tax collections should exceed expenditures to permit debt retirement. The practice long continued in some states of floating bond issues for relief and the constantly recurring federal deficits exemplify the tendency to regard the relief problem as a temporaty one, whereas it should be faced realistically and financed by increased taxation.

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DENZEL C. CLINE

FOUNDATIONS AND COMMUNITY TRUSTS.[1] The title "foundation" is used in this country to mean in general a non-governmental organization having an endowment or principal fund of its own, in most cases of considerable size, established to maintain or aid social, educational, charitable, or other activities serving the common welfare, either directly through the work of the foundation's own staff, or more or less indirectly by grants to other organizations. The foundation's scope in most cases is not limited to the support either of a single institution or of a single type of endeavor. Indeed, one of the features which distinguishes the modern foundation from earlier endowments of public causes is the broadened purpose allowing for changes in emphasis and activities as old needs are outgrown and changing conditions bring new needs. Such foundations are usually created by gift, sometimes by will. As a rule they are incorporated under state charters, although the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching and the Rockefeller Foundation were chartered by acts of Congress. Because of the public purpose they are aimed to serve, foundations are exempt from taxation.

[1] For the names of foundations and community trusts concerned with social welfare and related fields see INDEX under the title of this article.

Growth and Extent

Probably the first foundation to be established in this country in the broad field of social improvement was the Peabody Fund, set up in 1867 with a principal sum of over $2,000,000, and discontinued in 1914; although the Smithsonian Institution—established "for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men," with a capital fund of something over $500,000, and antedating the Peabody Fund by some twenty years —might lay some claim to first place. Then came the John F. Slater Fund in the year 1882; the Baron de Hirsch Fund in 1890; the Thomas Thompson Trust in 1901; the Carnegie Institution of Washington in 1902; the General Education Board in 1903; the Milbank Memorial Fund in 1905; the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching in 1906; the Russell Sage Foundation in 1907; the Anna T. Jeanes Foundation and the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund in 1908; and the Carnegie Corporation of New York and the Phelps-Stokes Fund in 1911; and in later years a host of others, including the very large endowments represented by the Rockefeller Foundation and the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial, the latter now consolidated with the other Rockefeller benefactions. In a list of American foundations compiled by Bertha F. Hulseman in 1930 for the Russell Sage Foundation Library, the total was seen to have reached over 150. Similar lists compiled for that Library showed 23 in 1915 and 33 in 1922; but the numbers more than doubled in the next two years reaching

77 in 1924, and in two more years almost quadrupled, running to 121 in 1926. In the 1938 revision of her bulletin,[1] Mrs. Hulseman names 157 foundations interested in and assisting work more or less directly related to social welfare.

The community trust, which like the endowed foundations receives bequests of funds and aims to keep its program flexible and adaptable to changing community conditions, has also come into existence and had its largest development during the past three decades. Beginning with the Cleveland Foundation, organized in 1914 by the late Frederick H. Goff, these trusts or local foundations had reached a total of 50 by 1924, approximately 60 by 1929, and 75 by 1940. The usual plan is for their funds to be held and invested by trust companies. The disbursement of income is directed by a committee, a minority of whose members are appointed by the trust company, the others being selected by local public officials or officers of important private organizations, and a few others by the cooperating corporations. The wishes of donors are complied with where specific objects or purposes are named; but if at any time it should become impossible or inadvisable to carry out the instructions of a donor, the income from his fund may be used by the distribution committee for a kindred purpose. Distribution committees are authorized, in their discretion, to spend the principal of specific endowments upon the expiration of a certain period after their creation. Some of these trusts are as yet without funds, but ovet half of the total had received bequests and contributions by 1929, the total of which ran upward of $32,000,000; by 1940 their assets exceeded $50,000,000. These community trusts are as widely placed as Boston and Los Angeles, Spokane and Atlanta, and are almost entirely local in scope.

One of the largest, and a good illustration of this type of institution, is the New York Community Trust, with $8,780,000 at the close of 1939 and with recent annual appropriations for public causes running at about $200,000. The proceeds of about half these resources are payable to life beneficiaries before becoming available for charitable purposes. Total payments to beneficiary organizations for charitable purposes since the Trust's establishment in 1927 exceed $2,250,000.

The number of newly established foundations, endowments, and trust funds organized for the benefit of the public continues to grow. The additions during the past two years appear to be relatively large, the majority of these, however, probably being foundations of very limited scope, or merely corporate channels—exempt from taxation —for contributions by individual donors. Complete information is nowhere available as to the total now chartered, but it is safe to say that they run well above 300. Upwards of 50 of these appear to be foundations in the sense in which the term was originally used, and having substantial endowments. About 33 have principal funds of $4,000,000 or over.

Announcements of new foundations created during the last biennium include: Emily and Ernest Woodruff Foundation, Atlanta, established for charitable, religious, and educational purposes; the Tourneau Foundation, California, for religious purposes, with a capital fund in securities announced as worth $2,000,000; J. W. Van Dyke Scholarship Foundation, Philadelphia, with $1,500,000 to aid in the education of students, especially children of employes of the Atlantic Refining Company; Dazian Foundation for Medical Research, New York City, with a bequest of $1,325,000 for the support of postgraduate research in medicine; E. Stanley Jones Educational Foundation, Lakeland, Fla., for the harmonious teaching of science and religion, funded at $1,000,000; Foundation for the Advancement of the Social Sciences, at the University of Denver, with an endowment represented by a large office building in Denver given by James H. Causey; and a

[1] *See* Russell Sage Foundation Library, *infra cit.*

number of smaller organizations with capital funds and purposes not yet publicly stated.

Principal or Capital Funds

The latest available study of these institutions, *American Foundations and Their Fields: IV*, issued by Raymond Rich Associates in 1939[1] and continuing the series started by the Twentieth Century Fund in 1931, reports the total capital of 243 foundations to be over $1,200,000,000. Of this amount over 79 per cent, or $945,000,000, was held by 121 foundations; and the remainder by 122, whose total capital amounted to about $250,000,000. Some four additional foundations have reported assets of approximately $70,000,000 over and above these totals, but not included here either because the organizations had not begun to function or because their complete assets had not yet been made public.

Although at least three of the larger foundations have recently begun to make disbursements from capital as well as income, the total capital of foundations has increased during the past two years because, as already indicated, of the considerable number of newly established institutions and of the fact that several of the already established organizations received new additions to their principal funds. Among the more important additions of this kind announced during the past year were: $5,000,000 to the Murry and Leonie Guggenheim Foundation, designated especially for benevolent assistance in dentistry and oral hygiene work for children in New York; $10,000,000 to the Duke Endowment; $638,465 to the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, this representing approximately 45 per cent of the net proceeds of the President's Birthday Celebration and the "March of Dimes" campaign, the other 55 per cent remaining in the communities where collected; and a substantial sum given to the Josiah Macy, Jr., Foundation by the original donor, Mrs. Walter G. Ladd, Mr. Macy's daughter.

The trustees of the General Education Board recently announced that this foundation is now in process of liquidation. A substantial decrease in total capital assets during the past few years was also reported by the Spelman Fund of New York.

The Rockefeller Foundation and the Carnegie Corporation continue to hold first and second place in respect to capital, the assets of the former amounting to about 20 per cent of the total capital funds reported by all the foundations, and the assets of the latter to about 17 per cent of the total. The next four largest in the list, each reporting capital of more than $46,000,000 and in order of size are: the General Education Board, the Commonwealth Fund, the Ktesge Foundation, and the W. K. Kellogg Foundation. These six foundations account for over 58 per cent of the total foundation capital recorded in the latest available report.[1] The next three in order of size are: the Carnegie Institution of Washington, with $36,500,000; the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, with $29,000,000; and the Russell Sage Foundation with $15,400,000.

Geographical Distribution

According to the groupings made in the Rich Associates' study of 243 foundations, 106 have their headquarters in New York City; 11 in Philadelphia; 10 in Boston; 6 in Chicago; 6 in Cleveland; and 5 each in Washington, D. C., Detroit, and Denvet. Although the preponderance are on the eastern coast, foundations are located in 30 states and the District of Columbia, with all sections of the country represented. New York, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Ohio, Michigan, Illinois, and California, which have the largest number of foundations, are seven of the eight states in the United States which have the largest populations and also, as would be expected, are the

[1] *See* Seybold, *infra cit.*

[1] *Ibid.*

states in which there is the greatest concentration of wealth.

Expenditures and Types of Work Assisted

While these foundations and trusts have much in common, there is considerable diversity not only as to the geographical area in which they operate but also in their methods of work and in the areas chosen for special cultivation. Some, for example, limit their work to the city in which they are situated; others to the state or nation; while the scope of a few is world-wide. Some are empowered to use only the income from their principal fund, while others may distribute both income and capital; and in a few instances a time limit (usually twenty-five or thirty years) has been set within which the total amount must be disbursed. Some engage in no work as an operating agency but pursue their purposes by the making of grants; others maintain permanent staffs and carry on work under their own auspices; and a few do both. While practically all, as has been seen, are permitted wide latitude as to the activities in which they may engage, most of them have selected broad but specific fields in which to operate. There is, moreover, a fortunate tendency on the part of donors to leave to trustees full discretion as to expenditure of income within a broad scope.

With few exceptions the powers of management and expenditure are vested in a board of trustees. These boards are usually self-perpetuating and vary greatly in the number of their trustees.

Foundations of any size have an executive and staff to study and evaluate applications for grants, to direct and carry on their own research and other kinds of work, and to attend to financial matters. Foundations also make use of professional advice from specially qualified persons, concerning projects in which they are interested.

A classification of grants of 60 foundations made in 1937,[1] the latest year in which such figures are available, showed their interest and aid as reaching a wide variety of fields in the following order: education, medicine and public health, social welfare, child welfare, aesthetics, social sciences, physical and biological sciences, religion, economics, international relations, humanities, race relations, government and public administration, city and regional planning and housing, publications, agriculture and forestry, engineering, heroism, aviation, public service, labor, animals, civil liberties, birth control, cemetery maintenance and monuments, and social theories. Obviously a classification of this kind, and indeed any except one going into very labored details, shows many seeming overlappings; such, for example, as the divisions of social welfare, child welfare, economics, public service, and publications. The classification probably is fairly indicative, however, of the areas which are receiving the largest amount of foundation attention, there being very little doubt that education, especially assistances to the colleges and universities, and medicine and public health are properly classified in heading such a list.

In all these fields the forms or methods of service receiving a very large proportion of foundation support are research and education (education, in the broad sense of the dissemination of knowledge); the feeling apparently growing among those responsible for foundation programs that these are highly appropriate functions for tax-exempt and quasi-public institutions of this sort. And the call for public service of this type in an age of such rapid changes as the recent present, when new knowledge essential to the understanding of new social situations lags too far behind, would seem to offer ample opportunity for their resources and powers. It is recognized, however, that in practice many exceptions to such generalizations as to forms of service supported are to be found, and that even in assigning a large proportion to the support of research and education these terms need fairly liberal interpretation. Demonstrations—which often include a certain amount of research and

[1] *Ibid.*

educational work and which aim to test methods and set examples rather than to establish institutions and programs for permanent outside support—have also found some favor with the foundations.

Foundations do not ordinarily engage in relief work nor grant charitable aid to individuals. Following the principle that "the endowed foundation should not relieve contemporary society of its obligation to support its own day-by-day charitable work, these foundations do not ordinarily contribute to the budgets of welfare agencies," particularly local agencies.

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SHELBY M. HARRISON

HOMES AND ALMSHOUSES. The institutions discussed in this article are of two general types: (a) public homes or almshouses operated by local units of government for the care of destitute, unemployable, and homeless persons; and (b) private old people's homes operated on a philanthropic or charitable basis by groups—racial, occupational, sectarian, or fraternal—concerned with the comfortable maintenance of their members throughout old age. Exceptions to the generalizations involved in this classification will be discussed later.

PUBLIC HOMES

The almshouse, poor farm, or county or city home has traditionally been the instrumentality by which government has attempted to provide such care as it must for the destitute at the lowest possible cost. In earlier years this desire for economy resulted in the grouping under the almshouse roof of an undifferentiated and wretched population in which dependent children were compelled to associate with diseased or mentally defective adults and for which the provisions of care were of the scantiest. During the latter half of the nineteenth century considerable progress was made in correcting these conditions through the development of other resources in the community. "Outdoor" or home relief came to be given more extensively; an increasing number of special institutions for the mentally ill were provided; child placing was developed; and in other ways a classification and diversion of the almshouse's potential inmates went forward. *See* CHILD WELFARE and MENTAL HYGIENE. Shortly after the turn of the century the mothers' aid movement got under way, followed by the beginnings of the old age assistance development. Thus the growth of public assistance, as we know it today under the Social Security Act, has resulted in the almshouse being left with a diminished responsibility for meeting all types of need and with an enlarged opportunity for changing its character and directing its services into more specialized channels. *See* PUBLIC ASSISTANCE.

Population of Homes

The statement is frequently made that the almshouse is gradually disappearing as a result of these forces. No comprehensive factual information is available, however, to measure the extent of this trend. While

it is known that many institutions have closed their doors since the Social Security Act became operative, a considerable number of states, including the most populous, report that there has been little or no reduction in their total almshouse populations during this period. This is usually attributed to the fact that such states had previously made substantial progress toward reduction and that the inmates who are left are incapacitated persons actually requiring institutional care, whose problems would not be met at a reasonable cost by a cash grant or other substitute plan. Further reductions evidently depend not so much on increased use of social security resources as upon the extent to which special institutional provision may be made available elsewhere in the community or state. While real progress has been made over the years in removing special groups of dependent people from almshouses in these states, there are still large numbers of the mentally subnormal, those who are incapacitated through chronic alcoholism, convalescents, mothers with young babies, and a variety of other types who could be cared for in specialized institutions if they were available.

Positive planning and action on a statewide basis are still needed in many jurisdictions if full advantage is to be taken of the social security program in reducing the population of almshouses through transfer to the categorical forms of aid. The progress of some states in reducing the population of their almshouses is being retarded because they are not taking full advantage of the social security program in granting adequate assistance to children and old people to enable them to live in the community. Among those states which have made substantial progress in closing their public homes or in changing them into a different type of institution are Alabama, Georgia, Ohio, and Washington.

Studies made during the past three years in several states throw some light on the volume and character of the population of public homes. Colorado reported 640 inmates in 1935, and 382 in 1937; Florida 460 in 1937; Indiana 5,688 in 1935, and 4,777 in 1939; Missouri 2,900 in 1938; North Carolina 2,911 in 1938; South Dakota 344 in 1938; Tennessee 2,608 in 1937; West Virginia 1,330 in 1935, and 1,082 in 1937; and Wisconsin 3,344 in 1935, and 3,035 in 1939. In Tennessee[1] 43.1 per cent were found to be sixty-five years of age or over. All recent studies show a preponderance of males in public homes: 74 per cent in Indiana; 68 per cent in Missouri; 54 per cent in North Carolina; 57 per cent in Tennessee; 70 per cent in West Virginia; and 83 per cent in Wisconsin. In most recent studies the median age of inmates has been found to be between sixty and sixty-nine years. Indiana, with a median age of sixty-five for its 92 county infirmaries, is fairly typical. More than 46 per cent had had no education whatever, some because of mental deficiency. Two hundred and thirty-two were classified as insane, 465 as feebleminded, and 66 as epileptic. More than half had physical defects. A similar study in Missouri[2] reveals less than 1 per cent of the inmates to be under the age of sixteen —"the maintenance of children in these institutions has been almost entirely discontinued"—and 38.9 to be mentally incompetent. Here 47 per cent of the inmates were found to be over sixty-five years of age. While these figures are revealing, it is probable that they are not typical because of wide differences among the states, both as to population characteristics and the provision of non-institutional social services.

Alternate Provisions

Insurance and assistance provisions for aged, dependent persons who do not actually require the personal care or supervision afforded by an institution have been made available under the terms of the federal Social Security Act of 1935. These provisions make normal community living

[1] *See* Cole, *infra cit.*
[2] *See* Pihlblad and others, *infra cit.*

possible for those who meet the eligibility requirements and whose problems are primarily financial. *See* OLD AGE AND SURVIVORS' INSURANCE and OLD AGE ASSISTANCE. In some states, where blind persons and even dependent and physically handicapped children have formerly been cared for in public homes, the programs of aid to the blind and aid to dependent children have gone far to eliminate these groups. *See* BLINDNESS AND CONSERVATION OF SIGHT and AID TO DEPENDENT CHILDREN. More adequate provision of general relief in many states in the past ten years also has met the needs of people who would otherwise have been offered institutional care.

There is growing evidence, however, that not all of the diversion of population from the public homes is necessarily resulting in better care for the persons involved. Small, unsupervised, privately operated institutions or boarding homes are springing up in many places to cater to old people who must live on an inadequate grant and are without relatives able to offer a home. The neglect and exploitation possible in such unregulated establishments may exceed that in almshouses, since the latter are subject to some measure, at least, of community supervision.[1] Although a few states control this situation through licensing, most of them have made no such provision. There are many indications of a need for the development of policies and standards relating to the licensing and inspection of boarding homes which are being used as a substitute for institutional care. California, Massachusetts, and New Jersey are among the few states which have regulatory laws or have made progress in this direction.

Another problem which has been encountered since the inauguration of the social security program is the effort of former public homes to qualify as private institutions, due to the ruling that public assistance payments may be made to recipients living in private institutions but not to a person who is an inmate of a public institution. In some instances the closing of almshouses has resulted in the institution's purchase or lease by a former superintendent or others, with a view to boarding old people at a profit. Administrators of old age assistance frequently experience difficulties in determining the public or private character of institutions under these circumstances.

Experiments in special housing for the aged are being made in various places. One of the first was the five-story Tompkins Square Apartment in New York City, erected through private philanthropy and providing living facilities for old people capable of performing many services for themselves and for each other. The Roosevelt Park cottage colony for the aged, built with Work Projects Administration funds in Cumberland County, N. J., is an experiment in providing small, convenient, individual homes for old people. Some public housing authorities are giving attention to including in new housing projects low-cost apartments especially suited to old people. Progress has also been made in establishing cooperative housekeeping homes or clubs for old people where a pooling of old age assistance grants may assure a better living standard. *See* HOUSING FOR UNATTACHED PERSONS.

Public Care of the Chronically Ill

Most authorities agree that as a result of these trends the public homes must expect the greatest demand for their services in the future to come from incapacitated people seeking care at a cost which the community can afford. It is believed that the usefulness of such institutions will be largely measured by the extent to which they can adapt themselves to give adequate, modern treatment to people suffering from a wide variety of chronic illnesses but who still do not require active hospital care. *See* Care for the Chronically Ill and for Convalescents in MEDICAL CARE. Among these the growing number of the aged is a numerically important group. *See* OLD AGE.

Dr. Ernst P. Boas, a nationally known au-

[1] *See* Austin, *infra cit.*

thority on chronic diseases, stresses the importance of gearing into a total community program for the chronically ill those homes which give custodial care to such sufferers. He advocates a program under which such homes will admit and keep only the type of custodial cases they are actually equipped to handle, favoring care at home whenever possible, and insisting that patients in need of active medical and nursing care be sent to hospitals. He warns against a popular assumption that almshouses can readily be converted into satisfactory institutions for the chronically ill without drastic changes in personnel and facilities.[1]

The inherent dangers in a wholesale and ill-considered attempt to transform almshouses into much-needed institutions for the care of the chronically ill have been considered so real that a joint committee of the American Hospital Association and the American Public Welfare Association studied the situation recently and formulated detailed minimum standards for any home offering custodial care to the chronically ill. Through a partial survey this committee found that in 22 states the conversion or consolidation of almshouses was in process or under consideration, with a view to caring for chronic sufferers; and that there was a great lack of standards as to the facilities, personnel, and methods required to give proper care to such persons. The committee concluded that it is rarely feasible or desirable to convert public homes into hospitals, and that such conversion should be attempted only when: (a) study has shown that hospital facilities in the area do not meet or cannot be adapted to the existing need; (b) the building is really suitable for conversion into a modern hospital; and (c) the authorities are prepared to make all the changes in facilities, equipment, personnel, and management that are required to meet the minimum standards of the American College of Surgeons. Conversion of existing institutions into homes or infirmaries for chronic sufferers requiring only custodial care was considered a more desirable possibility where almshouses are large enough or can combine into regional units large enough to afford to meet proper standards. One essential stressed by the report was that such custodial institutions be reasonably near, if not affiliated with, a hospital. The report warned against any type of conversion which means the purely makeshift adaptation of unsatisfactory buildings. All who have studied the problem agree that drastic changes are needed in most existing public homes or infirmaries.[1]

[1] *See* Boas, *infra cit.*

Private Homes

The United States Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1939 made a survey of all the old people's homes in the United States which it was "able to discover by careful canvass of all possible sources of information." Partial returns published in the May, 1940, issue of the *Monthly Labor Review* (*infra cit.*), indicate that there are at present facilities for about 103,000 old people in 1,248 homes throughout the country.[2]

The Bureau's definition of old people's homes characterized them as follows: "Some . . . are frankly charitable institutions, toward the support of which the resident contributes nothing. Others are philanthropic in the sense that although the guest has contributed either in the form of a fee at time of admission or previously through his dues to the supporting organization, an additional subsidy is necessary to cover the cost of full support. Such homes are distinguished from the almshouses by the fact that they represent private philanthropy (in which the resident himself may be or has been a contributor) as contrasted with public charity. Even the few homes which receive some of their support from city or county authorities require fees from the resident and also benefit by funds from

[1] *See* American Public Welfare Association, "Institutional Care of the Chronically Ill," *infra cit.*

[2] Including 32 public homes for veterans, accommodating 11,678 persons; and 15 other public homes, accommodating 1,314 persons.

philanthropy. . . . Not only does no social stigma attach to residence in an old people's home, but such is the extent of public acceptance that a large proportion of such homes actually contain one or more guests who are financially able to maintain themselves elsewhere but prefer the care and companionship available in the home."

The Bureau found that 115 homes previously studied, in 1929, had closed or combined with others as a result of depleted investments and support during the depression, but that 81 new homes had been opened in the ten-year period. Many homes reporting in 1929 had also added to their capacities with the result that the total beds available in all such homes increased by approximately 10,000 during the decade. For each 100,000 people in the United States, there are estimated to be 72 beds in old people's homes. Only nine states and the District of Columbia have more than 100 beds per 100,000 population, and in some of these states the high ratio is due to the presence of national homes admitting people from the entire country. In general, however, the largest number of homes is in the industrial states with urban areas where it is most difficult to provide adequate care for incapacitated old people in their own homes or with relatives.

Classified by sponsorship, the largest group of institutions reporting to the Bureau consisted of 514 homes maintained by religious denominations. Fraternal homes numbered 120; those operated by private organizations, 451; by nationality groups, 30; by labor organizations, 3; and by other agencies, 130. While 700 had waiting lists, 9,829 vacancies were found in other homes. The largest percentage of these vacancies, aside from those in the soldiers' homes, was found in fraternal homes where more than one-fifth of the beds were unused. In some instances, vacancies are due to the restrictive terms of old wills, establishing homes to meet conditions which no longer prevail. Thirty-three per cent of the homes were found to have a capacity of less than 25 persons, and 81 per cent a capacity of less than 100 persons.

Aside from belonging to the particular religious, fraternal, occupational, or nationality group for which the various homes had been established, an applicant for admission must ordinarily meet many other requirements. In 98 per cent of the homes the Bureau found that he must be sixty years of age or over, while in 73 per cent he must be at least sixty-five. There are many more beds available for women than for men, which is doubtless one of several factors accounting for the preponderance of men in almshouses.

Either an entrance fee entitling the applicant to life care, or a weekly or monthly payment, is required by nearly 65 per cent of the homes. Where entrance fees are required the amount ranges from $300 upward, varying in some cases with the age of the resident at the time of admission and frequently based on actuarial tables of life expectancy. Where monthly rates are charged instead of a lump sum payment such rates vary from $10 upward, with the majority paying from $20 to $40 a month. Fees, in whatever form, seldom cover the full cost of the care given. A large proportion of the homes studied by the Bureau require that an applicant be in fairly good health. After admission, however, most homes furnish some medical and nursing care when needed. Some homes, particularly the large Jewish homes, accept infirm and disabled people.

In a study of 78 homes for the aged in the New York City metropolitan area in 1931, it was found that 48 per cent of the residents were incapacitated by chronic illness.[1]

Homes for the aged can play an important role in caring for the chronically ill, but clear recognition of their limitations is needed. Because of the cost and other difficulties, homes often feel that they must keep old people long after they should be in a hospital receiving active medical and nursing care together with the other advan-

[1] *See* Jarrett, *infra cit.*

tages that only a hospital can offer. Much more attention needs to be given to the problem of how hospital care can be made available to the residents of old people's homes when they reach a point where attendance by a staff physician and ordinary custodial care are insufficient. There is great value in affiliation of a home for the aged with a hospital in such a way that the consulting staff, laboratory, X-ray, physiotherapy, and other facilities may be available to the residents as needed.

Trends in Progressive Homes

Progressive homes recognize that it is not sufficient to extend the lives of their old people in physical comfort but that particular attention must be given to measures which will make life worth living to the end. Authorities agree that, in addition to bringing modern, scientific knowledge of medicine and dietetics to bear on the problems of the aged, such institutions need to be real homes, free from regimentation and offering reasonable privacy and an opportunity for each person to keep his most cherished possessions with him. It is essential that the staff have a sympathetic understanding of old people and that their efforts be directed to seeing that each resident receives care which will best meet his individual needs.

Some homes are attacking the problem of idleness by offering a wide variety of occupations suitable for the aged, including crafts which can be carried on in a wheelchair or at the bedside. It has been demonstrated that a skilled, versatile teacher of handicrafts who can adapt his program to old people and their former skills can add greatly to the morale of a home. There are institutions which are particularly successful in encouraging the residents to take part in carrying on the day-to-day work of the institution in proportion to their physical ability and without bringing objectionable pressures to bear. When properly worked out, such a plan benefits both the institution and the residents.

Suitable opportunities for religious expression, a varied recreation program, ample reading material, and frequent contact with outside individuals and groups are considered important factors in the contentment of old people, whether they be in public or private homes for the aged.

Little factual information is available on the effect of old age assistance and old age insurance on private homes for the aged. Some old people who would formerly have sought admission to private homes for the aged are now doubtless securing help to make their own living arrangements in the community, at least until such time as their infirmities may cause them to seek the physical care afforded by an institution. Others, however, prefer the companionship and life of a private institutional home and are using their public grants to meet the relatively small payments required by private homes for the aged. No evidence has been found that fewer people are applying for admission since the social security measures have become operative, or that the population of private homes is on the decrease.

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HOUSING AND CITY PLANNING.[1] The problem of housing is to satisfy minimum needs for safety, sanitation, convenience, and comfort of all the people, in dwellings at rents within their ability to pay. Housing should be so planned as to facilitate the development of health, personality, and citizenship in communities where provision is afforded for education, employment, worship, and creative leisure-time activities. A suitable dwelling involves the physical planning of the neighborhood for mutual protection and for freedom from traffic hazards and other dangers.[2]

Housing Needs

The term "slum," according to the United States Housing Act of 1937, means "any area where dwellings predominate which by reason of dilapidation, faulty arrangement or design, lack of ventilation, light or sanitation facilities, or any combination of these factors, are detrimental to safety, health or morals." Slum areas comprise substandard housing and environmental conditions which cause a drain on both human and economic values. Such areas are characterized by dilapidation of dwellings, blighted neighborhoods, tenants with social and economic handicaps, and owners who have neglected the management and upkeep of properties. Studies have shown that in slum areas there is a higher infant mortality rate than for the entire city; a greater frequency of certain diseases; a higher delinquency rate; more accidents per 1,000 population; more frequent fires; usually more numerous tax defaults; and higher municipal costs for police, health, refuse disposal, welfare, and

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

[2] A scheme for neighborhood units along these lines has been proposed by Clarence Arthur Perry and set forth in *Housing for the Machine Age* (*infra cit.*), published in 1939 by the Russell Sage Foundation. The neighborhood unit is a well-thought-out pattern for developing urban residential neighborhoods of from 3,000 to 10,000 persons, large enough to support a good elementary school, and a neighborhood which will provide opportunities for recreation, community activities, and a well-rounded family life.

other services. The concern of government with the housing problem is to ascertain to what degree the housing supply is adequate; to stimulate or regulate privately owned housing in order to meet the needs; and, as has been undertaken in recent years; to effect slum clearance and the construction of low-rent houses through governmental expenditure.

A good deal of information about housing conditions throughout the nation has been collected during the past decade. Housing data secured in connection with the 1940 census will give a more complete picture of housing needs.

Real property surveys made between 1934 and 1936 in some 203 cities which contain two-fifths of the urban families in the United States covered 8,000,000 dwelling units. These surveys showed that 40 per cent of city dwellings lacked installed heating, 20 per cent were without baths, 15 per cent had no private indoor water-closets, and 17 per cent of occupied dwellings were considered crowded (more than one person per room). Families were found to be doubled up in 5 per cent of the homes. Fifteen per cent of the dwellings were considered substandard because they either needed major repairs or were unfit for use and apparently should have been vacated or demolished. These surveys revealed wide variations between regions and between cities, with a greater proportion of substandard dwellings in the South than elsewhere. They showed also that the undesirable dwellings in the main were occupied by families with lowest incomes.

Estimates made by official and unofficial agencies indicated that due to the lack of construction by private enterprise during the depression years there was an estimated shortage of 1,500,000 dwellings in cities and villages; and that another 2,500,000 dwellings were needed to replace houses which were unfit for use.

There would seem to be proportionately as many ill-housed persons on the farms and in villages as there are in cities in the United States. Studies of the United States Department of Agriculture showed that some 3,000,000 farm dwellings failed to meet minimum standards of health and comfort. Farm properties seem more likely to be rented or purchased on the basis of the quality of the land than the quality of the house. When cash or credit is limited it necessarily must go into barns, outbuildings, machinery, and tools to increase the yield of the land, before expenditures are made on the repair or improvement of the house. Running water and electricity are costly to install and these conveniences are frequently lacking in farm homes. Overcrowding is common, with conditions worst where tenants' incomes are lowest. In rural villages as many as four families in one house have been reported. It is estimated that there are 125,000 migratory families with about half a million children camping in primitive conditions, getting their drinking water out of irrigation ditches, and living without sanitary conveniences. *See* MIGRANTS, TRANSIENTS, AND TRAVELERS.

The housing shortage has been most keenly felt in New York City. Here the only rent control legislation enacted in recent years, the Minkoff Act, was passed by the state legislature in 1938 on the basis of an official vacancy survey of dwelling units renting at $40 or less in New York City. This showed vacancies of 2.3 per cent in the city as a whole and considerably less than this in Harlem and Queens. The Act was extended in 1939 and 1940. It prohibits increases in rent in "old law" tenement houses which violate the Multiple Dwelling Law. Citizen organizations in New York City have for many years supported legislation to correct conditions in the city's old law tenement houses, which shelter half a million families. It was estimated in 1939 that 25,000 persons, 10,000 of them children, lived in rooms of basements and cellars in Manhattan, many of which were dark, damp, and undesirable as homes, without outside windows, with inadequate sanitary conveniences, and heated

only from overhead pipes. Many instances are reported of entire families living in one furnished room, an average of three persons to the room being found by one unofficial study. Families in rooming houses are the worst housed of the city dwellers.

There is need for official surveys of such matters as cellar occupancy, rooming houses, overcrowding, occupancy of windowless rooms, lighting of public halls and stairways, and the whitening of shafts and lightwells. Few communities know the actual number of new houses built each year, as distinct from the number of building permits, and none make any periodic check of the real property survey to keep the information current and provide a factual basis for housing planning.

Public Control

The regulation of privately owned dwellings was historically the first and perhaps is today the most important housing activity of government. Its function is the protection of the well-being of millions of families who must continue to live in existing houses for years to come. Landlords' powers to do what they like with their property is restricted only by what is expressly prohibited by law. Regulatory housing law consequently is subject to constant growth as the public interest demands. The earliest municipal powers, first exercised in New York City in 1800, provided only for the condemnation of unfit buildings. These powers were augmented during the century by the establishment of health and building bureaus with additional but limited powers. The New York State Legislature in 1901 enacted the Tenement House Law, which consolidated past measures and the recommendations of previous tenement house commissions. This Law contemplated a solution of the tenement house problem in three ways: (a) to provide proper types of "new law" tenement houses for the future by means of adequate restrictive legislation, and to forbid the erection of others; (b) to remedy the errors of past years by altering and improving "old law" tenement houses so as to make them fit for human habitation; (c) to maintain present and future tenement houses in sanitary condition by adequate supervision. The Charter for the City of New York was amended to set up a Tenement House Department with an adequate inspection force and with powers over construction and maintenance of tenement houses transferred to it from the Health and Building Bureaus. The principles of the Tenement House Law were extended to many other states, the best examples being Indiana, Michigan, and Iowa. The State Multiple Dwelling Law superseded the Tenement House Law in 1929. It has since been amended, under the stimulation of New York City social agencies, to require provision of a private water-closet for each family; stairway-type fire escapes; fire-retarding of tenement house halls, stairs, and cellar ceilings; and prohibition of occupancy of interior rooms that open on other interior rooms. Demolition powers have been strengthened, and multiple dwellings converted into rooming houses have been regulated. Many attempts in the past five years to pass legislation to suspend these requirements have been defeated in the legislature or vetoed by the governor.

The regulatory laws have for the most part failed, as shown by the real property surveys, to assure minimum standards of safety, health, or comfort. To be effective they must be administered by housing inspection departments supplied with adequate budgets and employing trained personnel. The cooperation of the courts is necessary in imposing the penalties of the law upon those who have seriously or persistently violated legal requirements. Their work, to achieve complete success, must have the backing of informed public opinion.

Several factors may militate against the complete success of regulatory measures. The standards required by law, to be observed by the owners, or those enforced by the inspectors may be and frequently are

too low. Or more adequate maintenance and repairs may result in higher rents and force the low-wage earners with limited rent-paying ability into neglected buildings, causing a vicious circle. The most effective enforcement is secured in cities where citizen housing associations make periodic voluntary inspections, report complaints to the authorities, and follow them up until action is secured. Such organizations in Boston, Chicago, Cincinnati, Detroit, New York, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, and Washington are in a position to offer friendly criticism or can back public officials by securing public support for the vigorous enforcement of existing legislation, while working continuously for its improvement.

Federal Aid to Private Housing

Stimulation by the federal government of private housing began as early as 1913, when the United States Department of Agriculture surveyed farm housing and published booklets of house plans. Since that time the Department has steadily added pamphlets on the modernization of houses, with sketches of plans and perspectives. The Federal Housing Administration, the Federal Home Loan Bank Board, and the National Bureau of Standards of the Department of Commerce have published specifications and standards for houses to cost $2,500, and reports on building methods and standards and on such practical matters as insulation, waterproofing, ratproofing, general repairs, and modernization.

The widespread distress among farm and home owners during the early years of the depression so threatened home credit institutions that the Federal Home Loan Bank Board was established in 1932 to supply a reservoir of credit for them. The following year the Home Owners' Loan Corporation was established to aid the individual owner and prevent foreclosure. In 1940, 40 per cent of the homes in the New York City area and 10 per cent throughout the country were in the hands of the Corporation. This agency, between 1933 and 1936, refinanced more than a million distressed mortgages valued at over $3,000,000,000. It is expected that three-fourths of the borrowers will repay their loans. The Corporation has now ceased making new loans and is engaged in servicing its present commitments, selling at a loss or managing the property acquired through foreclosure. Losses have been offset to date by surpluses from service charges on its loans.

The Federal Home Loan Bank Board administers the following four agencies: (1) The Federal Home Loan Bank System. This serves as a credit reserve system through which member home-financing institutions (building and loan associations, cooperative banks, homestead associations, insurance companies, and savings banks) may obtain loans on approved home mortgages. (2) The Federal Savings and Loan System. This charters and supervises federal savings and loan associations and approved state-chartered associations and assists in establishing sound home-mortgage lending practices. (3) The Federal Savings and Loan Insurance Corporation. This insures deposits up to $5,000 in savings institutions. (4) The Home Owners' Loan Corporation. This grants long-term mortgage loans at low interest rates to those who are in urgent need of funds for the protection, preservation, or recovery of their homes, and who are unable to procure financing through normal channels.

The Federal Home Loan Bank Board was placed under the Federal Loan Agency by the President's Reorganization Plan effective July 1, 1939. Three other departments of the Federal Loan Agency that aid private housing are the Federal Housing Administration, the Federal National Mortgage Association, and the Reconstruction Finance Corporation Mortgage Company.

The Federal Housing Administration (FHA) issues insurance on two types of loans made by banking institutions. It does not lend money, clear slums, nor build houses. Under Title I of the National

Housing Act of 1934 it insures private financial institutions against loss up to 10 per cent of their housing modernization loans for amounts up to $2,500. The 2,346,276 loans insured by the end of 1939 amounted to $966,417,897. Under Title II the FHA insures loans up to 90 per cent of the total cost of homes valued at $6,000 or for the first $6,000 of value, and up to 80 per cent of amounts between $6,000 and $10,000. Mortgages on 465,730 small homes by the end of 1939 totaled $1,969,862,395. Two hundred and sixty-nine mortgages for $113,934,775 were insured up to December 31, 1939, on large-scale investment housing projects built for rental and containing 30,000 dwelling units. During the five and one-half years of operation up to the end of 1939 it is estimated that the FHA had helped to provide homes for about 2,000,000 persons. This type of operation has not yet reached many persons with lower than middle incomes, although increasing emphasis is being placed upon construction of the $2,500 house.

Semi-Public Housing

A few philanthropic developments have been erected for the low-income group. Some investment, limited-dividend, and cooperative housing projects have been built for families of moderate income, with or without tax exemption.

Beginning with pioneer efforts of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor about 1850 to construct model tenements itself, various tenements or model communities financed by private philanthropic capital, without interest or with voluntarily limited dividends, have been constructed. Although the total amount of socially motivated housing in the United States has been low, these developments have served as demonstrations of standards and have stimulated interest in the housing problem in a practical way. They have provided research into housing construction, design, and, in recent years, community planning. They are freed from the restrictions under which government necessarily operates, do not feel the pressures to meet large quantitative needs, and can develop tested workable policies and trained personnel. The Lavanburg Houses in New York City are an example of this type of development. The Phipps Houses in New York re-invest any returns on the investment of the Phipps Foundation in extending their garden apartments rented to the moderate-income group.

The City and Suburban Homes Company of New York has invested $11,000,000 since 1896 in accommodations of the better type for over 3,500 families. It has paid an average dividend of 4.31 per cent. The Riverside Dwellings, built in Brooklyn by Alfred T. White in 1890, are outstanding for their design and because they reach the unskilled-wage group. They have paid a dividend of about 4 per cent. These houses have been recently modernized and now rent at $8.50 per room per month. The Cincinnati (Ohio) Model Home Company has operated for twenty-eight years and has paid 5 per cent dividends every year but one. Other limited-dividend companies are the Sanitary Improvement Corporation and the Sanitary Housing Company of Washington, D. C., which have been in existence forty-two and thirty-five years respectively and have paid 4 per cent and 5 per cent dividends at first and more later. To reach the low-rent group some sacrifice had to be made in standards now believed essential. Other examples of voluntary limited-dividend type developments are those built in Chicago by the Marshall Field Estate, and by the Julius Rosenwald Fund—the latter, known as the Michigan Boulevard Apartments, being for Negroes; apartments in Bayonne, N. J., financed by John D. Rockefeller, Jr.; and the Charlesbank Homes in Boston, built by the Ginn Estate.

The 14 limited-dividend projects built under the New York State Housing Act of 1926 under supervision of the New York State Board of Housing, at a cost of $30,000,000, have provided for 5,907 families.

They have in the main kept their standards of design, equipment, construction, open space, and community planning so high that they have housed only the moderate-income group able to pay the maximum rents permitted under the law of $12.50 per room per month in Manhattan and $11 per room per month elsewhere. Because of these rent levels, the City of New York in 1934 withdrew the exemption from local taxes on the buildings. No projects under this law have been built since. The state law permits tax exemption of the buildings, but not the land, for twenty years, and dividends must be limited to 6 per cent. Eight non-cooperative developments have paid dividends between 5 per cent and 6 per cent. Three cooperative developments, Amalgamated Dwellings Inc. (232 apartments), Amalgamated Housing Corporation (308 apartments in the first six units, 202 apartments in units seven and eight, and 115 apartments in unit nine), and the Farband Housing Corporation (129 apartments) have been purchased by the occupants—for the most part skilled workers. Two other cooperative developments have been the Sunnyside Gardens in Queens and the Paul Laurence Dunbar Apartments in Harlem for Negroes. The cooperative principle at Sunnyside and the Dunbar apartments had to be abandoned because of financial distress encountered after the onset of depression.

One of the outstanding investment housing developments, especially from the standpoint of effective sire planning, is Chatham Village, built by the Buhl Foundation in Pittsburgh for families who can afford to pay $62 or more rent per month. Among the garden villages the developments built by the Russell Sage Foundation at Forest Hills, Long Island, the garden project of Mariemont, Ohio, as well as Sunnyside Gardens and the community of Radburn, N. J., should be mentioned. The total investments in limired-dividend companies have not exceeded $100,000,000 throughout the country and the total number housed nor more than 25,000.

The Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, under special state enabling legislation, has built investment housing developments for which it has provided 100 per cent of the cost. Its first project in Queensboro is exempted from local taxes for twenty years, houses 2,125 families at $9.00 per room per month, and was built at a total cost of $7,525,552. The second venture, known as Parkchester, will house 40,000 people and cost $50,000,000. It will rent at $13 per room per month, and is without tax exemption. The return on the first project has varied from 6 per cent to 10 per cent since its completion in 1922. It is contemplated that the Parkchester project will be amortized in about thirty-five years, and interest on the investment will be 3.5 per cent.

Under existing conditions in the construction industry or any conditions that seem likely to prevail in the immediate future, housing for the lowest-income group cannot yield a sufficient return to attract private capital. Adequate housing for the low-wage earners does not yield any substantial surplus above cost of operation and maintenance. Housing for the moderate-income group could yield sufficient return to private capital if certain reductions in the costs were accomplished along the following three lines: (a) socially motivated private, limited-dividend, and cooperative housing; (b) distribution of building materials to contractors at wholesale rates; lower interest and longer amortization charges; year-round, continuous construction on a large scale; expanded use of labor-saving devices at the site and at the factory; and (c) cooperation of the government through revision of obsolete building codes and zoning ordinances, city planning, and public ownership of large amounts of land to prevent speculative land prices and to control its future development. Such a reduction in costs would enable private enterprise to build primarily for the moderate-income group. Today the builder cannot build for the lower half of the housing market. Any reduction

in housing construction costs would inure to the benefit of the lowest-income group by increasing the volume of low-rent housing that can be constructed from public funds.

Through a policy of tax exemption, attempts have been made to stimulate private housing construction. After the housing shortage in the 1920's, under a provision in New York State almost a billion dollars worth of speculative tax exempt housing was erected, mostly in Queens and Brooklyn. The savings went into the pockets of the contractors, and the communities were flooded with jerry-built dwellings. Notable exceptions are the limited-dividend and investment housing developments. To stimulate rehabilitation, New York in 1937 permitted exemption from local taxes of the increment in values. Rents usually rose following alterations and this has proved also to be an aid to the property owner rather than the low-income tenant.

Public Housing and Slum Clearance

Until 1932, except for the war period when the Emergency Fleet Corporation and the United States Housing Corporation in 1918 built or financed the erection of houses for war workers, there was no direct government provision of houses for low-wage-earners. The war houses were subsequently sold, except for those required for military purposes, and the only thing left was the valuable experience in community building.

The Reconstruction Finance Corporation, established in 1932, has made only one housing loan, that for Knickerbocker Village, a structure built by a limited-dividend development on the site of the "lung" block in New York City's Lower East Side. The following year the Federal Emergency Administration of Public Works (PWA) advanced loans at 4 per cent interest to seven other limited-dividend projects. The two largest were the Hillside and Boulevard Gardens projects in New York City. The others were located at Alta Vista, Va.; Euclid, Ohio; Philadelphia; Raleigh, N. C.; and St. Louis. Rentals ranged from $3.00 per room per month (without heat) at Alta Vista to $9.50 (with heat) in Philadelphia (Carl Mackley Houses) and St. Louis (Neighborhood Gardens).

The United States Housing Authority (USHA) was created in 1937 under the Department of the Interior by the Wagner-Steagall Act. It superseded the PWA Housing Division and became a part of the Federal Works Agency under the President's Reorganization Plan on July 1, 1939. Its purpose is to establish a permanent public housing policy for the United States for families of lowest income, and for clearance of slums.

The present program of slum clearance and public housing followed the construction between 1933 and 1937 of 51 demonstration low-rent housing or slum clearance projects to accommodate 21,802 families in 36 cities of the continental United States, two in Puerto Rico, and one in the Virgin Islands. These were built by the PWA primarily as emergency works measures under the National Industrial Recovery Act. Local housing authorities were set up to operate these projects, in accordance with the George-Healey Act of 1936. Rents were to repay over a period of sixty years at least 55 per cent of each project's cost, and a 45 per cent federal subsidy of capital to permit low rents was authorized. Families accommodated came from substandard dwellings and their income was no more than five times the rent, although sufficient to meet the project rents. The methods and standards were such as to preclude the poorest and worst housed families. All the projects were transferred by executive order to the USHA except two that were transferred to the Puerto Rican Reconstruction Administration. Twenty-three of these projects were unfinished at the time of transfer and were completed by the USHA. By December 31, 1939, 32 PWA projects were leased to local housing authorities and 17 were temporarily operated by the USHA. The average monthly shelter rent (plus wa-

ter) on June 30, 1939, was $17.19 for 34 PWA projects whose rents were reduced to USHA levels, and $20.75 per month for 14 projects still at PWA rentals. The total rent arrears amounted to less than one-half of one per cent for the 21,453 PWA family units operated by the Housing Authority.

The USHA is empowered to make federal loans and grants to local public bodies set up under state law for low-rent housing and slum clearance. It makes loans repayable in sixty years to local housing authorities, but these cannot exceed 90 per cent of the project cost and the locality must provide at least 10 per cent. In order to reduce rents to an amount low-income tenants can afford, the USHA makes annual grants to local housing authorities. These may be up to 3.5 per cent of project cost, provided the local government contributes annually an amount equal to one-fifth of the federal contribution, either in the form of cash or land or in reduction of local taxes. Grants are conditional upon the elimination of an equivalent number of substandard or slum dwellings, unless this would cause dangerous overcrowding.

The United States Housing Act limits construction costs to $1,000 per room in cities of less than 500,000 and $1,250 per room in large cities. No single state may receive more than 10 per cent of the total federal loan fund of $800,000,000. Prevailing wage standards in project construction are required. The USHA supervises the local housing projects thus aided.

A bill, S.591, to provide an additional $800,000,000 in loans and $28,000,000 in annual subsidies passed the Senate in 1939. In September, 1940, the House Banking and Currency Committee reported it in a form providing $5,000,000 in annual contributions, sufficient to release about $150,000,000 in USHA loans still remaining from the 1938 appropriation. The amended bill contained no additional loan funds.

Generally preference is given to families of lowest annual incomes, those who live on the site, who are in the worst housing conditions, citizens, residents of more than one year, those with children under seventeen years of age, families whose primary source of employment is close to the project, and families with special health or social problems. In order to facilitate relocation of displaced tenants, 12 buildings on the slum site in Orlando, Fla., were permitted to remain until the new dwellings were constructed by the USHA and the families moved direct from the slum buildings into their new homes. The Knoxville, Tenn., project and the Columbus, Ga., project rehoused 63 per cent and 50 per cent respectively of the site residents. The staggering of construction and demolition avoids both the dislocation of close or long-standing neighborhood ties and the possible exploitation of tenants desperately seeking new quarters.

Under a plan approved by the USHA in September, 1939, short-term construction loans can be floated by local authorities at about one-half of one per cent interest, making a potential saving in project costs of $15,000,000 on the entire present USHA program. Through economies in construction, utility charges, insurance, and operation, it is possible to rehouse a family in a decent low-rent house at a set annual charge to the federal government of about $100.

By December, 1939, main construction contracts were awarded for 163 projects to house 64,575 families at a cost of $314,002,004, and a total of $666,808,000 was committed for loan contracts, earmarking outstanding and total locality and state commitments for USHA projects. During 1939 the first 12 projects, costing about $40,000,000, were completed to house over 8,000 families. The average over-all cost of new housing per dwelling unit of the 163 USHA-aided projects under construction by December 31, 1939, was $4,486. The comparable FHA-insured housing built by private enterprise up to December 31, 1938, averaged $5,005 per unit.

During 1940 the number of local housing authorities was increased to 400, of

which 41 were county authorities. Thirty-eight states have local authorities, and 10—agricultural states—do not. The first five USHA rural housing projects are to be built in 1940, comprising 1,000 individual farm dwellings for (a) small farm owners, (b) tenant farmers, (c) sharecroppers, and (d) rural wage workers. Plans have been worked out cooperatively with the Department of Agriculture. The over-all cost will be about $2,250 per dwelling. Tenants will receive a credit for repairs, painting, or other maintenance work and a cash rent of $3.00 to $5.00 per dwelling per month will be charged. Pending legislation contemplates continuing cooperation between the USHA and the Farm Security Administration (FSA) and long-term leases or purchase agreements to rent or sell rural housing to families of low income.

Housing and National Defense

The National Defense Housing Law was passed by the 76th Congress in the summer of 1940 (enacted Title II of Public No. 671). It permitted USHA housing projects to be occupied, during the period of the national emergency, by workers with families engaged in national defense activities. For speed, the law permitted the USHA to condemn land for local housing authorities' projects. It permitted housing construction without demolishing or otherwise eliminating slum dwellings. The law also permitted higher rentals to be charged to war workers, although after the emergency the slum clearance and low-income restrictions would again become operative. The limitation of not more than 10 per cent of USHA funds to any one state was temporarily waived.

The National Defense Housing Law made no provision of additional funds. In July, 1940, the National Executive Committee of Housing Authorities urged Congress to pass S.591 to provide such funds for defense housing. The Committee urged local housing authorities to extend projects under construction to families of defense workers where needed, and to build on vacant or easily available sites in the interest of speed. It also urged local authorities to make defense housing projects permanent in character, suitable for post-war slum clearance needs, and located with this in mind and so as to avoid possible dangers from the bombing of military objectives; to build defense housing only where there was a severe shortage of livable homes and where the immediate elimination of substandard housing would aggravate conditions; to work in close cooperation with the military authorities; and to make periodic housing surveys so that there would always be available current data regarding available housing and rentals. It was also recommended that national defense orders be placed only where suitable housing could be made available for the workers. This policy apparently would avoid the disastrous results and high labor turnover experienced during the World War of 1914–1918 among navy yard workers in New Hampshire, Washington, and California, and among workers in war industries in such places as Elizabeth, N. J., Bridgeport, Conn., and in nitrate towns in Alabama.

In August, 1940, the Advisory Commission to the Council of National Defense announced the appointment of a housing coordinator. In September, 1940, the supplementary National Defense Appropriation Bill of 1941 was passed by Congress. It authorized the President to allocate to the War Department and the Navy Department $100,000,000 for an estimated 27,308 of "defense" family housing units. These departments could, if they wished, contract with the USHA to build such housing for them, but could not allocate the funds directly to it. The House also passed the Lanham Bill in September, 1940, to provide $150,000,000 for defense housing, to be spent through the Public Buildings Administration. It was in doubt whether this Bill would give the USHA jurisdiction over the funds. The Senate committee report on the Lanham Bill gave the first official public estimate of defense housing needs as fol-

lows: 109,555 family units, not including 40,000 wanted by the Army in 42 states and 6 districts and dependencies. The USHA had made loans to the Army and to local housing authorities of more than $28,000,000 to provide nearly 7,500 dwellings for defense workers and married enlisted men.

Rural Housing

Five years' experimentation in housing construction has enabled the FSA and its predecessor the Resettlement Administration to produce rural houses of good quality at low cost. During the fiscal year 1938–1939, 2,784 farm homes were built by private contractors at an average cost of $1,474.20 each. Over 20,000 families in 150 communities have been housed by the FSA, which sees that their dwellings are adequately maintained.

The FSA and its predecessor agencies have experimentally built houses of frame construction, rammed earth (or mud), adobe, steel, and recently one of cotton. Since 1937 the FSA has made loans to farm tenants, laborers, and sharecroppers to purchase farms under provisions of the Bankhead-Jones Farm Tenant Act. The loans provide not only for the purchase of good land but also for the repair of older dwellings or the construction of new dwellings.

Housing for 2,129 families has been provided by the suburban "Greenbelt" towns located near Washington, D. C., Milwaukee, and Cincinnati. They are essentially dormitory towns that combine many of the amenities of rural life with proximity to city employment, surrounded by encircling belts of parks, gardens, and recreational areas. They were constructed for low-income city workers and built by relief labor. The vital difference from English garden cities is that these towns lack local industries. The Tennessee Valley Authority in 1936 built the town of Norris, including 281 individual homes, mostly for moderate-income families, enabling experimentation in materials and construction methods. Norris now serves primarily as a dormitory town for Knoxville.

State Aid

State aid for housing lags far behind federal aid. Twenty states have housing agencies, of which only 10 lay any claim to being active. New York, Massachusetts, and California have the oldest agencies. Massachusetts appropriated $50,000 in 1917 for the Lowell Homesteads. In California the Veterans' Welfare Board has aided 18,000 veterans to buy homes at 4.5 per cent interest, lending $83,000,000 for homes and $3,000,000 for farms. The homes cost an average of $4,300 each. Loans amounting to $8,000,000 were repossessed and $200,000 in delinquencies have been amortized at the rate of $1.00 per month. State housing agencies cooperate with state planning boards, draft legislation, and engage in publicity to stimulate private housing. In Georgia, Massachusetts, and Indiana, local authorities' applications for an FSA loan must be approved by the state housing board. New York is the only state which has aided cooperative housing, and New Jersey is the only state that has a state housing authority, but it has not used its powers. The Maryland Emergency Housing and Park Commission, which was authorized by state law in 1933, also is inactive. A Maryland Association of Housing Authorities was formed in December, 1939.

Under the New York Public Housing Law of 1939 and a state constitutional amendment approved by the people in 1938, state and municipal loans and grants for public housing and slum clearance are permitted. State and municipal sources for such funds are almost completely untapped. Out of a possible $300,000,000 of state loans, $20,404,000 has so far been committed for the Brooklyn Navy Yard Project. Vladeck City Houses for 240 families, which will be occupied in 1940, is the first project to be erected exclusively from New York City's occupancy tax funds levied for the purpose of providing funds to guaran-

tee the principal and interest on municipal housing bonds. Housing has at last been added to the growing list of municipal services which now includes provision of a pure water supply, refuse disposal, health services, schools, parks and playgrounds, and, in some communities, public power plants.

City Planning

City planning has developed from local and private origins to a major function of modern government. It is the process of guiding the development of cities along rational lines that will contribute to the health, amenity, convenience, commerce, and industry of the people. It involves four basic steps: research into pertinent facts; analysis and interpretation of these facts; the preparation of conclusions, solutions, and projected plans growing out of the facts presented; and the bringing of facts and plans to the attention of responsible officials at such time and in such manner as will be most useful.

The city planning movement owes much to the National Conference on City Planning, formed in 1910, which joined with the American Civic Association in 1935 and became the American Planning and Civic Association. This Association provides the current annual forum on planning in this country. Its activities are supplemented by the work of the American Institute of Planners (formerly American City Planning Institute), the American Society of Planning Officials, the Construction and Civic Development Department of the United States Chamber of Commerce, the National Recreation Association, and other organizations. The National Resources Planning Board, begun originally to coordinate federal PWA works projects, has made extensive surveys and done much to guide the development of state and local planning. Housing authorities and public works boards have utilized advisory or staff planners to insure that projects will meet the requirements of communities as a whole. The FHA and other federal agencies have required that communities have adequate zoning ordinances to protect developments and prevent deterioration of adjacent neighborhoods.

In 1940, 43 states and the District of Columbia had state planning organizations. Approximately 1,800 local communities, 400 counties, and 27 districts had planning or zoning instrumentalities. Many of the planning bodies have suffered drastic budget cuts, others have been inactive. Although most have aimed to develop a master plan to guide the future development of the city, few if any have adopted a time schedule substantiated by the determination and ability of the local government to effectuate the plan.

Regulatory planning such as that authorized by the New York Building Zone Resolution of 1916 controls, by zoning powers fully upheld by the courts, the future use, height, and bulk of buildings to be erected. It does not change the present character of neighborhoods, and is dependent upon private initiative for a time schedule and the accomplishment of the plans. Positive planning, on the other hand, provides both the plans and the ability to effectuate the plans through public initiative, and is perhaps best exemplified by the Tennessee Valley Authority.

Regional planning is the link between federal and state planning. Problems of flood control, timber and soil conservation, national parks or recreation areas, transportation, electrification, industrial decentralization, public works, and other programs can be developed and integrated only in a geographical area which may traverse lines of states or political subdivisions. Regional planning insures the conservation, development, and wise use of resources through measures to check reckless exploitation and better utilization of natural resources. The regional plan should be comprehensive in scope and understood by the people and governing bodies. Noteworthy regional planning agencies besides the Tennessee Valley Authority are the New England and Pacific Northwest Regional Planning Com-

missions. The Regional Plan of New York and its Environs, completed in the early 1930's after ten years of study, is the outstanding example of regional planning research.

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SYDNEY MASLEN

HOUSING FOR UNATTACHED PERSONS[1]—men and women not living with relatives—ranges from expensive hotels and apartments to the privilege of sleeping on a floor. It includes private houses, rooming houses, public and private institutions, and camps. What proportion of such people now live in these different kinds of accommodations will not be known until the 1940 census reports are available. The 1930 census indicated that about one-half of the unattached population lived as roomers, slightly more than one-fifth maintained homes of their own, approximately one-seventh lived in institutions, about one-twentieth in families as servants, and about one-twentieth in hotels, with smaller proportions in other types of housing. In the intervening ten years of depression there have probably been considerable shifts in these proportions.

Hotels, Rooming Houses, and Lodging Houses

Many hotels, originally built for the traveling public, now encourage permanent guests while others cater primarily to them, providing club privileges and social activities. Many unattached persons reside in accommodations of this sort.

Rooming houses provide living facilities for a large number of small wage and salary earners. In 1930, two-fifths of all people

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

in rooming houses lived in households where they were the only roomers; almost a quarter lived in houses where there were two roomers; and the rest in houses having three or more roomers. It should be noted that these figures are for all roomers and include some family groups.

The only recent study of rooming houses is *Life in One Room: A Study of the Rooming House Problem in the Borough of Manhattan* (*infra cit.*). This study found three types of rooming houses: the converted single dwelling, typical of rooming houses everywhere; large apartments used as rooming houses; and some tenement buildings wholly converted to rooming house purposes and operated under one management. The last two types have grown out of the New York housing situation and perhaps are not to be found in many cities. They seem to provide somewhat better physical facilities than the converted single dwellings. Some observers question, however, whether they are subject to even the minimum controls found in the better rooming houses.

The New York study revealed that in few cases were there sufficient bathing and toilet facilities, especially in converted single dwellings. Furniture was often inadequate and of poor quality. There were not even enough beds, as 186 persons had only 51 double beds and 45 single beds or enough space for 147 persons. Thirty per cent of the beds were considered shabby or completely unfit for use. Linens and blankets were found to be in better condition than the furniture but even they were not adequate. The occupants of these rooms were in the lower income brackets and the cheaper rooms were in greatest demand.

Below rooming houses in the social scale are commercial lodging houses for men. In these institutions large floors are used as dormitories or are divided into small rooms or cubicles by partitions reaching only part way to the ceiling. The furnishings may consist of a spring and mattress, suspended between the end walls, and a locker. Some houses are well cared for and provide adequate bathing and toilet equipment. Many do not, however, and some of the institutions are of very poor quality. The worst are known as "flop houses" and provide only floor space on which their tenants may sleep. They have the legal privilege of refusing admission to men they consider undesirable.

The men in the lodging houses are usually referred to as homeless and transient men. While some stay only a short time, many are relatively permanent guests and have legal settlement in the cities where they live. These are predominately an older group. They might well be called "lodging house men" rather than homeless men.

Except for local building regulations there is little legal control of commercial rooming and lodging houses. In 1939 the New York legislature passed the Pack Multiple Dwelling Rooming House Law providing regulations covering fire protection, light, ventilation, sanitation, and occupancy of tenements or multiple dwellings used as rooming houses.

Private Agency Provisions

There have long been special efforts on the part of private agencies to provide good housing for selected groups. In the case of working girls and young women the original emphasis was on providing a safe home, usually under religious auspices, to protect girls from the exploitation and moral dangers found in some rooming houses. There is a tendency today to re-evaluate these objectives and to modify the services in terms of the girls' budgets and the possibility of additional opportunities for social living not to be found in furnished rooms. It is usual for these homes to limit residence to girls earning less than a set maximum salary. The rates charged vary but are keyed to the residents' moderate incomes. While many believe these homes should be self-supporting, experience seems to show that this is possible only in houses accommodating 50 or more girls. There seems to be an in-

creasing demand for similar homes for older working women.

Nearly all cities have at least one girls' residence and many have more. New York is reported to have over 50, Chicago 28, Boston 16, Columbus (Ohio) 11, and San Francisco 7, to mention only a few. Many of them are under local auspices but a large number are operated as local branches of national organizations. The oldest and most important of these is the Young Women's Christian Association with 360 residences in 283 communities. A recent study of 300 of these residences showed a total capacity of 15,270 with accommodations given to over 225,000 individuals within a year. Of 191 residences which answered a question on the subject, 169 reported that they give their guests kitchenette privileges. A number provide apartments. Another national organization whose locals provide residence accommodations is the Girls' Friendly Society of the United States of America, which once had 22 residences but now has only 8. The Society also operates 20 "holiday houses" which provide inexpensive vacation facilities for working girls. The International Order of the King's Daughters and Sons maintains 6 homes for working girls. The Salvation Army operates 11 "Evangeline residences," with a total capacity of 1,065, which provided 344,247 nights' lodgings during 1939. The newest of these residences (in Kansas City) provides a private bath with each room. The Volunteers of America have club homes for girls in 11 cities. They provided 129,385 nights' care and 385,817 meals in 1939. The *Official Catholic Directory* lists 125 homes for women, guest houses, and residences for Catholic students. Ninety-six of them, ranging in size from accommodations for 6 to 320, report a combined capacity of 6,127. Twelve are under lay management but the rest are conducted by religious orders, 23 by the Sisters of Mercy. The Woman's Home Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church (one of several agencies consolidating in 1940 to form the Board of Missions and Church Extension of the Methodist Church) operates homes called "Esther Halls" in a number of cities. The Eleanor Association in Chicago operates a group of residences in that city.

The Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA) is the dominant agency providing residences for men. In 1939 its 638 local Associations had accommodations for over 60,000 men, with night occupancy totaling over 18,500,000. While intended primarily as club residences for their own membership, 20.6 per cent of all accommodations in 1939 were for transients. In most cities there is a general community YMCA with housing as one of its activities. In New York, Chicago, and San Francisco there are YMCA hotels operated primarily as residences. The colored Associations provided over 607,000 nights' care in 1939. The railroad YMCA's supplied 1,882,000 nights' lodgings in 1939. These branches are located at railroad terminals, often on railroad property, and serve the train crews "laying over" between runs. Student Associations provided 130,000 lodgings. Among the several types of institutions operated by the Salvation Army are 64 hotels with a combined capacity of 6,318 where men pay for their beds and meals.

A group of agencies, including several YMCA's, work with seamen in both ocean and lake ports. Twenty-nine seamen's agencies which provide housing have a total capacity of about 4,200. Over half of this bed capacity (2,231) is in New York City. These agencies serve as the shore home and permanent address of many seamen. They provide baggage checking, banking, and mail service. Indicative of the increased housing standards on both ship and shore, and perhaps reflecting better personnel standards for seamen, is the fact that the Seamen's Church Institute of New York, which was in 1913 the first agency to provide single rooms for seamen, has found it necessary to increase the size of its rooms by making two rooms out of what had formerly been three rooms.

Housing for Unattached Persons

There have been some private ventures on a non-profit or limited-dividend basis such as the Mills Hotels built in New York in 1897, the Dawes Hotel in Chicago, and the Bridge Johnson Hotel in Brooklyn. Within the past year the Dawes Hotel has been leased to the Chicago Christian Industrial League at a nominal rental. The Mills Hotel nearest the Bowery and used by the New York City Department of Welfare to house physically incapacitated men has been sold to a private corporation.

Supplementing their own housing some organizations, especially the YWCA, operate room registries. In some larger cities there are other room registry services, some of them under Catholic and some under Jewish auspices. These registries maintain lists of approved rooms to which to refer people, especially girls and women. They also try to improve rooming house conditions.

Public Housing and the Unattached

The Federal Housing Authority will not permit unattached persons to lease apartments in the projects they finance. *See* HOUSING AND CITY PLANNING. Tenants are not allowed to keep roomers and two or more unrelated persons cannot rent apartments as family units. Both Ford[1] and the Committee on Housing of the Community Service Society of New York City, *infra cit.*, point out the need for the erection of public housing for those who live alone. Lansing[2] recommends that 5 per cent of all apartments in housing projects (10 per cent in projects for Negroes) should be designed for single persons.

The Fort Greene Houses to be built by the New York City Housing Authority, with funds provided by the New York State Housing Authority, will provide 50 apartments out of a total of 3,528 for unattached persons. Each of these will contain 150 square feet of floor space, not including the kitchenette and private toilet which will be provided in each. Common bathing facilities will probably be installed for groups of these apartments. Occupancy will probably be limited to older people. This is the first attempt to include unattached persons in public housing in the United States. It is possible only because no federal funds are being used.

Relief Aspects of Housing for the Unattached

Traditionally, unattached men needing relief have been given mass shelter care. Women also have been cared for in shelters but they have more usually been given commodity or cash relief. With the onset of the depression there was a mushroom growth of shelters for men, some housing thousands. Social workers and others pointed out the human deterioration that resulted from such mass care. The Federal Transient Program, beginning in 1933, brought real improvement in the standards of care for at least the moving homeless group. *See* MIGRANTS, TRANSIENTS, AND TRAVELERS. Emphasis was put on the integration of shelter, work, recreation, education, and personal service for homogeneous groups of men in small shelters and camps. Local men shared in some of this improvement. Much of it was lost, however, when the Federal Transient Program was discontinued late in 1935. Shelter care decreased both qualitatively and quantitatively after that time. The United States Children's Bureau reports that in 20 cities lodgings were 64 per cent lower in 1936 than in 1932, the year before the transient program was developed. By 1938 lodgings had increased 14 per cent over 1936.

During the depression there has been an increase in the proportion of shelter care given in public institutions. Local and state public departments acquired private shelters or equipped shelters of their own. In 1929 the Children's Bureau found that only 17 per cent of the lodgings granted in 67 com-

[1] *See* Ford, "Housing Projects for Single Men and Women," *infra cit.*

[2] *See* Lansing, *Studies of Community Planning in Terms of the Span of Life* (*infra cit.*).

munities were in public institutions. As of January, 1940, according to a new trend series begun by the Bureau in that month which shows the average daily number of meals and lodgings provided transient and homeless persons, 35 communities reported that 42.9 per cent of the care which they gave was in public institutions. Much of the care provided in private institutions was, of course, at public expense.

The extensive camp development of the Federal Transient Program has largely disappeared. The Works Progress Administration (WPA) took over some of the transient camps but gradually closed them or converted them into labor camps in connection with projects remote from the workers' homes. There are other public camps for men on relief under state or local auspices. Hartford (Conn.), New York City, Cincinnati, and Seattle each have camps of this type. The California State Relief Administration operates 31 camps or "resident projects." Fifteen of these are located near rural WPA projects where the men in the camps are employed, and the others operate their own work programs. For a time, camp care was all that was offered single men in California but since February, 1939, a choice has been allowed, with certain exceptions, between camp care and relief. *See* WORK RELIEF.

Perhaps the most significant development in public relief for unattached men has been their acceptance into the regular relief load of most communities. This has permitted them to live in places of their own choosing. In a number of cities this is the only type of relief now provided. Unattached persons, including both men and women, bulk large in case load figures. Reports to the Social Security Board from 19 cities show that they formed from 22.6 per cent to 62.7 per cent of the case loads in March, 1939, with the median at 36.5 per cent. The relief granted ranged from $9.10 to $28.00 per month among the states. Unattached persons have also been given WPA assignments in many states. A considerable number of them still find shelter in almshouses. *See* HOMES AND ALMSHOUSES.

Despite the growth in public relief housing for unattached persons, private agencies still house many men. Some of them operate industrial shelters where the men are employed in collecting used furniture, clothing, and papers and in repairing furniture and baling papers. Usable material is sold in stores and the rest is disposed of as salvage. The men usually get bed, board, and small weekly cash payments in exchange for their labor. *See* VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION.

The Salvation Army maintains 94 social service stations or industrial shelters with a capacity of 4,906, and 82 other shelters with a capacity of 2,975. During 1939 these facilities gave 587,374 free nights' care and 1,080,204 free meals, and provided 1,494,822 nights' care and 5,216,091 meals in return for work. The Volunteers of America operate industrial homes in 40 cities and other shelters in 8 cities. These provided 195,490 lodgings and 558,220 meals in 1939. There are local institutions of the same general type in many cities. The *Official Catholic Directory* for 1939 lists 11 agencies for men and boys. There are a number of small Jewish shelters for Jewish transients. The Association for the Improvement of the Poor in Pittsburgh maintains two large industrial institutions. The Salvation Army, Volunteers of America, and several local agencies maintain shelters for women.

There are many local missions which provide meals and lodging to the unattached. From the standpoint of the mission superintendent the mission's real purpose is religious and its real work is preaching the gospel and rescuing men. For this reason missions usually require attendance at religious meetings of all those whom they serve. Their accommodations include hotels, industrial homes, and temporary shelters with standards that vary from good to poor. Some are well equipped while others let men sleep on the floor. Information re-

cently secured from 78 cities of various sizes in all parts of the country show at least 79 missions in 53 cities while 25 cities report no missions that house men. Thirty-two of the missions report bed capacities totaling 6,830. Twelve are in a group accommodating from 100 to 199 each, 11 have over 200 beds, and 8 less than 100. The largest, the Chicago Christian Industrial League, reported 1,535 beds. Fourteen missions with a capacity of 4,817 reported 690,162 nights' care. Some of these allowed some men to sleep on the floor in addition to those who slept in beds.

Believing that Christians should be directly helpful to others, the leaders of the Catholic Worker movement have encouraged the establishment of "houses of hospitality" (now numbering 42) where both men and women are housed and where many are fed. Only the Pittsburgh house is large. Eight farms are also maintained. The houses of hospitality emphasize the personal approach to helping others without any of the formalism, records, and case counting which social agencies have found necessary.

Other Services

Recreational facilities, employment services, and personal counseling are provided by many housing agencies. The Volunteers of America in Los Angeles have a "men's service room" which provides shaving, bathing, and laundry facilities, sewing supplies, and writing material. Mail is received for the men and telephone service provided. The Holy Name Mission in New York City has given up its dormitories and now conducts a daytime shelter where men can read, play games, or just sit around. Movies and boxing bouts are regular attractions. Religious services are conducted for Catholics, and priests are available for petsonal counsel to any of the men. There are five Norwegian Seamen's Churches in the United States which provide religious services, recreation rooms, mail services, and banking facilities to Norwegian seamen. Until Norway was overrun in 1940 these agencies were supported by the home church. They are now dependent on the support they can get in America.

Two club groups for older women have recently been established in New York City. There are a few case working agencies and departments which serve men exclusively, for example, the Bureau for Men and Boys of the Community Service Society and the Men's Department of the Jewish Social Service Association, both of New York City, and the St. Louis Bureau for Men.

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IMMIGRANTS.[1] The United States has been and still is the country of greatest immigration. All Americans, with the possible exception of the Indians, are immigrants or the descendants of immigrants. The 1930 census gave the number of foreign born in our population as 14,204,149. With their American-born children (approximately 26,000,000) they constituted one-third of the total population.

The tides of immigration have risen and receded in response to political and economic pressures in Europe, agricultural and industrial development in the United States, wars, depressions, and finally our restrictive immigration laws. From 1820 to 1854 the volume of annual immigration rose from approximately 5,000 to over 400,000 annually.[2] English, Scots, Dutch, Irish, Danes, Germans, Swedes, and Norwegians came in increasing numbers from religious persecutions in England, famine in Ireland, political revolution in Germany, and economic distress in Europe to take up free land in the developing West, to work in the mines, and to build railroads, industries, and cities in the New World of opportunity. The tide receded during the Civil War but turned again as the states, railroads, industries, and even the federal government actively stimulated immigration.

Previous to 1880 the flow was from northern Europe. Thereafter came Russians, Italians, Poles, Lithuanians, Slovaks, Greeks, Ukrainians, Hungarians, Bohemians, and Jews from southern and eastern Europe who arrived at the rate of 1,000,000 a year just prior to the World War of 1914–1918.

Immigration Controls, 1917–1940

Up to 1917, immigration was free and unrestricted, subject only to the interplay of political and economic forces in Europe and the United States. The Act of February 5, 1917, brought immigration under the first measure of control, established a head tax and a literacy test, excluded certain classes of undesirable immigrants, and outlawed contract labor.

The World War of 1914–1918, however, through the interruption of communications, provided a more effective brake on immigration to the Western Hemisphere. During this breathing spell American voters thought more and more of restriction and of the wisdom of setting up barriers against the anticipated hordes of immigrants dispossessed by the war who might compete with native labor for employment. These fears were shared even by the foreign born already here. The years of depression immediately following the war crystallized the demand for some form of quota control of immigration.

The principle of quota control was first embodied in the Quota Act of May 19, 1921, was later refined in the Immigration Act of 1924, and was made finally effective in 1929. The Quota Act provided that the annual quota of any nationality "shall be a number which bears the same ratio to 150,000 as the number of inhabitants in continental United States in 1920 having that national origin bears to the number of inhabitants in 1920, but the minimum quota of any nationality shall be 100." Certain non-quota classes were provided for: the na-

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

[2] Throughout this article all annual figures are for twelve-month periods ending June 30 of the years named.

tionals of Canada, Newfoundland, Mexico, and the countries of Latin and South America; visitors and governmental officials; ministers, professors, and students; residents returning from a trip abroad; and the wives, husbands, and children of American citizens.

With the total of quota immigrants admissible from all countries outside the Western Hemisphere reduced in final computation to 153,774 annually, immigration changed in character, sources, and volume. The quotas of most countries were annually exhausted between 1924 and 1929, long waiting lists of intending immigrants were registered at the United State consulates abroad, and wives and children coming to join husbands and fathers who had preceded them accounted for larger proportions of the annual arrivals. The peak year of immigration after the quota law went into effect was 1926 when 336,295 immigrants were admitted from all countries for permanent residence in the United States.

The slowing up of mass immigration from Europe stimulated an increase in immigrants from contiguous territory. Canadians came to the industrial East and Mexicans to the beet fields of the South and West and the industrial cities of the Mississippi Valley. Concurrently Italy, which had previously contributed heavily to immigration to the United States, restricted its emigration to the Western Hemisphere and stimulated the flow in the opposite direction to its colonies in Africa.

Hospitality to aliens has always been liberal in times of prosperity and limited in periods of depression. The drastic economic adjustments precipitated by the crisis of 1929 immediately resulted in demands for further restriction. President Hoover in 1930 issued an executive order calling to the attention of the consuls the provision of the immigration law excluding those immigrants likely to become public charges. By administrative action immigration was thus further reduced to between 10 and 25 per cent of those admissible under the quota law, particularly from countries of emigration such as Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Germany, and Austria. Immigrants from other quota countries such as the United Kingdom and the Scandinavian countries were dissuaded from coming to the United States by the reports of widespread unemployment and public relief.

Mexico even encouraged her nationals to return from the United States to be resettled in agriculture in their own country. During the period from 1931 to 1936 those leaving the United States substantially exceeded those entering. In 1932, total admissions were 174,871 of which 35,576 were immigrants for permanent residence and 139,295 non-immigrants. In the same year, 287,657 persons departed: 103,295 emigrants for permanent residence abroad and 184,362 non-emigrants. The net loss in immigration was 112,786. Roughly, three emigrants left the country for one immigrant who entered. In 1937 there was net immigration of all classes of 7,302; in 1938, 30,083; in 1939, 66,922; and in 1940, 42,624.

The number of aliens in the United States was estimated in September, 1940, by the Alien Registration Division of the Immigration and Naturalization Service of the Department of Justice at 3,595,338, compared with 6,284,613 in 1930. This substantial reduction of aliens within the country in the past decade may be accounted for by departures from the country as a result of the depression, increased naturalizations stimulated by the growing requirement of citizenship as a qualification for public and private employment, deaths, deportations, and other causes.

Although the depression turned the tides of immigration from our shores, the National Socialist revolution in Germany in 1933 created a counter movement similar to those resulting from the political persecutions of earlier decades. The pressure of this movement from Germany revived discussion of the former concept of the United States as a haven for exiles from political

and racial persecutions. As a result of administrative action, annual quota immigration from Germany and Austria increased from 1,445 in 1933 to a peak of 33,515 in 1939. Interruptions in travel accommodations caused by the European war reduced the total in 1940 to 21,520.

Social Services to Immigrants

Emphasis in social services to immigrants was originally on protection from exploitation at the time of arrival and induction into first employment. The immigrant unable to speak English and unfamiliar with the laws, customs, and institutions of the new land was and often still is the ready prey of unscrupulous members of his own race who preceded him and were ever ready to profit by his bewilderment on arrival. As early as 1794 an Emigration Society was established in Philadelphia "for the information and assistance of persons emigrating from foreign countries." The New York Legal Aid Society was originally an organization devoted to the protection of German immigrants. The Immigrants' Protective League of Chicago, still functioning in the field of specialized services to the foreign born, reflects this early emphasis in its title.

The procedures of admission, exclusion, deportation, repatriation, registration, and naturalization have provided the focal points for exploitation and protection. These are the legal steps associated with the process of assimilation to the native born. Following the pattern of family migration the husband and father migrates first, secures employment, establishes a home, and then sends for his family. In this process of reunion the immigrant and his family are beset by legal and procedural difficulties that have increased over the years as immigration laws have become more restrictive and attitudes toward aliens less hospitable. *See* INTERNATIONAL SOCIAL WORK.

As aliens came in increasing numbers before the World War of 1914–1918, the emphasis in service shifted to Americanization. The war created fears of alien resistance and opposition within the country and resulted in corresponding zeal to force the Americanization process. This popular trend found resistance among those in close touch with the foreign born who realized the futility, even the unwisdom, of giving legal expression through citizenship too quickly to a change in status which is basically cultural and comes only slowly as the result of understanding and acceptance of the American way of life, its meaning and philosophy.

Assistance in naturalization has consequently developed into services of information concerning naturalization laws, court hearings, and first and second applications for citizenship and of education in English and civics in preparation for the final examination for citizenship.

Earlier concepts of the way of adjustment of the immigrant to American society suggested by the terms "assimilation" and "melting pot" changed after the World War of 1914–1918 to a realization of the cultural contributions of immigrant groups and an appreciation of the need of continuing the flow of these contributions into the stream of American life. Social effort in Americanization became then a dual undertaking: the education of the adult foreign born in the language, customs, and traditions of America, and the interpretation of the foreign born to the American community as a step toward the greater integration of all racial groups.

The children of the foreign born, aware of the differences between the customs and habits of their parents in the home and those which they observe in the homes of their American schoolmates, have been prone to criticize and deplore the Old World customs and the way of life which their parents brought with them from the old country. They have resisted parental authority which has tended to become more severe as the parents felt less secure and more conscious of their foreignness.

To resolve such conflicts social agencies have endeavored, through assisting parents to participate in community projects, to re-

establish parental dignity and to give them the satisfactions which flow from public recognition that they are members of the community in which they live and have responsibilities as such. In turn the agencies and the schools have stimulated in their American-born children an appreciation of the music, handicrafts, and folk arts of their nationality groups which they have been neglecting in their preoccupation with the more superficial aspects of American life. The University of Pittsburgh has made a substantial contribution in this direction in creating classrooms with the authentic architecture and furnishings of the different nationality groups, planned and executed by their own representatives.

Refugees from German Oppression

When National Socialism came into power in Germany in 1933, immigration from Germany as from other quota countries was restricted administratively by the Hoover executive order of 1930 which rigidly applied the clause in the immigration law that excludes those likely to become a public charge. The Nuremberg racial laws and the political persecutions of National Socialism in Germany forced approximately 150,000 German nationals—Jews and Christians, members of political parties, and those who could not in conscience accept National Socialism—to emigrate between 1933 and 1938. The great majority of these found haven in the contiguous countries of Western Europe and in Palestine.

These refugees came from all walks of life in Germany and included educators, business men, doctors, lawyers, leaders of political parties, and persons of financial competence. The percentage of Jews has been estimated between 60 per cent to 80 per cent but in the past two years, as the pressures within Germany have been extended to other religious groups, the proportion of Christians has increased.

Because of administrative restrictions, immigration into the United States from Germany between 1933 and 1938 consisted primarily of non-quota immigrants; professors, students, wives and children of American citizens, and preference quota immigrants; parents of citizens, and wives and children of legally admitted aliens. In the annual reports of the Commissioner of Immigration these are included with other classes of non-quota immigrants such as resident aliens returning from brief visits abroad and consequently cannot be specifically identified as to numbers.

As a result of the German Anschluss with Austria in March, 1938, President Roosevelt convoked the Evian Conference of 32 governments in July, 1938, to consider the problem of refugees from Germany and Austria. Simultaneously he made the full quota available to refugees from these countries. The Department of State thereafter combined the quotas of Germany (25,957) and Austria (1,413) to construct the present German quota of 27,370. The following figures of quota immigrants from Germany from 1932 through 1940 reflect for the first seven years the increasing pressure on the administrative control of immigration from Germany and for 1939 President Roosevelt's action in making the full quota available. In 1939 arrivals exceeded the quota because some came who had received their visas in the previous year.

QUOTA IMMIGRANTS FROM GERMANY

Year	*Number*
1932	2,086
1933	1,324
1934	3,515
1935	5,201
1936	6,346
1937	10,895
1938	17,199
1939	33,515
1940	21,520

Refugee immigration from Germany during the past decade has been so dramatized by the cruelties and persecutions associated with the movement that attention has been distracted from immigration from other countries during the period. Immigration from Canada has been of comparable volume. The spread of the European war

from Poland to Finland, Norway, and Western Europe stimulated increased registrations on quota lists from these countries which will be reflected in the admissions of the next few years.

After the collapse of France in June, 1940, England hastily made plans to evacuate its children to overseas countries to protect them from the dangers of threatened air invasion. The proposal met with instant response and wide public support in the United States. Plans were made to admit British children to the full extent of the annual quota for the United Kingdom, 65,721. The United States Committee for the Care of European Children was organized to find homes for the children. The federal Departments of State and Justice and the Children's Bureau adopted new administrative regulations to facilitate the granting of visitors' visas and admissions. Under 2,000 children destined to close relatives, friends, and sponsoring groups in the United States arrived in July, August, and September, 1940, but plans for the evacuation of larger numbers were suspended by the British government after the sinking of two passenger boats, one with children aboard, because convoy facilities were inadequate to protect the children.

Agencies in the Field

While most social agencies provide service to citizens and alien clients without distinction, the need for agencies giving specialized services to the foreign born persists. These services include international case work; immigrant aid at the time of arrival; assistance in naturalization; technical advice in repatriation, deportation, and changes in immigration status; assistance in the immigration of other members of the family; travelers' aid; adult education; classes in English and citizenship training; guidance to second generation children; group work; fostering the folk arts and handicrafts; furnishing interpretive material about America to the foreign language press and, vice versa, matetial about the foreign born to the English language press; and other efforts aimed at the better integration of the foreign born in community life.

National agencies functioning in this field are the Common Council for American Unity (formerly the Foreign Language Information Service), Hebrew Sheltering and Immigrant Aid Society, Immigrants' Protective League of Chicago, International Migration Service, Italian Welfare League, National Board of the Young Women's Christian Associations, National Catholic Welfare Conference, National Council of Jewish Women, National Council on Naturalization and Citizenship, National Institute of Immigrant Welfare, and the National League for American Citizenship. Other national agencies such as the American National Red Cross, the National Travelers Aid Association, and the National Federation of Settlements include special services to the foreign born in their programs.

Local specialized services exist in many but by no means all of the communities in which the foreign born make up a substantial part of the population. International Institutes, originally started as branches of the Young Women's Christian Association and in some localities still retaining that connection, provide a variety of services to men, women, and children in approximately forty communities.

The most recent specialized service which these agencies have rendered is assistance to aliens in registration. By federal law all aliens were required to register and be fingerprinted between August 27 and December 27, 1940. This registration provides the first complete census of aliens within the country and at the same time identifies those whose immigration status is in any sense irregular. The law provides but limited discretion to the Immigration and Naturalization Service of the Department of Justice in regularizing immigration status and it was anticipated in late 1940 that some aliens would face possible deportation and separation from their families after the registration had been completed. Others

under certain circumstances expected to be able to leave the country temporarily to apply for immigration visas at a United States consulate in a neighboring country.

The Immigration and Naturalization Service of the Department of Justice is the important federal agency dealing with the immigrant alien. In recent years it has skillfully administered its function of enforcement of the immigration and naturalization laws with sympathetic understanding of the social problems of the alien. Consideration has been given to the reunion of families separated by the rigid provisions of the immigration laws and to a more social administration of the naturalization laws. Every effort has been made to accomplish the registration of aliens without attaching stigma to the registrants.

State governmental agencies providing special services to the foreign born include the Division of Immigration and Americanization of the Massachusetts Department of Education, the Department of Service for Foreign Born People of the Delaware Department of Public Instruction, and the Division of Immigration and Housing of the California Department of Industrial Relations.

These public and private agencies have not found it necessary to modify their programs substantially to meet the needs of the new refugee immigrants who have presented basically the same problems as their predecessors. The new immigrants are better educated, more skillful and resourceful, and more conscious of the political freedom and economic opportunities which America offers, particularly because of the deprivations and injustices which they have so recently suffered.

However, new agencies to serve refugees have been organized in recent years partly because racial, religious, and professional groups have responded readily to the needs of their fellows but also to meet the greatly expanded needs for service. The National Refugee Service, organized in 1934 as the National Coordinating Committee for Aid to Refugees and Emigrants Coming from Germany, is a coordinating agency of some twenty-five old and new agencies serving refugees. Its work of relief, case service, group activities, language instruction, and the resettlement of refugees throughout the country has expanded substantially as the numbers of clients have increased. By 1939 over 400 local communities had been organized on the pattern of the national organization. The Committee for Catholic Refugees from Germany, the American Committee for Christian Refugees, and the American Friends Service Committee have rendered similar services, particularly to non-Jewish refugees.

Current Aspects

In the beginning years of refugee immigration from Germany (1933–1937) opposition was not vocal because emigration exceeded immigration during the period. As the movement gained momentum, charges that the immigration laws were being circumvented by the libetal admission of visitors were repeatedly made, anti-alien and anti-Semitic organizations appeared, drastic deportation measures were proposed in Congress, and aliens were excluded from Work Projects Administration and other kinds of federal employment. Some states passed alien registration bills destined later to be declared unconstitutional by the courts.

This cumulative opposition inevitably resulted in federal actions. The Immigration and Naturalization Service was transferred from the Department of Labor to the Department of Justice. The Federal Alien Registration Bill was passed. Visitors' visas were issued in very limited numbers and regulations on the Canadian and Mexican borders were tightened. The President's executive order of June 5, 1940, denied visas to aliens whose entry would be contrary to the public safety or who could not establish a legitimate purpose or reasonable need for their proposed entry. This was interpreted to mean that the consuls were to give sole attention to the interests of the

United States rather than the interests of the immigrant. Fears of "fifth columnists" among immigrants tended to assume the proportions of hysteria. In the ensuing months of 1940 the number of immigration visas issued was severely reduced.

The United States is probably facing another breathing spell in immigration similar to that which existed during the World War of 1914–1918. This will provide an opportunity to review immigration policies and to regularize the status of aliens disclosed by registration to have failed for one reason or another to comply with immigration regulations.

New immigration legislation, possibly providing for selection on a qualitative rather than a quantitative basis, may result. It may well be that the United States will soon lose its tole as the country of greatest immigration.

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INDIANS.[1] The Indian population of the United States, as reported by the Secretary of the Interior, was 361,816 on January 1, 1940. In addition the United States gov-

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

ernment has under its jurisdiction the education and medical relief of approximately 30,000 natives of Alaska. Federal reports indicate that the Indian population is increasing, probably a little faster than the population at large. Ten states were accredited with an Indian population of 10,000 or more on January 1, 1939, as follows:

Oklahoma	97,394
Arizona	49,898
New Mexico	36,489
South Dakota	28,578
California	23,131
Montana	16,583
Minnesota	16,136
Washington	13,913
Wisconsin	13,624
North Dakota	11,401

There are approximately 200 Indian tribes speaking more than 55 distinct languages. The approximate population figures for the three largest ttibes are: Navajo, 45,000; Sioux, 35,857; and Chippewa, 26,457.

The Indian Reorganization Act

Federal policy up until a few years ago provided for separate land holdings for individual Indians. Local self-government was set up only by administrative action of the Indian Service. Indian culture was expected to disappear in the American "melting pot." The natural resources of the Indians were considered a part of the national wealth to be exploited as rapidly as possible.

The period beginning with 1887, the year of the passage of the General Allotment Act, was in the midst of the westward rush of land-hungry settlers. While allotment broke up the reservations into individual holdings, a pattern not understood by Indians, and resulted in much loss and chaos to them, it also served to hold something for Indians that they might otherwise have lost in the face of the greed for land of that time. Over this period Indian land holdings diminished from 135,000,000 acres in 1887 to 52,000,000 acres in 1933.

Many reforms in the Indian Service were carried out by administrative action in the years following 1929. The campaign for reform legislation of the current administration eventuated in the Indian Reorganization Act of 1934. Further allotment was prohibited by the Act, land alienations were stopped, and a policy of land acquisition for homeless Indians was established and agricultural credit set up. Indian tribes could accept or reject the basic Act itself, and tribes accepting it could organize for limited political and industrial self-government under federal guardianship. The practice of conservation on range and timber lands was made mandatory.

Oklahoma Indians and Alaska natives were exempted from most of the provisions of the original Act. Later legislation secured comparable benefits with some valuable modifications, such as the right to organize for economic enterprise on a basis of common interest rather than tribal membership, and the provision for loans directly to individuals in certain cases.

Two hundred and sixty-nine tribes or bands have voted as to whether the Act should apply to them. It has been accepted by 192 and rejected by 77. Of those accepting the Act by January 1, 1940, 80 had organized with constitutions and by-laws and 57 had formed chartered corporations.

The Act authorizes a yearly appropriation of $2,000,000 for land purchases. Land purchased or options accepted by the Department of the Interior totaled 366,279 acres as of June 1, 1940. These acquisitions pertain to 90 reservations in 19 states. In addition, from the total appropriations of $4,800,000 for credit to Indians, advances have been made to 62 corporations, 39 credit associations, 2 cooperatives, and 274 individuals in the amount of $3,177,623.

Except for the above, however, achievements under the Act remain largely in the promissory stage. On the other hand, on a few small reservations with a closely knit and homogeneous population, and possibly on one or two large ones, it seems that the

power granted Indian tribes for self-government and for the management of their affairs has given new vision and initiative to the group. But it must be recorded that in the larger reservations, having widely separated population groups and diverse interests, similar advances have not been made. Provisions of the Oklahoma Act allowing the organization of community groups for economic enterprise on the basis of common interest rather than tribal membership may prove to offer a solution of the large reservation problem.

Conservation of Resources and Culture

The existence of a crisis in the wastage of Indian natural resources has been recognized by the federal government since 1933 and extensive operations have been set in motion to save the Indian range, nearly four-fifths of the total Indian area. Throughout practically all the Indian reservations, the Indian Division of the Civilian Conservation Corps has worked for the past seven years upon such projects as water development, soil-saving structures, and truck and fire trails into timbered areas. Moreover, the Soil Conservation Service of the United States Department of Agriculture has furnished, in addition to large assistance in the matter of soil structures, a research and planning activity long overdue in Indian service and as yet not finished. Studies of soils, water, and economic and agronomic problems have been carried out in various parts of the Indian country. The government's Indian work on an increasing number of reservations has tended until recently to become a combination, under the leadership of the Indian superintendents, of activities of the Office of Indian Affairs in the United States Department of the Interior and the Soil Conservation Service. By a recent order of the President the soil conservation work on Indian reservations has been transferred from the Department of Agriculture to the Department of the Interior.

The Indian Arts and Crafts Board, created within the Department of the Interior by statute in August, 1935, concerns itself with the protection and revival of ancient Indian crafts, their adaptation to modern markets, and the discovery of merchandising outlets for them. The exhibit arranged by the Arts and Crafts Board at the San Francisco Fair in 1939 was one of the outstanding features of the Exposition. A similar exhibit is planned for the Museum of Modern Art in New York in 1940 and other cities at later dates.

School and Health Program

In recent years Indian schooling has largely been shifted from the boarding school to the day school basis. The remaining boarding schools serve the older age groups and specialize in vocational training. Emphasis is now placed on community schools that offer not only the elements of a formal education to Indian children but also make the problems of daily life a part of the school program. The schools also attempt to render service to all age groups in the community.

Advanced education is made possible to many Indian young people by federal appropriations from the Office of Indian Affairs. Five hundred and ninety-four young people, graduates of high schools, were assisted during the school year ended in June, 1939, to further education and training in universities and colleges, business colleges, schools of nursing, trade schools, and beauty culture schools.

The development of Indian medical services has been toward increased hospitalization in hospitals more nearly standard in their qualifications, toward substitution of public health nursing for bedside nursing in the homes, and toward the substitution of clinics for occasional visits to homes in response to calls. Concentrated effort, which still falls far short of desirable standards, has been directed against tuberculosis and trachoma. Adequately controlled experimentation has been carried on, with the aid of the Phipps Institute of Philadelphia, in

tuberculosis vaccination and pneumothorax work. *See* TUBERCULOSIS.

Experiments in the use of sulfanilamide in the treatment of trachoma, inaugurated in 1937 on the Rosebud Sioux Reservation of South Dakota, have shown marvelous results. With proper control and improved hygienic circumstances this treatment promises the eventual eradication of trachoma from the Indian population. *See* BLINDNESS AND CONSERVATION OF SIGHT.

In spite of tremendous improvements the Indians still face serious problems. They are generally very poor. Over one-fifth of their income is unearned income from sources such as leases, rentals, and royalties. More than one-fifth is from relief sources. Less than one-third of their total income is obtained through their own individual operations. In other words, Indian income is in general still very insecure. The major Indian problem for many years must be to increase the Indians' income and to improve their living conditions through the provision of opportunities for further economic development by their own labor.

Administration of Indian Affairs

The Office of Indian Affairs in the United States Department of the Interior (commonly called the Indian Service) is charged with federal responsibility for promoting the welfare of the Indian population. The involvements of the Indian Service are highly complex, due to the complicated character of the multitude of federal statutes regulating Indian affairs and the interdepartmental relations which encircle it. Progtam-making, even policy-making, and, above all, detailed administration from Washington across hundreds of remote and diversified areas are so difficult as to be nearly impracticable.

Attempts are being made without marked success to divest the Office of Indian Affairs of much of its detailed administrative control over widely scattered field agencies. No one pattern of decentralization is being followed. In Kansas and Oklahoma all regional supervisors of the two states now work under the direction of one federal advisory officer; in the Great Lakes section a regional coordinator attends to state relations and to the promotional tasks of the Indian Service; in New Mexico all of the 19 Pueblo tribes have been united in a consolidated jurisdiction; and in Arizona the six previous jurisdictions of the Navajo Reservation have been consolidated into one. In these areas very broad authorities are vested in the local superintendents.

Indians are increasingly taking positions in the Indian Service. More than half of the regular employes are persons of Indian blood. Although most of them hold the positions of lesser responsibility and lower pay, there are a number in teaching and administrative jobs.

The Johnson-O'Malley Act of April 16, 1934, with subsequent amendments, established the machinery and authority for cooperation between the federal government and the states and their subdivisions in the health, education, relief, welfare, and agricultural services for Indians. The amendments also empowered cooperation with private agencies. Contracts made by the Secretary of the Interior under these provisions include those with the states of California and Washington for the education of Indian children; with Minnesota for education and some health work; and with the Michigan Children's Aid Society, a private agency, for the care of dependent Indian children in that state.

The intensity of the need for qualified personnel will be apparent. Recruitment and in-service training are the two important phases of the Indian Service personnel problem. Recruitment, except where Indians are employed, must take place through the civil service. Some in-service training is being offered teachers and other employes in summer institutes. Conference-seminars to consider area or general problems are held by Indian Service staffs along with tribal leaders.

A federal field training school centering

at Albuquerque, N. M., supported by a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation, is conducted under the administrative direction of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs although it does not serve the Indian Service exclusively. Those admitted to the training school are chosen on the basis of academic achievement and the added evidence that they can succeed in administrative careers in the Indian Service. Training is primarily achieved through working at responsible tasks.

Although the Indian problem lies largely in the field of social work, it had been little affected by modern progressive thought in this field until 1929. In that year there was published the report of a survey of Indian affairs by the Institute for Government Research, entitled *The Problem of Indian Administration* (*infra cit.*). This was followed by the appointment of a Commissioner and Assistant-Commissioner of Indian Affairs under whose direction personnel standards were raised and social work principles introduced. These trends have been largely carried on by the present administration since 1933. The improvements are a testimony to what may be accomplished through the application of a program of organized social work to human needs.

Social Security and Relief

The number of Indians benefiting from social security assistance has increased encouragingly. The Indian Office reports that in October, 1939, the latest month for which figures are available, 7,063 aged Indians received old age assistance, 4,125 dependent Indian children received aid to dependent children, and 550 Indians with sight impairments received aid to the blind. In some of the states Indian children share extensively in the specific programs of maternal and child health, work for crippled children, and child welfare services sponsored by the United States Children's Bureau and administered by the states. Relatively few Indians are eligible for either retirement benefits or unemployment insurance because of the non-industrial character of their life, but their status as Indians does not affect their eligibility.

Although Indians are citizens by act of Congress, their right to general relief is not usually recognized by the states. Exceptions are found in the state of New York, which provides relief for its Indians, and in some of those states having Indians with a considerable admixture of white blood, such as Michigan, Minnesota, Oklahoma, and Wisconsin. In general, Indians are concentrated in states least able to give assistance.

The Indian Section of the regular annual Interior Department Appropriation Act includes some provision for indigent relief, though not in specific terms. In addition, the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act for the fiscal year 1941 includes specific provision for Indian relief and rehabilitation. A few of the local Indian agencies have social workers in charge of the administration of relief, but much of the burden falls on persons without special training for it, and often with a full schedule in some other line of work.

In the more mixed-blood areas many Indians, as individuals, have been employed under the Work Projects Administration on local projects (not directly under the Indian Service). To some extent this is also true of work under the Civilian Conservation Corps and the Public Works Administration. Some group projects under the Work Projects Administration have been set up, and the Indian Service operates a special branch of the Civilian Conservation Corps with money allocated to it.

The Federal Surplus Commodities Corporation (now the Surplus Marketing Administration) has distributed commodities to Indians throughout the country from its beginning. Frequently this distribution is through its regular channels rather than the Indian Service. Within the past year the Corporation turned over large quantities of food to the Indian Service for distribution to Navajo and Hopi Indians to meet the

need growing out of the drought of the summer, autumn, and winter of 1939–1940.

Private Agencies

Missionary agencies have labored among Indians since the coming of the white man and have done some work in meeting their social needs. The Indian Division of the Young Women's Christian Association carries on work for Indian girls. Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, and Camp Fire Girls have been active in recent years in Indian schools and communities. The Indian Affairs Forum conducts meetings for the discussion of Indian affairs at the time of the National Conference of Social Work, of which it is an associate group. A mission is operated by the National Indian Association in Nevada among the Paiutes and the Shoshones. The General Federation of Women's Clubs and the Daughters of the American Revolution have special Indian welfare committees. For the past few years the Colonial Dames have assisted Indian young women to train as registered nurses for work among their people.

The Indian Rights Association and the American Association on Indian Affairs are the leading organizations particularly concerned with Indians. Their activities include stimulation of public interest in Indian affairs, promotion of suitable legislation, protection against encroachment on constitutional rights, improvement of health conditions, and aid in preserving and fostering native arts and crafts.

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INTERNATIONAL SOCIAL WORK[1] comprises four types of activity: (a) international social case work; (b) international assistance to war sufferers and distressed minorities; (c) international conferences on social work; and (d) international cooperation by governments and private groups in the work of the League of Nations, the Health Organization of the League, the International Labor Organization, and the Intergovernmental Committee in combating disease, assisting refugees, and securing social peace and harmony throughout the world. The wars in China, Spain, Poland, Finland, Norway, western Europe, the British Isles, and the Mediterranean have profoundly affected these activities, interrupting the orderly process of international collaboration for peace and social harmony, extending relief areas on a vast scale, and creating new millions of refugees requiring assistance.

International Social Case Work

International social case work developed from the efforts to assist families uprooted

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

by the World War of 1914–1918. Throughout Europe members of families separated by the war were trying to find relatives and to migrate overseas because of disturbed agricultural and economic conditions in the countries of origin. The consulates of the immigration countries of the western hemisphere were besieged by crowds of emigrants. The immigration countries, fearing to admit hordes of penniless immigrants, were closing their borders by passing increasingly restrictive immigration laws. *See* IMMIGRANTS. The free movement of people westward had ceased during the war and was now controlled by quantitative and selective immigration laws which treated each migrant as an individual with little regard for family ties or individual social needs.

In this situation case service offices were established under the auspices of the World Committee of the Young Women's Christian Association in Paris, Bordeaux, Prague, Marseilles, and Constantinople. These offices corresponded with each other and with social agencies in the receiving countries in the effort to work out the problem of each immigrant family on a case work basis. The techniques of social case work were soon applied to the service as trained case workers of the nationality of the country were placed in the different offices. In 1924 the work was independently organized under the International Migration Service. Headquarters were established at Geneva and branch offices at Paris, New York, Marseilles, Athens, Prague, and Warsaw. In the intervening years associated correspondent offices have been established at Budapest, Rome, Bucharest, Bergen, Zagreb, Stockholm, and Helsingfors. Today 50 countries of the world participate in international social case work by correspondence on behalf of families whose difficulties require simultaneous action in more than one country. Some 10,000 families are served annually. Local social agencies, over 1,000 annually in the United States, participate in the service: hospitals, clinics, public welfare departments, family and children's agencies, American Red Cross chapters, Travelers Aid Societies, prisons, courts, and federal and state departments. These local agencies refer cases to and accept cases from the International Migration Service, the American Red Cross, and certain national agencies such as the National Catholic Welfare Conference and the National Refugee Service.

The family problems presented are associated with or grow out of the experience of migration, often many years later. All members of a family rarely migrate together. The father or husband generally precedes the other members of the family. Families are thus separated for temporary or longer periods of time. Restrictive immigration and naturalization laws and the act of migration itself interrupt the natural rhythm of family life. Civil and social rights and the benefits of social institutions are unavailable for migrant families during the period of alienage until citizenship of the country of immigration is secured by all the members of the family. Deficiencies in civil status thus combine with the handicaps of foreignness and the environmental and personal hazards of family life to present problems for international social case work service.

The International Migration Service devotes itself exclusively to international case work correspondence. Once contact has been established with the clients in two countries through its branches and the competent local agencies, correspondence flows back and forth as treatment of the situation continues. The International Migration Service supplies cultural interpretation in both directions and specialized knowledge of emigration and immigration laws, and facilitates participation in achieving adjustment on the part of the clients and agencies in the countries concerned.

As an outgrowth of its experience in exchanging prisoners during the World War, the International Committee of the Red Cross at Geneva established during the

Spanish War an inquiry and information service for families separated by military operations. Brief messages of inquiry and report concerning the welfare of those affected by the war were transmitted across military lines. This service, which in the United States operates through the Inquiry and Information Service of the American Red Cross, was greatly expanded during the Polish and Finnish wars and is now in operation on a much larger scale in 36 countries as a result of the war in western Europe. Many of the reports present tragic family situations requiring more intensive case work service. These families are referred by the International Committee of the Red Cross to such agencies as the International Migration Service and the "Save the Children" International Union.

International Assistance

International assistance to war sufferers and distressed minority groups began on a large scale during and immediately after the World War of 1914–1918. Vast sums were expended for the relief of distressed populations in Belgium, France, Germany, the Balkans, and the Near East by the American Relief Administration, the American Red Cross, the Near East Relief, and the American Friends Service Committee. Since 1914 the American Jewish Joint Distribution Committee has raised millions of dollars annually for the relief of Jewish communities in eastern Europe. The United Palestine Appeal in the United States has also raised substantial funds annually for the settlement of Jewish refugees in Palestine. *See* JEWISH SOCIAL WORK.

The American Red Cross, in addition to medical supplies, sent over $1,000,000 to China in 1938 and 1939. Other groups have also raised money annually for the relief of the 30,000,000 Chinese refugees constantly moving westward before the Japanese armies.

The war in Spain brought new relief agencies, organized on political and racial lines, into the field. American and English Quakers sent units to Spain to administer over $2,500,000 in cash or commodity relief, including wheat supplied by the Federal Surplus Commodities Corporation through the American Red Cross. The International Commission for the Assistance of Child Refugees in Spain was organized to receive and administer contributions in money and supplies by governments for the relief of children on both sides of the conflict.

The German occupation of Austria, the Sudetenland, Bohemia and Moravia, Poland, Denmark, Norway, the Netherlands, Belgium, and France and the Russian conflict in Finland greatly expanded the numbers of political refugees and war sufferers appealing to American generosity for relief. The United Jewish Appeal in the United States raised in 1939 approximately $16,000,000 for the relief of Jewish refugees and war sufferers and set a quota of $24,000,000 for 1940.

Supplementing the extended operations of the American Red Cross in the war-affected areas, the American Committee for Relief in Czechoslovakia, the Spanish Refugee Relief Campaign, the Commission for Polish Relief, Inc., the Finnish Relief Fund, Inc., the Queen Wilhelmina Fund, Inc., and the Allied Relief Fund, Inc., were organized in rapid succession in 1938, 1939, and 1940. These were the more prominent of 262 different organizations which registered with the Department of State under the Neutrality Act. Of these organizations, 218 sent a total of $4,028,322 to Europe during the period September 6, 1939, through March, 1940. The entry of the German army into the Netherlands and Belgium precipitated a flood of 2,000,000 refugees into France and across the English Channel. The American Red Cross immediately appealed to the country in May, 1940, for $10,000,000 in an initial effort to provide food, clothing, and supplies in this greatest of European refugee movements, later increasing the amount sought

to $20,000,000. In mid-1940 the need for international assistance in Europe assumed catastrophic proportions. Congress appropriated $50,000,000 for European relief but the traditional American response in providing relief on a broad scale was severely restricted by the embargo imposed by the British government. The United States Department of the Treasury also issued stringent regulations concerning the transfer of funds abroad.

National social work agencies, recognizing the need for coordination and elimination of waste in this enormous effort for relief abroad, were disappointed to find that the registration of agencies by the Department of State was for the sole purpose of maintaining American neutrality, and could not be used as a tool for appraising the objectives, integrity, and effectiveness of the war relief organizations or for their endorsement to the contributing public.

International Conferences

The International Conference on Social Work grew from the experiences of the European International Conference on Charity and Welfare (from 1856 onward) and of the National Conference of Social Work in the United States. The First International Conference on Social Work met in Paris in 1928 in connection with other congresses, 2,481 delegates attending from 42 countries, with 279 coming from the United States. The Conference presented a general review of the development of social work in the various countries. The Second Conference was held at Frankfurt-am-Main, Germany, in 1932, 1,200 delegates attending from 34 countries, including 358 from the United States. "Social Work and the Family" was the general theme. The Third Conference took place in London in July, 1936. There were 1,400 members registered from 30 countries, over 275 attending from the United States. The subject was "Social Work and the Community." The National Conference of Social Work serves as correspondent of the International Confetence on Social Work in the United States. The Fourth Conference was to be held in Amsterdam, Netherlands, in 1940, but was canceled because of the war.

Workers in most fields of social work have opportunities to confer with fellow workers in other countries through their respective international organizations which meet in conjunction with the International Conference on Social Work or at other times, generally at intervals of three or four years. The League of Nations *Handbook of International Organisations,* published in 1938, listed some 64 organizations functioning in the field of the humanities. Many report their findings to the technical bodies of the League of Nations, particularly the Health Organization of the League, the Advisory Committee on Social Questions, and the office of the League High Commissioner for Refugees. Some international organizations, such as the International Red Cross, the League of Red Cross Societies, the International Migration Service, and the "Save the Children" International Union, meet not only to compare national experiences and to determine common standards of social care but to act administratively concerning social services which they perform directly in some countries or through national units or members in others.

The first Pan American Child Congress met at Buenos Aires in 1916. Six similar Congresses have been held in various Latin American republics since then. The Eighth Pan American Child Congress was to have been held in Costa Rica in 1939 but was postponed because of the outbreak of war in Europe. The Intetnational American Institute for the Protection of Childhood was established in Montevideo, Uruguay, in June, 1927. The Division of Labor and Social Information of the Pan American Union in Washington, D. C., was established in 1940. These two organizations compile data and serve as centers of information on matters of child welfare for the American republics.

International Social Work

Intergovernmental Collaboration

The League of Nations and the International Labor Organization are the official agencies through which governments and private organizations collaborate to improve public health, combat disease, improve conditions of labor, and advance social programs. Organized in 1919, the League and the International Labor Organization have patiently developed intergovernmental collaboration in many fields of activity in which political considerations are a minor factor.

The Health Organization of the League, formed in 1923, has as its primary purpose assistance to national public health administrations. It endeavors: first, to bring about international uniformity in standards, units of measurements, formulae, terminology, and methods of investigation; second, to advance the world campaign against disease; and third, to provide populations with material conditions of existence consonant with the principles of hygiene. The Epidemiological Intelligence Service and the Singapore Bureau furnish rapid information on the incidence of the principal diseases through broadcasts and radio telegraphic messages to the port health services of the world. The Malaria Commission promotes the consumption of anti-malarial products. Many health surveys have been undertaken in the Far East in rural hygiene, nutrition, housing, and physical fitness. The League of Nations has also conducted extensive anti-epidemic work in China in collaboration with the Chinese government.

The Advisory Committee on Social Questions of the League of Nations was organized in 1937 as a successor to two earlier committees, one on the traffic in women and children and the other on child welfare. This Committee consists of representatives of 25 governments. It has correspondent members representing the international private organizations. The Committee maintains the Child Welfare Information Center at Geneva which collects and distributes material on child welfare. In recent years it has given its attention to problems of the protection of children and young people, illegitimate children, family desertion, the organization of social work in the different countries, and the training of social workers. The temporary Committee of Government Experts on Assistance to Indigent Foreigners met in Geneva in 1933, 1936, and 1938 and proposed to the governments of the world the text of a model convention on the subject and a number of related recommendations.

The Assembly of the League of Nations at its session in September, 1938, voted to constitute a High Commissioner of the League of Nations to deal with refugees previously under the protection of the Nansen International Office and the office of the High Commissioner for Refugees Coming from Germany. The High Commissioner has maintained close relations with governments, the Intergovernmental Committee, and with private organizations in service to refugees. The conventions of October 28, 1933, and February 10, 1938, proposed by the League of Nations have contributed to the clarification of the legal status of refugees.

The International Labor Organization is an association of more than 50 nations formed to advance labor standards on an international scale and to promote world peace. It consists of the International Labor Conference, the Governing Body, and the International Labor Office, which acts as secretariat for the Conference and the Governing Body. The Office conducts the research studies upon which the action of the Governing Body and the Conference is based and is the research center of the world in labor problems. The membership of the International Labor Organization consists of representatives of governments, employers, and workers nominated by their respective bodies in the nations which are members of the Organization. This tripartite representation is distinctive in all committees and activities of the Organization. The United States became a member in 1934 and at the present time has three representa-

tives on the Governing Body. Honorable John G. Winant, a citizen of the United States, now serves as Director.

In its twenty years of existence the International Labor Organization has adopted 69 draft conventions dealing with industrial accident prevention, social insurance, hours of work, minimum wages, health, child labor, protection of women, and the safeguarding of indigenous workers. Up to December, 1939, the member governments had registered 865 ratifications of these conventions. The United States has ratified five. The International Labor Organization has in recent years studied the conditions that create labor problems. Under this broader concept of its work the World Textile Conference was held in Washington, D. C., in 1937 and Permanent Committees on Agriculture and on Public Works have been constituted. The Organization has also made intensive studies of migration and in 1940 set up a Permanent International Committee on Migration for Settlement. This Committee is concerned with problems of population movements, the areas in which migrants may be settled, and the means of financing settlement. In September, 1940, the International Labor Office was completing plans to move to Canada.

Intergovernmental Committee

The Intergovernmental Committee was organized in London in August, 1938, by 32 governments which had met previously in the Evian Conference summoned by President Franklin D. Roosevelt to consider the problem of German refugees. The concern of the League of Nations for refugees was restricted to those who had already left Germany. The Intergovernmental Committee voted that those coming within its concern were persons who must emigrate on account of their political opinions, religious beliefs, or racial origins; and those who had already left Germany for these reasons and had not established themselves permanently elsewhere.

In February, 1939, the Intergovernmental Committee received a report from its Director, Mr. George Rublee, detailing a plan for orderly emigration proposed by the German government. This plan never went into effect because of the outbreak of the war in September, 1939.

Under the auspices of the Intergovernmental Committee and with the collaboration of private groups in England and the President's Advisory Committee on Political Refugees and the Refugee Economic Corporation in the United States, commissions of experts were sent from London to Northern and Southern Rhodesia and from New York to British Guiana, the Dominican Republic, and the Philippines to determine the feasibility of mass settlement in those areas. All reports with the exception of that on Rhodesia were favorable. Projects of mass settlement were thereupon initiated in the Dominican Republic and on the Island of Mindanao in the Philippines. In the meantime emigration proceeded from the areas occupied by Germany through the process of infiltration to countries of immigration.

Sir Herbert Emerson, League High Commissioner for Refugees, became Director of the Intergovernmental Committee in March, 1939, and thus coordinated the efforts of both bodies in a single person. In September, 1939, he estimated that over 400,000 refugees had left Germany since 1933. Of these approximately 250,000 had found permanent homes in the United States, South America, and Palestine. There remained approximately 160,000 refugees in the western European transit countries and Cuba and Shanghai overseas who faced the necessity for re-emigration to countries of permanent residence. As a result of the war in Poland, some 200,000 Polish refugees were driven into the southeastern European countries and into the Baltic countries of northern Europe. Within the former area of Poland the entire population was uprooted by the war and many cross-currents of refugees were set adrift in search of new homes. While solutions of the

refugee problem in central Europe were being sought, other refugees from Spain, Luxemburg, the Netherlands, and Belgium burst across French borders to create a total refugee problem in Europe challenging to the governmental and private resources of the world.

Later, upon the occupation of France, some 10,000,000 war refugees moved southward through France only to turn back again in the trek to the homes they had left, while the earlier refugees from Germany and intellectual and political refugees from western Europe tried desperately to find an outlet overseas through Lisbon in Portugal.

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JEWISH SOCIAL WORK.[1] During the life of the Jewish State in Palestine provision was made for the distressed classes by various measures, including a tithe of all produce every third year. Following the destruction of the State in 70 A.D. and the subsequent dispersal of Jews throughout the world, the synagogues became the chief instrumentality for aiding the Jewish needy. Overseers of the poor were elected, a philanthropic fund gathered by periodical collections, and standards of administration set to ensure minimum relief and to promote self-support. Activities embraced material aid, loans, rearing of orphans, free medical treatment, marriage portions for poor brides, redemption of captives, and free burial. Beginning with the fifteenth century the administration of charity was gradually disassociated from this ecclesiastical control. The French Revolution which accelerated the political and economic emancipation of the Jews, also hastened the disintegration of the old order. Thereafter, the growth in numbers, stability, and well-being of Jewish communities made for a rapid spread of Jewish charitable societies under secular auspices in all countries.

The development of Jewish social work in the United States is directly related to the growth of the Jewish population, which in 1880 numbered only 250,000. In 1881, particularly repressive legislation in Russia started waves of migration from Eastern Europe which brought more than 1,600,000 Jewish immigrants to the United States during the next thirty years. To meet this impact, existing social service agencies were expanded and numerous others created by

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

German Jews already established here, and subsequently by the newcomers themselves. Later, as other needs developed, as standards rose, and as resources permitted, there were modifications of program. During recent years Jewish social work has been profoundly affected directly and indirectly by the depression and by the aggravated plight of Jewry in foreign countries.

Throughout the centuries Jewish social work has been based on the tradition that the group must care for its dependents of all classifications. This point of view was carried over on settlement in this country and was the motivating force in developing in all major communities an extensive system of philanthropy designed to meet almost every need. The economic chaos of the past decade, the consequent huge and continuing burden of dependency, and the inauguration of large-scale governmental assistance and security programs forced a basic change in attitude. The tremendous decline in immigration during the past twenty-five years as compared with the previous period has also been a factor since the Jewish population, once overwhelmingly foreign born, has become dominantly native born in composition. It is now generally accepted that primary responsibility for aid to the distressed must rest with government—local, state, and federal—and that the Jewish philanthropic program has a supplementary function: to fill in gaps temporarily until more adequate public provision is made, to conduct certain institutions in which a Jewish environment is deemed necessary, and to maintain activities which meet special economic, social, and cultural needs of the group. The care of children away from their own homes, and of aged in institutions, is practically all under Jewish auspices, but the larger proportion of other Jewish dependents is aided by public organizations. There is noted a consistent trend to broaden the scope of various types of Jewish agencies and to extend services and make facilities available to wider sections of the community above the dependency level.

Local Community Organization

The extent and character of local Jewish philanthropic service vary widely, being influenced by such factors as the composition of the Jewish community, its economic status, the development of the public program, and above all by the size of the population. There are approximately 5,000,000 Jews in the United States. A significant fact is that 70 per cent of the total live in the 11 largest cities while close to 40 per cent reside in Greater New York alone. In cities of major Jewish settlement the philanthropic activities are comprehensive, with numerous agencies embracing every recognized field of work. In the smaller communities there is usually an undifferentiated agency to provide relief and miscellaneous services.

The first federation of Jewish charities was established in Boston in 1895. Its object was to systematize fund raising by having one effective appeal on behalf of the affiliated societies. All the larger communities are now so organized, although not all agencies are constituents. In varying degrees these federations have become planning and coordinating bodies for the local Jewish philanthropic program as a whole.

More recently there has arisen a new pattern of organization known as the community council, now established in some 50 cities. The community council includes all types of social and fraternal organizations as well as the philanthropic. It is not an administrative body but provides a medium for joint consideration of problems of mutual interest concerning all aspects of Jewish life. It seeks to promote better understanding and unity of action. *See* COUNCILS IN SOCIAL WORK.

Fields of Service

1. Family welfare. The family welfare agency is the hub of Jewish social work in each community. While the great majority of Jewish dependents is now aided by public organizations, relief may be granted by these voluntary agencies to persons not eli-

gible to such assistance or for purposes not provided for adequately, if at all, by governmental departments. *See* PUBLIC ASSISTANCE. Relief policies are usually elastic enough to meet a wide range of needs, often including small loans, establishment in self-support ventures, scholarship grants, and emergency aid to transients. Generally, supplementary aid is provided on a case-by-case basis to families inadequately maintained by public agencies. Responsibility for administering relief and service to refugees has been assumed by the family agency. To an increasing degree emphasis is placed on services designed to cope with problems of individual and family maladjustment. These societies are often called upon to make investigations of applicants seeking admission to agencies such as children's institutions and homes for the aged.

Data available for 1939 indicate that 91 agencies served 53,366 cases and relief expenditures were in excess of $1,900,000. The number of relief cases did not vary appreciably as compared with 1938 but relief disbursed declined about 9 per cent. Average monthly relief per case was $24.50. The number of relief cases was 6 per cent higher than in 1929 but total relief was smaller; and average monthly relief per case declined by 34 per cent, due in part to the large number of public agency cases receiving supplementary aid. In 1939, three relief dollars in ten were spent on such "cooperative" cases and these constituted 38 per cent of all relief cases. Fifty-seven per cent of all active cases received service only. *See* FAMILY SOCIAL WORK.

The figures above given are exclusive of refugee service. There was a monthly average of 6,000 such cases under care; expenditures for 1939 totaled $1,300,000.

2. Specialized case work. There is observable a trend away from specialized organizations to an integration of case work services in the family welfare society. Most Jewish family agencies have a generalized program sufficiently diverse to care for all but severe behavior problems, and this is frequently supplemented by special departments.

However, a number of specialized agencies are engaged in dealing with the emotionally disturbed, the pre-delinquent, and the law offender. Largest is the Jewish Board of Guardians of New York City, which employs a professional staff of 200, including many specialists and over 200 volunteers. The program includes child guidance, group therapy with children, Big Brother and Big Sister supervision, camps for therapeutic as well as for recreational purposes, institutions for problem boys and girls offering an intensive educational program in a controlled environment, an adult department for those who come in contact with the police, the courts, and the prisons, a visiting service to correctional institutions, and supervision after discharge. *See* SOCIAL CASE WORK and SOCIAL GROUP WORK.

3. Economic services. The problem of economic adjustment has always been of special concern to the Jewish group. The Hebrew Free Loan Society is one of the traditional forms of organization carried down through the centuries and established in every major community. These agencies, in order to promote self-support and to enable people to meet emergencies without becoming a burden on charity, extend loans for a wide variety of purposes on endorsed notes without interest. *See* Consumer Finance in CONSUMER INTERESTS.

While full use is made everywhere of public and private employment agencies, several of the larger Jewish communities maintain employment bureaus as a further facility. By comparison with 1938, placements increased 31 per cent, reflecting improved business conditions. Recently there has been a growth of vocational services designed to acquaint parents and children with the changing occupational scene, and to advise them of developing opportunities. In 1939, new vocational service agencies were established in Baltimore, Cleveland, Newark, and Philadelphia. Such organiza-

tions now exist in 17 cities in the United States and Canada. The programs combine some or all of the following functions: group guidance, individual counseling, aptitude testing, placement, and in a few instances efforts to combat discrimination in employment. Several national agencies are engaged in fact-finding ro provide local organizations with a sound basis for vocational direction. *See* EMPLOYMENT SERVICES and VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE.

4. Child care. The larger Jewish communities offer a wide range of services for the care of dependent children, either in their own homes or elsewhere.

The oldest Jewish children's organization in the United States is the New York Hebrew Orphan Asylum, established in 1822. There are now 46 institutions for the care of children away from their own homes, of which six are built on the cottage plan. Placement of children in free wage or work homes is of negligible proportion in Jewish communities, but placement in foster family or boarding homes has developed in practically all areas either as an independent service or as a department of an existing children's organization or family welfare agency. Vocational and educational opportunities and after-care programs for dependent children are well developed.

Approximately 12,000 children received care away from home in 1939, practically the same number as in 1938. The trend has been markedly to placement in foster family homes. Between 1929 and 1939 the proportion of children in foster homes increased from 44 per cent to 61 per cent, whereas the proportion in institutions dropped from 54 per cent to 32 per cent with a small percentage placed otherwise. One result has been the closing of seven institutions during the decade and an appreciable reduction in the remaining bed capacity. The Brooklyn Hebrew Orphan Asylum is the largest and most recent to discontinue its institutional branch.

Jewish agencies in several eastern and midwestern cities have pioneered in the development of the visiting housekeeper plan, the purpose of which is to maintain children in the home while the mother is away.

In a number of communities there are central clearing bureaus or committees representing the agencies involved, which receive applications for the placement of children, make necessary social investigations, decide upon allocation to one form of care or another, and act as planning and coordinating bodies.

An outstanding development in the unification of programs is the merger in 1940 of the Hebrew Orphan Asylum, the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society, the Jewish Children's Clearing Bureau, and Fellowship House, all of New York City. The new organization, the New York Association for Jewish Children, is the largest voluntary agency in the United States for the care of dependent children. *See* CHILD WELFARE.

5. Care of the aged. Because of a declining birth rate and an exceedingly small average annual immigration to the United States since 1914, the percentage of American Jews over sixty-five years of age has steadily increased until it is probably higher now than the proportion in the general population. The number of Jewish dependent aged in public almshouses throughout the country is negligible, for the adequate care of this group has been of particular concern to Jewish communities.

The Home for Aged and Infirm Hebrews of New York, opened in 1870, is the oldest institution of this character. There are more than 60 Jewish institutions for the aged in the United States, caring for about 6,000 persons and having a bed capacity slighrly higher. These facilities generally are open to the destitute without charge, but persons possessed of modest property may be admitted on transfer of assets. The majority of institutions accept only ambulatory cases. There are visible changes in admission policy, however, resulting in a sharp rise in the average age and in the proportion of the chronic sick in the resident population. In-

firmary units have been added to several institutions during the past two years; and there is increased emphasis upon medical programs and on the development of leisure-time activities. *See* Private Homes in HOMES AND ALMSHOUSES.

The institutional population has grown consistently and was 26 per cent larger on January 1, 1940, than on January 1, 1931, despite the great extension of social security pension payments. *See* OLD AGE AND SURVIVORS' INSURANCE. Since 1931 the bed capacity of 22 homes reporting throughout this period went up 22.7 per cent. Bed utilization has been consistently high, averaging above 92 per cent in 1939.

Many of the dependent aged not eligible to public pensions or old age assistance are maintained in the community by Jewish relief agencies, living either alone or boarding with families. *See* OLD AGE ASSISTANCE. An experiment in housekeeping care was initiated in 1939 by the Home for Aged and Infirm Hebrews of New York, which placed in an apartment a number of old people who had been residing in the institution.

In several cities cooperative plans have been developed among the institutions, family agencies, and medical organizations dealing with the aged whereby intake is centralized and allocations made to the preferable form of care through a central committee which also serves as a coordinating body.

6. Medical care. Jewish hospitals were initially established because general facilities were inadequate, because of the need of a favoring environment including observance of dietary laws, and also to provide training and work opportunities for Jewish physicians. Today many Jewish patients use public and non-sectarian hospitals and many non-Jewish sick are served by Jewish institutions, practically all of which operate on a non-sectarian basis.

Mount Sinai Hospital in New York City, founded in 1852, was the first and is now the largest of the 58 Jewish hospitals in the country. These include 38 general hospitals, 13 hospitals and sanatoria for the tuberculous, four hospitals for the chronically ill, two maternity hospitals, and one hospital for orthopedic conditions. Of the 10 cities with a Jewish population of 50,000 or more, all but one have general hospitals under Jewish auspices. The support of these hospitals requires one-third of all expenditures on local Jewish social work. Social service departments are maintained in at least 30 of the 37 general hospitals.

More than 2,700,000 days' care was provided by Jewish general hospitals in 1939. On the basis of available data it appears there has been an upward trend since 1929 in the volume of service rendered by these institutions; days' care increased slightly more than 27 per cent and the number of patients served, 42 per cent. Bed capacity between 1932 and 1939 increased 9.4 per cent. Approximately one-third of the care given by general Jewish hospitals is on a free basis divided about equally between care charged to the hospital and care charged to public authorities. Between 1938 and 1939 the proportion of the total days' care given to free patients declined from 36 per cent to 34 per cent. Free care accounted for 90 per cent of the total given by hospitals for the tuberculous in 1939, and 87 per cent of the total given by hospitals for the chronically ill. Jewish patients constituted 59 per cent of admissions to the general hospitals, 87 per cent to hospitals for the tuberculous, and 99.7 per cent to hospitals for the chronically ill.

Thirty-five of the Jewish hospitals maintain out-patient departments and in addition there are nine unattached clinics under Jewish auspices. These units reported approximately 2,500,000 visits in 1939, a figure higher than in any previous year. For every 100 visits made in 1931, 122 were made in 1939; the gain was 2 per cent as compared with 1938. Non-Jews comprised 59 per cent of all new patients registered. The Montefiore Hospital for Chronic Diseases in New York City, established in 1884 and now having a capacity of more than 700

beds, has rendered outstanding service in the scientific treatment of sufferers from chronic ailments. *See* MEDICAL CARE.

7. Social-recreational activities. The first Young Men's Hebrew Association was established in New York City in 1874 with a program limited to Jewish youth of the lower income group. During the past twenty-five yeats there has been a rapid development of Young Men's and Young Women's Hebrew Associations and similar agencies, now usually termed community centers, which have the broad objective of promoting the constructive use of leisure time, serving both sexes and all age groups, and earning a large part of their requirements from dues of those using the facilities. The programs are comprehensive and embrace cultural, artistic, vocational, physical-educational, and general recreational activities. In 1939 there were 317 such organizations in the United Stares and Canada with a membership of 400,000, owning 238 buildings valued at more than $37,000,000, operating on budgets totaling $4,500,000, and employing some 1,200 professional workers. National leadership is provided by the Jewish Welfare Board which, in addition to rendering religious and welfare services for Jews in the United States Army and Navy, also helps community centers in fund raising and membership drives, planning of buildings and equipment, program making, and training and placement of personnel.

The B'nai B'rith fraternal order undertook in 1929 to establish and support Hillel Foundations to provide social, educational, and religious programs under trained directors for Jewish students at universities. Such foundations now exist on 12 campuses. Many synagogues and temples conduct clubs and classes for young people and adults. Some have special building facilities, provide extensive programs, and are known as institutional synagogues.

Most of the larger Jewish communities maintain summer camps operated mainly by Young Men's Hebrew Associations and community centers and by fraternal organizations, although a number are under independent control. There are over 100 camps under Jewish auspices providing for more than 30,000 children. *See* Jewish Welfare Board in BOYS' AND GIRLS' WORK ORGANIZATIONS and Jewish Agencies for Youth in YOUTH PROGRAMS.

National Agencies

A numbet of Jewish organizations conduct services on a national basis. In addition to the B'nai B'rith and the Jewish Welfare Board, mentioned earlier in this article, the following agencies provide cultural, coordinating, or research services.

To meet the specific needs of federations and welfare funds, and to promote their spread in unorganized areas, the present Council of Jewish Federations and Welfare Funds was founded in 1932. The membership now comprises 192 federations, welfare funds, and community councils in 158 cities. The Council gathers information, conducts studies, interprets trends, provides a field service in various regions offering consultation on organization problems and on the functional and financial activities of local agencies, holds an annual general assembly and regional conferences to bring together lay and professional leaders for consideration of common problems, and issues a periodical and helpful bulletins.

The Hebrew Sheltering and Immigrant Aid Society, established to deal with the migration from eastern Europe of the latter nineteenth century, and the National Council of Jewish Women, which is concerned more particularly with girls and women, provide services to newly arrived immigrants at ports of entry and have programs of social adjustment and Americanization. The extreme conditions under which the Jewish populations of central Europe have been living during the past several years has created a serious refugee problem with repercussions in this country. The National Refugee Service was organized in 1939 to provide financial assistance, employment, and

occupational retraining. In cooperation with numerous communities, it carries on a resettlement program throughout the country. The American Jewish Joint Distribution Committee is the primary agency providing for the relief and rehabilitation of Jews overseas, especially in the war-affected eastern and central European countries. *See* IMMIGRANTS and INTERNATIONAL SOCIAL WORK.

The National Farm School trains youngsters for life on the farm, and the Jewish Agricultural Society provides an advisory technical service to those already engaged in or contemplating farming, and grants loans for such enterprises. The National Desertion Bureau is of aid to Jewish family societies in locating deserters, in effecting such conciliation as seems desirable, and in arranging for separate maintenance when necessary.

Four national sanatoria—the National Jewish Hospital, the Jewish Consumptive Relief Society, the Ex-Patients Tubercular Home (all in Denver), and the Jewish Consumptive and Ex-Patients Relief Association (located in Los Angeles)—with a combined bed capacity of 867, provided 268,395 days' care during 1939.

The American Jewish Committee, the American Jewish Congress, the Anti-Defamation League of the B'nai B'rith, and the Jewish Labor Committee are concerned with problems of group relationships. They seek to safeguard Jewish civic rights and to combat anti-Semitism and discrimination. The General Jewish Council is maintained by these agencies to coordinate activities.

The National Conference of Jewish Social Welfare, organized in 1899, provides an annual forum for those professionally engaged in the field, and issues a quarterly journal. *See* CONFERENCES OF SOCIAL WORK.

Finances and Financing

The long history of Jewish group responsibility for the dependent is reflected in the substantial amounts of money raised for the purpose. Institutional facilities and agency programs and performance compare favorably with recognized standards in the respective fields. It is estimated that the annual requirements for Jewish social service, local and national, approximate $25,000,000, and that about $20,000,000 in addition is raised in the United States for overseas purposes. Relief and family welfare services account for about one-third of local expenditures, medical services for an equal proportion, child care for one-sixth, and vocational guidance, employment, remedial loans, and care of the aged for one-twelfth.

Fund raising for local work has for many years been centralized to a large degree by federations of Jewish charities of which there were more than 70 in 1940. In general the major local agencies are constituents of the federation and receive funds for their current operations from this source. This successful experience in centralized fund raising has been a factor in promoting the spread of community chests with which the large majority of federations is now affiliated. *See* COMMUNITY CHESTS and FINANCING PRIVATE SOCIAL WORK.

The requirements for relief and rehabilitation of Jewish populations abroad, particularly in central European countries and Palestine, have been large during the past ten years and are now heavier than ever. To raise funds for these overseas needs, as well as for national agencies and for certain types of local activities such as Jewish education, supplementary collection organizations known as welfare funds have been established in some 120 communities.

Professional Aspects

While volunteers are used to a considerable extent and in a wide variety of tasks, Jewish social work is essentially carried on by professional personnel. The tendency today is to employ only such persons as have received special training in one of the recognized schools. Members of the staff of a number of agencies in larger cities are affiliated with labor unions, or related asso-

ciations for collective bargaining. *See* TRADE UNIONISM IN SOCIAL WORK.

The Graduate School for Jewish Social Work was organized in 1925 to develop trained professional leadership for Jewish communal work. It is a national institution, strictly graduate in character, provides a two-year course, and is authorized to give masters' and doctors' degrees. *See* EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK.

Research has been an active interest in which the Council of Jewish Federations and Welfare Funds, the Conference on Jewish Relations, and the Graduate School for Jewish Social Work have taken leadership, and in which many federations participate. There has been consistent gathering of basic statistics, numerous community-wide social surveys have been made, and as an aid to fundamental planning population studies have been undertaken in more than a dozen communities during the past few years. An innovation is the conduct of self-studies by mixed lay and professional local groups interested in particular agencies or problems. *See* RESEARCH AND STATISTICS IN SOCIAL WORK.

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JUVENILE AND DOMESTIC RELATIONS COURTS.[1] As early as 1869 a law was enacted in Massachusetts requiring the appointment of a state visiting agent who, in addition to his visitorial duties, "shall attend all hearings whenever application is made for the commitment of a child to any reformatory." In lieu of such commitment the child might be placed with a private family or indentured. In other states legislation during the last third of the nineteenth century embodied some of the essential features of the present-day juvenile court, including trials separate from those of adults, investigation of cases, and the use of probation. Children, however, were still dealt with under criminal procedure in the courts having jurisdiction of the offenses charged. It was not until 1899 that Illinois enacted a law under which the first special court for children was established in Chicago as a division of the Cook County Circuit Court. The new court was based upon the concept that the child who broke the law was not to be regarded as a criminal but as a ward of the state, and as such was to receive the care, custody, and discipline which should have been given by his parents—a concept previously applied in law only to neglected and dependent children. Two months earlier in 1899 Colorado, at the instance of Judge Ben B. Lindsey, adopted a "school law" containing some of the main features of juvenile court laws, from which developed the juvenile court law of Colorado adopted in 1903. During the five years after 1899, juvenile court laws were passed in 10 other states. None of these early acts created separate courts, but vested the jurisdiction over children in divisions of existing courts.

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

Juvenile and Domestic Relations Courts

At present 46 states, Alaska, the Distrtict of Columbia, Hawaii, the Philippine Islands, and Puerto Rico have either created separate courts for juvenile offenders or have provided specialized jurisdiction and procedure in these cases in courts already established. Maine and Wyoming have not made express provision for juvenile courts. Maine, however, gives the municipal courts exclusive jurisdiction in most cases of children under seventeen years of age, with certain provisions for special procedure; and Wyoming defines delinquency, dependency, and neglect, with provision for commitment to children's institutions. Juvenile court laws have been enacted in Canada, in most of the European countries, and in parts of South America, Asia, and Africa.

In many states in which the county, probate, or other court is given jurisdiction, it is provided that such court, when hearing children's cases, may be called the juvenile court; and where, as is generally the case, separate court sessions are required for the hearing of children's cases, the practical situation is hardly distinguished from that in states where the law established a legally separate juvenile court ptesided over by the judge of the county, probate, or other court.

Until 1938 the federal courts lacked legal authority to distinguish between juveniles and adults brought before them. In June, 1938, Congress enacted the Federal Juvenile Delinquency Act which embodies some of the principles and makes possible some of the procedures of the state juvenile courts, including delinquency proceedings rather than prosecution for an offense, prompt and private hearing of cases without jury, detention apart from adult offenders, and greater flexibility in treatment.

Juvenile court legislation is still unstandardized, inconsistent, and in many states incomplete and defective. From year to year amendments are being made, sometimes thorough revisions. To serve as a guide to those concerned the National Probation Association has published *A Standard Juvenile Court Law* (*infra cit.*), based upon the Juvenile Court Standards adopted by the United States Children's Bureau and the Association in 1923.

Purposes and Principles

One purpose motivating the adoption of juvenile court legislation has been to prevent the inhumane and demoralizing practice of subjecting children to the procedure usual in criminal trials with its attendant publicity, incarceration in common jails pending hearing of their cases, and the stigma of records of conviction for crime. A more positive motive has been to substitute methods and facilities designed to solve the child's problems and train him in good citizenship. To this end juvenile courts have been equipped with detention homes separate from the jails and with staffs of probation officers to investigate the history and environment of children as well as the circumstances of their offenses. Some of the more progressive courts also have clinics for the physical, psychological, and psychiatric diagnosis and treatment of children, or use such services established undet other auspices. *See* Psychiatric Clinics for Children in MENTAL HYGIENE.

The fundamental principles of good juvenile court work may be summarized as follows: (1) The court dealing with children should be clothed with broad jurisdiction, embracing all classes of cases in which a child is in need of the protection of the State, whether the legal action is in the name of the child or of an adult who fails in his obligations toward the child. (2) The court should have a scientific understanding of each child. (3) Treatment should be adapted to individual needs. (4) There should be a presumption in favor of keeping the child in his own home and his own community, except when adequate investigation shows this not to be in the best interest of the child.

Personnel

The Juvenile Court Standards adopted by the United States Children's Bureau and the

National Probation Association state that "The judge should be chosen because of his special qualifications for juvenile court work. He should have legal training, acquaintance with social problems and understanding of child psychology." As yet, however, in only a comparatively small number of jurisdictions are the judges selected primarily with reference to special qualifications for juvenile court work. They are elected or appointed to other judicial positions and find children's cases to be a part of their work, whether or not they are even interested in them. Children's cases thus are heard and disposed of by judges of the district, probate, superior, county, and various other courts having criminal jurisdiction in other states. In North Carolina the clerk of the superior court in most counties is ex officio judge of the juvenile court.

Extensive use of referees has been successfully developed in many juvenile and domestic relations courts, especially women referees in cases of girls. In 17 states the juvenile court statutes authorize the appointment of such referees. These laws provide for hearing by referees of such cases or classes of cases as may be referred to them by the court, and for rehearing before the judge on demand; if no such demand is made, the findings and recommendations of the referee become the adjudications and orders of the court, when confirmed by the judge. In states whose laws do not specifically authorize the appointment of referees the function of probation officers in making preliminary investigations is often so developed as to amount to a referee system, especially in cases which can be dealt with unofficially, without formal court order.

Practically all juvenile court and domestic relations court laws authorize the appointment, usually by the court or judge, of paid probation officers. Some courts have staffs selected for their professional training and experience and for their skill in constructive treatment, while others have staffs lacking such training and experience. In a few states the law gives to a public agency or department responsibility for approving appointments of probation officers or for conducting competitive examinations. In general, however, selection of probation officers according to a merit system has been developed in relatively few communities. *See* PERSONNEL PRACTICES IN PUBLIC WELFARE and Probation Service in BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS.

Complete organization and uniformity of desirable standards are still lacking in most of the states. The number of active cases handled by a single officer and the percentage of untrained probation workers is too high to expect the best results. There is much evidence of the need for more and better-qualified probation officers if delinquency and crime are to be successfully combated. In some rural areas, without full or part-time probation officers, workers in various child welfare departments serve the court when requested. The child welfare services established under the Social Security Act have made case work available for dependent and neglected children and children in danger of becoming delinquent in areas hitherto for the most part without these services. *See* CHILD WELFARE.

The laws of 15 states authorize the appointment by the judges having jurisdiction of children's cases of unpaid committees of citizens to advise and cooperate with the court and probation officers, to visit institutions and agencies caring for the court's wards, and to report thereon to the court.

Procedure

The procedure followed in most juvenile courts is very different from that used in criminal courts. The case of a child is ordinarily initiated by a petition, instead of by the complaint or indictment used in criminal cases. A summons or notice is used instead of a warrant to secure the attendance of the child in court; and the parents or guardian are also required to be present. The hearing (not trial) is conducted in an informal manner, without a jury. The general public is excluded. There is no prose-

cuting attorney and usually no defense attorney. To elicit the facts the judge relies upon the report of the probation officer's investigation and upon the statements of parents or others, and the child himself—all of whom are encouraged to tell what they know in their own way.

In contrast with the criminal law and procedure, in which the primary purpose is to determine guilt or innocence and to inflict a punishment commensurate with the offense, the juvenile court endeavors to learn the causes of the child's misconduct and to remove or counteract them. This requires thorough investigation of the child's and family's history, circumstances, and attitudes, as well as acquaintance with the social resources of the community. Consistently with that purpose the juvenile court has been given wide discretionary powers in disposing of cases. The court may leave the child in its own home with or without the supervision of a probation officer or other social agency; may order medical or surgical treatment; may place the child in a foster family home; or may commit the child to a suitable public or private institution.

Most juvenile court laws prohibit the detention of children in jails, though these provisions apply only to younger children in some states. Detention of children in separate parts of the common jails is unfortunately still permitted in some jurisdictions, and such detention is almost inevitable if the juvenile court has not been provided with other detention accommodations. Detention homes for the use of the court have been provided in most of the larger communities, and in some places buildings have been provided for the court and its probation and clinical staff as well as for the temporary detention of children pending investigation and disposition of their cases. During recent years there has been a trend toward the use of family boarding homes for the temporary detention of children, especially those not charged with serious offenses. The better juvenile courts keep the detention of children at a minimum, leaving children in their own homes pending investigation and disposition of their cases unless they must be cared for elsewhere.

Jurisdiction Over Children

The juvenile courts in all states where they are established have jurisdiction in cases of delinquency, but this term is variously defined. In addition to violations of laws and ordinances, delinquency is defined more or less broadly in practically all juvenile court laws, except those of Mississippi, to include certain other acts and conditions, such as incorrigibility, association with immoral or vicious persons, truancy, using obscene language, engaging in immoral conduct, growing up in idleness or crime, begging, wandering about the streets at night, trespassing on railroad property, running away from home, endangering morals or safety, and, in an Ohio statute enacted in 1937, attempting to marry without parental consent.

The California, New Jersey, and District of Columbia laws do not define delinquency. After enumerating certain acts and conditions that constitute juvenile delinquency under the definitions in the laws of most other states, the California law provides that children found to come within the description may be adjudged "wards of the court." In the District of Columbia the court is declared simply to have jurisdiction over such children.

Certain offenses are excepted from the operation of many juvenile court laws. In some jurisdictions the exceptions apply only to children above a specified age, or to courts in parts of the state only.

The question of whether the juvenile court's original jurisdiction in children's cases is exclusive or concurrent with that of other courts, though of fundamental importance, is one of the most difficult to determine. Some of the laws state explicitly that the jurisdiction shall be exclusive. Many contain mandatory provisions as to transfer of cases from other courts and prohibitions

of prosecutions of children in criminal courts. But in some states, even though the juvenile court law appears to confer exclusive jurisdiction, doubt has been thrown upon the question by higher courts.

Cases of neglected and dependent children are also included in the jurisdiction of most juvenile courts. These terms are defined together and are undifferentiated in the laws of many states. In many of the statutes which define them separately there appears to be no clearly reasoned distinguishing principle. In the Standard Juvenile Court Law of the National Probation Association the definition of neglect connotes a culpable adult, while dependency connotes a merely unfortunate condition; and in many states the definitions are based on this principle, though not always with entire consistency.

Where the juvenile court is a division of some other court, such other court may have jurisdiction over other classes of children's cases and over other related matters. The probate court, for example, which has the juvenile court jurisdiction in some states, may have, as a probate court, jurisdiction over cases of adoption and guardianship; while the district or circuit or superior court may have jurisdiction over divorce, nonsupport, and other domestic relations cases. Under such circumstances the personnel and facilities of the juvenile court are often used by such other court.

There is a trend toward removing from the court cases of children in need only of action which can be taken by administrative agencies, and to restrict the court's responsibility to cases in which a judicial order is an essential or desirable element in treatment. In the early days of the "mothers' pension" movement its administration was entrusted to the juvenile court in many states where there was no other suitable agency for the purpose, but this function has been transferred to public welfare agencies in many jurisdictions during recent years. *See* AID TO DEPENDENT CHILDREN. Probation departments, other social agencies, and the public schools also deal with many less serious cases of juvenile delinquency and neglect, and it is the policy in most communities to endeavor to adjust such cases without official court action whenever this seems practicable. *See* SOCIAL AND HEALTH WORK IN THE SCHOOLS.

Age Limits

Seven states set the age limit, by general state law, for juvenile court jurisdiction in all types of cases at sixteen years; four states at seventeen years; 19 states and the District of Columbia at eighteen years; and one state at twenty-one years (only concurrent jurisdiction with adult courts). In addition, two states—California and Iowa—give juvenile courts exclusive jurisdiction of children under eighteen years of age and concurrent jurisdiction with adult courts of children of eighteen to twenty-one. The remaining states prescribe different age limits for different classes of cases. Wyoming defines juvenile delinquents as "under 21" and dependent or neglected children as "under 16." Maine has special procedure for children under seventeen. Puerto Rico sets the age limit at sixteen, the United States courts and Hawaii at eighteen, and Alaska at twenty-one. The changes made in recent years have been in the direction of increasing age limits.

In 26 states and the District of Columbia the age limit is now set, for some or all cases of delinquent children, at eighteen years or higher. In five of these states this applies only to girls. Capital and life imprisonment cases are excepted in three states, and capital offenses in one. In nine of the 26 states criminal courts have concurrent jurisdiction in some cases. This concurrency of jurisdiction applies to all violations of law, however, in only three states. The provision made in some of these states for the criminal trial of exceptional cases in which the remedies of the juvenile court are deemed inadequate, or in which public sentiment demands criminal prosecution, is to give the juvenile courts themselves the dis-

cretion to decide which, if any, of the cases require such treatment: that is, after investigation the juvenile court may dismiss the delinquency proceeding and permit the child to be prosecuted in a criminal court. Such provisions are in effect in 17 of the 26 states and in the Distrtict of Columbia.

Court Care of Adolescent Offenders

Recently much interest has been shown in the court cate and social treatment of minors over the juvenile court age. Although such persons are deemed not sufficiently mature to vote, make contracts, or own real property, they are held accountable under the criminal laws to the same extent as are adults in most jurisdictions, and have well been called "the forgotten group" in our system for the treatment of delinquency and crime. So far no special courts for these adolescent offenders have been created by statute, but administrative arrangements have been made in a few places for special court care of minors over the juvenile court age. In Chicago there has long existed a "boys' court" division of the municipal court which deals with many cases of boys over seventeen, the juvenile court age limit. In Brooklyn, N. Y., the magistrates' court established in 1935 a division known as the "adolescents' court" to which are referred many boys between sixteen (the children's court age limit) and nineteen, more serious charges being reduced to that of "wayward minor." In both Chicago and Brooklyn the development of a socialized court procedure in cases of minors is limited by the requirement of conformity to the rules applying to criminal cases. In California and Iowa the juvenile courts have concurrent jurisdiction with the criminal courts in cases of minors between eighteen and twenty-one, but the statutes are wholly inoperative in Iowa and such cases are seldom brought to the juvenile courts in California. In Rhode Island minors between sixteen and eighteen, and in Michigan many of those between seventeen and twenty-one, are dealt with by the juvenile courts as wayward minors, under the same procedure as that applicable to younger children in cases of juvenile delinquency, instead of being prosecuted in the criminal courts.

Those most concerned with the court care of these older minors advocate various ways of attacking the problem. Some favor extension of the juvenile court age limits to nineteen, twenty, or twenty-one years. Others believe the most practicable approach is through changes in procedure in the criminal courts, especially by mandatory requirement for social and clinical investigation in cases of minors before any sentence is pronounced. Still others advocate the establishment of special adolescents' or minors' courts and of special treatment boards or commissions for the care of minors committed by such courts. The movement is still in an exploratory stage and various solutions are likely to be attempted in different states.

Jurisdiction Over Adults

Early in the juvenile court movement it became apparent that in many situations the court could not deal effectively with the child without exercising jurisdiction over parents and other adults. Now nearly all states have enacted legislation making adults criminally liable for causing delinquency or dependency in children. In 31 states, the District of Columbia, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico the jurisdiction has been given to the juvenile court.

In 35 states, the District of Columbia, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico the juvenile courts may order parents or other persons legally responsible to contribute toward the support of a child within the court's jurisdiction. The juvenile courts have direct jurisdiction over adults charged with non-support of wife and child in Alabama (Jefferson County), Colorado, the District of Columbia, Hawaii (First Circuit, Honolulu County), Louisiana, Maryland (Allegany County and circuit courts in juvenile session), Nebraska, New Jersey, New York (county children's courts), North Carolina

(Mecklenburg County), Ohio, Oregon (Multnomah County, with Portland), South Carolina (Greenville County and Spartanburg County), Tennessee (preliminary jurisdiction only, except when defendant pleads guilty), Utah, Virginia, and West Virginia.

In several states the juvenile courts have jurisdiction over adults in cases arising under laws relating to child labor, school attendance, offenses by a member of family against another member, and concealment of a child from the court.

Domestic Relations Courts

Closely related to the extension of juvenile court jurisdiction to certain cases of adults is the movement for the establishment of courts of domestic relations or family courts which would deal with the family as a unit and extend investigatory, clinic, and probation services to the problems of the family. *See* THE FAMILY.

In 1910 a domestic relations division was established in the city court of Buffalo, which had jurisdiction over all criminal business relating to domestic or family affairs, including paternity cases. Several cities followed Buffalo in establishing by law or rule of court a division of a municipal court to deal with domestic relations cases, chiefly those involving non-support and desertion. In 1914, Hamilton County (Cincinnati) took a pioneer step in the development of family courts, as distinguished from domestic relations courts with adult jurisdiction only, when it created as a division of the court of common pleas the first family court in the United States to exercise jurisdiction over both domestic relations and juvenile cases.

Considerable variation is found in the type of organization and in the nature of the jurisdiction of the family court or court of domestic relations. Included are (a) family courts of juvenile and broad adult jurisdiction, including children's cases, cases of divorce, desertion, or non-support, and cases contributing to delinquency or dependency; (b) family courts of juvenile and limited adult jurisdiction, including some but not all types of cases listed above; (c) domestic relations courts without juvenile jurisdiction and with adult jurisdiction over cases of desertion or non-support and sometimes divorce, illegitimacy, and certain offenses against children; (d) juvenile coutts of broad jurisdiction, not including jurisdiction over divorce; and (e) municipal, district, or superior courts with juvenile and domestic relations jurisdiction in which special organization has been developed administratively.

Combined juvenile courts and domestic relations courts, the latter having jurisdiction in non-support and related cases, are established throughout Virginia and New Jersey; in Jefferson and Montgomery Counties, Ala.; Cabell County, W. Va.; and in New York City. In Charleston County, S. C., and in Hamilton County, Tenn., such courts also have concurrent jurisdiction in divorce cases. In seven counties in Ohio, in Multnomah County, Oreg., and in Honolulu County, Hawaii, there are domestic relations courts with juvenile court, divorce, and other jurisdiction, created as parts of courts of general jurisdiction. In Milwaukee, where the juvenile court is one of the two "family court" branches of the circuit court, all domestic relations cases must be assigned to one of the two branches. A director of domestic conciliation and investigators are appointed by the judges of the family court branches, and juvenile court probation officers carry out supervision. In Mecklenburg County, N. C., the domestic relations court is required by law to investigate and recommend dispositions to the superior court in cases of adoption and of the custody of children in divorce cases.

Dean Roscoe Pound has called the juvenile court and probation America's outstanding contributions to the art of jurisprudence. Other eminent authorities have expressed the opinion that the most needed reforms in the procedure of the criminal courts include the adoption of methods

similar to those which have been found to be most useful in the juvenile courts. Especially in cases involving domestic relations is there need for a procedure which will give the court more pertinent information than that ordinarily elicited by a formal criminal trial, and enable the court to conserve the human and social values which are at stake. In several communities, studies have shown that for adjustment of a family difficulty recourse must be had to half a dozen or more different courts, each having jurisdiction over a different aspect of what is fundamentally the same problem. For the diagnosis of such difficulties and for their successful adjustment when that is possible, there is needed not only or principally the decision of the court on questions of law but also the skill of the psychologist, the psychiatrist, the physician, and the social worker. In order to deal effectively with family problems the court must be equipped with clinical and investigatory facilities and authorized to use procedures some of which are not contemplated in our traditional legalistic system. To provide such service, a unified domestic relations court, with broad jurisdiction and adequate facilities, seems to be the most practicable means.

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LABOR LEGISLATION AND ADMINISTRATION.[1] In time of great national emergency the need of legal safeguards to protect the health and efficiency of wage-earners who are subjected to the special strain of increased and sustained production becomes particularly obvious. Similarly, under emergency strain the need of uniform and effective administration of these laws becomes increasingly important in preserving social gains in the interest of total defense.

Labor legislation is the method by which society safeguards and promotes the general welfare through the establishment of protective labor standards prescribing conditions and terms of employment below which no employer may legally operate. These compulsory requirements aim to ensure the exclusion of children from harmful employment, the provision of reasonably safe and healthful work places, a maximum limit on work periods, a minimum fair wage scale, and social insurance protection against the hazards of occupational accident and disease, ill health, temporary unemployment, premature death, and old age. All of this is accompanied by an extensive system of public administration—including an employment service to lessen the periods between jobs—to ensure effective enforcement of the legal requirements.

CHILD LABOR

The public welfare requires that children be protected against employment which pre-

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

vents full physical growth or destroys opportunity for a desirable minimum of education and recreation. Employment of children for unreasonably long hours or in occupations that expose them to hazards to health, safety, or moral well-being likewise calls for legal prohibition. This need is reflected in both state and federal legislation.

The United States census reports that 667,118 children between ten and fifteen years of age, inclusive, were gainfully employed in 1930, and of these 197,621 were in non-agricultural occupations. Of the total number, 235,328 were between ten and thirteen years of age. The census does not include workers under ten years of age, but many studies have shown that considerable numbers of such children are employed in street trades, industrial home work, and commercialized agriculture. During the years immediately after 1930, child labor generally decreased as a result of depression conditions; and under the National Recovery Administration (NRA), 1933–1935, child labor in most industries was prohibited. Since the NRA codes became inoperative, however, there has been a rapid increase in the employment of young children. In 1938, when the new federal Fair Labor Standards Act went into effect with its prohibition of child labor in interstate employments, it was estimated that there were more than 800,000 children under sixteen years of age gainfully employed.

Although the problem of migratory child labor has been much discussed in recent years the protective legislation so far adopted, as in New Jersey in 1940, has been limited to compulsory school attendance. *See* MIGRANTS, TRANSIENTS, AND TRAVELERS.

State Laws

The general age minimum for employment during school hours—in some states outside of school hours as well—is fixed by law at fourteen years in 30 states, fifteen years in 4 states, and sixteen years in 13 states (Wyoming has no age minimum). Usually these laws apply to employment in factories and stores, and many of them to other employments also. Agricultural and domestic employment and the street trades, however, are usually not covered, and in many of the laws there are exceptions which permit children under the specified age to work in various types of industrial employment. Most states exclude children under sixteen years of age from certain dangerous occupations, a few extending this protection to eighteen years, but these provisions vary greatly in adequacy.

Hours of employment for children under sixteen years of age are limited to an eight-hour day in 39 states. In one additional state there is a maximum eight-hour day but it applies only for children under fifteen years of age. Weekly hours for minors under sixteen are limited to twenty-four in one state, to forty in four states, to forty-four in seven states, and to forty-eight in 28 states. In the remaining states daily or weekly hour restrictions are in effect ranging from a nine-hour day to a twelve-hour day, and from fifty-four to sixty hours a week. One state has no daily hours limitation.

In 1940, all except two states (Nevada and South Dakota) prohibited night work for children under sixteen, but many of these laws are seriously limited in their application. The prohibition begins at 6 p.m. in 16 states and at 7 p.m. in 20 states; in the remaining states with such a prohibition it begins at 8, 9, or 10 p.m. In one state the prohibition applies only for children under fifteen years of age.

Supplementary to age and hour restrictions are laws prohibiting children from leaving school under fourteen or sixteen years of age and until a specified school grade has been completed, and laws requiring each child to secure a health certificate from a physician before going to work. A most effective inducement to employers to comply with the child labor laws is the provision in 15 state workmen's compensation laws that extra compensation must be paid to minors injured while illegally employed.

Labor Legislation and Administration

Federal Laws

The Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 prohibits producers, manufacturers, and dealers from shipping or delivering for shipment in interstate commerce any goods produced in the United States in establishments in or about which children under sixteen years of age have been employed during the preceding thirty days. The same prohibition applies where workers between sixteen and eighteen years of age have been employed in an occupation declared to be extra hazardous for such persons. These provisions do not apply to agricultural employment outside of school hours, nor to child actors in motion picture or theatrical productions. Administration is through the United States Children's Bureau.

Another federal child labor regulation is in the Walsh-Healey Act of 1936, which provides that federal contracts for materials and supplies in excess of $10,000 must require that the contractor shall not employ boys under sixteen years or girls under eighteen years of age for work on the contract. Enforcement is through the federal Department of Labor. Moreover, under the Sugar Act of 1937, administered by the Secretary of Agriculture, one of the conditions of payments to sugar beet and sugar cane growers is that in the production and harvesting of their crops no child under fourteen years of age shall be employed and no child between fourteen and sixteen years of age shall be permitted to work for more than eight hours a day. Members of the owner's family are exempted.

These recent federal child labor laws are revivals of national regulation first attempted some twenty years earlier. In 1916 Congress enacted a law prohibiting the shipment in interstate commerce of goods produced in mines or quarries which employed children under sixteen years of age, and in manufacturing establishments which employed children under fourteen years of age or employed children between fourteen and sixteen years of age for more than eight hours a day, six days a week, or at night. This law was declared unconstitutional in 1918 by the United States Supreme Court in a five-to-four decision. A second law, included in the Revenue Act of 1919, placed a tax upon the net profits of any establishment in which child labor (defined as before) was used. In 1922 this law also was declared unconstitutional.

In 1924 Congress passed an amendment to the Constitution, which has been ratified by 28 of the necessary 36 states.[1] This amendment would empower Congress to "limit, regulate and prohibit the labor of persons under 18 years of age." No time limit is set for ratification. All but six of the 28 ratifications have occurred since 1932, in many cases after the ratifying state had previously rejected the amendment. In 1937 the ratifications by Kansas and Kentucky were challenged by opponents of the amendment on grounds that (a) a state which had previously affirmatively rejected an amendment cannot later ratify, (b) since the Child Labor Amendment had been affirmatively rejected at some time by more than one-fourth of the states, it has been killed once and for all, and (c) because of the lapse of time the amendment is no longer open for ratification. The state supreme court of Kansas upheld the Kansas ratification against these attacks, but the Kentucky supreme court declared the Kentucky ratification null and void. In both cases appeals were taken to the United States Supreme Court, which in June, 1939, affirmed the Kansas decision and dismissed the Kentucky case, principally upon the ground that Congress as the political branch of the government and not the judicial branch, passes upon the question as to whether or not the amendment is ratified. The Court referred to the history of the Fourteenth Amendment where it had al-

[1] Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Michigan, Minnesota, Montana, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Utah, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin, Wyoming.

ready been decided that both a previous rejection and a withdrawal following ratifications were ineffectual in the presence of an actual ratification. As to the lapse of time between submission of an amendment and ratification by a state, the Court held that this also is a question for the consideration of Congress when, after certified ratifications by three-fourths of the states have been deposited, the time arrives for the promulgation of the adoption of the amendment.

Proponents of the Child Labor Amendment point out that the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 does not cover children engaged in intrastate industry, nor those in mercantile establishments, hotels, restaurants, beauty parlors, garages, offices, street trades, and the like. Only through a constitutional amendment, it is declared, will Congress be able to control 75 per cent of existing non-agricultural child labor as well as child labor in industrialized agriculture. The fight for the Amendment is being led by the National Child Labor Committee, and many national organizations—civic, religious, and fraternal—include ratification in their program for action. A bitter opposition has been waged by the National Committee for the Protection of Child, Family, School, and Church, organized by the Sentinels of the Republic in 1934, as well as by the American Bar Association, the Daughters of the American Revolution, certain influential Catholic clergymen, and numerous employers' associations.

Hours of Labor

Excessively long hours not only endanger physical well-being but, because they curtail opportunities for healthy recreation and social contact, result in maladjustment of the individual in the community. Despite enormous strides toward the shorter workweek many men, women, and children are still working hours too long for health and welfare.

The first hours law in this country was the Massachusetts statute passed in 1842 limiting hours of children under twelve years of age in manufacturing plants to ten a day. Hours legislation for women began with the first ten-hour law passed in New Hampshire in 1847. In 1940 there were only four states—Alabama, Florida, Iowa, and West Virginia—without some restrictions on hours of work of women. These laws fall into two classes: (a) those setting fixed minima and (b) the more recent laws authorizing administrative commissions to fix hours for various industries, localities, and processes.

By 1940 a substantial majority of the states had laws or administrative rules restricting women's employment to eight or nine hours a day, and in about half of the states weekly hours were limited to fifty or under (usually forty-eight). On the other hand, 15 states still permitted women to work a fifty-four-hour week in some or all occupations, and 8 states permitted a sixty-hour week. The coverage of these laws varies greatly, agricultural and domestic employment being generally excluded. Alaska in 1939 adopted a sixty-hour law for household or domestic workers.

Until recently, reduction of hours for male workers in this country has been achieved primarily by organized labor and progressive management rather than by legislation. Exceptions to this rule have been special categories of workers in occupations involving unusual hazards, as in mining, or where public safety is involved, as in transportation, and also workers on public works. Of broader application are the ten-hour laws adopted by Mississippi in 1910 and Oregon in 1913, covering employes in manufacturing and mechanical establishments; also the Georgia ten-hour-day, sixty-hour-week law of 1933 and the South Carolina eight-hour-day, forty-hour-week law of 1937, both applying to textile mills.

In 1936 Montana by constitutional amendment, and in 1937 North Carolina and Pennsylvania by statute, provided for limits on hours for all workers in most occupations. Daily hours were fixed at eight in

Montana and Pennsylvania and ten in North Carolina. Weekly hours were limited to fifty-five in North Carolina and forty-four in Pennsylvania. The Pennsylvania law was held unconstitutional by the state supreme court in 1938 because of its delegation of power to the labor department to make exemptions.

The first broad attempt at federal regulation of men's hours was the industrial code system under the National Industrial Recovery Act adopted in 1933 and declared unconstitutional in 1935. In 1938 the federal Fair Labor Standards Act, which applies to interstate industries with certain exceptions, fixed maximum hours standards for all employes, including men. Effective in October, 1938, this law establishes a basic forty-four-hour week for the first year of its operation, a forty-two-hour week for the second year, and a forty-hour week thereafter. These limits may be exceeded provided time-and-a-half is paid for such overtime. Administration is through a newly created Wage and Hour Division in the Department of Labor.

Provision was made in the federal statute for utilization of state inspection services wherever the individual states authorized such cooperation. Although the federal government offered to reimburse the expenses of such approved local state inspection, only a few legislatures made the appropriate authorizations. North Carolina was the only state which had entered into an agreement with the federal administration prior to July, 1940, when two additional states, Connecticut and Minnesota, signed such agreements to cooperate in the enforcement of the wage-hour regulations. For the first time in the United States an extensive system of federal factory inspection was therefore set up, though belatedly, and began the development of inspection standards likely to have great future influence in labor law administration. The federal law had not been passed upon by the United States Supreme Court but meanwhile, in separate actions, it had been upheld by every federal District Court before which its constitutionality had been challenged.

Rest Periods, Rest Days, and Annual Vacations

Intimately associated with hours legislation and of vital importance to public health and social well-being are regulations providing meal-time and rest periods, rest days and annual vacations, and those regulating night work.

The most common requirements for daily rest periods are found in the laws regulating hours for women. A number of states specify that from one-half hour to an hour shall be allowed for the noon meal. Several states prescribe that the noon meal period shall come after five or six hours' work to eliminate longer harmful periods of continuous employment. The inclusion of adult men in these rest period laws is rare. No regulations on additional short morning and afternoon rest periods, such as obtained in Europe, are in force in this country. In certain states, however, rest periods are required in especially hazardous occupations. Under state and federal laws, transportation workers must be given a specified daily rest period in the interest of public safety.

Prohibition of Sunday work on a religious basis was the first type of rest day legislation in this country. These Sunday "blue laws" generally have failed to protect the worker from the continuous employment which tends to break down health. Many Sunday blue laws are meaningless because filled with exceptions; and the rise of modern industry—with need for certain continuous processes—and the public necessity for restaurants, transportation, and communication have made complete Sunday closing an impossibility. An entirely new type of law provides for seven-day work, but eliminates the seven-day workers, those who work on Sunday receiving a day off during the week. Eight states have laws embodying the principle of one day of rest in seven. California and Connecticut exempt "any case of

emergency" thus nullifying their statutes, and the Michigan law applies only to interurban trolley workers. But the Illinois, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New York, and Wisconsin laws are modern and effective in character. They apply to factories and mercantile establishments generally, but exclude a few occupations.

While not more than a dozen states have legislation making the Saturday afternoon a legal holiday, the women's hours laws have exerted a strong indirect influence in obtaining this holiday for certain workers. The shorter hours movement led by organized labor has resulted in a Saturday half or full holiday for a large proportion of the workers, but many continue to work a six-day week.

Laws providing for annual vacations have in this country covered only public employments. Surveys have shown, however, that partly through collective agreements and partly by voluntary action of management there has been a substantial spread of the movement for vacations with pay. The International Labor Conference in 1936 adopted a convention applying to most workers and providing for an annual vacation of at least six working days with pay after one year of continuous service. A similar convention applying to maritime workers, also adopted in 1936, was ratified by the United States in 1938.

Night Work

Although night work is recognized as a social evil, American legislation in this field has been confined to women and minors. Scientific investigations by the International Association for Labor Legislation[2] begun as early as 1901 show that night work increases susceptibility to tuberculosis and anemia because of lack of sunlight and disturbed sleep, results in eyestrain, and increases the accident rate. An additional moral hazard to women is generally recognized as well as interference with normal family life.

California, Connecticut, Delaware, Indiana, Kansas, Massachusetts, Nebraska, New Jersey, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Washington, and Wisconsin all have laws prohibiting some form of night work for women, but not one of these laws is an all-inclusive prohibition. The slowness with which this type of protection has been extended to women workers has been partly due to the question of the constitutionality of such laws. In 1907 a New York law was declared unconstitutional, but the court reversed itself in 1915 in another decision. In 1924 a New York law forbidding night work of women in restaurants was upheld by the United States Supreme Court.

Children are better protected from night work than are women. All states except Nevada and South Dakota now prohibit children from working in factories at night, usually between 7 p.m. and 6 a.m. but in some states from 8, 9, or 10 p.m. Canneries, unfortunately, are often excepted. About three-quarters of the states and the District of Columbia extend the prohibition to stores, and in half the states all occupations except agriculture and housework are covered. Textile mills and glass works have been found to present the most stubborn opposition to this legislation.

HOME WORK

Industrial home work menaces the health of those who work under this sweating system. It also endangers the health of the ultimate consumer of the product and lowers the standards of the factory workers in those industries where it is practiced. Long experience with the countless difficulties of regulating child labor, hours, minimum wages, sanitation, and health in tenement house manufacture have led labor legislation conferences to recommend complete abolition rather than attempted regulation.

Regulatory statutes exist in 18 states and Puerto Rico. They require that work on

[2] Merged in 1925 into the International Association for Social Progress.

garments, food-stuffs, and tobacco be done in rooms licensed by the factory inspection bureau, that only members of the family be employed, that health and safety laws be complied with, and that work cease during sickness of members of the family until certificates are issued by the department of health. In some states each home worker must obtain a certificate from the labor department, and the department may prohibit such work in industries where it is found to menace labor standards in factories. Nevertheless, difficulty of enforcement has made long hours, child labor, and starvation wages a continuing feature of home work.

As early as 1885 New York sought to prohibit cigar making in the home. The law was declared unconstitutional and the state continued to attempt regulation. Bad conditions resulted in another attempt in 1913 to prohibit tenement manufacture and a New York statute covering food products, dolls, and children's and infants' clothing was upheld by the courts. In 1933 New Jersey passed a similar law. Connecticut, Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island now have adopted still more restrictive legislation and the trend may be said to be toward further prohibition.

Three additional states (Colorado, Oregon, and Utah) and the District of Columbia, which have no industrial home work statutes, have issued regulations through administrative orders.

Minimum Fair Wage

Minimum wage legislation is an extension of earlier protective legislation to the regulation of the amount of the wage itself. It is recognized that if the amount of wage received drops below a certain level the workers' health and well-being may be impaired. No factor is more important in keeping workers from falling into the dependent class than the payment of a minimum fair wage.

Women workers are particularly subject to exploitation. Absence of organization for collective bargaining, family obligations making it difficult to move to places with better opportunities, and cutthroat competition among unorganized, unskilled workers serve to drive wages down to the lowest level that the partially supported woman or the immigrant with low standards is willing to take. In times of depression employers have been able to reduce wages so low that public funds have had to be used to subsidize these employers by supplementary relief payments to their employes. The employer hiring workers at his own price tends to continue slack and inefficient production methods, meeting competition entirely at the expense of the payroll.

State Laws

Massachusetts in 1912 was the first state to adopt a minimum wage law applying to women and children. By 1923, 15 states, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico had adopted such laws, but two of these had been repealed. In 1923 the United States Supreme Court held the District of Columbia law unconstitutional as applied to women.[1] This decision checked progress for a decade. By 1930 four more of these laws had been held unconstitutional and one—the Wisconsin law—had been amended.

The depression, with its alarming decline in wages, gave new impetus to this legislation. In 1933 seven states adopted laws designed like the Wisconsin amended act of 1925 to withstand court test. In 1934 Massachusetts passed a mandatory act to replace her original non-mandatory law. In 1936 the United States Supreme Court in a five-to-four decision held the New York law unconstitutional on the basis of its earlier decision of 1923. Almost immediately, however, the Court was asked to reverse its 1923 decision in a case arising under the Washington minimum wage law of 1913.

[1] Adkins v. Children's Hospital, 261 U. S. 525, 43 Sup. Ct. 394 (1923).

This it did in sweeping language in another five-to-four decision in 1937.[1]

Six additional states enacted minimum wage laws during 1937 and 1938, Alaska was added in 1939, and in states where these laws had been earlier declared unconstitutional they were either re-enacted or declared in effect. By 1940 minimum wage laws existed in 26 states, Alaska, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico. Most of these laws apply to women and children, but five apply only to women. The Oklahoma law as enacted applies to men as well as women and minors, but the state supreme court in 1939, while specifically holding that minimum wage and maximum hour legislation is constitutional as applied to men as well as to women, held that those portions of the Oklahoma law relating to men and minors were invalid because of a defect in the title of the law.

Except for the Oklahoma minimum wage law and laws requiring payment of the "prevailing rate" of wages on public works projects, minimum wage legislation in this country prior to 1938 had covered only women and children. The notable exception was the system of industrial codes of fair competition adopted under the temporary NRA experiment. Following the NRA's collapse, Congress in 1936 adopted a law extending the "prevailing rate" rule to public contracts for purchases of supplies, goods, and equipment over $10,000 in value. In 1938 minimum wage regulation was again extended on a national basis through the Fair Labor Standards Act. This law, enforced by an administrator in the federal Department of Labor and applying to interstate industries with certain exceptions, fixes a flat minimum wage of 25 cents an hour for all workers during the first year, 30 cents an hour during the next six years, and 35 cents an hour thereafter. At any time, however, the rate in any industry may be fixed as high as 40 cents or as low as 30 cents an hour following the recommendations of a representative industry committee.

The administration of this federal law proceeded slowly, as already indicated, and it was not until 1940 that inspection personnel was substantially organized for its enforcement with limited state cooperation.

Meanwhile an interstate compact drafted by official representatives from Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New York, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island has been ratified by three states—Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island—and approved by Congress. It fixes general administrative standards to be included in all minimum wage laws enacted in the ratifying states, but it is regarded as of no practical effect since the adoption of the broader federal Fair Labor Standards Act.

Wage Standards

Early minimum wage laws required the payment of a "living wage," the cost of living being determined by the budget necessary for an entirely self-supporting woman. Because the Supreme Court decision of 1923 attacked the "living wage" standards in minimum wage legislation, later laws—beginning with the Wisconsin amended law of 1925—declared it to be contrary to public policy to employ women or minors at "an oppressive or unreasonable wage." The "fair wage" to be established by administrative orders is to be "a wage fairly and reasonably commensurate with the value of service or class of service rendered." Some states have adopted a combination of these two standards.

In fixing the minimum rates several states have adopted the standard of a higher hourly rate where full-time work is not provided. Nearly all minimum wage laws provide for hiring of minors and learners at lower rates but with definite provisions governing the apprenticeship period for learners and number permitted. Slow and infirm workers may be hired at lower rates only by special license. On the difficult problem of piecework the California commission, for

[1] West Coast Hotel Co. v. Parrish, 300 U. S. 379 (1937).

example, requires that the piece rates must yield the minimum wage to at least two-thirds of the women employes engaged on each product.

Minimum wage laws fall into two classes, the "flat rate" laws and the "wage board" laws, the latter being far more common among the laws which have been enacted in the United States. Under the flat rate law a fixed minimum is included in the statute and this prevents the necessary flexibility essential for proper adjustments to price levels. The "wage board" laws provide for fixing of rates by administrative bodies, usually after public hearings and on recommendations of representative committees. The administrative bodies enforce their own rulings. The federal act of 1938 is a combination of flat-rate and wage-board plans. Most recent state laws provide first for publication of names of offenders, and then for more drastic punishments by fines and, in some states, imprisonment. In states where minimum wage laws are in operation such enforcement bodies will usually be found in the labor department.

Contrary to frequently repeated statements, the minimum wage does not tend to become the maximum except in times of greatest depression. In normal times employers must pay more than the minimum in order to secure skilled labor. Only in times of widespread unemployment do wages for the more highly skilled workers drop close to the minimum, thus decreasing the wage differential between unskilled and skilled workers. It may safely be assumed that without a minimum in such times, all wages, for both skilled and unskilled wotkers, would go even lowet. Early fears that minimum wage laws would adversely affect trade unions have generally been unfounded and in recent years labor organizations have usually favored this type of legislation and have been represented on wage boards.

From the business point of view, surveys show none of the dire results predicted from this legislation. In California the employers cooperared to the extent that the law, although of doubtful constitutionality after the District of Columbia decision, went unchallenged. In New York most laundry owners rallied to the support of the legislation during its court test.

Safety and Health

A primary consideration in setting standards of protection for wage-earners is the provision of safe and healthful employment. Labor laws in the field of safety and health have embodied the following: (a) reporting of accidents or occupational diseases to the authorities, (b) prohibition or regulation of dangerous substances and dangerous machines and processes, (c) exclusion of certain classes of workers from certain employments, and (d) compensation for injuries suffered.

An example of the prohibition of dangerous substances is the almost world-wide elimination of the use of white phosphorus in the match industry. In general, however, protection against dangerous substances and machines takes the form of rules setting down conditions under which they may be used. Safety in employment is regulated under statutes and codes covering the guarding of machinery, fire protection, lighting, heating and ventilating, provision of clean toilets and wash and dressing rooms, and protection against infectious diseases.

Further protective laws exclude certain groups from certain employments. Children are not permitted to work in many types of occupations under various child labor laws. The exclusion of women from mining is almost complete in the United States, and they are excluded from other specified employments by the statutes of many states. Under childbirth protection laws women may not be employed for specified periods before and after confinement. Most useful in guarding against harmful employments is the Wisconsin type of statute, directing the State Industrial Commission to classify employments and to issue orders excluding women from any occupations prejudicial to their life, health, safety, or welfare. Physi-

cal examinations are required by some laws for men workers engaged in some specially hazardous or unhealthful employments, and technical qualifications are required for employments involving public safety.

Other Legislation

Employment

In striving toward the ideal of a stable annual income for labor, legislation has been enacted to help lessen the gaps between periods of employment. In most states there are laws providing for the establishment of public employment offices and for the regulation and licensing of private job agencies. *See* Employment Services. Another useful device is the systematic planning of public works, in which certain projects are reserved for those times when private employment drops off and when public work can in some measure absorb the surplus labor supply. That principle was adopted as federal policy in a law enacted by Congress in 1931. Regularization of employment by leveling off some of the peaks in the construction and other seasonal industries through better management was urged by the President's Conference on Unemployment in 1921. Improvement in this direction may be expected to result in time from the adoption of compulsory systems of unemployment reserves under the unemployment compensation provisions of the Social Security Act.

Individual Bargaining

Labor laws of great importance in social case work are those protecting the worker as an individual in his dealings with his employers. Statutes prohibiting imprisonment for debt, controlling the terms and conditions of apprenticeship, regulating the amounts of wage subject to attachment or garnishment for unpaid debt, and governing the assignment of future wages are all attempts to preserve the free character of labor. Company stores and company houses or labor camps are frequently subject to grave abuses and are forbidden or regulated in many states. Even socially desirable welfare plans for group hospital care, life insurance, and so forth, have sometimes been abused with the result that compulsory contributions for such purposes have been prohibited in some states and regulated in others.

Of another character are laws protecting the worker as creditor. Such laws relate to time of payment of wages, method and place of payment, method of computation of wages due under piecework systems, and machinery for collection of wages due. Frequency of wage payment is of vital importance in the working-class budget and most states require at least a semi-monthly pay day. Payment of wages in certain undesirable places like barrooms is sometimes forbidden, while several states have laws stipulating that wages must be paid during working hours and immediately upon discharge. Some type of mechanics' lien law or provision for wage preference in bankruptcy and receiverships is in force in every state of the union. More progressive states have administrative provisions enabling labor departments to aid in collecting individual claims for wages.

Collective Bargaining

A large body of labor law is concerned with the laborer's attempt to improve his conditions by dealing collectively with his employer through his own economic organization. The rights of employes and employers are defined by statute but in most respects the courts have been the dominant branch of the government so far as the law of collective bargaining is concerned. It might be said that the general attitude toward collective bargaining in the United States has gone through two phases—repression and toleration—and is now in some measure in a third phase—encouragement—as shown by the recent enactment of statutes guaranteeing the right to organize without discrimination and by attempts to outlaw company unions, to restrict the use

of injunctions in labor disputes, and to regulate the use of strike breakers. Of paramount importance was the adoption of the National Labor Relations Act in 1935, upheld by the United States Supreme Court in 1937, applying to industries doing substantial interstate businesses. It establishes as national policy the official encouragement of genuine collective bargaining. The National Labor Relations Board, created for the administration of this law, has been exceptionally successful, as measured by overwhelming support of the courts; but due to the vital nature of its work as it affects certain powerful recalcitrant employers, and owing to fierce factional division in the labor movement itself, it has been subjected to unexampled attack from both industry and labor as well as in Congress. Meanwhile, organization of labor has gone forward at an unprecedented rate under official encouragement. *See* LABOR RELATIONS.

Social Insurance

Insurance against accident, sickness, unemployment, premature death, and old age is a potent force in keeping wage-earners and their families out of the dependent class. *See* SOCIAL INSURANCE. Workmen's accident compensation as a substitute for the old system of employers' liability has been adopted in state after state until today only Mississippi has no such law. *See* WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION. Since the passage of the Social Security Act in 1935, unemployment insurance laws have spread to all of the states and a federal old age insurance program has been inaugurated. *See* OLD AGE AND SURVIVORS' INSURANCE and UNEMPLOYMENT COMPENSATION. Insurance against sickness and invalidism, while not included in the Act, was promised for a future date. *See* Health Insurance in MEDICAL CARE.

LABOR LAW ADMINISTRATION

State and Federal Agencies

Perhaps the clearest lesson learned from early efforts to secure effective enforcement of labor laws was the necessity of providing for full-time, salaried, central, administrative authorities. Until the 1880's most of the labor laws in this country were ineffective because of lack of proper machinery for enforcement. Today every state has provided at least one permanent public agency to administer its labor legislation.[1] In many states, however, inadequate appropriations and inefficient personnel continue to impair enforcement.

The first state agency for labor law administration in the United States was the Massachusetts Bureau of Labor Statistics, created in 1869 to investigate working conditions. Similar fact-finding bureaus were soon set up in many other states. In 1879 Massachusetts again pioneered by providing the first full-time state factory inspectors. Again her example was promptly followed in other states. The first mine inspector was appointed in Pennsylvania in 1869, a precedent for the independent mine inspection bureaus later set up in leading mining states. State conciliation and arbitration boards were also created in this early period. The first state employment service was inaugurated by Ohio in 1890. The United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, forerunner of the federal Department of Labor, was established in 1885.

A notable advance in labor law administration came in 1911 when Wisconsin created the State Industrial Commission to administer her recently enacted workmen's compensation law and also to exercise broad rule-making power under the first modern industrial safety and health law. Moreovet, enforcement of all other labor laws was unified under the Commission. This was the beginning of a trend toward unified labor law administration and more effective safety legislation. Although substantial progress has been made in administrative consolidation, independent mine inspection bureaus, workmen's compensation boards,

[1] For a list of labor departments, with their bureaus or other administrative divisions, see STATE AGENCIES—PUBLIC in Part Two.

and unemployment compensation commissions exist in many states.

Federal labor law administration is divided among a number of agencies, the most important of which are the Department of Labor and the Social Security Board. Others include the Railroad Retirement Board, the National Labor Relations Board, the United States Employees' Compensation Commission, the National Mediation Board, and the Vocational Division in the Office of Education.

Functions of a Labor Department

Among the functions of a labor department, inspection is one of the most important. By regular inspection of work places, the department determines whether or not the labor laws are being obeyed. Besides reporting discovered violations requiring the issuance of formal orders to comply, and in some instances prosecution, the modern factory inspector at his best is an expert in his field, qualified to instruct employers and workers on the advantages and means of compliance with the legal standards. His aim is to secure voluntary cooperation wherever possible, with compulsion through prosecution reserved for the recalcitrant. Some state labor departments enforce safety laws through one bureau, and woman and child labor laws through another. Many states, moreover, have specialized inspectors, such as mine, boiler, electrical, elevator, or building inspectors, to deal with hazards requiring special knowledge. In addition to routine inspections, investigations are made of the more serious industrial accidents and in response to complaints alleging violations of the law.

In all but a few states, administration of the workmen's compensation law is also a primary function of the labor department, or of an independent board or commission created by the workmen's compensation law. It involves supervision of benefit payments made by insurance carriers to injured workers or their dependents, and the determination of benefit rights in disputed cases. Where state compensation funds, either exclusive or competitive, have been established there is the added responsibility of managing a mutual insurance carrier. Closely related to workmen's compensation administration is the task of rehabilitating and retaining disabled workers. *See* VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION. Adoption of unemployment compensation by all of the states has greatly increased the size of the administrative task and added new and highly complex duties. It has also made necessary a large expansion of the public employment office system.

Fact-finding and publication of reports, the oldest functions of labor departments, are still among their major activities. The statistical and other information gathered and published by both state and federal departments serve an essential educational purpose. They keep the public informed of the department's activities, point to weaknesses in existing labor laws and administrative provisions, and lay the factual basis for new legislation. Most labor departments have statistical bureaus, and some also have specialized research bureaus devoted to such problems as industrial safety and hygiene or woman and child labor. Findings are published in monthly bulletins, special reports, news releases, or in the regular annual or biennial reports. Compilations of the state labor laws are also issued in pamphlet form.

In the administration of such labor laws as those dealing with safety and health and minimum wages, many labor departments have been granted the power to prepare and promulgate administrative rules which apply in specific terms the general standards and policies prescribed by statute law. For example, the legislatures in the more advanced states have required by statute that employers shall provide a reasonably safe place of employment, and they have directed the labor department to issue detailed rules or orders to make this requirement effective. When formally promulgated after public hearings these rules have the force

and effect of law. Such rule-making authority has usually been delegated to boards or commissions rather than to individual officials, and provision is often made for participation of advisory committees, representing employers, labor, and the public, in the preparation of the regulations. Such delegation of rule-making power, when properly safeguarded, is recognized both by legislatures and the courts to be necessary and desirable under modern industrial conditions, where expert knowledge and flexibility are indispensable to effective application of protective labor legislation. In many states, therefore, the codes of administrative regulations must be consulted along with the statutes in order to understand fully the existing labor laws.

Among other important functions of labor departments are also included the licensing and supervision of fee-charging employment agencies, the issuing of child labor permits and age certificates, the collection of unpaid wage claims, the enforcement of prevailing rate of wages on public works, the mediation and conciliation of labor disputes, and the enforcement of labor relations acts.

It is still true that "the price of adequate legislation effectively enforced is eternal vigilance" as the American Association for Labor Legislation continues to point out. Insufficient appropriations for inspection and executive staffs, public indifference, reluctance of judges to impose punishment, and the slow progress of civil service in state administration all serve to render the task more difficult. Nevertheless, each year sees an improvement in enforcement technique and wider application of established good practices.

International Cooperation

In August, 1934, the United States government became a member of the International Labor Organization at Geneva, and since then has been represented by an American delegation in the quarterly business sessions and in the international conferences held each year. This participation, if carried to its logical conclusion, will result in our joining in international cooperation for the ratification of labor treaties establishing uniform minimum protective standards throughout the world. A beginning was made in 1938 when five such conventions, dealing with maritime employment, were ratified by the United States.

AGENCIES IN THE FIELD

Striving constantly to improve and strengthen the enforcement of labor laws as well as seeking always to broaden the application of such legislation, private organizations have made an invaluable contribution in this field of social welfare. The National Consumers League has been especially active in the minimum wage campaign and in securing improved working conditions for women in industry. The National Child Labor Committee continues to work for ratification of the Child Labor Amendment, at the same time seeking constantly to strengthen the state child labor laws. The American Federation of Labor, the Congress of Industrial Organizations, and the National Women's Trade Union League of America throw in their strength in legislative campaigns. Stressing the ever-growing importance of administration, the American Association for Labor Legislation continues its thirty-year-old program of scientific research and study in many fields of labor legislation, followed by bill drafting, legislative campaigns, and cooperation with authorities and the interests involved to secure improved enforcement. The Department of Industrial Studies of the Russell Sage Foundation makes studies in this field and publishes reports. Among public agencies the state labor departments and the United States Department of Labor, particularly its Children's Bureau, Women's Bureau, Division of Labor Standards, and Wage and Hour Division, all play a significant part in the development of labor legislation, while the Washington Office of the International Labor Organization holds

out the hope of increasing international co-operation.

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LABOR RELATIONS.[1] The developments in employer-employe relations during the past seven years justify marking 1933 as a milestone in labor history. The advent of the New Deal found organized labor at a low ebb which was not entirely due to the preceding severe depression. During the relatively prosperous 1920's, organized labor had not only failed to gain a foothold in the new expanding mass-production industries but some of the best-established unions, such as in mining and clothing, had lost from one-third to one-half of their members, due largely to reduced numbers employed in these industries. Total union membership had dropped from over 5,000,000 in 1920 to less than 3,000,000 at the beginning of 1933.

While a favorable government has made possible the expansion which has continued almost without interruption since 1933, the part played by labor itself is significant. Given an even break by the law and courts, large masses of workers have shown a spontaneous desire toward organized effort to improve their condition in life, and vigorous labor leadership has come to the fore.

The National Industrial Recovery Act

The purpose of the National Industrial Recovery Act of 1933 (NIRA) was to restore employment and purchasing power. One short subsection provided the "open sesame" to union organization. While the right to bargain collectively already had been provided for a limited group by the Railway Act of 1926, and had been declared a public policy in the Norris-LaGuardia Act in 1932, Section 7(a) of the NIRA specifically established for all workers in interstate industries the legal right to organize and to bargain collectively. Furthermore, through labor boards it implemented legal sanction with administrative assistance and protection.

A wave of union activity followed in the wake of the passage of the NIRA. Much of this was the result of the planned efforts of union leaders who sought to organize the open shop areas within their respective industries. In many non-union industries and regions, however, the urge to organize emanated from the workers themselves, with union organizers in many instances unable to keep up with the demands made upon them. As a result of the twenty-two-months' activity during the regime of the National Recovery Administration (NRA) more than half a million workers became dues-paying members of unions and many more showed an active interest. Organized labor not only recouped its depression losses and regained some of the ground lost during the 1920's, but obtained some new recruits in the non-union automobile, rubber, radio, and other industries as well as among some of the white collar groups.

While unions were extending their membership and effectiveness, employers were equally active in setting up their substitute for trade unions—company unions. Many employers maintained that the new law did not disbar them from refusing to deal with anyone but their own employes and that workers' freedom "from interference, restraint or coercion" did not preclude employers' assistance in establishing and maintaining company unions. Accordingly, employe representation plans which had been formed before the depression and had become moribund were revived and new ones were established. Trade associations and employers' counselor agencies not only prepared model "plans" for their clients but maintained staffs of experts to assist companies in getting them started and keeping

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

them alive. By the spring of 1934, probably one-fourth of the industrial workers were in plants which maintained company unions. Almost two-thirds of these were established during the NRA—a majority of them after a strike had taken place or a trade union was making headway in the plant.

With this threat of increasing company unionism, due partly to the ambiguity of the language of Section 7(a), labor was not entirely unrelieved when the Supreme Court invalidated the NIRA in May, 1935. Significantly, what protection NIRA had afforded organized labor had become sufficiently acceptable to induce Congress to enact a law exclusively dealing with labor's rights and privileges.

The National Labor Relations Act

The National Labor Relations Act, enacted July 5, 1935, not only declares labor's right to organize and to bargain collectively but imposes upon employers the duty to bargain "in good faith." It protects bona fide unions by requiring that employe organizations shall be entirely free from employer assistance and by forbidding discrimination in hiring because of union activity. A non-partisan board, the National Labor Relations Board, is provided to enforce the law and to determine what union has been chosen by the workers in a given unit.

For almost two years the operation of the Act was seriously impeded through the resistance of employers who were firmly convinced that the Act would be invalidated in the courts. The constitutionality of the Act was affirmed by the United States Supreme Court on April 12, 1937, and a number of Supreme Court decisions since then have clarified the coverage of the Act and strengthened the powers of the Board. The Board's jurisdiction has been interpreted to include all manufacturing plants which ship across state lines either before or after sale more than an insignificant volume of goods, as well as concerns, such as power plants, where an interruption in production would interfere with interstate commerce. The Court has maintained that the Board has original jurisdiction in cases arising under the Act and that no court may enjoin the Board from holding hearings or making determinations. While a determination once made may be appealed to the circuit courts, in election cases the Board has final jurisdiction as to the election procedure, the appropriate bargaining unit, and the labor organizations which are entitled to participate.

The National Labor Relations Act signifies government assistance of the first magnitude to organized labor. A country which had been unique in its almost complete absence of governmental support of collective action by its wage-earners has now reversed its position and given to a government board broad powers to carve out new industrial relations patterns.

Through its quasi-judicial powers to interpret and determine unfair labor practices, the Board is able to prevent employers from engaging in most of those practices which had become the most impregnable obstacles to union expansion. Through its jurisdiction in the establishment of bargaining units the Board may sanction or disallow bargaining on a basis broad enough to permit standardization of working conditions throughout an entire industry, locality, or multi-plant corporations. Through its power to examine the circumstances surrounding the creation and functioning of employes' organizations and to detetmine what agencies may appear on the ballot, the Board is able to deal a death blow to bona fide labor unions' most formidable rival—the company-dominated union.

Company Unions

The character of unions confined to employes of a single plant or company necessarily underwent drastic change after the enactment of the National Labor Relations Act which forbids employers to assist in their formation, operation, or financing. The withdrawal of employer support resulted in the

collapse of most of the company unions established during the NRA and previously. A few, which had been relatively free from employer domination or support, continued with some minor alterations. Also a number of new plant organizations have been established during the past few years.

No information is available on the total number of company unions now in existence. About 7.5 per cent of all elections held by the National Labor Relations Board, including 11 per cent of all votes cast, have been won by unaffiliated plant unions. The Board has certified more than 200 such organizations; an unknown number have never been involved in election issues and therefore have never come before the Board.

There have been several attempts to enlist these plant organizations into so-called "independent" federations. Thus far such efforts have resulted in little more than paper organizations.

Division of Labor's Ranks

Since the beginning of the American Federation of Labor (AF of L) there have been differences of opinion as to whether unions should be organized along occupational or craft lines, or whether unions should be coterminous with the industries concerned. Several of the older AF of L unions—for example, mining, brewery, clothing, shoes —were established on an industrial basis, although some of the locals of the latter two followed craft lines. Predominantly, however, craft unionism prevailed in the AF of L.

When the organization of the mass-production industries was undertaken during the time of the NRA, the issue of craft versus industrial unionism became acute. At the 1934 AF of L convention a resolution was adopted which recognized that there had been "a change in the nature of the work performed by millions of workers in industries which it has been most difficult or impossible to organize into craft unions." The same resolution stated, however, "We consider it our duty to formulate policies which will fully protect the jurisdictional rights of all trade unions organized upon craft lines." The controversy came to a head at the 1935 convention, when the industrial union resolution was defeated (10,933 in favor and 18,024 against) and when exclusive jurisdiction was denied the automobile, rubber, radio, and other unions.

A month after this convention (November, 1935) the presidents of eight AF of L unions created a Committee for Industrial Organization (CIO) "for the purpose of encouraging and promoting the organization of the unorganized workers in mass-production and other industries upon an industrial basis." During the ensuing months several other AF of L unions joined the CIO. Membership was later augmented by new groups which had never been affiliated, by factions which had broken away from AF of L unions, and by groups of AF of L federal unions which had never belonged to a national or international union.

In August, 1936, the Executive Council of the AF of L ordered the AF of L unions then participating in the CIO to withdraw and upon their refusal they were suspended from the AF of L. All peace efforts in the meantime having failed, in May, 1938, these unions, with the exception of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, were finally expelled. In November, 1938, the 32 national unions and 9 national organizing committees, together with city and state bodies forming the Committee for Industrial Organization, met in constitutional convention and established the permanent Congress of Industrial Organizations (CIO).

Preceding this 1938 convention, the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union withdrew from the CIO and in June, 1940, reaffiliated with the AF of L. Thus, organized labor in the United States is divided into several groups—the AF of L, the CIO, and such important independent unions as the railroad brotherhoods. The structural separateness does not in all cases or at all times connote a division in program. The railroad brotherhoods are closely

allied with the AF of L and act with them in matters of common interest. In some communities even the AF of L and the CIO local unions have arrived at a common understanding and work together in matters of mutual interest.

Union Expansion

As a result of favorable legislation, the dynamics of a new movement, and the revived aggressiveness of the older unions, trade union membership has more than doubled within five years—from about 3,500,000 in 1935 to over 8,000,000 at the beginning of 1940. For the first time unions have made a successful entry in the mass-production industries such as steel, automobiles, and rubber. Sections of the country which had been untouched by any trade union activity have found energetic organization campaigns under way. Workers in industrial centers in southern states, as well as in many of the smaller communities in the northern states, have been aroused to trade union consciousness for the first time. Organization has made headway among the agricultural hired laborers, sharecroppers, and cannery workers where local pressure has not been too intimidating. Coal miners have been organized in those sections where employer hostility, aided by local law enforcement agencies, had been an effective barrier against unionization. Interest in organization has extended into certain groups of white collar workers, such as newspaper reporters, as well as office workers and retail clerks in some cities.

Expansion has not been confined to new industries and areas, however. The long-established unions which had been declining in membership since the post-war depression have been able to increase their membership in the normally union trades and centers as well as among the workers who have logically come within their purview through changing industrial processes.

Organizing campaigns reached a peak in 1937. During the latter part of that year and the early part of 1938 there was a slowing down, due chiefly to a business recession. Another factor was the public reaction against certain aggressive organizing activities, especially the sit-down strikes—a tactical procedure which has been almost entirely abandoned during recent months. In 1937 there were 477 strikes in which all or part of the strikers remained at their work places for one or more days after ceasing work. In 1938 the number decreased to 52 and in 1939 there were only six sit-down strikes, involving fewer than 3,500 workers. While there has been a lessening of the spectacular mass drives characteristic of 1937, most of the unions at present are actively engaged in extending their membership and influence.

About one-fourth of all employed wage-earners in the United States now belong to labor unions. The proportion of workers covered by signed agreements is much more since many workers who are not dues-paying union members are working in plants having union agreements. Although the number of agreements in effect is not known, the Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor, has made estimates of the proportion of workers in the various industries who are covered by union agreements.[1]

Outstanding among industries almost entirely under written agteements are coal mining, railroad train and engine service, flat glass, brewery, newspaper, printing, fur, and men's and women's clothing. Musicians, actors, and radio artists and performers are almost all working under collective bargaining conditions. Among the mass-production industries the automobile industry, with the exception of the Ford Motor Company, is almost entirely under union agreements, as is also the steel industry with the exception of half a dozen of the medium-size concerns, and the rubber industry with the exception of the Goodyear Tire and Rubber Company and a few small plants.

[1] Peterson, Florence, "Industrial Relations in 1938," in *Monthly Labor Review*. March, 1939.

At the other extreme are the industries where there is little and in some cases almost a complete absence of collective bargaining. Among these are agriculture, domestic service, iron mining, quarrying, and office and professional work.

There are wide sectional differences in the degree of unionization within a number of the industries. For instance, while longshoremen and seamen on the Atlantic and Pacific Coasts are generally under agreements, there are few agreements on the Gulf Coast or Great Lakes. Most of the union agreements in the aircraft manufacturing, lumbering, fishing, and canning industries are with companies on the West Coast. Organization of building maintenance workers is predominantly in New York City and a few other large cities. Most of the full-fashioned but few of the seamless hosiery mills in the North are under agreement, while agreements are almost non-existent in both branches in the South.

Union Agreements

While union agreements in the United States vary a good deal with respect to the amount of detail in which the terms are described, the majority mention all the items which usually are considered to be subject to employer-union negotiation.

Underlying all the specific terms concerning wages, hours, and other working conditions is the clause which defines the status of the union with respect to both the employer and the workers in the plant. Such clauses are of particular importance in this country where collective bargaining has met with opposition by the employers, and where the mere obtaining of a union recognition agreement frequently represents years of struggle and many bitter disputes. Even after collective bargaining is nominally accepted, there may be an absence of mutual good faith and a suspicion that the formal recognition will be nullified or compromised in the day-to-day working relationship.

Almost half of the organized workers in the United States are covered by agreements which require that all employes in the trade or plant be members of the union. In a number of the well-established unions—for example, building, men's clothing, and printing—most of the agreements provide not only that all employes be members but that new employes must be obtained through the union. Under other closed-shop agreements the employer is free to hire whom he wishes, but new employes must join the union either immediately or after a learning or probation period.

In many agreements, particularly in the agreements recently signed in the mass-production industries, the union is specified as the sole bargaining agency after having obtained the support of a majority of the employes. While all employes are not required to be union members, on the principle of majority rule the union is recognized as the bargaining agent for all. This is usually a transitional step between first recognition and the closed shop, since unions naturally are averse to a continuing arrangement whereby a portion of the workers pay for benefits shared by all.

The check-off—deductions from employes' pay of union dues and assessments—is provided in most of the agreements in the coal mining and hosiery industries, and is common in the clothing and a few other industries. It occurs occasionally in the agreements of most of the unions.

Further aids to the union are given in a number of agreements which provide that union officials be allowed leave of absence to attend to union business and that they be given certain protections or preferences in employment and lay-off. Many agreements provide special safeguards against dismissal of union officers because of union activity.

The provisions in union agreements dealing with working conditions cover every aspect of employment—wages, hours, holidays and vacations, seniority rules, health and safety standards, and other working rules which vary considerably according to

the special conditions pertaining to the trade or industry.

Seniority provisions have become of increasing importance in union agreements, especially in the newly organized mass-production industries where business fluctuations result in frequent lay-offs and where unions feel the need for some protective device against discriminatory treatment in lay-off, rehiring, and promotions. Some agreements provide for rigid seniority, either on an occupational, departmental, or plant basis; others have certain qualifying features as, for example, a share-the-work plan through shortening of hours to a specified number before lay-offs according to seniority, or a recognition of individual efficiency and number of dependents, along with length of service. Merit is frequently included with seniority for promotions and transfers, although many agreements provide for promotions on a straight seniority basis.

Labor Disputes and Their Settlement

When seeking recognition or redress in union discrimination cases, there is evidence that unions are less prone than formerly to engage in strike action and are more inclined to resort to the National Labor Relations Board. The proportion of recognition and discrimination strikes to all strikes has declined from 52 per cent during the spring of 1937 (when the National Labor Relations Act was declared constitutional) to about 20 per cent at the end of 1939.[1] Meanwhile, the number of charges and petitions received by the Board increased from about 4,000 in 1937 to almost 7,000 in 1939.[2]

Strikes for all causes—wages and hours, closed shop, and other matters as well as recognition and discrimination disputes—have declined during the past two years after reaching an all-time high in 1937. In this year there were 4,740 strikes involving 1,860,600 workers, with almost 28,500,000 man-days of idleness due to these strikes. In 1938 there were 2,772 strikes which involved 688,400 workers and about 9,000,000 man-days of idleness. In 1939 there were only 2,613 strikes. However, due largely to one strike—the general bituminous coal stoppage—there was an increase in the total number of workers and man-days of idleness in the 1939 strikes to 1,171,000 workers and 17,812,000 man-days.

Practically all union agreements now in effect make some provision for the adjustment of grievances, misunderstandings, and disputes which arise in the day-to-day working relationship. Most generally the agreements call for a series of procedural steps beginning with negotiations at the point of origin of the dispute, with the higher union and employer representatives successively brought into the negotiations. Usually there is provided a final step in the adjustment process to be used when negotiations between the highest union and company officials have failed to arrive at a settlement. This final step is almost invariably arbitration by an impartial individual or agency selected for the occasion. In some instances there may be continuing joint committees to deal with industrial problems which have proved to be a recurring source of grievance. Almost every union agreement accompanies the machinery for the settlement of disputes with restrictions on work stoppages. Some agreements prohibit strikes and lock-outs during the entire term of the agreement, while others postpone the use of strikes and lock-outs until all the steps in the adjustment process have been taken. In some agreements stoppages are specifically authorized if necessary to secure enforcement of an agreement provision or an arbitrator's award.

Legal compulsory arbitration does not at present exist anywhere in the United States. By court decision, as well as preponderance of public opinion, it is held to be contrary

[1] Speech of Senator Wagner, in *Congressional Record*. March 13, 1940.

[2] National Labor Relations Board, *Annual Reports*.

to a free, democratic form of government. In only rare instances have government agencies been given the authority even to investigate or to make recommendations if neither party has asked for such outside intervention. Predominantly in this country legislation dealing with the settlement of labor disputes has clearly indicated that any government intervention shall be voluntarily agreed upon by the parties concerned, and that acceptance of the findings or recommendations shall be optional unless both parties have voluntarily agreed in advance to accept an arbitrator's decision.

When the United States Department of Labor was established in 1913, one of the functions assigned to the Department was that of mediating in industrial disputes. The present Unired States Conciliation Service now has a staff of 60 commissioners, actively engaged in efforts to settle questions in dispute before strikes and lock-outs occur, or to bring them to a speedy settlement if they have already started. Acceptance of the commissioner's service is optional and his recommendations may or may not be adopted. The results he obtains are entirely dependent upon the prestige of his office, the assistance he can render by reason of his knowledge of the facts involved in the dispute, his skill as a negotiator, and the willingness of the opposing parties to come to terms of agreement.

For the railroad industry there is a National Mediation Board, appointed by the President, and a National Railroad Adjustment Board, consisting of employer and union representatives. The Adjustment Board handles disputes growing out of grievances or out of the interpretation or application of agreements concerning rates of pay, rules, or working conditions. The National Mediation Board holds elections and certifies who shall be the representative agency for the various groups of railroad employes. It also mediates disputes upon the request of either party. If its efforts fail, the President may appoint an emergency board to investigate the facts. While the law does not require compliance with the recommendations of the emergency board, the publication of the findings of fact makes it very difficult for either party not to follow its suggestions.

The Merchant Marine Act of 1938 provided for a Maritime Labor Board which serves as mediator in maritime disputes. This Boatd, however, is temporary and will cease to function after June, 1941, unless legislative provision is made for its continuance.

Several of the states maintain conciliation services which function more or less like the United States Conciliation Service. Two srates—Massachusetts and New York—have maintained conciliation agencies for over fifty years and have been particularly active during the past several years. Recently several cities have established municipal conciliation boards. A large majority of the disputes handled by the state and city agencies are those in the local service trades and small plants.

Labor and Government

Organized labor in the past has been indifferent and even opposed to protective legislation for improving working conditions except those of women and children. It believed that such improvement should and could be gained directly through collective bargaining. As the depression which began in 1929 continued with increasing severity and distress, organized labor came to adopt a different policy. At its 1932 convention, the AF of L endorsed governmental unemployment insurance and thereafter took an active part in the formulation and enactment of the Social Security Act. Both the AF of L and the CIO are now represented on the Federal Advisory Council of the Bureau of Employment Security, Social Security Board, and are raking an active part in the improvement and expansion of social security legislation.

The Fair Labor Standards Act in 1938 was the first important federal legislation which expressly recognized labor as having

equal standing with employers.[1] On the industry committees provided by this Act to recommend higher than the specified minimum wages, there is equal representation of employes, employers, and the public. The administrator of the Act has interpreted employe representation to mean representatives from the union or unions functioning in the particular industry. The unions serving on these committees have shown a disposition to assume their full role in the administration of the Act. *See* LABOR LEGISLATION AND ADMINISTRATION.

Accompanying this increased participation in the enactment and administration of legislation, labor has taken more active interest in political affairs. While both the AF of L and the CIO continue to endorse candidates regardless of party, according to labor's traditional policy of "reward your friends and punish your enemies," in recent elections the unions in a number of localities have united in endorsing entire tickets of candidates and have taken an unusually active part in the campaigns. In the last national elections, through the device of a Labor's Non-Partisan League, a large proportion of organized labor actively participated in the campaign to re-elect a New Deal administration. In New York, unions joined with liberals in forming the American Labor Party, which was very successful in 1936 and 1938.

The existing split in the labor movement was felt at the 1938 elections when the two factions in a number of communities openly endorsed different candidates and parties. Since 1938 the American Labor Party has not only failed to extend its area of influence in accordance with its original plan and hopes but has experienced serious internal dissension. Before the 1938 elections, the AF of L ordered its unions to withdraw from the Labor's Non-Partisan League and the League is now predominantly a CIO agency. There is at present no indication of any combined political action on the part of the AF of L unions. However, while labor is divided on the national political front in certain localities, the AF of L and the CIO unions and independent unions are cooperating in getting certain candidates elected and particular legislation passed.

Employer Welfare and Personnel Management

Employer welfare activities and personnel policies have undergone considerable change in response to recent legislation and the increased influence of labor unions. The 1920's marked the peak of employer welfare activities. At least one-third of the larger concerns maintained medical services, mutual benefit associations, and personnel and welfare departments. Almost one-half carried group life insurance. Employe stock ownership was encouraged and sometimes required. Plant magazines, edited by the personnel manager and published by the company, became increasingly popular.[1]

Much of this welfare work was abandoned during the 1929–1932 depression. Since 1933, when the government became actively concerned with employer-labor relations and organized labor started to expand its area of influence, employers have been faced with a new situation. Many hoped and expected that the new legislation and labor activity would be temporary and considered no fundamental changes in management policy necessary. Such employer attitudes and poli-

[1] In all such generalizations the legislative history for the railroad industry must be excepted. Lack of space precludes a description of the role the railroad unions have taken in legislation affecting their interests. The more important of the railroad unions have never affiliated with the regular trade union movement, largely because they felt they could better obtain special legislation and other governmental assistance by maintaining such independence. *See* RAILROAD WORKERS' INSURANCE.

[1] The National Industrial Conference Board reported (*Industrial Relations Programs in Small Plants*, 1929) that of 1,676 companies studied which employed more than 250 workers, 34 per cent had personnel departments, 33.5 per cent had plant physicians, 47.5 per cent had plant nurses, 43 per cent had athletic teams, 47 per cent had group life insurance, and 30 per cent had mutual benefit associations.

cies necessarily changed when the constitutionality of the National Labor Relations Act was affirmed by the Supreme Court in 1937, and when organized labor proved its capacity to weather the depression which ensued during the latter part of that year.

While many employers are still bitterly opposed to the National Labor Relations Act and are seeking every means to forestall its application, an increasing number show a disposition to accept collective bargaining as inevitable. Such employers are directing their attention to the adjustments which are necessary to fit their personnel policies within a collective bargaining framework. This frequently has involved a reorientation of the entire supervisory staff from the foreman to the general manager, including the personnel manager. Top company officials, accustomed to deciding and then announcing new wage scales and working rules, must now meet and negotiate with union representatives. Foremen, accustomed to supreme authority over employes within their departments, must now deal with union grievance committees. Personnel directors, whose former task was to make palatable to workers the conditions provided by the employer, must now seek to harmonize worker demands with good business policy.

Such changes in personnel practices are vividly revealed in the conference discussions and activities of such organizations as the American Management Association, Industrial Relations Counselors, Inc., local and regional industrial relations associations, and the industrial relations sections of several of the larger universities. Formerly much of their time was occupied with such matters as labor turnover, wage incentive plans, employe representation plans, and ways of bringing about a closer relationship between employers and individual employes. Trade unions were seldom mentioned except occasionally when indicating how "right" personnel policies not only kept unions out but made them superfluous.

Discussions at industrial relations conferences have undergone drastic changes during recent years. Instead of ignoring trade unions or discussing substitutes for them, personnel managers are now concerned with the specific problems arising in the day-to-day employer-union relationship—the provisions to be included in union agreements, the mechanical procedure for dealing with grievance committees, methods of adapting union-instigated seniority and promotion rules to operating efficiency, and so forth. To some of the conferences union representatives have been invited to discuss and interpret the union's position with respect to such employer-employe problems.

Following the enactment of the federal Social Security Act, some of the company old age pension plans were dropped. A number of companies, however, revamped their existing plans in order that they would dovetail into the federal program, thus providing more liberal pensions for their employes than were possible under the Social Security Act. A few new pension plans have been adopted. In contrast to the prevailing non-funded, company-financed and administered plans of former years, the new and revised plans tend to be of the annuity type which are supported by joint contributions of employers and employes.

Workers Alliance

The mass demonstrations before relief offices, and the hunger marches to state and national capitals, which took place during the first months of the depression beginning in 1929 were conducted by no permanent organizations of unemployed. They were the spontaneous response of many distressed individuals to the rallying cry of some self-appointed leader. During the second and third winters of the depression more or less formal organizations of unemployed began to appear in a number of communities. These sought to exert group pressure on local authorities for more adequate relief; a few undertook cooperative or self-help programs. As the states and finally the federal government took over some of the responsibility for providing for the unemployed,

many of these local organizations united into one of a number of regional or national groups such as the California Federation of Unemployed, the Unemployed Councils, the Unemployed League, and so forth.

In March, 1935, representatives from unemployed organizations in 18 states assembled in Washington and formed the Workers Alliance of America (the Unemployed Councils and the Unemployed League and some others did not join the Alliance until later). The announced goal of the Workers Alliance was "to unite all the unemployed into one mighty movement that will win economic justice for ourselves and our families."[1] Economic justice, at least for the immediate future, was interpreted to mean "work for all at union wages with a minimum of $30.00 a week for 30 hours of work."[2] Its founders expressed the hope that the Alliance would be one means of uniting all workers "not only economically but also politically for independent working class political action."[3]

The Workers Alliance reached its peak during 1937–1938. At that time it claimed 800,000 members although probably not more than one-third of these paid their dues with any regularity. While it enlisted the support of all the unemployed, it was essentially a Work Projects Administration (WPA) workers' organization. On the job, the Alliance was not unlike a regular union: its local officers attempted to settle grievances, to improve working conditions, and to prevent discrimination. It engaged in strikes and its mass demonstrations before local relief offices were not unlike picketing.

Since the basic wage rates and hours and rules for allocation of WPA work were determined at Washington, the major efforts of the Alliance necessarily were directed toward bringing pressure upon Congress, the President, and the federal directors of the WPA. Although the Alliance has never succeeded in obtaining the appropriations it sought, it no doubt has been influential in keeping the unemployment program as liberal as it has been. On the administrative side, WPA officials not only issued formal declarations that WPA workers had the right to organize and to select representatives of their own choice to adjust their grievances, but followed a practice of dealing with any WPA representatives who called at their offices.

During the past several years the Workers Alliance has lost much of its initial vigor and following. Due to the intermittent employment on WPA projects, a stability in membership in such an organization as the Workers Alliance was always difficult. This situation was magnified with the provision in the 1939–1940 relief appropriation act which required that no WPA workers be employed continuously for more than eighteen months. At present only a small fraction of the WPA workers belong to the Workers Alliance, although it is still active in Washington and a few of the larger cities. *See* WORK RELIEF.

The relation of the Workers Alliance to the trade union movement was always very tenuous. Upon occasion they have acted together, as, for example, in lobbying for the prevailing wage bill on WPA projects and in protest when this policy was abandoned. The Workers Alliance in New York City enrolled in the American Labor Party along with a number of unions and other groups. On the whole, however, the trade unions have been wary of too close a relationship to any organizations of unemployed. In some instances they have considered the leadership of the unemployed organizations to be too radical; always they have feared that the very weight in numbers of the unemployed would bog down their own programs for the protection and betterment of conditions for their members.

Rather than identify themselves with the Workers Alliance or any unemployed organization, a few unions have sponsored organization activities for their own unem-

[1] *The Workers Alliance*, August 15, 1935, and January, Second Issue, 1936.
[2] *Ibid.*
[3] *Ibid.*

ployed membership. Outstanding is the Automobile Workers' Union, which has established auxiliary locals for its unemployed members which are supervised by a so-called welfare department of the International Union. The auxiliaries and the welfare department work with the public agencies to see that WPA jobs and adequate relief are provided. By looking after their members through periods of unemployment, the union is able to maintain a stability which it would not otherwise have in a seasonal industry.

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LEGAL AID.[1] Fundamental to a democratic form of government is the concept that every person, irrespective of his means or station in life, is entitled to the equal protection of the law as a matter of right. Inherited from the Anglo-Saxon system of jurisprudence, this principle is expressed in one form or another in our federal and various state constitutions and has been an implicit and guiding tenet in every progressive movement for social betterment both within and without the field of law.

A corollary is that, for any law to be other than a written abstraction, the skilled services of legally trained specialists are necessary to interpret it and to apply it to spe-

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

cific cases. The development of a predominantly urban and highly industrialized social order, by necessitating the enactment of an increasing number and variety of laws, has not only made the lawyer even more indispensable to the administration of justice but has multiplied the need for his services among all classes of citizens. More than that, it has created problems of expense and delay in the whole process of setting the machinery of the law in motion—obstacles which to the poor became insurmountable. It is to the credit of the bar that it has endeavored to shoulder the responsibility for securing this ideal of equal justice. Individual lawyers in uncounted numbers have given generously of their skill to the poor and the oppressed, and organizations of the bar in cooperation with other groups have devised and sponsored many improvements in legal procedure to make justice more accessible to persons of small means.

Such steps, however, are but a partial solution. The most efficient and low-cost legal machinery which can be devised is of little use to a person who cannot hire the technical skill to set it in motion, nor can it provide him with the legal advice he must frequently have to prevent his needing it. The willingness of lawyers to render this service to the poor as an individual charity fails completely in the more urban and industrialized communities and is becoming less effective in rural areas. There are several reasons for this. Privately practicing lawyers are necessarily limited in the amount of gratuitous time which they can afford to give. Surveys conducted by the American Bar Association in selected communities have demonstrated conclusively that large numbers of poor persons do not realize that lawyers may be willing to assist without charge and that most of those who do either do not know any lawyer to turn to or feel out of place in the average law office.

The only practical method so far discovered by which this very real and critical denial of justice can be overcome has been organized legal aid. Although varying in form and scope of service, these organizations have the common purpose of providing the services of a lawyer, in and out of court, to individual clients who because of poverty are unable to secure legal assistance elsewhere; of promoting remedial legislation for their protection; and of cooperating with other groups to lift the poor man over the obstacles of expense and delay in his search for justice. While the emphasis of the individual legal aid office may be to provide the services of a lawyer in specific cases, all of these objectives are encompassed in the legal aid movement.

A distinction should be noted between legal aid and the type of office which is being developed expetimentally in some parts of the country for rendering legal service to persons of moderate means able to pay a fee which, though small, is sufficient to make it profitable, if properly organized, for practicing lawyers to undertake it. Such offices are known variously as legal service bureaus and neighborhood law offices. They represent an attempt on the part of the bar to serve the public more fully, but are related to the legal aid movement only in philosophy and technique. Legal aid is exclusively a service limited to persons who are too poor to pay a fee sufficient to induce any practicing lawyer to do the work.

Legal Aid Activities

Civil matters handled by legal aid organizations run the gamut of legal problems and include such matters as the collection of wages; protection of individuals against usury and unjust money claims; recovery of clothing and personal articles unjustly withheld; contracts for instalment purchases; wage assignments and levies against wages; claims for insurance, usually under industrial type policies; small claims for damages to individuals and their property; workmen's compensation; disputes between landlords and tenants; small estates of children and deceased and incompetent persons; adoption, support, custody, and legitimacy of minors; and divorce, annulment, and sup-

port cases between husbands and wives. Since local attitudes toward certain types of cases, lack of funds, and inadequate staff frequently limit the types of cases handled in particular communities, it cannot be assumed that all of the existing legal aid organizations offer such a comprehensive service. The establishment in some localities of specialized tribunals such as small claims courts and domestic relations courts, or the existence of an adequate law for the collection of wages through the state labor department, may make service by a legal aid organization in certain types of cases unnecessary. The defense of indigent persons accused of criminal offenses is generally handled by legal aid organizations specializing in this field. They are called public or voluntary defenders, depending upon the source of their support.

At least half of these many and troubled affairs of the needy require only legal advice but, significantly, they require a specialized kind of legal advice which is adapted to the limitations of the group presenting them. Beyond this, they need a lawyer's help in the drafting of contracts and other legal documents, in making investigations of court records, and in attempting, especially in domestic relations matters, to reconcile a wide variety of disrupting differences out of court. Actual representation in court is needed in a much smaller number of civil cases, but when required the service is obviously more urgent. The volume of such cases is higher in communities without small claims courts and adequate provision in the law for wage collections. Even so, there are always contested matters beyond the jurisdiction of such tribunals: workmen's compensation cases; marital matters not handled by domestic relations courts such as divorce, judicial separation, annulment, custody, and guardianship of children; estate matters; conversion or unlawful withholding of property; and many other matters which must be taken to court with the help of an attorney.

Less urgent and dramatic is the work of legal aid organizations as laboratories in which the effect of existing rules of law upon an inarticulate and underprivileged clientele may be observed. Upon the basis of such observations legal aid organizations are able to suggest and sponsor appropriate legislation to correct whatever injustices appear. By correlating their efforts with other legal and social service groups they have helped to enact such legislation as the Uniform Small Loan Law to protect the small and necessitous borrower from the loan shark; workmen's compensation statutes to relieve the economic consequences of industrial accidents; improved provisions whereby court costs may be dispensed with for poor persons with legally meritorious claims; laws facilitating the collection of wages too small to justify litigation; laws establishing small claims courts; laws setting up juvenile and domestic relations courts; and laws seeking to protect instalment purchasers from exploitation.

During the past two years a good deal of attention has been given by legal aid organizations to the serious problems resulting from the over-extension of credit to the wage-earner group and the increase of unconscionable collection methods. The lack of adequate and equitable exemptions in the laws regulating attachments and levies upon wages and property to satisfy debts, the pressure of intensive advertising and sales efforts induced by the mass production of a wide variety of appealing articles, the unpredictable occurrence of unemployment and illness, and the policy of many employers to discharge workers against whose wages a garnishee execution or a wage assignment is filed, all combine to make the plight of the wage-earner-debtor a serious one. The enactment in 1939 of Chapter XIII of the revised federal bankruptcy law is a step toward a solution of this vexing problem. The law seeks to give to the wage-earner protection not only against the piling up of collection costs but against actual levies upon his wages and property. At the same time it permits him to liquidate

his debts in accordance with his income and the needs of his family through a trustee appointed by the court. As this is being written the law has not been in operation for a sufficient length of time to demonstrate its effectiveness. Already the files of legal aid offices have revealed several weaknesses such as a lack of adequate control by the court over secured claims and the often prohibitive court costs required to institute the proceeding. Various studies are in progress, however, which offer considerable hope that these provisions may eventually afford the full relief needed.

The subject of small claims courts also should have special comment because these specialized tribunals are proving to be highly successful in aid of persons who might otherwise be denied their day in court because of expense, delay, or lack of counsel. Essentially, these courts seek to provide a free and informal forum to which persons may present small claims—generally under $50—with a minimum of confusion, expense, and delay, and with the assurance of prompt decisions in accordance with the law. By dispensing with traditional and complex rules of pleadings, procedure, and evidence, a single judge with the help of a clerk can take care of a large volume of cases expeditiously and at a relatively small cost. Although provision is made for impartial hearings and for the right of appeal, experience has shown that in the vast majority of cases there is no dispute between the parties as to the essential facts involved. The first of these courts was set up in Cleveland in 1913. Since then their establishment has been widespread, particularly in the more highly industrialized communities. However, until they are available to persons in every section of the country our administration of justice will be incomplete.

Aside from the actual service rendered to individuals and the importance of organized legal aid as a device for testing the adequacy of the law for persons in the lower income group, legal aid organizations have proved their value in other ways. It has been found that, for genuinely effective service, the nature of the legal difficulties as well as the type of clients who need the help call for special skills and techniques and for unique qualifications of temperament on the part of staff attorneys, which are not required or found in the average law office. Through organization these qualities can be developed in a legal aid office in the community, with the result that an efficient service adapted to the peculiar needs of this particular group can be rendered in line with the increasing specialization which has proved its effectiveness in the private practice of law. Also, through cooperation with other legal and social agencies, the legal aid office is able to offer a service which not only avoids overlapping but gears itself effectively into the broader social planning of the community. As an unorganized charity of individual lawyers this is quite impossible.

Legal aid service is now provided through seven more or less distinct forms of organization. Chronologically first is the independent society, either incorporated with a self-perpetuating board of directors or organized as a membership body. Somewhat similar to this type is the social agency which carries on legal aid service as one of its major functions. Both these types are financed variously by community chests, private charitable contributions, and endowments. Public bureaus exist in several communities and, as the name implies, they are supported by public funds. In communities served by bar association committees the form of organization may be highly developed with office facilities and a paid staff or, as is the case in most places, a loosely organized activity carried on by the members of the committee as a charity without operating funds and with little continuity. The most recent type of organization is the legal aid clinic operated by law schools and having the dual objective of serving those in need of legal aid and providing supervised experience to law students. The other two forms, the voluntary and public defender organizations, have already been mentioned.

Legal Aid

History and Development

Organized legal aid had its inception in 1876 with the creation of what has since become the New York Legal Aid Society. Until 1890 only two other organizations were established. During the period from 1890 to 1917 the idea took firmer root with the result that 41 societies came into operation. These organizations, however, varied greatly in their scope of service and all were limited to the handling of civil cases.

In 1922, stimulated by the publication three years before of Reginald Heber Smith's book *Justice and the Poor* (*infra cit.*), the National Association of Legal Aid Organizations was organized upon the groundwork laid by the National Alliance of Legal Aid Societies which was formed in 1911. Its purpose has been to promote, guide, and develop legal aid work, to encourage the formation of new legal aid organizations wherever they may be needed, and to cooperate with the bar and other organizations interested in the administration of justice. Due primarily to the leadership of that Association and, in more recent years, to the stimulus of the American Bar Association, the number of organizations in the United States has increased to 120. Of these, 35 are independent societies, 15 operate as parts of welfare agencies, 10 are clinics operated by law schools, 34 are committees of bar associations which accept cases for service, 4 are public legal aid bureaus, 18 are public defenders, and 4 are voluntary defenders. Perhaps of even more importance than numbers, the quality and effectiveness of the service have been notably improved as a result of the work of the National Association of Legal Aid Organizations in developing competent standards, techniques, and operating policies.

Striking as this progress has been, however, legal aid facilities are far from adequate. Of the 93 cities in the United States having a population in excess of 100,000 there are 33 without organized facilities of any kind. In the 60 cities of this class having some form of legal aid service only 34 provide facilities for both civil and criminal cases. Of the remainder, 23 cities provide service only in civil cases and 3 cities provide service only in criminal cases. The need is not by any means limited to communities of this size, as surveys recently conducted by the Legal Aid Work Committee of the American Bar Association have repeatedly shown. It is but more acute in such places. The total number of legal aid organizations of all types cover only 100 communities in the United States.

Nor is the existing inadequacy exclusively one of coverage. Most of the 34 bar association committees maintain no office for legal aid clients either for the service itself or as a referral center. Many of these committees merely pass upon applications for legal assistance as to the inability to pay a fee, referring acceptable cases to attorneys for free service. Under such circumstances only the more desperate and urgent cases come to light, for several reasons. Many of the people who need the help do not know of the arrangement. Others either do not know where to apply or the procedure of application is too confusing and embarrassing. More than any other groups, these people need an office to which they feel free to go, without charge and as a matter of right, and where they can receive competent legal help in keeping difficulties from arising.

Nearly all of the existing legal aid organizations seriously lack funds for anything like a complete and effective service—many tragically so. Being understaffed, lacking sufficient publicity for educating the public either as to the service or the need therefor, and frequently having to contend with strong forces of prejudice, the service of many of the existing organizations is thus denied to thousands of potential clients who need it.

The past several years have given evidence of more intensified promotional efforts which may accelerate the progress which has been made. The establishment of legal aid clinics and courses on social work in many of

the law schools has been a distinct stimulus among younger practitioners to help in the movement. The American Bar Association and various state bar associations have shown an increased and heartening interest in recent years. The standing Committee on Legal Aid Work of the American Bar Association has been making important surveys as to the need and has conducted various meetings in the interests of extending legal aid facilities. Ways and means are now being formulated and considered whereby this cooperation of the organized bar with the National Association of Legal Aid Organizations can be more effectively urilized to strengthen the national program and to finance and carry on a more vigorous campaign of promotion.

Legal aid's worth as a sound humanitarian agency is becoming more widely recognized. Although collections and savings are a minor and incidental element of a service fundamentally devoted to the dispensation of justice, these organizations in the civil field collected and saved for clients the appreciable sum of $687,032 duting the year 1939. In view of the economic status of these clients, this represents a potential if not an actual saving in relief expenditures. When it is considered that the total net cost of operation for these organizations during the same year was only $591,432 its economic importance must be conceded. While this aspect of the work has had real meaning for social work agencies, the significant value of legal aid to them, however, has been as a needed instrumentality fot a sympathetic and understanding use in social case work of the authoritative processes of the law. The public, and particularly the legal profession, is moving toward a more complete acceptance of this movement for still another reason. It is proving to be a forceful and realistic agency in educating for better citizenship and in developing a healthy respect for law by making it real and workable for that very considerable group to whom, otherwise, it is a meaningless collection of printed words.

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MATERNAL AND CHILD HEALTH.[1]

A comprehensive program of maternal and child health services has gradually come to be regarded as being aimed to protect, promote, and conserve the mental and physical health of children from the prenatal period through adolescence, and of their mothers throughout the reproductive cycle. It is far

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

more fundamental and inclusive than attempts to reduce infant and maternal mortality, and is no longer considered a separate movement but has been incorporated as an integral part of organized health work on the state and local levels. Because the health of mothers and children is recognized to depend so largely upon social and economic factors involving the family as a unit and upon medical care, educational facilities, and general sanitation (protection against communicable and other preventable diseases), the modern maternal and child health program is being planned and carried out upon a cooperative basis in which all community agencies serving the family contribute.

Historical Background

The infant welfare movement in this country can be said to have had its origin late in the nineteenth century with the establishment by private agencies of stations for the distribution of milk to infants as a means of combating excessive infant mortality, particularly during the summer months. Gradually there were added the services of doctors and nurses and of follow-up nursing services in the home to teach mothers how to care for their infants so as to prevent illness. It was also during the last decade of the nineteenth century that systems of medical inspection were inaugurated in the schools of a few cities, that the production and distribution of diphtheria antitoxin were undertaken by a public health department, and that 13 states passed legislation concerning the control of ophthalmia neonatorum. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH. In 1902 Congress first authorized the Bureau of the Census to collect and publish statistics on births and deaths annually. The first federal infant mortality rates based on live births were published for 1910, when the rate was 132 per 1,000 live births. Observation showed that under certain conditions the rates were much lower. General interest in reducing infant mortality grew rapidly and it was not long until the close interdependence of infant welfare and maternal welfare was recognized, resulting in the inclusion of the prenatal period in the field of child hygiene.

The following events stand out as having influenced the subsequent development of maternal and child health work in this country:

1. The establishment in New York City in 1908 of the first bureau of child hygiene in a municipal health department.

2. The Conference on Prevention of Infant Mortality held under the auspices of the American Academy of Medicine in 1909 and the subsequent formation of the American Association for the Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality, which brought together from all parts of the country workers interested in various phases of child life, giving a great national stimulus to child health activities.

3. The act creating the United States Children's Bureau in 1912, which directed the Bureau to investigate all matters pertaining to the welfare of children. This was the first recognition of the responsibility of the federal government for the welfare of the children of the nation.

4. The establishment in 1914 of a division of child hygiene in the New York State Department of Health and the appropriation of funds to carry on an active child health program within the state. Other states followed New York's example and, by 1922, 46 states had organized such divisions in their departments of health.

5. The establishment in 1915 of a birth registration area including 10 states and the District of Columbia. This made possible accurate birth and mortality statistics for a considerable area. The birth registration area has included the entire continental United States since 1933.

6. The passage in 1921 of the Sheppard-Towner Act, establishing the grant-in-aid principle for federal-state cooperation in developing local prenatal and child health services in rural areas. Although this Act lapsed in 1929, the basis for further work by the states and for future federal legislation had been laid.

7. The White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, called by President

Hoover in 1930, included consideration of the needs of all children and gave tremendous impetus to nation-wide interest in the needs of children. *See* WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCES.

8. The Social Security Act, passed in 1935, which carried in Title V provisions for grants-in-aid to the states for maternal and child health services, services for crippled children, and child welfare services for children in rural areas and in areas of special need. *See* CHILD WELFARE and CRIPPLED CHILDREN.

9. The Conference on Better Care for Mothers and Babies, held in Washington in 1938 and participated in by representatives of 89 national organizations representing medical, public health, and a variety of lay organizations. This Conference discussed necessary steps to further improve and protect the lives and health of mothers and children. As a result of this Conference the National Council for Mothers and Babies was organized to continue promotional work in this field.

10. The National Health Conference, called by the federal Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities, and held in Washington in July, 1938. The Conference included in its recommendations the expansion of maternity care and care of new-born infants, medical care of children, and services for crippled children.

11. The White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, held in Washington in January, 1940, considered from 10 approaches the needs of children in a democratic society. The Conference's deliberations make evident the interdependence of social, economic, health, educational, and other factors in meeting the needs of the whole child. Its recommendations for a coordinated approach by agencies engaged in meeting these needs will doubtless greatly influence the development of maternal and child health programs in this country in the coming years.

White House Conference on Children in a Democracy

The report of the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy summarizes progress made in the field of maternal and child health during the past ten years in the reduction of infant and maternal mortality and morbidity; in the advancement of research in the health needs of mothers and children, particularly with regard to social and economic factors; in the promotion of better nutrition; in the recognition of the importance of mental health; and in the extension of local health services and of services for mothers and children under the Social Security Act. It points out that despite the progress made, facilities for general public health and medical care, for additional special preventive and curative services for mothers during the maternity cycle, and for care of infants and children are grossly inadequate in many sections of the country and for large groups of the population.

Recommendations for filling these needs include premarital, preconceptional, and maternity care for all women; services for newborn infants continuing throughout infancy and childhood; and the promotion of mental and physical health through the home, the physician's and dentist's office, the clinic, the child health conference, and the school. A plan for reinforcing available local community health resources for mother and child by state and federal aid as a part of the general public health and medical care program was outlined.

Maternal and Infant Mortality

The maternal and infant mortality rates for 1938 (the latest available figures) are the lowest on record for the United States. The record covers the period 1915–1938. The maternal mortality rate was 43.5 per 10,000 live births, which is 11 per cent lower than that for 1937 and 25 per cent lower than that for 1934, the year prior to the passage of the Social Security Act. Provisional rates for 1939 indicate a further decrease of 9 per cent for that year.

During the period 1915–1934 maternal mortality rates decreased but little. The rates in 1933 and 1934 were 62 and 59, respectively, as compared with 61 and 62 in

1915 and 1916. Of the 9,953 maternal deaths that occurred in 1938, 3,333 were due to infection, 2,521 to toxemias of pregnancy, 1,320 to hemorrhage, and 2,779 to all other causes. The number of deaths from each of these important causes decreased sharply in 1938. Rates of less than 40 per 10,000 live births were attained by 28 states. Prior to 1937 only 2 states had ever attained rates of less than 40. Only 4 states had rates of 60 or more in 1938.

In sharp contrast to the maternal mortality experience, infant mortality rates during the period 1915–1934 decreased materially; in 1933 and 1934 the rates were 58 and 60, respectively, as compared with 100 and 101 in 1915 and 1916. The infant mortality rate for 1938 was 6 per cent lower than that for 1937 and 15 per cent lower than that for 1934. The 1939 provisional rates indicate a further decrease of 6 per cent.

Negro maternal mortality rates have shown much less reduction than white maternal mortality rates. The rate for Negroes in 1938 was 86 as compared with 93 in 1934—a reduction of 8 per cent. The rate for white mothers in 1938 was 38 as compared with 54 in 1934—a reduction of 30 per cent. The serious situation of the Negro mother is shown by the fact that in 1938 the Negro maternal mortality rate was more than double the white maternal mortality rate. Negro infant mortality rates have shown about the same reduction as white infant mortality rates. The rate for Negroes in 1938 was 78 as compared with 91 in 1934—a reduction of 14 per cent. The rate for white infants in 1938 was 47 as compared with 55 in 1934—a drop of 15 per cent. The rate for Negro infants in 1938, however, was two-thirds higher than the rate for white infants. *See* NEGROES.

Fifty-four per cent of the 116,702 infant deaths in 1938 occurred in rural areas. However, decreases in infant mortality in 1938 are evident in both cities and rural areas and for both white and Negro infants. This is the first year in which as many as 17 states have had infant mortality rates of less than 45 per 1,000 live births. Only 3 states had rates of 70 or more.

As the majority of infant deaths are due to prenatal and natal conditions that may be prevented and occur during the first month of life, it appears that the chief hope of further reduction of infant mortality lies in more adequate care of the mother during pregnancy and delivery, and of the newborn infant. The nine other conditions which are preventable causes of death among children under twenty years of age are, in order of importance: pneumonia, accidents, diarrhea and enteritis, influenza, tuberculosis, whooping cough, appendicitis, diseases of the heart, and diphtheria. In 1937, 39 per cent of the deaths due to these causes occurred in the first year of life.

As in every year since 1929, the infant mortality rate for rural areas was higher in 1938 than for urban; the rural rate was 54, the urban 48. In states with high per capita income—these are states which in general have the lower infant mortality rates—rural rates were higher than urban rates. In states with low per capita income, the infant mortality rates were higher in cities than in rural districts. For example, in North Carolina, South Carolina, Louisiana, and West Virginia the urban rates were respectively 96, 92, 81, and 81 as compared with 77, 63, 61, and 58 in rural districts. The states with low per capita income are states with high infant mortality rates in all areas and among all races.

The trends in the mortality rates are encouraging but the great variation in rates between states and even within states and among certain groups of the population indicates the extent of the problem yet to be met.

The United States Children's Bureau has cooperated with the Bureau of the Census in formulating recommended revised standard certificates for the registration of live births, stillbirths, and deaths. The new certificate forms have been adopted by many states. They will give much needed additional information on conditions underly-

ing maternal, neonatal, and stillbirth mortality to be used as the basis for new attacks on these problems.

Eighteen states now have adopted laws requiring physicians or midwives in attendance upon pregnant women to take or cause to have taken specimens of blood of each such woman for submission to approved laboratories for syphilis testing. Twenty states now have laws requiring blood tests for syphilis before marriage certificates will be issued.

Federal-State-Local Cooperation under the Social Security Act

Under the provisions of Part 1, Title V of the Social Security Act, passed in 1935, Congress authorized the appropriation of funds for grants-in-aid to the states for the extension and improvement of maternal and child health services, particularly in rural areas and in areas suffering from severe economic distress. Under amendments to the Act approved in August, 1939, the annual authorization for maternal and child health services was increased from $3,800,000 to $5,820,000, of which $3,840,000 must be matched by the states, the balance being available to the states without matching. The amendments required that after January 1, 1940, the state plans must provide for the establishment and maintenance of personnel standards on a merit basis. Grants to Puerto Rico were also authorized.

Federal administration of maternal and child health services is vested in the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor. Allotments to the state health departments are made by the Secretary of Labor on the basis of the ratio of live births in the state to the total live births in the United States, plus a uniform grant to all states. An additional allotment is based on the need of the state for financial assistance in carrying out its state plan. Approval of state plans by the Chief of the Children's Bureau is based upon the requirements of the Act: financial participation by the state; administration or supervision of administration by the official state health agency; such methods of administration as are necessary for efficient administration of the plan; submission of required reports to the Secretary of Labor; extension and improvement of local maternal and child health services; cooperation with medical, nursing, and welfare organizations; and provision for development of demonstration services in needy areas and among groups in special need.

The program is now in its fifth year and is operating in the 48 states, the District of Columbia, Hawaii, Alaska, and Puerto Rico. Under its stimulation much progress has been made in strengthening and improving the administrative facilities of the state health departments for carrying on programs of maternal and child health and in developing available services for mothers and children in local areas.

Thirty-three of the 52 state and territorial maternal and child health directors have had special training in pediatrics or obstetrics and 26 have had training in public health. Four hundred and eighteen physicians have served on state and local maternal and child health staffs. Special public health nursing consultants in maternal and child health have been appointed to the staffs of 29 state health agencies and in 6 additional states the director of nurses or at least one of the supervisors of generalized public health nursing has had special training in maternity care or care of children.

The annual plans indicate a steady increase in the number of state health agencies that have made special arrangements for strengthening the nutrition aspects of their maternal and child health programs, either by the employment of one or more nutritionists on the state staffs (26 states) or by entering into active cooperation with other state agencies offering nutrition services (almost all the remaining states).

Recognition of the importance of health education in the maternal and child health program is indicated by the fact that 21

states employ 40 specialists in this field to help direct the educational aspects of the health department program and to help coordinate these activities with those of other agencies. During the fiscal year 1939, 47 state health departments assisted public schools in the improvement of their programs of health instruction, 33 state health departments aided teacher-training schools in the improvement of their teaching of health, and in 25 states classes in maternal and infant care were offered in high schools with the assistance of the state health department. The enrolment for these classes in 1939 was 66,245. There would appear to be increasing recognition of the fact that effective health education is the result of the combined efforts of the home, the physician and dentist, the health department, and the schools. This community approach to the problem characterizes the health education programs being developed under the stimulus of the state health departments. *See* SOCIAL AND HEALTH WORK IN THE SCHOOLS.

It is hoped that the merit systems being established by the state health agencies will aid in safeguarding the high personnel standards thus far attained and lead to further improvements. The merit systems under which the state health agencies operate are of several types. In 18 states and territories there are civil service systems. In 18 states joint merit systems covering several agencies have been set up. In 14 states the health agency has set up its own merit system and in 2 states non-professional personnel are covered by the state civil service systems, and the health agency has set up a merit system covering its professional personnel. By May 10, 1940, 41 state health agencies had submitted to the Children's Bureau rules and regulations covering their merit systems. *See* PERSONNEL PRACTICES IN PUBLIC WELFARE.

Local Services

State health departments reported the establishment of 347 new permanent prenatal clinic centers during 1939, making a total of 1,229 such centers now conducted under state health department supervision in 37 states. More than half of these centers have been established during the past two years. Between January 1, 1936, and January 1, 1939, the number had increased 69 per cent. Seventeen per cent of the rural counties and 26 per cent of the urban counties now have such centers under state health department auspices, where clinics are conducted by physicians at least once a month. Five hundred and twenty-two new permanent child health conference centers[1] were established in 1939, making a total of 2,394 centers in 41 states conducted under state health department supervision. Between January 1, 1936, and January 1, 1939, the number had increased 61 per cent. Twenty-one per cent of the rural counties and 39 per cent of the urban counties are served by conferences under state health department auspices. The health officers have utilized the services of local practicing physicians in the clinics and conferences and in the examination of school children. They have thus not only gained the assistance and cooperation of local physicians but have given local physicians the opportunity of serving many mothers and babies whom they did not previously reach. In 1939, 1,178 practicing physicians were paid for service at antepartum and postpartum clinics, 2,634 for services at infant and preschool health conferences, 634 for examination of school children, and 113 for clinical consultation. Some of these physicians were paid for work in more than one type of service. These figures do not include prenatal clinics and child health conferences in large cities under supervision of city health departments or private agencies.

About 2,100 of the 3,076 counties of the United States now have public health nurses supervised by state health departments, who

[1] Child health conference centers are centers where physicians examine well preschool children and, with the aid of a public health nurse, give advice to parents as to how to keep them well. They are to be distinguished from clinics, where sick children are treated.

render services to mothers or children. Sixty-five per cent of the rural counties and 79 per cent of the urban counties are so served. Services to school children are rendered by public health nurses working under health department supervision in 57 per cent of rural counties and 67 per cent of urban counties. These figures cover services conducted under the supervision of state agencies under the Social Security Act. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING.

In 35 states home delivery nursing services have been organized under health department supervision in 102 counties. The demand for this type of service is increasing, and health departments have worked out administrative methods which have demonstrated that this service is feasible in rural as well as urban areas. Nursing care and supervision for mothers during the ten-day period following delivery is being given in a growing number of rural areas. Classes for expectant mothers are being organized in an increasing number of areas (about 850 counties in 48 states and the District of Columbia in 1939). Progress has been made recently in the supervision of midwives by state and local health departments. Many of those least qualified to practice midwifery are being eliminated each year. However, a count as of June 30, 1938, showed approximately 35,000 midwives practicing in 34 states. Approximately 23,000 of these were under some supervision by health agencies and about half of the 14 states in which 10 per cent or more of the births are attended by midwives have developed active supervision programs. Under the expanding maternal and child health programs more midwives' patients are given prenatal care by physicians, and 7 states have added public health nurses with midwife training—nurse-midwives—to the state supervisory staff to head up programs of midwife supervision.

State health departments report that dental health education programs were carried on by dentists or dental hygienists in 900 counties in 36 states, and that corrective dental services were provided in 630 counties in 29 states. Under the local maternal and child health programs, 22 dentists were paid for services at antepartum clinics, 291 for services at infant and preschool health conferences, and 453 for dental examinations of school children; some were paid for dental work given in more than one type of service.

Almost 800 professional employes of state and local health departments who render services in maternal and child health programs were given postgraduate education in 1939 in recognized training centers, from maternal and child health funds. Over 14,000 practicing physicians took advantage of postgraduate courses in obstetrics and a similar number in pediatrics offered under the state maternal and child health programs; and almost 5,000 dentists attended lectures on children's dentistry. An increasing number of state health departments are supplying stipends to practicing physicians to make possible their taking short courses in these fields at medical centers.

Voluntary Agencies

Although it is not possible at this time to give figures showing the extent of work in maternal and child health being carried on by voluntary agencies throughout the country, it is recognized that they are today playing just as important a part as they have from the very beginning of organized work in this field. Most of the methods now being applied in the official programs were initiated by voluntary agencies and their soundness was demonstrated by them. Much of the stimulus for future advances will be dependent upon their continuing to point the way.

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MEDICAL CARE.[1] Social concern with the provision of medical care is founded on the doctrine that the individual should receive essential health services regardless of his place in society, his individual capacity to pay, or the magnitude of his needs. As a corollary to this doctrine, the practitioner and the institution which is to serve him must be effectively supported. Prevention of illness and disability is always the first objective; but diagnosis, treatment, and cure are essential where prevention is still impossible.

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

The United States is, on the whole, well equipped with professional personnel and facilities for medical care. But there are inadequacies, both qualitative and quantitative. These appear as deficiencies of different magnitudes for various parts of the country, for various social or economic groups, or for services of one kind or another.

Physicians, Dentists, Nurses, and Other Personnel

According to the 1940 *American Medical Directory* there are 175,382 physicians in the United States, a net increase of 5,754 in the past two years and of about 30,000 in the past twenty years. About 80 per cent are generally estimated to be in private practice, but a considerable proportion of this group derive some of their income from part-time salaries or contracts for work with public or business organizations. About 10,000 physicians are retired or engaged in non-medical work, and probably about 25,000 are on full-time salaries in hospitals and clinics, public health agencies, industries, and so forth. Approximately 12,000 are interns, residents, or fellows in hospitals. In 1938, there were 33,600 physicians who recorded themselves as complete and 24,600 as partial specialists.

A trend toward salaried work runs back prior to 1920. The distribution of salaried positions, so far as these are known, shows an increase in the number of full-time positions in hospitals, institutions, medical colleges, governmental activities, and laboratories. There has been a progressive increase in the number of physicians holding paid positions in the public health fields. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH. During the depression years there has been a decrease in the number of salaried physicians in industry and insurance.

The proportion of physicians in practice to the population is about one to every 930 persons for the United States as a whole, but varies from about one for each 500 in New York State to about one for each 1,400

in Alabama. In large urban centers the proportion is one to every 525 persons; in towns of less than 5,000 (excluding suburban towns), one to every 1,350. The disparity between the number of physicians in cities and rural towns is further accentuated in rural areas. The distribution of physicians is closely correlated with the economic well-being of the population.

There are about 65,000 dentists in the United States, with an even greater concentration in the urban centers than is the case for physicians.

The Council on Medical Education and Hospitals of the American Medical Association in 1940 recognized 67 medical schools and 9 schools of the basic medical sciences in the United States.

Physicians in individual private practice must pay out about 40 per cent of their gross receipts for professional expenses of office maintenance, transportation, and so forth. There is thus a large disparity between their gross and net incomes. In 1929 the average net income of physicians in private practice was about $5,500. This figure includes a small proportion of doctors with large incomes and many with small ones. Even in that prosperous year, half of the general practitioners had net incomes of less than $2,900. The incomes of specialists, partial and complete, were considerably higher than those of general practitioners. The period 1930–1933 showed a decrease in average net income of about 40 per cent. Since then there has been some recovery toward the 1929 figures.

Nearly one million other persons are engaged in furnishing medical or subsidiary services. These include nurses (graduate, practical, and student), public health practitioners, sanitarians, laboratory workers, medical social workers, occupational therapists, optometrists, pharmacists, osteopaths, midwives, chiropodists, chiropractors, naturopaths, and religious healers and other cultists, in addition to 200,000 or more lay employes in hospitals and other medical institutions. Among the largest of these professional groups are the pharmacists (140,000–150,000) and the nurses.

The 1930 census enumerated 294,000 nurses, of whom about 118,000 were in private duty and related fields, 77,000 were institutional, 19,000 were public health and industrial, and 80,000 were students. In addition there were about 153,000 persons engaging in nursing as practical nurses, nursing attendants, and so forth. It is estimated, in advance of the 1940 census returns, that there probably are about 300,000 professionally trained nurses in the United States today.

In the field of nursing there is also a trend toward employment in full-time salaried work in hospitals and public health agencies. In private duty nursing even a modest fee sufficient to give the nurse a living wage is beyond the means of many individuals who need nursing care. The quality of nursing care varies greatly, chiefly because many nurses have been inadequately trained. Much improvement has been made in recent years through the formulation of professional standards for nursing education and training, the grading of nursing schools, and the development of schools on an academic basis comparable with that accepted in medical and other professional fields. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING.

Hospitals

Hospitals are generally classified according to the type of service they render and the auspices under which they are administered. The service groups fall into five main types: general, nervous and mental, tuberculosis, special, and institutional. More than two-thirds of all hospitals are "general"; they receive and serve most kinds of acute medical and surgical cases. The mental hospitals are fewer in number but they are generally large and, in the aggregate, contain more than one-half of the beds in all hospitals. *See* MENTAL HYGIENE. The tuberculosis hospital is usually specially designed for the care and treatment of tuberculous cases. *See* TUBERCULOSIS. Those

designated as "special" care for particular diseases or conditions such as maternity, orthopedic, children's, and eye, ear, nose, and throat. Hospital departments of prisons, orphanages, homes for the aged, and other institutions are classed as "institutional."

The auspices or kind of control under which hospitals are operated fall into three broad categories: (a) governmental—federal, state, county, or city; (b) voluntary non-profit associations and corporations, including independent organizations as well as churches and fraternal orders; and (c) proprietary, including hospitals owned by individual physicians or partnerships, or by special corporations or business enterprises.

Nearly every type of government unit has found it necessary or expedient to engage in the hospitalization of the sick and injured. Departments of the federal government maintain hospitals for the Army, Navy, Public Health Service, veterans, Indians, and other special wards of the government. State governments have assumed most of the responsibility for the hospitalization of patients suffering from mental diseases. The hospitals for tuberculosis are largely under state or local governments. For the general care of the poor about 450 county or city governments and a few states have established general hospitals, but the great majority of cities and counties depend upon voluntary hospitals. Governmental institutions now commonly admit paying patients as well as indigent persons. Local governments often pay for the care of the poor in voluntary institutions, and a few (but increasing number of) states make special grants for this purpose. Tax funds paid to non-governmental hospitals probably now total $40,000,000 a year.

The American Medical Association in 1940 listed 6,226 registered hospitals of all types in the United States for the year 1939. These hospitals contained 1,195,000 beds and 59,000 bassinets, and admitted 9,879,000 patients (exclusive of 1,100,000 babies born in the institutions). Of these hospitals, 2,354 also had the approval of the American College of Surgeons, contained 550,000 beds and 37,000 bassinets, and admitted 7,067,000 patients. The average daily census of patients in all registered hospitals was 996,500. Occupancy rates vary considerably by type of hospital and by auspices (reflecting length of stay, costs, source of funds, and so forth). The unoccupied beds are found chiefly in the non-governmental hospitals, and the percentage of occupancy is closely related to the economic resources of the institution and the surrounding population. Where money is scarcest beds are fewest and even existing beds are least used.

A disparity between facilities and needs exists for most states. This was especially emphasized in the report on rural hospital needs presented at the National Health Conference in 1938. Of 3,074 counties, some 1,300 had no general hospitals. These counties, representing sparsely settled areas, present a special problem. For example, over 16,000,000 people live in areas which contain less than 1.5 hospital beds per 1,000 population, and most of the people within these areas are more than 50 miles from any important hospital center. Not every county or community needs a hospital; its population may have reasonably easy access to facilities in an adjacent area. Nevertheless, there are extensive deficiencies in hospitals of every major type.

The American Medical Association, American Hospital Association, American College of Surgeons, and other bodies have worked toward the improvement of hospitals. Since 1918 the American College of Surgeons has carried on a program of hospital inspection and standardization to encourage hospitals to meet its *Minimum Standard*. Since 1914 the Council on Medical Education and Hospitals of the American Medical Association has certified hospitals for the training of interns and resident physicians. By 1940 a total of 1,022 hospitals were approved for internship, residencies, and fellowships. At present only a few states have licensure laws, and they

appear to have been enforced in only a perfunctory way and to have had relatively little influence on hospital standards or practices.

A total income of $707,000,000 was furnished the hospitals of the United States in 1935.[1] Expenditures amounted to $715,000,000, equivalent to $5.55 per capita. For all types of hospitals 47 per cent of income was received from governmental funds, 43 per cent from payments by patients, and only about 10 per cent from private philanthropy in the form of endowments, community chest allotments, or individual gifts. Among the general and special hospitals, however—the most important type for general community service—governmental institutions and funds play a secondary role.

Through governmental funds and private gifts nine-tenths of the capital investment in land, buildings, and equipment is furnished by the community. In the typical general hospital the administration is directed by a lay governing body which also directs the organization of personnel. At present about three-fourths of all active physicians have some hospital or clinic connection.

Clinics

The creation of clinics and out-patient departments for those not needing bed care has been stimulated by the growth and expense of specialization. Out-patient departments of hospitals, originally designed to be curative in purpose, were also used by medical schools for teaching purposes. The cases handled were primarily charitable. But clinics have also evolved from public health demands to help deal with tuberculosis, syphilis, prenatal care, infant and children's services, and the like. *See* MATERNAL AND CHILD HEALTH and SOCIAL HYGIENE.

In 1937 a total of 2,169 hospitals reported to the American Medical Association that they operated out-patient departments. In addition to these departments there have been estimated to be over 4,000 clinics, maintained by public health agencies or philanthropic organizations, together with a small number supported by industries or by physicians as part of private group practice. It is probable that the number of visits to all types of clinics is now considerably in excess of the number estimated in 1935, when over 50,000,000 visits were made to out-patient departments and independent clinics by more than 10,000,000 individuals. A study of organized out-patient departments, conducted by the United States Public Health Service during 1936 as part of the National Health Inventory, has made available considerable detailed information in regard to 769 organized out-patient departments, to which were made over three-fourths of the visits reported to the American Medical Association in 1936 for all out-patient departments.[1]

Though the number of clinics and the volume of services furnished in them have grown at a rapid rate, they still constitute but a limited facility in the provision of free services to those who cannot pay for medical care. The Technical Committee on Medical Care of the federal Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities pointed out that the free clinic "is not a factor of any moment in medical care for the country as a whole; only 17 percent of general hospitals operate out-patient departments and nearly half the service is rendered in the 5 largest cities having over a million inhabitants."[2]

Care for the Chronically Ill and for Convalescents

Chronic diseases, especially cancer, diabetes, nephritis, heart disease, "rheumatism," and bone diseases, contribute largely to invalidism and mortality among those in middle and old age. Contrary to the opin-

[1] *See* Pennell and others, *Business Census of Hospitals, 1935* (*infra cit.*).

[1] *See* Plumley, *infra cit.*

[2] U. S. Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities, *Need for a National Health Program.* Report of the Technical Committee on Medical Care. 36 pp. 1938.

ion that chronic disease is wedded solely to middle and old age, the report by the Committee on Chronic Illness of the Welfare Council of New York City[1] showed that in New York City nearly half of the chronically ill persons enumerated were under forty years of age; about one-third were children under sixteen years of age, chiefly children with orthopedic disorders; and nearly a fourth of these were under the age of six years. Three-fifths of all individuals with chronic disease needed medical care; one-third of this group needed hospital care; and about one-quarter of those living at home should have been in institutions. The results of this New York study have been confirmed in general by the findings of the National Health Survey.

The extended duration of the average case of chronic disease, the special requirements for diagnosis and treatment, and the inadequacy of present facilities render the chronic disease problem serious. Persons in low-income groups are especially unable to assume the burden for such care. Special provision has been made for tuberculous and mental patients, but relatively little has been done for the chronically sick suffering from other diseases. Persons with chronic illness are generally so scattered in all types of institutions, hospitals, and homes that provisions for adequate diagnosis and treatment cannot be made. Occasionally, general and special hospitals have a chronic disease unit with a special medical staff and therapeutic provisions. Not all the chronically sick need institutional care. Home care for many chronic patients may be adequate, humane, and economical, when physicians and nursing service are systematically available and when a thorough diagnosis of the patient has been made.

The Social Security Act of 1935 has precipitated a new problem in the provision of institutional care for the chronically sick. Needy persons otherwise eligible for assistance are excluded from the benefits of the program if they are in public institutions; and the provision of assistance funds enables many who formerly lived in almshouses to live with families. The almshouse population therefore tends more and more to consist predominantly of chronically ill persons. *See* HOMES AND ALMSHOUSES. In some states the emptying almshouses have seemed to provide a solution to the urgent need for institutions where the chronically sick could receive care. Many almshouses are inadequate for the care of the sick, and in many cases insufficient provision is made for necessary reconstruction, staffing, and management. A Joint Committee of the American Hospital Association and the American Public Welfare Association has reviewed this problem and has classified the chronically sick into three groups: (a) persons in need of active and continuous treatment by a physician; (b) persons who need chiefly skilled care by a trained nurse; and (c) persons who require only care by practical nurses or attendants, with medical and nursing supervision (so-called "custodial care"). The Committee has concluded that the first two of these groups belong in a hospital and should not be included among the residents of a public home even if it is converted so as to meet the "minimum essentials" specified by the Committee as intended to meet the requirements for persons in the third group.[1]

Provision for convalescent care, a matter quite different from care for chronic cases, is extremely deficient in the United States. Not even in New York City, where the problem has received extended attention, do facilities approach adequacy. In a recent study of hospital and clinic facilities of Chicago it was estimated that at least 2,000 convalescent beds should be available where only 300 exist. Services for the convalescent need to be viewed as an integral part of the community's program for the care of the sick. Extensive facilities and personnel are needed to provide necessary services at

[1] *See* Jarrett, *infra cit.*

[1] *See* American Public Welfare Association, *Institutional Care of the Chronically Ill* (*infra cit.*).

costs less than those involved for in-patient hospital care and more satisfactory than either home care or clinic service.

Studies by Committee on Costs of Medical Care

During the five years 1927–1932 a private organization, the Committee on the Costs of Medical Cate, was supported by several foundations to study the economic and social problems of medical care. Twenty-six volumes of specialized studies, a summary volume, and a volume containing majority and minority recommendations were published by the Committee.[1]

The Committee's investigations of the amount of illness and of expenditures for its care demonstrated that the unpredictable incidence of sickness and its varying and uncertain costs create a financial problem for self-supporting families of moderate means as well as for those near or below the poverty line. About one-sixth of our people annually have high and burdensome sickness bills to meet, and people of almost all classes find themselves in this category in any given year. In proportion as consumers find it difficult to meet sickness bills, the incomes of doctors, dentists, hospitals, and nurses suffer. Many of the basic findings have been confirmed on a larger scale by the National Health Survey and by local studies.

These economic and statistical studies, along with other investigations of the facilities, organization, and costs of medical care in several communities and under different conditions of service, led the majority of the Committee to recommend (a) that medical service should be furnished through group practice rather than individual practice, that is, through physicians and other professional and technical personnel organized in groups, chiefly in association with hospitals; (b) that payment for medical service should also be on a group basis, the costs of care being distributed among groups of people and over a period of time through insurance or taxation or both; (c) that preventive services should be expanded and correlated closely with curative work; (d) that local and state agencies should be developed to coordinate the present and future network of medical facilities; and (e) that various steps should be taken in behalf of improvements in professional education. The Committee's report and the supporting findings have been widely studied. Despite attacks by the American Medical Association on many aspects of the Committee's work, the recommendations submitted by the majority have played a major part since 1932 in shaping opinion among the general public and among progressive physicians.

The National Health Survey

During 1935–1936 the United States Public Health Service, assisted by funds from the Works Progress Administration, conducted a "nation-wide family canvass of sickness in relation to its social and economic setting." The survey of 740,000 households included some 2,650,000 individuals from 83 cities and 23 rural areas located in 18 states—a representative sample of the total urban population and a significant group of the rural sections.

This study showed that on an average winter day at least 6,000,000 people in the United States (exclusive of certain institutional groups, some with high disability rates) are unable to pursue their usual activities because of illness or injury. Of these, 42 per cent, or 2,500,000, are suffering from chronic diseases. For every death reported during a year there occur, on the average, 16 cases of illness which disable the sick person for a week or longer. A minimum of two and one-half billion days of incapacitating illness is suffered yearly. This means that, on a per capita basis, the people of the United States suffer an average of at least ten days of incapacitation a year; as applied to wage-earners, it means a potential wage loss of about one and one-half billion dollars a year.

[1] *See* especially, publications Nos. 26, 27, and 28 of the Committee.

Medical Care

The relations between sickness and economic status displayed sharp contrasts. Two persons on relief were disabled for a week or more for every one in the middle and higher income groups ($3,000 and over). The non-relief population with incomes under $1,000 had a volume of disability over twice that of the highest income group; that is, the incidence of illness is 100 per cent higher among the poor than among the moderately well-to-do and the wealthy. Similarly, the relative frequency of chronic disabling illness was 87 per cent higher among relief clients than among families with annual incomes in excess of $3,000. In terms of annual days of chronic disability, an even sharper contrast exists between persons in the relief group and their more fortunate neighbors, the ratio being three to one. Thus sickness was found to be not only more frequent but also more severe among relief and low-income families than among those in the upper income brackets.

The survey showed that, despite the greater volume of illness among them, the poor received less adequate medical care than their more fortunate neighbors: 21 per cent of the sick among the relief and low-income group were not attended by a physician; the corresponding figure for families with incomes of $3,000 and over was 12 per cent. Among cases which were attended by a physician the number of calls per case was less for the relief and low-income groups than for the highest income group. Bedside nursing care from a private-duty nurse was similarly maldistributed: 1 per cent of the relief population received it, as contrasted with 12 per cent in the upper income groups.

The amount of general hospital care varied with the size of the city. In cities with a population of 100,000 and over the proportion of disabling illnesses receiving general hospital care was essentially the same for all income groups, including persons on relief. In cities with a population of 25,000 to 100,000 there was an appreciable difference between relief and low-income families and those with incomes of $3,000 and over. The contrast was greatest in cities with populations of less than 25,000; less than 15 per cent of disabling illnesses occurring in relief families received general hospital care, as compared with 31 per cent for families with incomes of $5,000 and over. In Michigan, where a special study of obstetrical practices was conducted by the survey, only 28 per cent of expectant mothers in relief families were hospitalized, as contrasted with 65 per cent of those in families in comfortable circumstances.

Among families on relief one out of every 20 family heads was unable to work or seek work because of illness. In the low-income, non-relief group (under $1,000) one out of every 33 family heads was prevented from seeking work because of chronic disability. Such families become recruits for dependency; and doubtless this relationship would account, in a measure, for the high incidence of chronic disability in the relief population.

The detailed publications of the survey contain information which will serve for years to come as sources for students of medical needs. The data are being used extensively by the federal authorities in planning health programs for the future.

National Health Conference

At the suggestion of President Roosevelt the Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities called the National Health Conference in Washington, July 18–20, 1938. About 170 delegates and many "observers" were present by invitation, including persons from large, organized public groups (such as labor, farming, industry, women's organizations, civic bodies, social work, and public welfare) and from the leading professional bodies concerned with furnishing medical services (physicians, dentists, hospital administrators, nurses, and so forth).

The Technical Committee on Medical Care (a subcommittee of the Interdepartmental Committee), composed of officers of the

United States Public Health Service, the United States Children's Bureau, and the Social Security Board, had been at work for many months studying health needs and programs. The Technical Committee presented a summary of needs and offered programs for discussion at the Conference. The Committee's report cited deficiencies in the present health services, grouping them in four broad categories: (a) preventive health services for the nation as a whole are grossly insufficient; (b) hospital and other institutional facilities are inadequate in many communities, especially in rural areas, and financial support for hospital care and for professional services in hospitals is both insufficient and precarious, especially for services to people who cannot pay the costs of the care they need; (c) one-third of the population, including persons with or without income, is receiving inadequate or no medical service; and (d) an even larger fraction of the population suffers from economic burdens created by illness.

Five programs were presented to the National Health Conference, recommending: (a) expansion of public health and maternal and child health services; (b) federal grants-in-aid for the construction of needed hospitals and similar facilities, and special grants on a diminishing basis toward defraying the operating costs of these new institutions in the first three years of their existence; (c) federal grants-in-aid to the states toward the costs of a medical care program for recipients of public assistance and other medically needy persons; (d) federal grants-in-aid to the states toward the costs of a more general medical care program; and (e) federal action toward the development of programs of disability compensation.

The fourth program set forth the problems of medical care for self-supporting families of small means, and proposed that the uneven and unpredictable incidence of sickness be dealt with by distributing these costs either through taxation or through assessments on personal incomes, or combinations of the two methods. It proposed that federal grants might be made to states when state laws provided support for general medical care, either from state or local tax funds, a system of health insurance, or both; the relative use of these means of financing to be left to the states.

Health Insurance

Health insurance is primarily a device to enable people of small or modest means to budget against the costs and losses which may be precipitated by sickness and disability. Directly or indirectly, sickness accounts for something between one-third and one-half of all cases in which the family is forced to seek financial or social assistance. Though predictable for the large group, the risks of sickness are uncertain for the individual and are capable of producing catastrophic effects in his life.

Health insurance customarily involves two kinds of protection: insurance against the loss of wages when the gainfully employed person is disabled; and insurance against medical costs of all members of the family. Disability wage loss amounts to something between one and two billion dollars a year. Medical costs now amount to approximately three and one-half billion dollars a year. Of this latter total, between five and six hundred million dollars are spent from tax funds; most of the remainder consists of private expenditures. In the aggregate, patients pay about 80 per cent of the costs of services furnished by physicians, dentists, nurses, hospitals, and so forth, and of drugs, medicines, and other supplies. Expenditures by philanthropy and industry, while considerable, are but a small fraction of the total and have been declining.

Compulsory health insurance has been in operation in about thirty countries of the world. In addition there have been about twenty more with voluntary or with partially voluntary and partially compulsory schemes. In each country the system is peculiar to its own needs, customs, background, and circumstances. Health insurance is always pri-

marily a procedure of pooling funds which are contributed by insured persons (and usually also by their employers) and of using the pooled contributions to pay cash benefits for wage loss and to remunerate private practitioners and public or private institutions furnishing medical services to the insured persons. It is not primarily a method of practice; both individual practice and group practice are used in conjunction with insurance. To what extent some of these systems will be permanently modified as a result of international upheavals now in progress we cannot know. War-time adjustments have already been made in a number of countries; in some cases, the system of one country is being absorbed into that of another and in other cases the changes are nominally of a temporary nature.

Voluntary health or sickness insurance has a long history and has played an important role as a method of experimentation with the technical and social problems involved in group payment of sickness costs. But it has not shown the possibility of reaching more than a small fraction of those who need its protection. A study made in 1932 showed that some two million persons in the United States secured part or all of their medical care through membership in voluntary insurance plans.[1] Most of these were in such industries as mining, railroads, and lumbering.

Since 1932, notable development has taken place in insurance against medical costs, particularly against hospital bills. "Group hospitalization," so called, was approved in principle by the American Hospital Association early in 1933 and subsequently by the American College of Surgeons. More recently it has received qualified approval by the American Medical Association. From some 30,000 members in four or five plans in 1933, growth has proceeded so rapidly that now about 4,500,000 persons are beneficiaries of these plans in some 60 communities. The Commission on Hospital Service of the American Hospital Association publishes an official list of approved plans which meet its standards. These are aimed to ensure non-profit character, community service, financial soundness, and fairness alike to patient, physician, and hospital.[1] Plans covering general medical care as well as hospital charges have also been increasing on the initiative of physicians, medical societies, consumer groups, and company groups (employers or employes); and a considerable number have been developed under the auspices of the Farm Security Administration. Examples of these organizations are reviewed in various recent publications.[2]

The Bureau of Cooperative Medicine, affiliated with the Cooperative League of the United States of America, was established in 1936 to promote and foster the development of voluntary health insurance on a cooperative basis. More recently, in 1939, various group health organizations organized the Group Health Federation of America which is now taking an active part in stimulating the development of other operating groups and in formulating standards, sponsoring legislative patterns, and so forth.

The recent growth of new plans of medical care, particularly those involving insurance (periodic prepayment), was accompanied by an increased opposition to them from medical societies. The attack by the Medical Society of the District of Columbia and the American Medical Association upon the Group Health Association of the District of Columbia attracted nation-wide attention. The District court upheld the Group Health Association against the plea that this prepayment medical care organization was illegal. Under pressure from the medical societies, hospitals in the District of Columbia refused to permit physicians of the Association to use their facilities to treat patients. In the summer of 1938 the federal Department of Justice informed the national and district medical societies that

[1] *See* Williams and Chamberlain, *infra cit.*

[1] *See* Rorem, *infra cit.*

[2] *See* Reed, "Costs and Benefits Under Prepayment Medical-Service Plans," *infra cit.*

prosecution might be instituted for violation of the anti-trust laws. Subsequently a federal grand jury handed up an indictment against the American Medical Association, the Medical Society of the District of Columbia, and other societies and individuals (including officers of the American Medical Association), charging them with conspiracy to violate the Sherman Anti-Trust Act. This indictment has experienced various legal vicissitudes. Finally the United States Supreme Court refused to take jurisdiction when a decision of the court below was appealed. The defendants are required to stand trial (October, 1940). Supposedly, the basic issue involved in the case, concerning the actions which medical organizations or their officers may take to discourage or obstruct the development of new forms of medical practice, will begin to be clarified by the courts in the autumn of 1940.

Aside from workmen's compensation, there is no compulsory health insurance in effect in the United States except the system operated for employes of the city of San Francisco.[1] *See* WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION. Laws proposed during the campaign for health insurance waged in 1912–1920 failed of enactment. Comparatively little attention was given to the subject for about a decade until wide interest was again awakened by the work of the Committee on the Costs of Medical Care (1927–1932). Within the past few years the leaders of organized public groups, with millions of members, have learned that there are ways of furnishing protection and security against the economic effects of sickness and disability.

There has been general agreement for some time that the wide variation in conditions and in the facilities for furnishing medical care which prevails in this country makes it desirable that health insurance be organized through state systems, with federal participation and support. The most general proposal has been that the federal government make grants-in-aid to those states which adopt health insurance systems meeting specified standards. Proposals along these lines have been embodied in bills introduced in the United States Senate by Senator Capper (1937–1940). This type of bill provides that the federal government shall grant to each state having an approved system of health insurance an amount equal to a specified proportion of contributions paid into the state health insurance fund. To be approved, a state system of health insurance must meet conditions which are substantially those laid down in the "model" bill of the American Association for Social Security, *infra cit.* Bills which follow the lines of the "model" bill have been introduced in a number of state legislatures but have not received favorable action. Bills of somewhat different patterns have been considered in California, New York, Wisconsin, and other states. All of these bills have failed of passage.

A federal health insurance bill was introduced in the House of Representatives by Congressman Treadway in 1937. This bill proposed a national health insurance scheme patterned after the bill enacted in British Columbia in 1936. A federal system of health insurance of another type was offered more recently (in 1939 and 1940) by Senator Lodge. His bill proposed to amend the federal system of old age and survivors' insurance to reimburse physicians, dentists, and hospitals for services rendered to persons insured under that system, who meet certain specified (and rather exacting) requirements.

Wagner Health Bill and Hospital Construction Program

Public interest in national health planning developed to an unprecedented level following the National Health Conference of July, 1938. The Interdepartmental Committee made its report to the President on January 12, 1939, and on January 23 he transmitted this report with a special message to Congress. On February 28 Senator Wagner introduced a bill designed to im-

[1] *See* Reed, *op. cit.*

plement the broad recommendations of the Interdepartmental Committee. The hearings[1] on this bill are probably the most extensive and exhaustive inquiry ever made by a congressional committee on the state of the nation's health and on the need for measures to make more adequate health services available to the population. A preliminary report was made to the Senate by Senator Murray, chairman of the subcommittee which conducted the hearings, indicating the lines along which the committee was pursuing its study of the proposals.

In December, 1939, the President announced his special interest in seeing at least a beginning made toward implementing the national health program through the construction of hospitals in the poorer areas where the need is greatest. His proposal was outlined in a special message to Congress on January 31, 1940, and was submitted soon thereafter in definitive form in a bill (S. 3230) introduced by Senators Wagner and George and by Representative Lea. After special hearings and considerable amendment the bill was favorably reported out of committee and passed by the Senate in May, 1940. This bill would authorize annual appropriations of $10,000,000 for each of six years for the construction of needed hospitals, especially in rural and economically depressed areas. During the first year the construction program would be wholly federal; in the next five years it would provide for federal grants-in-aid to the states. It also would provide for temporary grants on a diminishing scale toward the first five years' operating costs of the proposed hospitals. In October, 1940, it had not yet been acted upon by the House.

Public Medical Services

The termination of direct federal relief at the end of 1935 carried with it the cessation of federally supported medical care under the Federal Emergency Relief Administration program. Systems of home medical service for the "poor" had been established before the depression in many of the larger cities; and a great many other cities, many counties, and some states had furnished at least emergency medical service to persons for whom public responsibility had been assumed in other respects.

The past five years have witnessed considerable extension of local systems of home medical care, as compared with the pre-depression period, new legislation in several states placing upon public welfare departments responsibility for the medical care of their beneficiaries; and a greatly increased consciousness among social workers and welfare administrators of the importance and complexity of this problem.

Recent reports of the Committee on Medical Care of the American Public Welfare Association, *infra cit.*, show a variety of plans for organizing home medical care. The two main forms are (a) the part-time or whole-time salaried physician system, which had been usual before the depression, and (b) the "panel" system, so called, in which the client has choice among all or many local physicians who agree to furnish service and are remunerated on a fee-schedule basis.

Although effective working arrangements have been developed in some communities, compatatively little progress has been made in most areas in solving problems of organization and administrative coordination among multiple agencies, or in providing either adequate funds or competent professional direction. One of the underlying sources of difficulty has been the provision of the Social Security Act which applies to medical care the requirement that federal funds shall match only such state and local funds as are expended in unrestricted payments to recipients. Medical budgeting is greatly hampered when conducted on an individual basis. In addition, federal social security funds are not, of course, available for the care of needy persons outside the three special assistance categories covered by the federal statute—old age assistance, aid to the needy blind, and aid to depend-

[1] *See* U. S. Senate, *To Establish a National Program* (*infra cit.*).

ent children. The problem probably cannot be solved effectively except through appropriate amendment of the federal Act.

There has been an increase in state and local governmental support for the hospital care of "medically needy" as well as of "needy" persons. Since the majority of American cities and towns have voluntary hospitals but no local government hospitals, the use of public funds to pay for the care of public charges in voluntary institutions has been expanding. The American Hospital Association and the American Public Welfare Association, through a joint committee of these two bodies, have formulated detailed suggestions for the use of tax funds to pay for public medical services in non-governmental hospitals.[1]

Public medical services, apart from those which are intended specifically to serve needy groups, have continued to grow. There are indications of increasing recognition that the public medical services as a whole need to be systematized and unified. Whether they should be operated more generally under the health or the welfare authorities continues to be debated. In some states and in many cities it has been possible to develop working relations between the administrative authorities and the medical societies to bring operating programs into effect. But many of these programs function without orderly patterns and on supposedly temporary agreements. In relation ro the size of this problem, little improvement can be recorded as the result of large efforts during the past two years.

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I. S. FALK

MEDICAL SOCIAL WORK[1] is the term used to denote that special field of social work which concerns itself with the social needs of sick persons. Its essential activity is social case work, and its objective is to

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

help ill persons work toward a solution of the difficulties which face them in relation to the experience of illness. Release or amelioration of outer or inner pressures, whether they be external realities or attitudes and feelings, is the goal, so that sick individuals may function more independently and draw on their own capacities in seeking and using medical care, in preventing illness, and maintaining health. Whether in intramural or extramural practice, or in private or public programs, the individualization of sick persons in terms of medical and social needs is the basic emphasis.

Function

The medical social worker is a generic case worker who possesses not only an understanding of behavior but also a sound background of medical information, an understanding of scientific medical procedure, and a knowledge of resources for the study, treatment, and prevention of illness. Collaboration with the physician or medical agency, either directly or indirectly, is always inherent in medical social work practice.

The medical social worker's special contribution lies in the relating of medical and social factors and in the treatment of those individual problems which grow out of such relationships. Since the primary purpose of the hospital is social, the other professional personnel are likewise concerned with the restoration of the patient to the fullest possible functioning and aim to individualize him through the adaptation of recommendations and techniques to his social and emotional needs. The social worker goes farther in helping to meet those difficulties which require more intensive study for understanding and which need social treatment rather than modifications in the medical procedures for their amelioration.

Series of cases which have been studied indicate that the social worker's services are likely to be needed especially in cases of recurrent and chronic illness, physical handicap, and invalidism, rather than in those of acute illness. As difficulties associated with illness may be found in any social group, social case work has been found to be needed in all types of medical institutions, including those serving persons able to pay moderate rates as well as those caring for the indigent. *See* SOCIAL CASE WORK.

An influence which is enriching the quality and scope of medical social work as a professional function is that coming from medicine's emphasis on the psychosomatic[1] approach to illness, with the medical social worker showing increasing competency in dealing with those psychiatric and psychoanalytic concepts which scientific medicine is integrating into the diagnosis and treatment of illness. The worker's ability to grasp the meaning of illness to the patient, and her capacity to meet the psycho-social problems related to medical care, have found place therefore in many medical programs, both curative and preventive.

Certain services which might be considered largely administrative may also properly be considered forms of medical social case work, as in those instances when the need for more comprehensive medical social case treatment in individual instances is recognized and an attempt is made to fill it, either through the services of other members of the department or other agencies in the community. Thus, in addition to the application of case work concepts and methods to the problems of sick people, the medical social worker appropriately utilizes her knowledge of medicine and social work in the determination of patients' eligibility for medical service, in the continued contact with patients in certain diagnostic groups, and in cooperative service with other social agencies.

History and Developments

The first medical social work in this country was introduced into three medical institutions at approximately the same time in

[1] Referring to the integration of the psychological and physiological aspects of bodily functioning in the study and treatment of illness.

1905—Massachusetts General Hospital in Boston, Bellevue Hospital in New York City, and Johns Hopkins Hospital in Baltimore. Physicians and laymen, convinced that adequate medical care must deal with the social problems related to the illness and that special workers were needed to study and treat such social needs, were responsible for its origin. The late Dr. Richard C. Cabot was the leader of this new movement at the Massachusetts General Hospital, and his name is commonly associated with much of the early growth and subsequent progress of medical social work.

Development of social service departments in other medical institutions has advanced consistently, as physicians and hospital administrators have stressed the importance of treating the patient with reference to his social as well as medical needs. Voluntary and tax-supported medical institutions alike have employed medical social workers to the extent that by the thirtieth anniversary of this movement, in 1935—the latest year for which figures are available—slightly more than one-third of the 1,671 member institutions listed by the American Hospital Association had social service departments. In hospitals maintained by the federal government for enlisted men and veterans, social service departments were established early. In 1940, in the Army and Navy hospitals and one other federal hospital (St. Elizabeths Hospital, Washington, D. C.), 19 departments were maintained by the American National Red Cross; and in the United States Veterans Administration hospitals and clinics there were 72 such departments. *See* VETERANS.

A study of salaries in medical social work by the Russell Sage Foundation[1] in 1937 utilized returns from 453 departments in hospitals and clinics employing full-time workers. In addition to social service departments in hospitals and clinics the study reported on 54 agencies employing medical social workers divided as follows: 10 relief departments, 9 agencies concerned with blindness, 11 schools of social work, 15 state crippled children's programs, and 9 miscellaneous agencies.

With the acceptance of medical social work as a professional function, its contribution has been carried into non-institutional medical care programs, including those under public auspices. *See* MEDICAL CARE. While some state and local health departments utilized medical social workers before the depression, it was the assumption of responsibility for social welfare programs by governmental units that resulted in medical social workers becoming identified with public medical care programs to any extent. The establishment of a medical care plan under the former Federal Emergency Relief Administration in 1933 marked the beginning of this extramural expansion of medical social activity. The passage of the Social Security Act in 1935 gave further and more permanent emphasis to this development. Experienced medical social workers are now employed in local and state departments of health and welfare, chiefly as consultants but also as administrators and practitioners. The Crippled Children's Division of the United States Children's Bureau and the Bureau of Public Assistance of the Social Security Board both have medical social consultants in their federal-state programs. *See* CRIPPLED CHILDREN.

Medical social workers are also employed in public relief organizations, where they have been appointed to develop the health programs, foster smooth working relationships with community health resources, act as consultants regarding medical social problems of individual clients, and assist in the staff education concerned with health matters.

The American Association of Medical Social Workers

Since 1918, medical social workers have been associated in a professional organization now known as the American Association of Medical Social Workers. Completion of the approved curriculum in medical

[1] *See* Hurlin, *infra cit.*

social work, or a combination of academic or professional education and case work experience, is the basis of eligibility for full membership. In 1940 a total of 1,936 medical social workers in the United States and Canada were members of this body. District organizations, set up within the Association, serve as an aid to member participation. At present there are 12 Districts in the United States and one in Canada to which the majority of members belong, although there are also many members in undistricted territory.

Although the Association employs a full-time executive secretary and a part-time educational secretary, it carries on a large part of its program, aside from promotion and administration, through voluntary committee activity. Thus it functions as a democratic, professional entity. An example of the coordination of staff and committee activity may be seen in the work of the educational secretary and the Education Committee in regard to the training of professional workers. The educational secretary has rendered field service to colleges and universities interested in instituting medical social education, and together with the Education Committee has approved such curricula when they met the Association's qualifications. At the same time the Committee, made up chiefly of the instructors of medical social work in these approved centers, has formulated the general content of a full course in this field in addition to carrying on continuous study of pertinent aspects of medical social work education. Through field service on the part of the executive secretary, consultation visits are made to the various Districts, to individual social service departments, and to medical agencies or institutions wishing to establish medical social service. Contacts with the national committees are also maintained, so that through the executive secretary there is coordination of activity and leadership in relation to various aspects of medical social work practice.

Other committees have been particularly active in recent years. The Functions Committee which is concerned mainly with medical social case work, has prepared three publications on this subject.[1] A Committee on Personnel Practices and a Committee on Personnel in Public Service are engaged in promoting the development of standards in the areas designated. The latter Committee is participating in a joint study with the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada on methods of recruitment in the field of medical social work. In the fall of 1940 the Committee on Medical Care in Community Health completed a preliminary study[2] of the role of the medical social worker in public medical care programs, based on a survey of a selected number of such agencies. The study was a joint project with the American Public Welfare Association. Fourteen additional national committees also assist in carrying forward the functional program of the organization. A further activity is the publication of the *Bulletin,* a periodical designed primarily for members of the Association.

It is by these methods that the Association fulfills its stated goals of serving as an organ of intercommunication between medical social workers, of promoting intensive and extensive practice, and of maintaining and improving standards of medical social work. It is affiliated with the National Conference of Social Work and holds its annual meeting at the time and place of the Conference.

Education for Medical Social Work

Beginning in 1921 the question of training for medical social workers has been given continuous consideration by the American Association of Medical Social Workers. Definite plans for the formulation of educational standards were studied in 1925, and in 1926 the Association's part-time educa-

[1] American Association of Medical Social Workers, *The Functions of Hospital Social Service; Medical Social Work: A Study of Current Aims and Methods in Medical Social Case Work;* and *Some Aspects of Social Case Work in a Medical Setting* (*infra cit.*).

[2] *See* Joint Committee, *infra cit.*

tional secretary was employed. Shortly thereafter the formulation of a two-year curriculum was advocated as the desired professional foundation for medical social practice. According to this plan, the first year's course was to be generic and the second specifically medical-social in emphasis.

As member schools of the American Association of Schools of Social Work have presented such plans for the education of practitioners for this field, including approved instructional staff and medical social field work facilities, they have been accredited by the American Association of Medical Social Workers. In 1940 the curriculum at Loyola University, Chicago, was thus approved. The total list of universities or colleges offering the full medical social curriculum approved by the Association is as follows: Fordham University, New York; Loyola University, Chicago; National Catholic School of Social Work, Washington, D. C.; New York School of Social Work; Simmons College, Boston; St. Louis University; Tulane University, New Orleans; University of California, Berkeley; University of Chicago; University of Minnesota, Minneapolis; Washington University, St. Louis; and Western Reserve University, Cleveland. *See* EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK.

In light of the increased demand for qualified medical social workers both in intramural and extramural practice, other schools of social work are moving toward the establishment of approved medical social curricula. The emphasis on merit systems in public programs has been influential in this development. *See* PERSONNEL PRACTICES IN PUBLIC WELFARE.

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GRACE BEALS FERGUSON

MEN IN MILITARY SERVICE,[1] by reason of their isolation from many of the normal processes of civilian life, present special problems in social welfare planning and administration. These have to do with matters of income, debt, and provision for dependents; health; recreation and morale; insurance against disability and death; the acquisition and use of special vocational skills; and personal adjustment to the demands of the military environment. Governmental and non-governmental agencies provide services of various types to meet these needs.

This article (a) reviews briefly the usual American provision of welfare activities for service men, (b) recalls the emergency programs in effect during our participation in the World War in 1917–1918, and (c) outlines, as of late October, 1940, the situation attendant upon the currently developing national defense program.

Normal Peacetime Provisions

During the past two decades the active armed forces of the United States have comprised a relatively small number of men who have enlisted voluntarily for varying periods in the Army, Navy, and other branches of the service. The fairly routine life of these men at army posts or on board ship has required no extensive provision of welfare services; yet a minimum social program has necessarily been in effect at all times. Recreation has been provided where it was otherwise lacking; personal counseling has been engaged in by officers and chaplains; health standards have been enforced as a part of the military regimen; medical care and hospitalization have been available for the treatment of service-connected disabilities; and opportunities have existed for the purchase of life and disability insurance at reduced rates.

Problems of men requiring case work service have been referred to American Red Cross field directors stationed at Army, Navy, Marine Corps, and Coast Guard posts or stations in the United States and its insular possessions. Where these problems have involved the man's family, the field director has advised the Red Cross chapter in the man's home community. Similar service has been rendered to men in National Guard and "reservist" camps. Medical and psychiatric social workers have been employed by the American Red Cross in each of the Army and Navy general hospitals and in St. Elizabeths Hospital at Washington, D. C. Through the local chapters these workers have secured social histories for diagnostic and treatment purposes and have provided case work service for patients and families. In addition, the Army Relief Society and the Navy Relief Society have rendered financial assistance, principally to dependents of deceased men.

World War (1917–1918) Provisions

Some of the above peacetime provisions reflect the experience gained in the period of America's participation in the World War of 1914–1918 when an unprecedentedly large-scale application of social welfare standards was made to the problems of young men in military life. Drafted for compulsory service, these men were taken in large numbers from civilian life and removed to training cantonments where they were given rapid preparation for service overseas. These centers, as they appeared at the outset of that mobilization, have been graphically described as follows: "They are abnormal communities in a number of ways. Among their average population of 40,000 there are no women or children; there is no home life. The men are necessarily abnormal. They are cut loose from accustomed relationships; they have left their

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

families, homes, and friends; their colleges, clubs, and church gatherings are no more; their dances, town libraries, athletic fields, theaters, and movie-houses are left behind; and they have entered a strange, new life in which everything is subordinated to the task of creating an efficient fighting force."[1]

Secretary of War Newton D. Baker had said of the men about to enter these training camps, "This time they will not be volunteers; they will be drafted into service. We cannot afford to draft them into a demoralizing environment. It must be assured that their surroundings in the camps are not allowed to be less stimulating and worthy than the environment in their home communities."[2]

To bring this about War and Navy Department Commissions on Training Camp Activities were appointed. The task of these Commissions was to bring into the camps and the communities surrounding them the services, greatly expanded for the needs of the occasion, of the established recreational and leisure-time agencies of that period. The Playground and Recreation Association of America (now the National Recrearion Association), the Knights of Columbus, Jewish Welfare Board, Young Men's Christian Association, Salvation Army, American Library Association, and the Young Women's Christian Association were among the agencies which responded in epic fashion. The Young Men's Christian Association operated recreational centers in more than 600 buildings at nearly 200 Army and Navy centers in this country. The Knights of Columbus and the Jewish Welfare Board operated fewer units but gave widely scattered services. The Young Women's Christian Association maintained a series of "hostess houses" at the camps. To the Recreation Association of America was given the task of organizing the social and recreational life of the adjacent communities. The Association developed the War Camp Community Service which placed representatives in more than 100 such communities and mobilized the hospitality of churches, civic groups, and individuals in the interests of the fighting forces. The American Library Association furnished personnel to man the special library buildings that had been established in the cantonments with the aid of the Carnegie Corporation. Together these agencies rendered a far-flung and highly diversified service in which sports, music, dramatics, adult education, and comradeship were fused to preserve the morale of the more than three million men brought together in these centers.

But not all the problems of these soldiers in the making could be solved by leisure-time activities; there were economic and social situations involving the "folks back home" which required attention. To deal with these the American Red Cross established a Home Service Division that reached into the communities with ministrations of social service and relief to the families of the men in the ranks. Red Cross workers stationed in the cantonments were able to lift from the minds of the trainees and refer to these local units many troublesome worries which otherwise would have seriously undermined morale.

When the movement of forces overseas began, these services went along, modified somewhat to meet the changed conditions.

To finance the training camp activities and to meet the added strain put upon community welfare agencies, "war chests" were formed in most of the cities of the nation. A large number of these were transformed at the close of the War into the "peace chests" which later were counted among the first of the many community chests in existence today.

Congress, concerned with protecting the men in the camps from exposure to "the twin evils" of alcohol and prostitution, enacted legislation which empowered the Secretaries of War and the Navy to establish zones around military and naval establishments within which houses of prostitution and the sale of liquor were prohibited.

[1] *See* pp. 7–8 in Allen, *infra. cit.*
[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 6–7.

The governmental task of enforcement was shared with the Commissions on Training Camp Activities. Social hygiene organizations and local law enforcement agencies cooperated in the campaign, as well as the Surgeons General of the Army and Navy. From this drive stems much of the vitality of today's social hygiene movement. *See* SOCIAL HYGIENE.

Provisions were made for the maintenance of the dependents of men in service, partly through compulsory deductions from pay and partly by direct governmental grants. Stays of eviction and debt collection were embodied in the Soldiers and Sailors Civil Relief Act of 1918. Compensation was paid for injuries received in service and medical care connected therewith was provided. In addition, insurance against death and permanent disability was offered by the government at low rates. These provisions underwent considerable modification in the post-war period. *See* VETERANS.

National Defense Program

The Selective Training and Service Act of 1940, signed by the President in September, paved the way for a conscription of man-power for the nation's defense similar in many respects to that in effect in 1917–1918. All men from twenty-one to thirty-five years of age inclusive are required by the Act to register for military training and service. The 1940 registration occurred on October 16 and the first selection of men to enter training was scheduled to start about a month later. As this is written, in late October, camps are being constructed or expanded to which the first draftees, approximately 400,000 in number, are to be sent in early 1941 for one year's intensive training, with other contingents to follow later; and plans for the recreational life, health, and social well-being of the new recruits are in process of formulation.[1]

[1] The National Guard was called into active federal service in the fall of 1940, in part before the Selective Service registration of October 16 occurred.

The problems faced by the governmental and voluntary agencies concerned with the new service men's welfare may be grouped as follows:

1. Those relating to the basis of selection of registrants. The Act authorizes the President to provide for the deferment of, among others, (a) those men "in a status with respect to persons dependent upon them for support which renders their deferment advisable," (b) those whose civilian employment is considered vital to the national interest, and (c) those "found to be physically, mentally, or morally deficient or defective." These determinations have been made the function of the draft boards established under the Act. The fact that the draft boards will be operating at least in part in an area long familiar to social workers—that of social investigation—is proving to be of major interest to the latter group. According to Section 136 of the *Selective Service Regulations* (Vol. I), *infra cit.*, the local boards are expected to "consult with local agents of State employment services and public welfare services"; and the governors of the states are urged to instruct these agencies "to assist the local board in its classifying of registrants, by making investigations and furnishing information, as requested by the local board." Thus it seems likely that the public welfare departments will have an important role to play in draft operations.

2. Those relating to health. Registrants considered otherwise eligible for service are to be examined physically before being given a final classification as available for service. Public health authorities see in this examination an opportunity to advance health standards through the case-finding facilities it offers and to make of the process a constructive step in health education and the correction of physical defects. Likewise, they see civilian as well as military values in the attention to be given to the health, hygiene, and physical development of the men in the training centers and are cooperating with the government in working out ways to make these values effective. A Health and Medical Committee of the Council of National Defense has been appointed to co-

ordinate activities in this field. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH.

3. Those relating to the use of leisure time. The Army announced in September, 1940, that its recreational program was to be self-administered and not, as in 1917–1918, delegated to outside agencies. Hostesses are to be selected for each training center by the Recreational and Welfare Section of the War Department's Division of Morale, with responsibility for directing all entertainment activities within the camps. Motion pictures, music, amateur dramatics, athletics, library and post exchange facilities, and service clubs will be provided or promoted. In the communities adjacent to the camps the youth-serving agencies expect to be called upon for a considerable expansion of their services.

4. Those relating to the personal problems of the draftees. The American Red Cross has announced that it will expand its services in accordance with its charter and its traditional responsibility in this area. The relationship of the Red Cross to the local departments of public welfare—now dotting the nation but not present in 1917–1918 when the home service program of this agency was developed—and to the local family welfare societies remains to be worked out in detail. *See* National Defense Program in PUBLIC WELFARE.

5. Those relating to the insurance of service men against the risks of disability and death. Provision for the purchase at low rates of "National Service Life Insurance" in amounts up to $10,000 has been made in connection with tax legislation enacted in October.

6. Those relating to job, property, and income security. Embodied in the Act are provisions designed to assure the draftee that his job will be waiting for him when his year of training is over. The Act also extends the benefits of the Soldiers and Sailors Civil Relief Act of 1918, with respect to waivers of debt obligations, protection against the eviction of dependents while the breadwinner is away, and similar matters. Conservation of social security equities was recognized in October as a problem urgently needing attention. The development of a plan for supplementing the trainee's pay with allowances to meet the needs of his dependents was also in process, although it had not yet been determined whether the administration of such a plan would be placed under the Social Security Board, Veterans Administration, or other federal agency.

In these and other developments the government may be seen to be following the pattern of 1917–1918 in some respects while departing from it in others. Although both periods have in common the element of large-scale removal of young men from civilian life into group living in camps and training centers, there are differences worth noting. Chief among these is the fact that in 1917 the country had declared war and was feverishly engaged in preparing troops for early movement overseas and into the area of active fighting, while today it is at peace with other nations and is preparing defense measures in the hope that it may remain at peace.

Responsibility for coordination of the welfare activities related to the defense program has been assigned by the President to the Consumer Protection Division of the Advisory Commission to the Council of National Defense. This Division's purpose, as stated in October, 1940, was:

1. To study all aspects of the defense program as it affects consumers and to make recommendations for consumer protection. The Division is responsible for knowing the needs of consumers and is seeking to insure adequate supplies of consumer goods and to prevent undue increases in the cost of living.

2. To coordinate the defense activities of the government in the welfare field and to promote a healthy and effective population.

3. To deal with public and civic organizations, disseminating information and encouraging activities designed to maintain the flow of goods and to promote civilian fitness and well-being.

Other Effects of Defense Program

This article has been confined to a brief discussion of the social provision for men in military service and their dependents,

and has not attempted to trace the effects of the defense program in closely related areas of civilian life. The impact of preparedness psychology on civil liberties and the labor movement; the need for public housing in connection with expanding industrial and military communities; the diversion of the public works program to military uses; the influence of higher taxes on the financing of local, voluntary social work programs; the importance of revising the Social Security Act to remove barriers to recruitment of workers for government shipyards and arsenals; the changed emphasis in vocational education; and similar subjects are dealt with in other topical articles in this volume.

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RUSSELL H. KURTZ

MENTAL HYGIENE.[1] While mental hygiene in the strict sense pertains to the maintenance of mental health, it has been applied more broadly to the provision of optimum conditions for the care and recovery of the mentally ill as well. It can therefore be discussed conveniently along with mental disorders, mental defect, and psychiatry.

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

Mental hygiene in the narrower sense can be best understood as a special aspect of hygiene. It is one phase of that body of knowledge and theory that relates to the maintenance of adequate human living—adequate in the sense of a capacity to survive, to produce, and to achieve satisfaction.

Hygiene derives its data from many sciences such as chemistry, physiology, pathology, psychology, and sociology. It is enriched by the experience and empirical conclusions of certain arts such as medicine, dentistry, nursing, social work, and law. The application of hygiene has itself added further to this body of knowledge. Hygiene involves two categories of scientific knowledge about the living of man: the one inspired by man's fight against disease of his various organs, often referred to as physical hygiene; the other inspired by man's fight against mental disorders, that is, mental hygiene. Physical hygiene has to do with the maintenance of the functions of tissues, organs, and systems, or with part functions of man such as temperature and nutrition. These data are the point of departure of preventive medicine and public health. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH. They are valuable in so far as they help people to live, to produce, and to enjoy themselves. The term hygiene was originally restricted to this limited aspect, but of recent years public health work has taken more and more account of mental hygiene.

The second set of facts included in hygiene, those relating to mental hygiene, has to do with the functioning of persons as we see them going about, living, producing, or getting satisfaction. It has to do with the direction of human effort into productive channels and away from struggles with conflicting tendencies or ineffective worry. It has to do with the effective use of intelligence, freed of unnecessary emotional restraint. It has to do with the whole complex of organs and tissues acting as a unit, which unit is man himself. It has to do with his ambitions, his thinking, his feel-

ing, his social relationships, and how the defect of a part of him affects his behavior. This is mental hygiene. The concept of mental hygiene came along much later than that of physical hygiene and has not as yet developed as concrete and precise facts and methods. The greater complexity of man's behavior as contrasted with his physiology accounts for this lag.

This division of hygiene is obviously arbitrary, but because of the immensity of the field of hygiene, the division is convenient as a basis for practical application. It is evident that any deviation in a part of man is a potential threat to his mental health and conversely the behavior and experience of a person may deeply influence the health of his individual organs. Since the adequacy of behavior varies with age, place, time, situation, and individual differences, mental health is not a set and definite state but is always a relative condition.

The behavior of people is the concern of a number of professions, each related to a different expression of this behavior or approaching it by different routes. It is obvious that the different parts of the content of mental hygiene will therefore be emphasized differently on application. To the psychiatrist one set of facts is especially applicable, to the social worker another, to the physician and public health nurse or educator still another. In any case, success in the achievements of the ideals of these fields is in fact an achievement for mental health and an expression of the application of mental hygiene. The common interest of these professions in mental hygiene affords a bridge between them that is of distinct value in coordinating their efforts.

Up to the present the organized programs of mental hygiene have been directed more to the securing of adequate services to deal with deviations of behavior than to their prevention, or to the development of a positive mental health. These three phases, the pathological, the preventive, and the positive constitute the scope of applied mental hygiene. The greater attention to the first of these is due to the fact that mental disorders are emergencies and command attention, and to the fact that the methods of conserving mental health are still not so clearly worked out as our treatment procedures. The mental hygiene movement actually started as an effort to improve the care and the treatment of the insane, due to the fact that the movement was initiated by Clifford W. Beers, himself a recovered patient, whose own unhappy hospital experience impelled him to strive for improved conditions. This phase of mental hygiene has been constantly related to psychiatry and the leadership has been consistently medical.

The growth of mental hygiene, however, has taken place rapidly in the direction of prevention and improved living, and it has become one of the basic sciences of all professions concerned with the living of man. In some quarters the doctor or the social worker is more active in mental hygiene than the psychiatrist. Several teacher associations have their mental hygiene committees and many county and state medical societies are appointing such committees. There are programs for introducing mental hygiene into the training of the clergy. Courses in mental hygiene designed both to enhance technical equipment and to help the student himself are being experimented with constantly. To no small degree the development of mental hygiene has been hastened by financial support from large and small foundations interested in specific projects. Several periodicals have appeared recently as an expression of this spread of interest. Two of these are directed specifically to general practitioners of medicine and one to teachers. Social work and educational journals frequently have special articles on this subject in addition to the "mental hygiene slant" of many other articles.

Present advances in the field of education and social work are centered on the effects of personal relationships upon the mental health of the person served. The selection of personnel for their personal qualities is

therefore a common interest of these various human arts. Colleges are giving increasing attention to their personnel as contrasted with the factual phase of their contribution. Industry, which has in the past been interested in mental hygiene chiefly with the objective of increasing employe productivity, has lately begun to see that this increase is achieved as a by-product of a good general morale rather than as a direct effect, and has begun to center attention on the mental hygiene of the executive on whom the morale of the organization depends.

In 1938 the American Association for the Advancement of Science conducted a symposium on mental hygiene.[1] Presentations reflecting many different aspects brought together recent advances in science and practice.

Psychiatry

Psychiatry is concerned with the treatment of the serious deviations of human behavior, those that are chronic and dealt with primarily by custody as well as those that are subject to more intensive treatment.

The psychiatrist is a physician who has had, as a minimum, a general internship and about two years of residency in a mental hospital. The American Board of Psychiatry and Neurology is an unofficial certifying body having at present about 400 diplomates located in about four-fifths of the states. It requires of its candidates five years of experience prerequisite to examination. Its requirements are more and more being written into official specifications for positions. Hospitals offering residences in psychiatry are giving increasing attention to the educational needs of their new staff members, so that there is today greater opportunity for men to plan a career in that field. Medical schools are likewise giving more time to psychiatric instruction of their medical students, being motivated to a considerable degree by the needs of the physician not specializing in psychiatry.

Up until the current century psychiatry was synonymous with institutional treatment of the grossly mentally ill, that is, patients with psychosis (insanity), with mental deficiency (feeblemindedness), and with convulsive states (epilepsy). At present, however, many psychiatrists are in private practice with a large clientele of persons with neuroses (nervousness). Psychopathic personality states (as found in perverts, vagrants, psychopathic delinquents) are seen especially by psychiatrists associated with courts or penal institutions.

The clinical characteristics, types, distribution, causes, treatment, outlook, and other facts of importance about these disorders may be obtained from any good textbook of psychiatry. Their social significance warrants special discussion.

Psychoses

Mental disease is the absence or serious impairment of ability to conduct one's affairs with effectiveness and satisfaction, due to the breakdown of the behavior of the person. It is a relative term depending upon the degree of deviation and the standard of normality, and consequently grades imperceptibly into lesser disorders represented in mild cases merely by personality peculiarities. A sharp demarcation exists only legally and where the person has been adjudged lacking in responsibility. Such gross mental disorder (legal insanity) is one of our most burdensome social problems. According to the 1940 report of the American Medical Association, the average number of nervous and mental patients occupying hospitals or institutional beds in 1939 was 577,103 or 57.9 per cent of the average daily total of all hospital patients. These are mostly legally insane; and these figures omit the gross cases that are not in hospitals as well as the milder ones that are to be found abundantly in general hospitals. This number is about 15,000 higher than in the previous year. The cost of meeting this

[1] *See* American Association for the Advancement of Science, *infra cit.*

large problem adequately can be judged from the figures for New York State alone where $52,000,000 is spent annually for a daily average of 63,648 patients with psychoses. It is estimated that the cost per patient for the entire country is about five-sevenths that of New York State. As computed from the admissions of patients in New York City, one youth in 18 may be expected to spend some time of his life as a patient in a mental hospital. Hospital construction costs $3,000 to $4,000 per patient, maintenance costs $200 to $500 pet year.

While the care of the insane was formerly a local (county) responsibility, there are now only a few states that provide care on that basis. Most states have accepted the care of the insane as a state function. Some assume the full cost, others allocate part of it to the locality or to relatives of the patients. The federal government makes special provision for vererans. There are still many problems of care due to lack of standard practice between states, especially where residence is in doubt and where legal authority and decisions do not carry over state boundaries.

The admission of a patient to a mental hospital involves a limitation of his freedom. Some states have provision for voluntary admission and discharge, but in most cases admission to a hospital is by commitment. According to the United States Bureau of the Census 85 per cent of psychotic patients are in state mental hospitals, 8 per cent in county and city hospitals, 5 per cent in federal hospitals, and 2 per cent in privare hospitals. The private hospitals consist of voluntary hospitals not organized for profit and proprietary hospitals organized for financial gain.

The modern state hospital is constructed on the cottage plan, which allows better classification and treatment of individual patients. It contains medical, surgical, X-ray, and laboratory units equal to those of the well-equipped general hospital; as well as physiotherapy, occupational, and recreational therapy rooms, gymnasiums, and libraries. There is at least one physician to every 150 patients and one nurse to every eight patients. There is also definite provision for the supervision and training of the younger staff. Affiliation with a medical school is frequent.

In the modern hospital each patient upon admission is given a thorough physical and mental examination, his personal and family history is studied, a diagnosis is made, and appropriate treatment is instituted. The functions of a mental hospital include the treatment of the patient for his remediable difficulties, the prevention of relapses after his return to the community, and—where necessary in protracted cases—the adjustment of his environment to the phases of his disorder that resist treatment. In the majority of cases, treatment succeeds in part; in many cases, complete recovery ensues. Standards of recovery vary in the several states and the statistics in a given hospital vary from year to year. In the federal census of state hospitals for 1935 the general average rates were 15.2 patients discharged as recovered for each 100 admissions, and 25.7 discharged as improved. The rates of recovery and of improvement vary widely in the several psychotic groups. The average period of hospital life of patients in mental hospitals is between four and five years. Cases that recover, however, usually remain in the hospital less than one year.

There is much interest in the development of boarding home care in place of hospital care for the insane. The cost of such care differs insufficiently from that of hospital care to justify it on the basis of economy, but it has distinct advantages for some patients. Most state hospitals are overcrowded, so in many states patients must remain in homes or in jails until a hospital bed is available. Several states have hospitals for the criminal insane, where special restrictions are imposed, but in most states these patients are cared for in a section of one of the regular mental hospitals. There are constantly increasing provisions for more

adequate psychiatric service in local general hospitals, where patients may be more carefully studied prior to commitment and where a few may receive treatment.

The hospitalization of the insane has never been satisfactory. From a very easy process seventy-five years ago the admission of patients to mental hospitals has become a complicated legal procedure, in some states involving a trial by jury amounting practically to criminal procedure with publicity and damage to the patient. This has been complicated, moreover, by the 50 or more sets of procedures prevailing in different state and federal jurisdictions. Recently a careful study and compilation of these procedures have been made by the United States Public Health Service[1] with recommendations for safeguarding and expediting these processes. The recommendations deal with emergency admissions, uniform procedures of commitment involving as little formality as is constitutionally possible, and provisions for the protection of the patient.

There has been much speculation about the increasing incidence of mental disorders. There is unquestionably a higher incidence of hospital admissions. This increase is attributed variously to increased hospital facilities and increased inability to care for patients at home as well as to some increase in incidence. Only the psychosis due to arteriosclerosis shows reliable evidence of increase. While it is unsound to group psychoses for scientific purposes, there seems to be a general tendency for men to exceed women in numbers in the various categories.

The departure of a patient from a mental hospital as recovered is, as a rule, only a step in his convalescence. Many hospitals employ special staff to assist in the rehabilitation of the patient and to link the hospital with the community. *See* PSYCHIATRIC SOCIAL WORK. While such a responsibility obviously requires special technical preparation, there is insufficient agreement between hospitals and schools of social work at present as to the method of providing this training. As a result, progress in providing for this function has been delayed and the employment of totally unprepared persons is very frequent.

About 18 per cent of the patients admitted for the first time to mental hospitals are diagnosed dementia praecox. This is the most costly of all forms of mental disease. It is likely to occur early in life and become chronic so that many remain in hospitals for decades. This is the form of mental disorder that shapes the popular concept of insanity, since it includes the queer, the striking, the threatening, the hallucinated, and the deteriorated. The causes of dementia praecox are still very obscure. Recent electro-encephalographic studies and studies of identical twins have brought forth evidence that the disorder deeply involves the constitution of the patient. The treatment of this disorder by shock is still insufficiently evaluated, but there is much evidence in favor of a positive value in certain cases. For several years the Scottish Rite Masons, Northern Jurisdiction have made dementia praecox a matter of major interest and have provided generously for research into its nature, causes, and treatment.

The manic depressive phychoses or mood disorders constitute along with dementia praecox the bulk of the so-called functional psychoses as contrasted with the organic psychoses. This contrast means that bodily conditions have not been found to account for the functional disorder and that therefore the definition of the disorder must be symptomatic rather than etiological. It also means that situational factors appear to play a large role in precipitating the disorder. The manic depressive psychoses have a high tendency to recur.

General paresis and other types of brain syphilis tend to form another large and important group. The past twenty years have seen distinct strides in the cure of brain syphilis, but often irreparable damage has been done to brain tissue preventing complete recovery. The prevention of this psy-

[1] *See* Kempf, *infra cit.*

chosis depends on the early treatment of syphilitic infections and in general measures to cope with syphilis as a public health problem. *See* SOCIAL HYGIENE.

Psychoses due to alcohol are a fourth very significant group. They are among the most intractable of disorders although the acute or episodic outbreaks can be fairly easily handled. Such psychoses are apparently secondary disorders founded upon a primary psychopathological defect, perhaps akin to manic depressive psychoses or psychopathic personality. Of recent years important progress has been made in the treatment of alcoholic psychoses through the discovery that many of their neurological symptoms—for example neuritis—are the result of a vitamin deficiency due to the failure of the alcoholic to take an adequate diet. The Research Council on Problems of Alcohol was organized in 1938 to center activities in this field.

The deteriorative psychoses of advancing years, those due to arteriosclerosis as well as degeneration of the brain tissues (senile psychosis), are another large group. Many of these patients are now returnable to their homes freed of their confusion and able to fit into the life of the home so long as their routines are carefully safeguarded. They are of course still subject to the other limitations of age.

The other forms of mental disorders, some 17 in number, aggregate fewer patients than does dementia praecox alone.

The Neuroses

While often just as incapacitating as the major psychosis the neurosis is less obtrusive and is more likely to be compatible with a relatively normal social existence. The neuroses are more circumscribed "habits" of reacting toward occurrences to which the patient has a special sensitivity. This is expressed by anxieties, compulsions, obsessions, moror habits, and intense drives. The abnormality of the reaction may be fully appreciated by the patient, but uncontrollable or extremely distressing when controlled.

Neuroses are very widespread; perhaps to a degree they are practically universal. The social effect of the neurosis is no criterion of its depth or fixity, since a relatively simple motor tic may be very obtrusive and handicapping but may reflect less fundamental morbidity than persistent touchiness. Because of these variables it is impossible to estimate the economic or social seriousness of neuroses. Many of the problems of internal medicine, particularly of gastroenterology, are fundamentally neurotic in origin. The neuroses come to evidence as a rule only when they produce a serious decline in productivity or satisfaction and require professional attention; otherwise they may be endured for years as a persisting drain on the joy of living. Neurotic persons come for help to the doctor, minister, lawyer, or social worker, depending on the forms of disturbance the neurosis takes. While adjustments to the neurosis are within the scope of these agencies its treatment is a psychiatric responsibility.

Doctors have estimated that 50 to 70 per cent of their patients have a significant neurotic component to their complaints. It is because of the widespread distribution of neuroses that psychiatric consultation service to these professional groups has grown by leaps and bounds in the past few years. It is also because of the growing recognition of the importance of the neuroses that medical and other professional schools have concerned themselves with this phase of psychiatry.

The interpretation and treatment of the neurosis has been greatly influenced by psychoanalysis; in fact, this is the area above all others in which psychoanalysis has built up its theoretic and factual structure. It is to be remembered, however, that the constitution (physiological make-up) upon which the neurosis develops is an important consideration as it is in the psychoses.

Mental Deficiency

Mental deficiency (feeblemindedness) is the term applied to the dullard or stupid

who is so badly handicapped or so situated that he cannot conduct his affairs with ordinary prudence. It is a defect of intelligence dating from birth or a very early age. Mental deficiency is therefore a social concept, and social criteria of the condition are fundamental. Other criteria, such as mental age arrived at through tests, are valid for determining mental deficiency only when they correlate with social criteria or when they are used as one part of a study of the person's total adjustment.

It is obvious then that the social standards under which the person is living determine in part whether his intelligence will suffice or not. In other words, mental deficiency is relative. While the use of tests of intelligence alone as a means of determining mental deficiency is unsound, such tests are of importance in revealing gradations of different aspects of intelligence; and from this limited, non-legal, non-social standpoint it is useful to evaluate intellectual differences. It is necessary, in other words, to distinguish between legal or social mental deficiency and the rating of intelligence for purposes of scientific study and classification.

A large number of tests have been devised to reveal the status of different aspects of intelligence. Some are verbal—that is, they depend more on language comprehension and learning; others depend more on some type of performance. The critical use of and interpretation of tests have become something of an art and are the special field of the clinical psychologist. For clinical purposes a modification of the Binet Test has the most widespread use. This test classifies the subject according to the age level to which his intelligence most closely corresponds (mental age). It is considered for test purposes that the growth of intelligence is practically completed at fourteen, fifteen, or sixteen years of age (depending on the authority) and therefore such levels are the accepted standard for normal adults. The ratio of the subject's "mental age" to his chronological age, that is the per cent of expected development that he has achieved, is called his intelligence quotient (I.Q.). The uncertainty in interpreting and calculating the I.Q. has brought it into some disrepute.

In the past few years attempts have been made to establish more accurate criteria of social competency as a basis for evaluating mental deficiency as well as other social limitations. The Vineland Social Rating Scale has attained special recognition for this purpose.

On the basis of severity of defect, mental defectives are classified into three major groups: the idiot, or lowest; the imbecile; and the moron, bordering on the self-sufficient.

Mental deficiency from the clinical or pathological standpoint includes a number of different disease entities having the intellectual defect as a common symptom, but having other symptoms that differentiate them. As might be expected these symptoms diffet in degree of severity, and at times the intellectual inferiority is not great enough to incapacitate the individual socially. The birth injuries are an example of this variability. Some of these clinical types of disease are injuries to the brain tissue, some are deficiencies of growth and development of the brain whereby it has not the structure necessary to carry more complex functions. Some are more generalized deficiencies, such as endocrine disorders whereby the whole organism functions below standard. Some of these disorders are hereditary, in other conditions heredity is remote or absent.

While the incidence of mental deficiency is generally estimated at 1 per cent of the population, this refers to the cases in which the intellectual inferiority is so severe as practically to ensure social dependency. Approximately 13 per cent of the population have an intellectual equipment that is so marginal that unusual social pressure or temperamental instability are likely to precipitate the individual into insufficiency. The cases of mental deficiency decrease in num-

ber as they increase in severity and form a somewhat distorted lower range of a normal curve of distribution of intelligence of the general population. The different clinical types follow different curves of incidence. Of recent years some children who were originally classed as mental defectives have been recognized as very young cases of dementia praecox.

An undue proportion of mental deficiency is found among delinquents. Whether this is because they are more easily led, more easily caught, inadequately defended, or so closely associated with the less fortunate classes of society is a question. It has been found that pupils of well-conducted special educational programs do not tend to become delinquent. The practices are frequently the result of society's failure to make adequate provision for limited intelligence. While it is a question whether intelligence can be grossly improved, careful vocational preparation and social guidance and protection can prevent and cure mental deficiency in the social sense. Sterilization is one of the current methods of prevention. Provisions exist for sterilization in many states but only a few have used it extensively. Religious, scientific, and administrative questions have retarded its application and adoption. The United States Supreme Court has upheld the constitutionality of the Virginia sterilization statute.

Institutions for the mentally defective actually care for only about one-tenth of the total, even in our best-equipped states. The remainder in most instances are problems for community care. This necessitates careful registration, education, and supervision. In only one state, South Dakota, is registration of all mental defectives well organized. Education is carried on to a small extent through temporary institutional placement but for the most part depends on our public schools. The larger communities tend to provide special classes for them, but elsewhere they are dealt with in the regular classes. While the best educational programs provide for the personality needs of the defective child, all too often the special class becomes another routine or, even worse, a "catch-all" for annoying children.

Well-ordered education for defectives aims to develop what strengths the children have and to forestall continual failure. The environmental limitations of many dull children demand also a better appreciation of the home and a means of considering this in the education of the child. Visiting teacher service, especially designed to fulfill this function, is at present far too limited. *See* Visiting Teachers in Social and Health Work in the Schools.

Institutions for mental defectives are as a rule designed either to provide custodial care or training preparatory to discharge or supervision in the community. Some children need an institution because of the severity of the defect which defies home care. Others have become delinquent or are otherwise disturbing and need a more controlled environment during training than exists in the community. Unfortunately, community health and welfare agencies are often inclined to seek the commitment of such children before the resources for non-institutional care have been used to their utmost. As is the case with the insane, inadequate provision is often made for the supervision of those patients in institutions who could be or are discharged.

Epilepsy

Epilepsy is really a group of disorders all having a common symptom, the transient interruption of consciousness and the convulsion. Heredity is a factor in some cases but is credited with less importance now than thirty years ago. The term epilepsy applies to those cases in which the brain disorder or alterations in body chemistry predominates, whereas convulsions of psychic origin are classed as a neurosis, hysteria. The distinction, however, is not always clear since psychic factors are potent even in cases dependent on organic changes. This explains the response to psychotherapy in

some cases of epilepsy, and the transient relief from fake cures.

There are two main types of epilepsy: the grand mal, in which the victim falls suddenly, loses consciousness, and has a jerking convulsion of the body; and petit mal, in which there is only a transient loss of consciousness, often without interruption of activity or awareness of the attack. Attacks may occur in sleep for a long while before they are discovered.

The incidence of epilepsy is impossible to determine because of the uncertainty of diagnosis and the many cases that never seek treatment. An estimate of 3 per 1,000 population is conservative.

The epileptic is of social significance because of the liability to self-injury and because of the irritable, aggressive personality tending to accompany the disorder and the violent outbreaks that may follow or supplant a convulsion. Some states have consequently made special provision for epileptics either in institutions for the insane or mental defectives, or separately.

The epileptic needs careful medical study, for his brain or metabolic disorder may be remediable; he needs medication to allay convulsions which are injurious in themselves; he needs occupation, yet protection from occupational hazards; he needs regular education, protection from emotional stress, and a constructive attitude toward his handicap. Marriage is undesirable, for apart from eugenic or euthenic reasons it is apt to be a stormy experience for the patient.

Recent studies of electrical potentials in the brain (brain waves) of epileptics show a characteristic type of fluctuation. Since these same peculiarities are found in patients not known to be epileptic we may be on the verge of a broader concept of this disorder including cases with neither convulsions nor obvious lapses of consciousness.

The scientific interest in epilepsy is centered in the Section on Convulsive Disorders of the American Psychiatric Association. The promotional organization concerned with informing the public as to the magnitude of the problem, the correction of neglect of incipient cases, and the encouragement of research is the American League Against Epilepsy, a branch of the International League Against Epilepsy. The officers of the League in 1939 organized the Laymen's League Against Epilepsy to promote research and advance understanding in this field.

Psychiatric Clinics for Children

Psychiatric clinics for children received their initial impetus from the effort to prevent mental disease and delinquency. They are based on the fact that serious behavior problems are known to exist in the childhood of many psychotic and neurotic persons and that some delinquency is on a psychopathological foundation. Such clinics represent an attempr to deal with these more serious social problems at an early stage of development. It is recognized that some of the behavior difficulties of children are a legitimate response of the child to unhealthy environmental pressures and are not essentially psychiatric. *See* BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS.

Child guidance clinics, which constitute a large part of these psychiatric clinics, are a special type regularly employing the combined services of a psychiatrist, psychologist, and psychiatric social worker and dealing with the behavior problems of children of a fairly normal range of intelligence. The essential procedure of such clinics is to bring the contributions of the several specialists outside the clinic (court, school, physician, social agency, health agency) into a single study and treatment effort. For this the case conference involving all these agents is an essential. In some instances the clinic takes the primary responsibility, in others it acts as the assistant, going to the quarters of another agency to perform its functions. The psychiatrist is inclined to deal primarily with the child's attitudes, emotions, and physiological status; the psychologist with measurable mental qualities;

and the social worker with the child's environmental setting. However, there are many modifications of this basic pattern, particularly with staffs that have worked together a long time. Direct therapeutic work with children has been greatly enhanced by these clinics. The American Orthopsychiatric Association is an organization particularly pointed up to this type of service and personnel. Psychiatric clinics for children exist mainly in larger cities but there is a growing provision, on the part of state hospitals and departments, for smaller communities through traveling units. The support of these clinics is diverse including community chests, courts, schools, hospitals, medical schools, city, county, and state funds, and endowments.

It is highly improbable that psychiatric service will ever be available for all children with problems of behavior or even for those that are dependent on psychopathological causes. It would not be desirable, even if possible, to divorce the handling of these problems completely from child care, probation, pediatrics, and public health nursing. It is therefore necessary to clarify a narrower scope for psychiatric clinics and to develop further the resources of these other agencies for dealing with the less complex problems. The clinic has a responsibility for contributing to this progress.

The provision of such service to smaller communities is so closely bound up with the evolution of the larger community functions of state mental hospitals that adequate service will appear very slowly. At best, clinics emanating from such hospitals will do more diagnostic work and provide simpler treatment, and will depend more on other community agencies than is the case in larger cities. The lag in the development of social service in hospitals is a serious factor in the failure to provide clinic service. In many instances the clinics serve both children and adults. Some child guidance clinics have expanded their programs to include adults, using the same general pattern of operation as is used for children.

Other Agencies in the Field

The agency primarily devoted to the promotion of adequate care of the mentally sick, prevention of mental disorder, and dissemination of knowledge of importance to mental health is the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, founded in 1909 by Clifford W. Beers. It has made surveys and published reports of various state and local facilities, it has promoted high standards of professional training, and helps in the placement of psychiatrists and psychiatric social workers through fellowships and special studies. It has given advice in the development of facilities and the advancement of legislation. It has sponsored the mental hygiene advances in public education. It fosters and administers research. A number of states and local communities have organized similar agencies for local purposes.

The agency primarily concerned with the scientific progress of psychiatry and the interests of psychiatrists is the American Psychiatric Association. It has a section on mental deficiency but the established leadership in that field rests with a similar organization, the American Association on Mental Deficiency, which embodies the educational as well as the psychiatric aspects. The Section on Neurology and Psychiatry of the American Medical Association is similar in purpose, but much more restricted in membership. The American Orthopsychiatric Association is composed chiefly of psychiatrists, psychologists, and psychiatric social workers and is concerned with the behavior problems of relatively normal persons.

Under governmental auspices the United States Public Health Service's Division of Mental Hygiene has recently taken over the Mental Hospital Survey function carried for years by the National Committee for Mental Hygiene. It supervises the psychiatric aspects of several federal institutions. The United States Children's Bureau gives active leadership to promoting the mental health of children from the welfare side,

whereas the United States Office of Education gives similar leadership to the educational field.

Within the individual states the mental hygiene services are similarly divided among the state departments or agencies. In some the psychiatric facilities are independent departments whereas in others they are responsible to a department of welfare, or public health.

The 1940 White House Conference on Children in a Democracy gave more attention to the mental health of children in its reports than did earlier White House Conferences.

There are in the United States some 24 state mental hygiene societies or committees. In the past these have had a very loose and informal connection with the National Committee for Mental Hygiene but provision is now being made for an organic relationship. Some of these state societies have paid staffs while others depend on volunteer effort.

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GEORGE S. STEVENSON

MIGRANTS, TRANSIENTS, AND TRAVELERS[1] present special problems to social work because of their not "belonging" in the communities where they find themselves in trouble. Rejection of the nonresident by the community may occur for

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

social, economic, or legal reasons. Such differences as there are in the degree of the community's approval of the newcomer determines to a large extent the designation by which he is known and the amount of help given him.

Generally speaking, "travelers" are more acceptable to the community than are "transients," the latter being considered casual itinerants while the former are assumed to have specific destinations and plans of action. The term "migrant" has usually been applied to the person who moves from one place of abode to another with a view to change of residence. Such a person may or may not be regarded as an asset, according to the opportunities which the community has to offer him at the time of his arrival. Migratory workers, traveling rather constantly from job to job, are workers whose mobility is the result of the seasonal demands for labor in certain occupations, chiefly large-scale agriculture. Many of them began as migrants but have found no chance to settle down since they took to the road and have, in a sense, later become transients. Many of the people moving about today are not wholly dissimilar from the much-sung early generations of pioneers, whose migration may have been either a flight from a reality which could not be faced or a courageous attack on a problem which could not be solved by remaining at home.

Travelers' Aid Service

For the purpose of this discussion the term "traveler" is used to mean the person in transit or newly come to the community, journeying by train, bus, car, or airplane, with an objective and a destination, whose trip is financed by himself or by a parent, relative, or prospective employer. In some circumstances, of course, the person who appears at first to be a traveler by this definition may later come to be classified as a transient or migrant.

The traveler comes to the attention of social agencies when in need either of protection, as in the case of the young person; or of material aid, as in the case of one who meets with some financial difficulty en route or upon immediate arrival. The problems of the latter are frequently found to be symptomatic of trouble "back home." The difficulty may be merely a personal maladjustment or it may be one of the many recognized social or economic reasons for transiency or migration. When some obstacle in his way brings such a person to a social agency for help, a twofold problem is presented: first, the problem of giving what immediate help is needed; and second, the underlying problem of determining the cause of his difficulty and how this cause may be removed.

With the element of time playing a peculiar part in the care of persons who have no roots in the community, a special form of individualized service on a time-limited basis has been developed to meet their immediate needs. People away from their homes require a bold, decisive skill applied to their special, individual problems so that they may be quickly able to help themselves and not be a continuous burden on the community. This the new form of case work service attempts to give them.

Community facilities for the assistance of travelers are usually located at points where the greatest number of persons in need pass —that is, at railway terminals, steamship piers, and bus terminals. Clients may also apply at the assisting agency's central office or at the community's central intake service, if one is maintained. At all of these places interviews are held which determine whether a plan can be worked out quickly or whether greater service over a period of time must follow. The identifying of incipient problems requiring counseling service before they become acute, difficult to dislodge, or a hazard to the community or the individual is an important process of travelers' aid service.

People moving from one community to another are usually cut off from their normal resources, financial and social. Their

problems, therefore, generally involve agencies in more than one city. Agencies developing an adequate individualized service to moving people must include an understanding and a technique of intercity cooperation. By this is meant the method whereby agencies in two or more cities cooperate in developing or carrying on their plans in the intetest of the client. Through a pre-arranged appointment service, agencies helping travelers assist persons under their care through each point of change and again at the city of destination so that nothing may happen to block the plans which have been originally made for them.

One group of private social agencies, the Travelers Aid Societies, has given exclusive attention to such persons since late in the nineteenth century. At first the work was primarily the protection of young girls who traveled by train, but experience soon proved that among all classes of people who travel no one is exempt from emergency trouble; and the Societies' scope of activities was broadened accordingly. Organized Travelers Aid Societies operated in approximately 100 of the larger cities during 1940, covering over 400 surrounding cities, while cooperating representatives gave travelers' aid service in more than 1,300 other cities. A service to travelers was available in 1,883 points in the United States. The National Travelers Aid Association, organized in 1917, is the coordinating and central service bureau for all these agencies whose chief concern is with the traveler or moving person.

Other private social agencies, such as American Red Cross chapters, family welfare agencies, and Young Women's Christian Associations, have given aid to travelers and transients where an organized Travelers Aid Society does not exist. Departments of public welfare have also given emergency relief to travelers.

In cities which are ports of entry Travelers Aid Societies are prepared to give special service in caring for immigrants and repatriated Americans. Many other groups, such as International Institutes, the National Council of Jewish Women, and the National Catholic Welfare Conference also render service to newcomers to the United States. *See* IMMIGRANTS.

Transients During the Depression

In the early days of the deptession the number of persons on the move because of unemployment increased alarmingly. The agencies, public and private, which worked daily with transients found that many of the new travelers were workers searching for jobs. As the number of mobile persons increased, the agencies realized that concerted effort was needed for an attack on the problems of dependency which many of them presented. It was recognized that there was necessity for making the American people aware of the needs of persons who were not able, for some reason or other, to put down roots in the new community. Through various studies these agencies pointed up the need for direct help to persons "on the road"; and in September, 1932, they came together in a group known as the Committee on Care of Transient and Homeless.[1]

While the various agencies continued to offer such services as their limited resources afforded during this period, the Committee blazed the way for making a federal program for transients possible. A transient division was established in the Federal Emergency Relief Administration (FERA) in August, 1933, and state facilities were set up and operated with federal funds. This program was known as the Federal Transient Program. At the peak of the Program, in October, 1934, 47 states and the District of Columbia had transient bureaus and camps in operation. From August, 1933, through January, 1936, federal expenditures for transient assistance amounted

[1] This Committee was active from September, 1932, to January, 1939, when it was re-formed as the Council on Interstate Migration, since dissolved.

to $86,425,031, including $8,456,975 for plant and equipment. The highest monthly census enumeration during the operation of the Program was that of February, 1935, when 300,460 persons were under care. The Program was liquidated on January 1, 1936, after intake had been closed September 20, 1935.

Under the Federal Transient Program the transient was administratively defined as one who had been within state boundaries less than one year. By a more personalized definition the transient may be thought of as an unattached individual or family in a new locality, away from or without customary kinship, job, or community connection. The group includes persons of both sexes, all ages, all varieties of family status, and all degrees of mobility. These facts were first brought out in studies of the records of the FERA, which showed that the persons under care in 1933–1935 constituted a representative cross-section of the population, and that a search for employment was the main cause of their movement from place to place.

Since the discontinuance of the Federal Transient Program no uniform, nation-wide system of recording applications for assistance for non-residents has been in operation and therefore it is not known how large the so-called transient population is today. Most states have left the unsupervised handling of their transient problem to the local communities so that, by and large, little is known of its volume. It is generally conceded, however, that large numbers are involved and that relief provisions for them are most inadequate.

As a result of the efforts made by the Committee on Care of Transient and Homeless and the officials of the Federal Transient Program, local and state transient committees were set up in 1933–1935. Many of the local and a few of the state committees are still active. These groups are usually connected with councils of social agencies or are made up of interested persons coming together voluntarily and independently. According to the latest reports, there are today at least eight state-wide active transient committees and approximately 51 local transient committees. In general, the work of these committees relates to securing current information on the problem of transiency, examining existing resources available for aiding the non-settled and developing more community awareness of their needs, and working for state and federal legislation of a corrective nature.

It must be remembered that prior to the FERA many social agencies were giving various types of individual care to people who were non-resident. And from the earliest days sporadic efforts were made to bring about better understanding of the needs of these people and closer coordination of plans. At the National Conference of Charities and Correction in 1902, a plan for agreement on transportation-giving was made, out of which grew the well-known Transportation Agreement. This agreement between social agencies pointed the way to helping the individual constructively while putting no unfair burden on any community. When the transient became one of the major questions during the years of the depression, it was felt by the national agencies supporting the Agreement that the time had come to consider the principles involved in the Agreement as an integral part of good case work procedure, accepted by qualified case workers everywhere; and the formal signing of the Transportation Agreement was discontinued. The Committee brought its work to a close with the publication of *The Transportation Problem in American Social Work*.[1]

Settlement Laws

The unrelated and non-uniform settlement laws of the various states complicate the whole problem of non-resident care, since the provision of relief hinges upon them. The American colonies and later the states copied the English settlement laws, but with characteristic originality and inde-

[1] *See* Brackett, *infra cit.*

pendence they varied these so that no two states today have the same legal provisions regarding relief to non-settled persons. Not only is there confusion between the states but also between counties and towns within the same states. If the individual or family involved is one that migrates regularly from one part of a state to another, perhaps following the crops and never staying continuously within one county or community for the time required for settlement, it may have no legal settlement anywhere. The results are disastrous when application is made for local consideration of relief needs.

For a time, public welfare officials and others hoped that some sort of federal provision could be established which would determine settlement uniformly within all states, but the consensus of opinion recently has been that no such law would be constitutional. It has been advocated on many occasions that states adopt a uniform settlement law, so that the period of residence required for right to public relief might be the same in every state, and so that everyone could retain his settlement in one place until he acquired a new one elsewhere. Little progress has been made in this direction. Indeed, greater restrictions have been added within the past few years, taking the states even farther away from uniformity. Fourteen states changed their settlement laws in the period from January, 1938, to October, 1939; and 12 of these changed the period of residence required to gain settlement, six increasing the period. In October, 1939, there were nine states in which three years' residence was required to gain settlement, and 16 in which from three to five years' residence was required.

Reinforcing this trend toward greater restriction for gaining settlement status is the tendency toward less assurance of maintaining a settlement status once acquired. Seven of the states which increased settlement requirements, and two additional states, changed the provision in their laws through which settlement, once acquired, may be lost. In the 19 jurisdictions listed below, the time required for gaining and losing settlement is identical within each jurisdiction; but it varies among jurisdictions from six months to five years, as follows:

Six Months
Mississippi

One Year
District of Columbia
Florida
Iowa
Kentucky
Michigan
Missouri
Montana
Nebraska
New York
North Dakota
Washington
Wisconsin
Wyoming

Three Years
Vermont

Five Years
Maine
Massachusetts
New Hampshire
Rhode Island

In only four states—Connecticut, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, and Virginia—is settlement, once acquired, retained until a new settlement is acquired. In 12 states conditions under which settlement is lost are not specified.

The situation produced by the extreme variation which these figures indicate is further complicated by additional provisions in certain recent legislation and by a marked tendency toward stricter interpretation of the laws. Rulings that settlement has been lost by the intent of the moving person to make a permanent change of residence are more and more frequent in certain states. For the first time, eligibility for public relief in at least one state—Illinois—is divorced from an acknowledged settlement status because of the requirement that a specified period of continuous residence must *immediately* precede application for relief.

While very little of our social legislation makes provision for people who move, it is

obvious that such provision should be made. If the extension of the grant-in-aid principle, both on the state and on the national level, continues and social security becomes a fixed reality, provisions should be included to the effect that funds granted, under whatever statute, should be available to persons without regard to residence or settlement requirements. Questions of residence and settlement as now applied relate primarily to the use of funds for relief. They create unnecessary problems for all social agencies, both governmental and voluntary, and there is no proof that they effect a saving in any way in the relief funds. It is generally agreed that as social agencies attempt to serve individuals or families who have not put roots down in the community, they find these diverse settlement laws among the greatest obstacles to effective help.

Today's Migrant Problem

Attention is focused today more on the problems of migrants and migratory laborers than on those of "transients" and travelers. There is more recognition than formerly of the fact that people migrate to better their social and economic conditions. Such movements have been large in recent years because of many legitimate reasons: weather conditions, including severe drought; the requirement of seasonal work; the movement of industry from one part of the country to another; displacement of labor by mechanized farming; depression-caused increases in the regular movement from country to city and city to country; and so forth. Many of the present migrants are uprooted people who formerly were sharecroppers or Dust Bowl farmers. Migratory berry pickers, sugar-beet workers, and similar agricultural groups make up a substantial part of the total. The recent shifting of labor to meet the demands of national defense, and population movement incident to the military training program, have added new thousands to those already adrift in strange communities.

According to many studies[1] these migrants may be found in all parts of the country, although they are concentrated in several important areas. In 1930 there began a veritable flow of people westward to California and the Pacific Coast. For a time this stream of moving farmers and industrial workers appeared to be wholly fed from the depression and was often confused with the stream of unemployed, single men for whom the Federal Transient Program was primarily designed. By 1939 a clearer understanding of the make-up of the migrant population was emerging. It is reported that between the middle of 1935 and the end of 1939 approximately 350,000 persons were counted entering the state of California looking for "manual employment."[2] This movement was only part of America's migration of farm workers. It has been estimated that every year from one to two million men, women, and children move about the country seeking farm jobs.[3] This migration of farm labor is not new in the United States, but it has become a fact to be studied and wisely planned for, and accepted as part of our social and economic life.

The life of the migrant is hard. Jobs are difficult to find and often are short-lived when located. There is a scarcity of decent living quarters for families of migratory workers. Wages are low, child labor is prevalent, and health standards become impaired. A study by the former Resettlement Administration of migratory laborers at work in 1935 found average annual earnings of about $250 a worker, and between $450 and $500 for a family. Being continually on the move is especially bad for children.

The problem of making adequate social provision for mobile individuals and families is an intricate one. Some attempts to study it have been made by both govern-

[1] *See* U. S. Department of Labor, and Works Progress Administration, both *infra cit.*
[2] *See* Taylor, *infra cit.*
[3] *Ibid.*

mental and private agencies. Some of the governmental agencies have shown their deepest concern for rural mobile people. Many of the private agencies, from the very nature of their set-ups, have seen the urban aspects of the problem first. But both governmental and private agencies have lately come to realize that people of all kinds are involved in migration, and that the problem touches every phase of life and living.

Migrants require aid on an individual basis but they also require a long-time program that will eliminate many obstacles that now exist toward their helping themselves, and that will afford opportunities for more normal pursuit of a satisfactory way of living. For both the immediate care and the long-range planning, it is generally agreed that a national policy is required. This national policy in turn requires the cooperative efforts of both governmental and voluntary groups.

In the governmental area the problem of the migrant has presented itself in one form or another to the federal Social Security Board (including the Bureau of Public Assistance and the Bureau of Employment Security); United States Public Health Service; Department of Labor (including the Children's Bureau); Department of Agriculture (including the Farm Security Administration); Work Projects Administration; Office of Education; Department of Justice; Department of the Interior (including the Census Bureau); National Resources Planning Board; and other divisions of the federal government. The Department of Labor and the Department of Agriculture have been giving special attention to the problem.

Recently, at hearings of the LaFollette Civil Liberties Committee of the Senate, it was recommended that the Social Security Act and the Wage and Hour Act be extended to cover workers on industrialized farms.

The problem of migratory labor has been the subject of a series of regional conferences held between a number of governmental agencies. These conferences have stressed the national character of the problem and have urged the federal agencies to coordinate their efforts further, to undertake such studies as are necessary for action, and to plan programs of action, including the giving of immediate relief, on the basis of such facts as are known.

The Farm Security Administration in the United States Department of Agriculture has had a rather extensive program in operation for migrants, particularly in the Southwest and West. The Administration has extended financial aid to migrant agricultural workers—potential as well as actual —through loans and grants. In a recent report[1] the Administration states that it has made loans to 395,000 families in Dust Bowl states in an attempt to keep them on the land. In addition the Administration has established a system of migratory labor camps in California and other western states, and in Florida. It has also been concerned with the elimination of the evils of tenancy and has financed the Agricultural Workers' Health and Medical Association in California, through which limited funds have been available to migrants for medical care.

In the summer of 1940 the Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities submitted to the President a report (*infra cit.*) recommending (a) a further series of regional conferences to promote public understanding of the problem, (b) collection of more factual data than are now available, (c) federal aid for educational, recreational, and welfare services to communities confronted with the problem of the migratory worker, (d) increase in the number of Farm Security Administration camps, (e) a federal-state program of medical care and health services, (f) closer federal supervision of working conditions of migratory workers, (g) extension of the social security program to migrants, and (h) a general relief provi-

[1] Release of March 23, 1940, of the U. S. Department of Agriculture, Farm Security Administration, Division of Information, San Francisco.

sion under which the non-resident could be aided by the states with a considerable measure of federal reimbursement.

In 1940 a congressional committee authorized by House Resolution 63 was engaged in studying the problem of interstate migration with a view to recommending federal legislation relative to it. It was the expectation that the work of this committee would be completed by the end of the year, at which time a report would be prepared for presentation to Congress early in 1941. The chairman of the committee, Congressman Tolan of California, has expressed his belief that "after study and a well-considered definition of the national responsibility, assistance will be given within the limits of that responsibility; but first we must have the true picture based upon an independent search for facts."

There is agreement among all agencies, both governmental and voluntary, that the problem of migration requires national planning and a national policy. The cooperative effort of all groups is needed if a satisfactory solution is to be found. The private agencies formerly represented in the Committee on Care of Transient and Homeless and the Council on Interstate Migration are working cooperatively with the National Travelers Aid Association, which is the only agency primarily concerned with all phases of the problem. The governmental agencies already have the necessary machinery for cooperative effort. As the two groups come to support whole-heartedly a united effort toward a long-time national policy on migration, the answer to the difficult questions involved may yet be found.

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BERTHA MCCALL

NATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS IN SOCIAL WORK. The well-known, significant, and influential national agencies in social work are less than fifty in number. These are closely related in various ways to the whole structure of community organizations on all levels—local, state, and national. The membership of three leading groups of national agencies—the National Social Work Council, the National Health Council, and the National Education-Recreation Council—gives a fairly adequate picture of the national agencies as generally recognized by social workers. Their membership follows:

National Social Work Council

American Association for Labor Legislation
American Country Life Association
American National Red Cross
American Public Welfare Association
American Social Hygiene Association
Boy Scouts of America
Boys' Clubs of America
Camp Fire Girls, Inc.
Child Welfare League of America
Community Chests and Councils, Inc.
Council of Jewish Federations and Welfare Funds
Family Welfare Association of America
Girl Scouts, Inc.
Jewish Welfare Board
National Association of Legal Aid Organizations
National Board of the Young Women's Christian Associations
National Child Labor Committee
National Committee for Mental Hygiene
National Conference of Catholic Charities
National Consumers League
National Council of the Young Men's Christian Associations
National Organization for Public Health Nursing
National Probation Association
National Recreation Association
National Society for the Prevention of Blindness
National Travelers Aid Association
National Tuberculosis Association
Social Work Publicity Council

National Health Council

American Heart Association
*American National Red Cross
American Nurses' Association
American Public Health Association
*American Social Hygiene Association
American Society for the Control of Cancer
American Society for the Hard of Hearing
Conference of State and Provincial Health Authorities of North America
Foundation for Positive Health
Maternity Center Association
*National Committee for Mental Hygiene
National Committee of Health Council Executives
*National Organization for Public Health Nursing
*National Society for the Prevention of Blindness
*National Tuberculosis Association
United States Children's Bureau (Advisory)
United States Public Health Service (Advisory)

National Education-Recreation Council

American Association for Adult Education
American Association of Museums
*American Country Life Association
American Federation of Arts
American Library Association
*Boy Scouts of America
*Boys' Clubs of America
*Camp Fire Girls, Inc.
Extension Service, United States Department of Agriculture
Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America
*Girl Scouts, Inc.
*Jewish Welfare Board
Knights of Columbus, Boy Life Bureau
*National Board of the Young Women's Christian Associations
*National Conference of Catholic Charities
*National Council of the Young Men's Christian Associations
National Education Association of the United States
National Federation of Settlements
*National Recreation Association

* Also members of National Social Work Council.

The list of national organizations in Part Two of this volume is designedly more comprehensive within the limits of the basis of selection stated in the PREFACE. A large majority of the organizations, however, do not come within the group referred to in the preceding paragraphs. Many are in significantly related fields, some are independently administered and endowed, others have highly specialized constituencies, a few maintain little more than an annual meeting and a periodical. Even the new and microscopic organization that has been characterized as "a big idea trundled about in a push cart" is properly included. The grand total of 395 private and 45 governmental national agencies listed in Part Two therefore gives a picture of national resources available to social work rather than the total

number of national agencies that are administered and financed within the social work field itself. Similar figures from the educational field for 1938 show a total of 539 national educational organizations and educational foundations. Twenty-five of these also appear in the *Social Work Year Book.*

Administrative Similarities and Differences

This article is concerned primarily with the commonly accepted group of national agencies that are most clearly a part of the organized social work field. Despite their distinctive differences due to varying origins, philosophies, and methods, each of these associations is fundamentally a means for mutual cooperation in a given field—child welfare, child labor, public health nursing, recreation—between similar agencies and special interest groups in different communities. Each association is also an entity in itself for expressing the purposes and ideals of the movement and as such is something more than the sum of pieces of local work. Through officers, board, committees, and staff members chosen nationally from individuals active in localities and supported by a membership of individuals and agencies concerned about the needs in these and other specific fields, the actual local interest and work in a given field is helped through a wide variety of inter-community cooperative devices, under national leadership. It is also given added meaning and influence through participation of local leaders nationally in the development of programs, in the raising of standards, and in promoting the extension of the work as viewed in a national perspective.

Organization relationships within a particular field necessarily reflect the history of the movement and express the inherent nature of the social service performed. Four general types are (a) national agencies that are federations of local units which they serve, as in the settlement, boys' club, travelers' aid, family welfare, Young Men's Christian Association and Young Women's Christian Association, chest and council, and public health nursing fields; (b) national agencies that charter local branches which they serve, such as the American Red Cross and some of the youth movements as, for example, the Girl Scouts, Boy Scouts, and Camp Fire Girls; (c) national agencies that affiliate with various individual groups and agencies in communities and states without close or continuing administrative commitment, as in the tuberculosis, social hygiene, public recreation, and probation fields; and (d) national movements having individual member constituencies for disseminating information and promoting legislation, as in the country life, health education, and social security fields. Variations within these types of administrative relationships, which are not themselves mutually exclusive, make it necessary for the reader to turn to the national agency or agencies in any given field for an accurate interpretation of the organization and the way it works.

National Services to Local Communities

Service to specific local agencies and interested groups in communities is an important and immediate concern of national associations in every field. Through correspondence, field visits, and individual conferences at national headquarters and at conventions, an opportunity is afforded for direct consultation on general problems such as planning and interpreting the local program and analyzing and studying the membership; also on special problems such as financing and publicity. Technical advice regarding buildings and physical equipment is available in some fields. Assistance in reinforcing and stimulating local leadership, help in training volunteer and employed workers locally, and consultation and recommendation in connection with the employment of new personnel are especially significant national services available to local communities. All localities profit from this exchange of experience through a national agency's intensive work with individual communities. In this way national purposes and ob-

jectives are also more clearly discerned and generally understood.

General services available to local agencies constitute another easily recognized form of national activity, such as planning and carrying through the necessary conventions and conferences essential to the good work of the agencies in any field. Further examples are the development of the general program and fundamental methods of the movement; setting of achievement goals; recruiting and training of workers; development of personnel and work standards; and publication of magazines, professional or technical journals, descriptive material regarding the work in a particular field, and reports of accomplishments in the field. In recent years national associations have placed an increasing emphasis on developing new kinds of interpretative and publicity service for reaching the general public. The experience in other fields has been studied for suggestions; mats, exhibits, and films are now available for use in the localities; and data regarding social needs and organization have been prepared for use in the preparation of articles for magazines and newspapers. *See* PUBLICITY AND INTERPRETATION IN SOCIAL WORK.

In considering the place of national agencies in the social economy of our time, the so-called "stand-by" service should not be overlooked. Conditions change in different communities and even the best equipped and most stable of local agencies sometimes happen on bad times; and the ability of a national agency to help in meeting emergencies and provide skilled and experienced leadership in times of crisis is of great importance. In many cases, a local agency which is not part of the national movement would have much difficulty in getting trained personnel. Increased stability and prestige come to any local organization through its membership in an established national agency, a membership which helps to hold each local unit to standards of work and, because of the work and reputation of the national body, helps to interpret the local agency to its own community as well as to enlarge its outreach and increase its vision. These are times when the welfare of human beings and their opportunity for growth and development are central to the problems of a continuing democracy. On the national agencies in social work rests to a large extent the responsibility for the foresight and statecraft which will help to meet this need.

Leadership

A distinctively national leadership function of a national agency is its responsibility for conducting work on behalf of the whole movement. This covers a wide range of interests and only a few types can be listed, such as the study of program content, official representation of the movement, new social legislation, promotion of the work in unoccupied fields, and international cooperation.

Fundamental questions affecting the content of the national program are constantly arising in every field of social work. Carefully planned research and study, which includes utilizing the results of local research within a field, is a service expected of national agencies. *See* RESEARCH AND STATISTICS IN SOCIAL WORK. A better understanding of the national scene, of which social work is a part, is becoming more important in program planning. National associations are therefore encouraging a more systematic study of public affairs and the relation of social work programs to the increasing amount of new social legislation. During the past few years those national agencies most sensitive to this responsibility have worked out procedures which result in something approximating national forums, within the membership, for the discussion of public relations.

New resources resulting from increased governmental social work activities of various sorts are becoming more widely available as they are better understood. *See* FEDERAL AGENCIES IN SOCIAL WORK. National agencies as representatives of their whole movements are cooperating with fed-

eral and state officials in their efforts better to meet existing needs; for example, the national program of the United States Public Health Service and the child welfare program of the United States Children's Bureau. The Social Security Act has, of course, brought forcefully to the attention of social agencies their own responsibilities as employers. Existing employe retirement plans are being reviewed by national agencies in some fields, and new plans have been established in others. Unless and until the Act itself is amended to extend its benefits to non-profit-making organizations, continual study of the subject by private national agencies will be necessary. Although opinions on this subject vary greatly, a continually increasing number of the national agencies are on record as officially approving such an amendment.

Final responsibility for the promotion of work in unorganized districts or among special groups rests with the national associations. Many were first organized to serve this purpose. Although neighboring communities and agencies naturally continue to secure much help from well-known agencies and individuals in near-by large cities, the responsibility for seeing the country as a unit, in considering unmet needs and unoccupied areas of service, is essentially national. *See* COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION FOR SOCIAL WORK. Regional and intercity conferences under national leadership have been especially useful in supplementing and enriching the promotional service of both national and local agencies during the past decade.

Generally speaking, the reciprocal values of international cooperation are recognized in every field, and the responsibility for relating the work of any field to similar work in other countries falls on the national agency. This has taken the form of such activities as correspondence and attendance at international meetings, exchange of workers and information on an international basis, or responsibility through provision of workers and program grants for work in other countries. During recent years, however, the disturbed economic conditions have brought very difficult problems to those national agencies that have always emphasized the international implications of their work. World-wide war conditions now make these acute. *See* INTERNATIONAL SOCIAL WORK.

Current Trends and Problems

Although national services have always reflected changing social needs, recent events have inevitably required major shifts of program emphasis. Reference has already been made to an increasing attention to problems growing out of relationships with governmental agencies. Another current trend is a general interest in adapting services to meet the changes in thinking that are going on among younger people. Still another is a renewed recognition and utilization of the social forces that underlie neighborhood life as distinguished from community interests. Most significant, currently, is the necessity for integrating programs with the sharply re-focused public interest in national defense. In general there is clearly discernible in all national associations an intense interest, variously expressed, in making their organized efforts as responsive to social change as limited resources permit.

Increasing demands for service and leadership have come to national associations at a time, of course, when retrenchment has been necessary in social work fields. The shrinkage in normal financial support, however, has been disproportionately severe for most national associations. A group of national agencies with local units in chest cities is now studying this particularly complex problem under the sponsorship of the National Social Work Council. A pamphlet entitled *A Study of the Services and Support of Eleven National Agencies* was published by this group in June, 1939, which includes a tabulation of classified sources of income for the year 1938. Statements of functional services and of current policies in apportioning the share of local constituencies in financing the respective national

agencies also appear over the latters' signatures. Other aspects of financial support are still to be reported on. *See* FINANCING PRIVATE SOCIAL WORK.

An increasing number of community chests are making intensive reviews of items relating to support of state and national agencies that appear as items in the budgets of their local agencies.

In general, national agencies have laid more stress on fundamental internal economies than on aggressive money-raising campaigns. Through re-evaluation of program emphasis, review of service priorities, and internal budget economies the various national agencies have endeavored to reconcile the increasing disparity between service requests and financial support.

While there has been some recent experimenting with cooperative projects in the direction of utilizing existing organizations to meet new needs, the progress has been slow. In fact, the current influence of war conditions is in the other direction. An exception and a conspicuous illustration of the possibility of reconciling these seemingly opposing trends was demonstrated in the children's field during the summer of 1940. An intense desire of certain American citizens to make instant plans for the care of European refugee children found fulfillment in organization conceived nationally and cooperatively. A new and distinctive corporative institution—the United States Committee for the Care of European Children —was set up to meet this unprecedentedly difficult and baffling challenge, handle the international and governmental aspects, and exercise leadership in an uncharted field having many complicated and technical relationships. *See* Refugees from German Oppression in IMMIGRANTS.

Parallel with this seemingly justifiable expansion of national organization, and integrally a part of it, went cooperative arrangements with the appropriate existing national, state, and local agencies in the children's field—governmental and private—and particularly with the councils of social agencies and the community chests in most cities. The relation was therefore simultaneous between the promotion of a new national movement and the understanding participation of all parties at interest, local as well as national.

A less dramatic and therefore not so generally appealing cooperative project, the Social Work Vocational Bureau, has recently been launched by the national case work agencies. This grew out of a study made possible by a foundation grant. It is the intention to provide ultimately for vocational services for all social workers if relationships with other fields can be worked out. While it is expected that the Bureau will become largely self-supporting, there are difficult and immediate financial problems in the experimental development of any such far-reaching services. Though economically justified in the long run, to the extent that it may prove feasible for it to serve the whole social work field, the Bureau actually is a current readaptation of organization structure which requires some additional financing at the moment. In all such efforts it is probable that a considerable dependence on income from endowed funds will be necessary for some time to come.

Other questions faced by national agencies relate to immediate concerns over needs in their respective fields, program and policy-making, standards of work, maintenance of personnel, relationships with other agencies—local and national, governmental and voluntary—and interpretation of their work. *See* ADMINISTRATION OF SOCIAL AGENCIES. Through the national councils mentioned in an earlier paragraph, and in smaller and less formal groups, national agencies are constantly exchanging information, studying together a wide range of common problems growing out of the work in their various fields, and engaging in many joint enterprises locally and nationally that, taken together—though they never have been charted —constitute a vast network of cooperative effort.

Although each national association pub-

lishes printed material regarding its own work, there is practically no literature about the genus national agencies. Teachers and leaders in community organization especially feel this lack of helpful interpretative material.

DAVID H. HOLBROOK

NEGROES.[1] The Negro in American life is the victim of an unfavorable social attitude which sets him apart from the general public. This racial isolation intensifies for him all of the social problems which are peculiar to the whole population, such as unemployment, substandard housing, unwholesome recreation, ill health, delinquency, family disorganization, and community disorganization. It makes doubly difficult the task of the social worker laboring among Negroes, who finds himself continually confronted not only with the usual problems of social work but with the difficulty of solving them within a setting of special handicaps.

Social work among Negroes since their emancipation from slave status in the 1860's may be divided into three periods: the period from emancipation to about 1915, when the Negro, in flight from the oppressive "black laws" introduced at the end of the Reconstruction Period, was chiefly occupied in attempting to adjust himself to freedom; the period from 1915 to 1929, when he answered the call of northern industry incidental to and following the World War of 1914–1918; and the depression period from 1929 to 1940.

The emancipation of the slaves brought about the establishment in 1865 (for a brief period) of the Freedman's Bureau, which inaugurated a program of governmental social provision that has been rivaled in magnitude only by the Federal Emergency Relief Administration created almost seventy-five years later. In a startlingly large number of phases of its rehabilitation program the Bureau anticipated the activities of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, Civil Works Administration, Work Projects Administration (WPA), Farm Security Administration, and other New Deal bureaus of the present day.

Two major migrations have occurred among Negroes. The first, which began about 1875, was the flight of southern Negroes from the so-called "black laws" imposed upon them by the emerging poor whites and the old master class. The Negroes were fleeing from political persecution and genetally intoletable living and working conditions in the South, and had as their geographical objectives certain central western areas such as Kansas and northern Missouri. Thousands of them, however, before they reached their goals found themselves stranded in border cities all the way across the country from Washington, Baltimore, and Philadelphia to Cincinnati and St. Louis. The second migration, which was a by-product of the World War, began about 1915 and lasted into the 1920's. In addition to suffering from these same social, political, and economic conditions in the South, plus the ravages of the boll weevil and the floods, the Negroes were responding to a definite call from northern industry. Their objectives were the industrial centers in all parts of the North.

There was an increase in social services to individual Negroes in both migrations. The first development was an attempt to adjust these black newcomers "en masse" to a new and strange environment. As usual the Negro church stepped into the breach and served as a temporary guide and benefactor until definite secular social agencies became organized. Many "Emigrant Aid Societies" were formed during the first migration in such cities as Washington, St. Louis, and even Topeka and Lawrence, Kans., whose programs for aiding and assimilating the Negro migrants read very much like those of the National Urban League, which was not founded until a generation later. The League was organized in 1910 to coordinate

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

the services of a number of organizations working for the adjustment of Negroes to urban life and made its greatest expansion at the time of the second migration, when Negroes flocked in unparalleled numbers to the industrial centers of the country.

Group work for Negroes received great stimulation from the leisure-time activities provided for Negro soldiers during the World War. These activities gave enormous impetus to the establishment of community recreational projects which continued in many cases after the War was over. The War-born migration was also responsible for the establishment by several states of "divisions of Negro work," in connection with their departments of public welfare, to minister to the social service needs of Negroes.

The depression which began in 1929 has accelerated social work among Negroes. Not only has it increased the number of Negro clients and the variety of services to them but it has increased tremendously the number of Negro social workers, trained and untrained.

Social Problems Among Negroes

The Negro people are the chief sufferers from unemployment in the United States today; it is estimated that fully one-third of the race is unemployed in the larger cities. It has long been observed that in times of job scarcity Negroes are the last to be hired and the first to be dismissed.

The depression has caused a serious type of disorganization in the Negro communities. Most of the community organizations set up by the Negro in the years before 1929 are crumbling and many of the agencies devised to solve his problems of adjustment have been forced by economic circumstances to abandon their programs. Negro churches are rapidly losing ground as a force in the community. Memberships have fallen off in fraternal organizations, due to the inability of members to pay their dues and pledges.

Much of the improvement which Negroes had made in their housing conditions before 1929 has been lost during the depression years. The federal government's program of low-rent housing has helped somewhat but it does not reach the class of people who have suffered the most from the present economic upheaval.

The lack of facilities for wholesome recreation among Negroes, common in so-called normal times, has been tremendously aggravated by the idleness resulting from the present wholesale release of Negroes from employment. Existing recreational agencies for Negroes are suffering greatly because of lack of funds.

Naturally the Negro's health in the cities is being affected by the situation. The Negro's death-rate is rising in many of them after having shown a gradual decline in recent years.

The Negro's educational standards have been reduced by the changed economic conditions. He has always been almost superstitiously interested in obtaining an education for his children but now, both in the cities of the North and the South, he finds himself compelled to withdraw them from school as soon as they reach the legal age.

There has been a recent increase in crime and delinquency among colored persons, a condition which cannot be attributed to the old theory that Negroes are inherently criminals because, up to the beginning of the depression, the Negro's crime rate in the country as a whole was decreasing. Today, hunger and despair are causing all sorts of petty crime among the members of this racial group.

Since emancipation the Negro has encountered every disintegrating influence that has been known to operate against wholesome family life, such as inadequate income, mothers working away from home, forced living in "vicious" neighborhoods, overcrowded housing, the lodger evil, migration, and high morbidity and mortality rates. And yet the majority of sociologists have found that the Negro family, only sixty-five years after freedom from slavery,

manifests a predilection for monogamous marriage and family solidarity not much less than that of the native whites. Now, however, much of the work that Negro women have done, against discouraging odds, to build up a wholesome family life is going for naught. The reports of family societies in many cities show an increase in desertion and broken families due to the economic pressures of the times.

Social Work Among Negroes

An investigation by the Atlanta University School of Social Work, completed in 1940, reveals the employment of 4,290 Negroes in the various fields of social work throughout the United States. Fifty-three per cent of these workers are employed in the North and 47 per cent in the South.[1] Previous to the depression 60 per cent of the Negro social workers in the country were employed in the South and 40 per cent in the North. A study made by the School in 1933 showed that there were only about 1,700 Negroes so employed in the whole country at that time. There are today more than that number in the South alone.

Case Work Activities

The 1940 study above referred to showed that 2,940 or 68 per cent of the 4,290 Negro workers listed were employed as case workers. *See* SOCIAL CASE WORK. There were about three times as many persons employed in the case work field as in the group work field and about six times as many as in the community organization field. A small but growing number of Negroes were employed as senior and junior interviewers with public employment agencies. A few case workers were working as tenant selectors for low-rent housing projects and in several Negro community centers and social settlements, notably the Phyllis Wheatley Center at Minneapolis and the Flanner House at Indianapolis. Twenty-five medical social workers were listed. In the field of case work as applied to delinquency there were 254 Negro probation officers, parole officers, and policewomen attached to various courts, penitentiaries, training schools for delinquents, and police departments.

The largest number of Negro case workers was found to be employed in the fields of family and child care. By far the greatest number, 2,080, worked for departments of public welfare. In some cities (as, for instance, in Chicago, New York, and Washington) Negroes held administrative positions in public welfare departments, supervising staffs ranging from a half-dozen to two or three hundred people, in certain cases composed of members of both races.

Negro case workers were employed by private family welfare and child welfare societies in 1940 to the number of 401. There were a number of colored district secretaries reported in the private family field, and Negroes were also employed as secretaries of Travelers Aid Societies, vocational advisers, attendance officers, Big Sister and Big Brother directors, and visiting housekeepers.

Despite these gains, case work has had a slower development among Negroes than with other groups. Negroes were not frequent applicants for service from case working agencies until the late 1920's but with the onset of the depression and its accompanying mass unemployment the number of Negro clients of case working agencies became much higher than their proportion of the total population.

The modern case worker is expected to aid the individual to organize his own social activities—not to do the job for him—but it is difficult to get this response from clients who have been indoctrinated with the idea that they are members of an inferior group and have been denied the cultural opportunities necessary to compete with members of other races. Not only the Negro client but frequently the Negro so-

[1] By the South is meant the states of Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia.

cial worker labors under this handicap. The shift of Negro families from the care of private case working agencies to that of public agencies has made matters worse so far as lack of respect for the Negro's personality is concerned. In the public agency, especially in the South, many forms of racial discrimination have crept in, such as differentials in the amount of relief given and in the quality of service. As a result of this unsatisfactory social attitude it is claimed that public relief is lowering perceptibly the standard of living of the race. Many case workers among Negroes express a sense of frustration because they are compelled to work with a smaller budget for their Negro families in spite of the fact that the budget for the white families of the agency is inadequate.

Group Work Activities

Group work showed an earlier development among Negroes than did case work. *See* SOCIAL GROUP WORK. Probably the earliest group work agencies devoting themselves primarily to service to the Negro group were the colored branches of the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations. These organizations have not met with favor in all quarters of the Negro community, however, because of the feeling that at the time of their founding the programs were not based upon the greatest needs of the colored race but rather upon those of the white race, and that their philosophy and activities have not at any time since reached the Negro masses. The great problem which faces the group worker among colored people is to overcome the handicap imposed upon the Negro by his exclusion from the main stream of culture.

There are two types of group work agencies serving Negroes: those which were organized primarily to serve them and those which serve them along with other groups. It is difficult to give figures as to the latter type, but as regards the former, community centers and social settlements seem to have the largest number of units, namely 109. Next come the Young Women's Christian Associations (YWCA's) with 70 Negro branches, including 4 centers, and the Young Men's Christian Associations (YMCA's) with 66 branches. In 1940, 69 Negro YWCA secretaries were employed, and 66 YMCA secretaries. Paid Negro settlement and community house head residents, assistant head residents, and leaders of clubs and classes numbered 283. *See* RECREATION and SETTLEMENTS. The total number of Negro workers with the YMCA, exclusive of executive secretaries and including program activity secretaries, business secretaries, educational secretaries, religious education secretaries, physical directors, and the like, was 78. In the YWCA 98 Negro women held similar positions, exclusive of the executive secretaries.

The WPA has stimulated the setting up of a number of community centers for Negroes in cities and towns in which the capital funds for such projects would not have been available from local sources for years to come, if ever.

In 1940, 915 Negroes were employed as group workers, according to the Atlanta University School study referred to above. In the field of social group work in industry Negroes are chiefly engaged as industrial secretaries with the YMCA's and YWCA's and Urban League branches. Their chief functions are the organization of groups of Negro workers for the development of higher standards of work, for advice in how and where to obtain greater skill and an entrance into the better paying branches of industry, and an acquaintance with the history of the labor struggle. *See* LABOR RELATIONS.

Group workers in the housing field are comparatively new even among white people, but there are several Negroes now working in public low-rent housing projects as recreational directors, organizers of tenants' clubs, and the like. *See* HOUSING AND CITY PLANNING.

Playground supervision was an early form

of employment for Negroes in the recreation field. Since the introduction of recreation under WPA auspices their number has increased until in 1940, according to the best available figures, there were 250 Negro playground supervisors.

A new and developing group work position for Negroes is that of the Boy Scout executive. There is a Negro field representative on the national staff of the Boy Scouts of America and about ten paid full-time and ten paid part-time local Boy Scout executives. Another group work occupation which is giving employment to an increasing number of Negroes is that of Boys' Club directors. There is a Negro field representative on the national staff of the Boys' Clubs of America, and approximately six Boys' Clubs with paid executives. Summer camp direction is opening another field of employment for Negro social workers. There were in 1940 twelve summer camps with all-Negro staffs.

Several anti-tuberculosis associations are using Negro health education secretaries who do much of their work through the formation of special groups or by contacts with already existing clubs and classes. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH.

A large number of Negroes, many of whom have had social work training, have been employed as adult education workers by the WPA. *See* ADULT EDUCATION. More and more state institutions are employing Negro group workers as well as case workers and institutional workers. The Negro social workers employed by churches function chiefly in the group work field, although their numbers have been reduced because of the depression. There are also a small number of Negroes employed in the group work field, by Urban League branches, as neighborhood secretaries.

Community Organization Activities

One of the great weaknesses of organizations working among Negroes has been their failure to use all the various techniques which make up the important process of community organization. *See* COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION FOR SOCIAL WORK. This is due in part to the fact that many of the pioneer social workers in community organization work among Negroes were without any social work training or previous experience when they entered the field. Fortunately in recent years trained Negroes are beginning to obtain administrative positions in community organization work among Negroes.

The great problem facing both the client and the social worker in community organization work among Negroes is the denial to the Negro of any substantial control over the environment in which he has to work and live. He is rarely, if ever, allowed participation in those organizations, such as chambers of commerce which regulate the flow and determine the policies of business and trade in most communities. He holds only a few minor administrative positions in a very limited number of relatively unimportant labor organizations. He has nothing effective to say in determining those sections of the community in which he may locate his home. He has to accept the public and private recreation provided for him by the majority group. In a large section of the country he has no significant voice in state, county, or city government.

In discussing community organization positions held by Negroes it must be borne in mind that there are persons who perform the functions of community organization in agencies whose primary responsibility may be that of case work or group work. This is especially true of executive secretaries and industrial secretaries of Negro branches of the YMCA and YWCA, and the industrial secretaries of the Urban League branches. These positions have already been listed and discussed under group work, which is their primary function.

The 1940 study above referred to showed 435 Negro social workers employed in agencies devoted primarily to community organization. The largest single group of such

agencies is the National Urban League with its 44 branches.

In the field of community organization as applied to industry there are several types of positions which are filled by Negroes. Among these is a growing number of Negro public employment office managers who not only supervise the adjustment of individuals to their most suitable niche in the industrial world but who are continuously battling with the industrial environment to open up new avenues of employment to the Negro. *See* EMPLOYMENT SERVICES.

Unquestionably many of the managers of government low-rent housing projects are doing a real community organization job. They perform a great many more functions than the mere collection of rents, maintenance of buildings, and selection of tenants. They have in addition accepted the responsibility of welding together into conscious entities the hundreds of families living in these little communities through tenants' clubs, tenants' newspapers, credit unions, forums, recreational activities, integration into city-wide welfare movements, and the like. In 1940 there were 30 Negro managers and their number was increasing in keeping with the increase in the number of low-rent housing projects for Negroes. Most of the housing authorities seem to have adopted the principle of including Negro units wherever housing projects are erected. It would be an interesting commentary if a new solution for the problem of community disorganization among Negroes should be found in the development of these low-rent housing projects.

There is a Negro representative on the field staff of the National Recreation Association, and within the past five years Negroes have been added to the city-wide staffs of six municipal recreation commissions. There were at least two Negroes in the field of health education in 1940 who were definitely and primarily doing a job of community organization: one on the staff of the State Tuberculosis Association of Texas, and the other on the staff of the South Carolina State Tuberculosis Committee. Several Negro men and women can be justly described as community organizers in the field of family welfare. There is one young colored woman on the national staff of the United States Children's Bureau and 12 Negroes on the central staffs of state departments of public welfare.

In Cincinnati there is a Negro executive of a social planning agency known as the Negro Welfare Division of the Community Chest. A Negro is the executive of the Race Relations Committee of the Welfare Council of New York City, and the West Harlem Council of Social Agencies, which is affiliated with the Welfare Council, also has a Negro executive.

Agencies in Related Fields

There are a number of organizations working among Negroes whose primary functions are not in the social work field but which have been of a great deal of service, not only in supplementing the efforts of social agencies but also in (a) personally rehabilitating maladjusted or underprivileged Negroes, (b) removing some of the nonmaterial handicaps, such as unfavorable public opinion, which make the work of social agencies and social workers difficult, and (c) providing substantial financial support.

Some of these organizations are the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, whose objectives are the removal of segregation and discrimination against the Negro through legislative and judicial action; the Department of Race Relations of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, whose chief objective is the removal of segregation and discrimination through the education of church members; the Commission on Interracial Cooperation, which attacks the same problems through a program of encouraging members of both races to work together on specific projects affecting the Negro's well-being; and the National Negro Congress, which undertakes to apply the tactics

of the "united front" and pressure groups to the solution of some of the Negro's social problems.

Other organizations which are engaged in one way or another in the actual rehabilitation of unemployed, low-income, maladjusted, or underprivileged Negroes are the Farm Security Administration, National Youth Administration, Civilian Conservation Corps, and the Extension Service of the United States Department of Agriculture. In the health field the National Negro Health Movement functioning under the United States Public Health Service contributes materially to the promotion of Negro health.

National organizations which have helped social work among Negroes through financial support are the Russell Sage Foundation, General Education Board, Julius Rosenwald Fund, Carnegie Corporation, Phelps-Stokes Fund, Children's Fund of Michigan, and the Tracy McGregor Fund of Detroit.

Education of Negro Social Workers

Serious consideration of the training of Negroes for social work goes back to 1911 when Dr. George E. Haynes, on leave from the National Urban League, established several courses in social work (now no longer in existence) at Fisk University. It was not until 1920, however, that a more ambitious and permanent start was made. In that year a group of Atlanta social workers, returning from the 1920 National Conference of Social Work at New Orleans, established the Atlanta School of Social Work, which in 1938 became affiliated with Atlanta University.

The training of Negroes for social work is conducted under two general types of auspices: mixed schools which admit Negroes but which are not organized primarily for the training of this group, and Negro schools which are organized primarily for the training of Negroes for social work. The first group includes practically all the schools in the country except those below the Mason and Dixon Line, and the second group includes the Atlanta University School of Social Work, Howard University School of Social Work, Washington, D. C., Xavier University School of Social Work, Cincinnati, and the Bishop Tuttle School of Social Work, Raleigh, N. C.

The Atlanta University School of Social Work is the only two-year graduate school of social work for Negroes in the country and was until 1940 the only Negro member school of the American Association of Schools of Social Work. *See* EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK. The School of Social Work of Howard University, the only other Negro member school, was admitted to the Association as a one-year school in 1940. The School of Social Work at Xavier University, which is not a graduate school, has a one-year curriculum. The Bishop Tuttle School, which is an independent school not directly connected with a university or college, is a graduate school with a two-year curriculum.

At the present time as never before, the attention of Negroes is focused on social work as a career. Among the reasons for this interest is the realization that (a) a large proportion of the race is dependent for its very existence today on relief which is administered (theoretically, at least) by social workers; (b) the relief administration phase of social work is the most available avenue of employment for college trained Negroes at the present time; and (c) considering the Negro in relation to the professions as a whole today, relief administration offers the more certain income.

Outlook

Unless a different attitude is taken toward the Negro by American employers and unless there is a tremendous change in the socio-economic order, there will be increasing unemployment among Negroes and an increasingly large number of Negroes on direct or work relief. Paradoxically, for the very reason that there will be increased unemployment for the Negroes of the masses, there will be increased employment for Ne-

gro social workers. However, it is possible that the demands of the growing national defense program may nullify these deductions. The World War of 1914–1918 pushed the Negro up the industrial scale, while the depression of 1929–1940 pushed him down. The present war and its effects on American life may push him up again.

A ground for hope, especially in the South, is the affiliation of the Negro with the new liberal movements which solicit the support of the masses, as contrasted with the old movements which took in a few hand-picked Negro leaders; and his affiliation with such workers' groups as the vertically organized unions, the alliances of relief workers, the sharecroppers' and tenants' organizations, and the workers' education classes of the WPA. As a result of such association the Negro is beginning to participate in a form of social action which seems to portend that he may obtain for himself at least a modicum of social control.

The White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, held in Washington in January, 1940, may result in materially improved conditions for Negro children. This Conference emphasized throughout its deliberations the fact that standards set for the care of children in America should apply to all the children regardless of race, creed, or color; that in the local use of federal and state grants the same standards should be applied to minority groups as to others; and that this should be a specific legislative requirement. *See* WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCES.

Another movement which is growing rapidly and which may improve conditions for Negro social workers is that of trade unionism within the social workers' group itself. There is danger, of course, that this movement may protect incompetent practitioners and become a menace to social work as a profession, but the fact remains that through it machinery is provided for ensuring more equitable treatment in the hiring and promotion of Negro social workers. *See* TRADE UNIONISM IN SOCIAL WORK.

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OLD AGE is a relative term, denoting in general that period in the latter part of life when the degenerative processes affect the appearance, physical vigor, and mental capacity of the individual. Evidence of the aging process differs, of course, with each person.

Old age may be determined by one's inability to carry on, to fulfill adequately the duties to which one applies oneself. As mental incapacity usually sets in long after physical decline, the incapacities of old age may be postponed many years for those whose life work is in a realm of intellectual endeavor or removed from stern competition with youth. In primitive life, where existence is dependent on vigorous energy, handicaps of old age which limit usefulness come early. By the same token they come sooner to the laborer than to the scholar, from whom experience and judgment rather than physical endurance are demanded. In some societies old age carries the implication of incompetence, signifying that one's usefulness is ar an end; in others it embodies the wisdom of the society's culture.

Numbers of the Aged

The balance between the young and the old is rapidly changing; the population of the United States is becoming older. The development of public health measures has made it possible for many more persons than formerly to survive youth and maturity and to reach old age. The higher standard of living today also has a direct bearing on life expectancy.

In 1850 only 2.6 per cent of the total population were over sixty-five years of age, whereas 52.2 per cent were under twenty years of age. Each succeeding decade reduced the percentage of younger persons and increased the older group. By 1900 the population over sixty-five represented 4.1 per cent of the total population, while the group below twenty represented 44.4 per cent. In 1930 the ratio was 5.4 per cent for those over sixty-five and 38.8 per cent for those under twenty. It is estimated that by 1980, 11.3 per cent of the population will be over sixty-five, while the declining birth rate will have reduced the population under twenty to 26 per cent.[1] This means that 17,000,000 persons over sixty-five years of age will be living in the United States in 1980, contrasted to 6,634,000 persons reported in the federal census of 1930.[2]

The gradual change in the structure of our population will bring about other changes and adaptations. It is anticipated that among the most noticeable of these will be the increasing burden on young persons of productive age who must provide for their elders, and the effect on affairs of the day of the more conservative minds of increasing numbers of the aged.

Extent of Dependency

The social consequences of the industrial revolution can be clearly seen in the plight of many of today's older workers. As medical advances, philanthropic endeavor, and improved living conditions have made

[1] *See* Dublin, *infra cit.*
[2] *See* Social Security Board, *infra cit.*

it possible for more people to live to a mature age, the mechanization of industry has deprived many older people of the opportunity to work. Productivity in mechanized industry demands speed and endurance, qualities which few older persons possess. Thus the industrial worker tends to become "old" at forty years while the white collar or professional worker finds his usefulness extending many years beyond that age.

The last decade has brought the realization that for many wage-earners it is impossible to put aside sufficient savings to provide for old age. Illness, accident, and other unforeseen and unpreventable events may deprive an individual of an opportunity for financial independence. As a result there is a high percentage of older people on relief rolls. These people have little chance of again becoming self-supporting because of the limited opportunities open to them. Not only has industry closed its doors but there are fewer chances to work in small businesses or to earn a living individually in a skilled occupation. The prevalence of unemployment since 1929 has been used as an argument for government subsidy of the aged worker in order that he may retire and allow a younger worker to fill his place. Thus the trend is to transfer the burden of unemployment from the younger to the older worker and to deny to the older man a fundamental, human need to remain useful and active as long as he is physically able.

Although old age dependency is no longer generally considered to be the result of shiftlessness the American psychology had so long extolled individual enterprise and thrift and distrusted government controls that the United States was slow to enact legislative measures to bring relief to the increasing number of destitute old people. Popular opinion, however, impressed with the increasing burden of the problem, finally joined with organized labor in urging legislators and administrators to provide more universal and more dignified old age assistance than that available under the old poor laws. The relation between old age, poverty, and physical helplessness gave impetus to this social legislation as the destitution of the aged became more apparent. Simultaneously, in many instances, the older worker has come to believe that the fruitful labors of his productive years should have earned for him the right to security in old age. The Townsend movement[1] developed great popular appeal and a strength that could not be ignored by office holders and office seekers; it served as the vehicle which produced an old age "bloc" and served to focus the attention of the country on the need for provisions for the aged.

Provisions for Care

The federal Social Security Act, passed in 1935 and amended in 1939, embodies two forms of financial provision for the aged. The plan known as old age and survivors' insurance presumes the right of an individual to retire after reaching a specified age and encourages such retirement on earnings set aside by law for that purpose. As a form of social insurance it eliminates the "means" test. *See* OLD AGE AND SURVIVORS' INSURANCE and SOCIAL INSURANCE. Large groups are still excluded from the benefits of this system, such as agricultural workers, domestic servants, self-employed persons, and those employed by religious or non-profit organizations.

The second plan is that known as old age assistance. The provision for old age assistance under the Social Security Act makes possible the matching of state funds with federal funds and allows for federal contributions toward administrative costs. Old age assistance is public relief rather than a form of social insurance. *See* OLD AGE ASSISTANCE.

The old age assistance laws have developed as a matter of political expediency and

[1] The Townsend Plan would provide for monthly pensions of $200 for persons over sixty years of age who had no criminal record, to be financed through a transactions tax.

their provisions are the result of compromise between two opposing forces. Because old age assistance has grown out of political competition and has been sought after as a means of developing political strength, it has not been able to function soundly as a public welfare measure. Lack of uniformity in standards of administration and varying policies in the granting of aid have frequently been accentuated through the appointment of incompetent, untrained personnel by politically minded administrators.

At the beginning of the twentieth century the conditions prevalent in institutions for the aged—known as county farms, poor farms, or almshouses—were inadequate and frequently deplorable. The feebleminded, diseased, and insane aged were housed with dependents of all ages under unsanitary and unfit conditions. Food was meager, yet the maintenance of such homes under incompetent overseers was costly. A group of fraternal orders, notably the Fraternal Order of Eagles, sponsored a national movement for old age pensions, hoping thereby to eliminate these degrading institutions. Following the passage of the Social Security Act many undesirable homes were abandoned and in some localities more adequate buildings were made to serve three or four counties. Fewer able-bodied inmates are now found in these homes and an increasing number of helpless and chronically ill are being admitted. There are also many private homes for the aged. These show a great variance in standard and equipment and usually are limited to certain religious, nationality, or fraternal memberships. The private homes maintaining adequate standards have been affected but little by recent social security legislation. It is apparent that there will always be elderly persons seeking the security and sociability which come from communal living. Women of the upper and more protected classes, who are not universally covered under the benefits of the Social Security Act nor eligible for old age assistance, will continue to fill private homes for the aged. Undoubtedly there will always remain the need for properly administered institutions of this sort. *See* HOMES AND ALMSHOUSES.

Health Needs of the Aged

Chronic illness is a common cause of old age dependency and is a major problem in caring for the aged. The inadequacies of the present program are due in part to the failure of public and private agencies to recognize this fact. Physical disabilities of the aged, including chronic diseases such as arthritis, degenerative types of disease such as cancer, and cardiovascular and renal disabilities, seldom threaten the well-being of a community. Even mental disturbances in the aged seldom produce the violent symptoms common in younger groups. Therefore the widespread prevalence of chronic illness caused little public concern until the increasing burden of caring for the chronically ill forced social recognition and stimulated medical research. *See* Care for the Chronically Ill and for Convalescents in MEDICAL CARE.

The burden of caring for an aged parent is increased many times if illness is added to dependency. The presence of such a person in a household may affect the well-being of a normal family; it can even cause the disruption of a family group. The acceptance of the fact that the cost of medical care for a large proportion of the aged chronically ill cannot be provided through private means has resulted in increased support of this category through government agencies. However, progress is still blocked by indifference based on the erroneous assumption that the aged sick are incurable.

The old age assistance laws allow a maximum of $30 to $40 a month in most states, which provides only the barest necessities. They fail to consider the high percentage of chronically ill in this group. The National Health Survey (*see* PUBLIC HEALTH) found that 53.3 per 1,000 population between the ages of sixty-five and seventy-four years and 72.7 per 1,000 population between the ages of seventy-five and eighty-

four years suffered from chronic disease.[1] No adequate plan for the provision of medical care has been worked out in connection with any state's old age assistance program. In some states this obligation is recognized by the inclusion of $1.00 or $2.00 in the minimum budget to provide medical aid. The fallacies and dangers in such a method need no explanation. Not only are there facilities lacking to provide care under this plan, but many of the aged sick are unable to seek medical aid or are ignorant of their own need or of the fact that medical care may be available.

Failure to provide for these invalids has produced a mushroom growth of so-called nursing homes. In many states they operare without license or supervision. The opportunity to profit from these old people has been grasped by many irresponsible persons and the evils of the worst poor farms which were abandoned through the passage of laws providing assistance for dependent aged consequenrly have been revived. Cottages and mansions in large cities and in rural localities have become "nursing homes" under the management of untrained personnel. Medical care is not available and overcrowding is the rule as the purpose of the home is to make money. In a few large cities and isolated areas successful effort has been made to regulate this practice, notably New York City and Boston. There has also been a trend to utilize former almshouses as chronic hospitals. These buildings may be unsuitable and they often carry over attitudes and practices which obstruct adequate care, inasmuch as medical treatment was noticeably lacking in them in earlier days. The type of treatment depends upon the superintendent or on uninterested officials who know little or nothing about the problem. Even private homes fail to provide satisfactory care for the chronically sick although the standards otherwise may be adequate or even exceptional. One of the outstanding needs today is for properly directed, tax-supported institutions dedicated to the care of the chronically ill, including the aged groups. Supplementing this, a medical program should be included under the administration of old age assistance, augmented by the medical social worker. As an extension of service, the practices developed for the protection of children placed in foster homes might well be applied in the placement of the indigent aged.

[1] *See* Boas, *infra cit.*

Emotional Needs of the Aged

To the aged change becomes increasingly difficult to accept as the years advance. Old people are happiest amid familiar surroundings. They have become highly individualistic and therefore it goes hard with them to have to adapt themselves to another's way of life, particularly that of a younger generation. As a rule, old people will suffer from poverty and will ask for public or private "charity" rather than become dependent upon their children. A shabby but familiar room where they may do as they please is preferable to the comforts of a son's or daughter's home. Privacy, the opportunity to be essentially themselves in dress and habit, and the chance to share in the social life around them are necessary to the happiness of the old. So little is known of normal senescence that people fail to make a difference between the competent and alert and incompetent and decrepit. With the increasing numbers of the aged, opportunities should be developed for socially satisfying activity as differentiated from profitable work for the purpose of making money.

The failure to recognize the human needs of the aged is apparent in the administration of many state old age assistance programs. The applicant is required to declare himself a pauper except for a stipend set aside for burial. This experience, destructive to self-respect and future self-improvement, is followed by the granting of a subsidy which covers the barest necessities of the human body—food and shelter. To improve one's status through individual initiative is forbidden. The resulting dis-

couragement can only bring about demoralization and disintegration as life becomes meaningless and purposeless. It is urged by thoughtful students of the problem that self-help be encouraged and each old person be allowed to continue such activity as he is able to pursue competently. His morale and self-respect should be safeguarded in order that he may retain a responsible citizenship and, further, that through him the best of a past generation may be preserved. Failure to recognize these emotional satisfactions impoverishes the community and makes the burden of the old harder to bear for both old and young. Satisfactions late in life, like those in childhood, are simple, are related to the expression of the individual self, and imply mental or physical activity but must be supported by a minimum of security. Want in old age should be recognized as including not only physical but equally important emotional needs.

Housing for the Aged

The invalid, the senile person, and the chronic alcoholic are poorly equipped to provide independently for their wants from a small stipend received once a month. They may be exposed to exploitation and create hazards in the community unless given careful supervision or institutional care. But many old people receiving aid could care for themselves and lead socially satisfactory lives if adequate housing facilities were available. Cheap rent forces the old up into attics and down into basements in undesirable neighborhoods. Groups of single old men band together and occupy a habitation unfit for human dwelling. Boarding homes operating without license or restriction offer no protection. The federal housing program rejects the older tenant in favor of a young family, except in isolated instances.

Subsidized housing for the aged, long practiced in Europe, may come to be more seriously undertaken in this country. A few isolated attempts at development have been made. Through private enterprise Tompkins Square House in New York City, built especially for old people, offers individual apartments at a low rental and provides a cafeteria, a common sitting room, and a roof garden. Here old people may live independently in a protected environment. In the state of Washington cooperative community living has been developed. Under the sponsorship of the Old Age Assistance Division of the State Department of Social Security and local organizations, men whose lives have been spent in lumber camps and at logging have adapted themselves to community life in cooperative camps under conditions to which they have long been accustomed.

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OLD AGE AND SURVIVORS' INSURANCE.[1] Within the five-year period that has elapsed since old age insurance was adopted in this country as a means of preventing dependency in old age, an administrative organization has been built and the original insurance program has been substantially revised to serve more adequately the purposes for which it was established. The Social Security Act of 1935 (Titles II and VIII) established a system of contributory old age insurance for workers in industry and commerce. Monthly benefits to qualified workers reaching age sixty-five were to begin in 1942. These payments were to be based upon total accumulated wages; that is, all wages received for employment covered by the Act between December 31, 1936, and the date on which the worker attained age sixty-five. Funds from which benefits were to be paid were provided for by a schedule of payroll taxes shared equally by employers and employes. The administration of the program was lodged with the Social Security Board.

The financial provisions of the federal old age insurance program gave rise to widespread discussion and criticism during 1936 and 1937. As a result an Advisory Council on Social Security representing employers, employes, and the public was established by the Committee on Finance of the United States Senate and the Social Security Board. The Advisory Council met on a number of occasions during 1938, made intensive studies of the whole old age insurance program, and in December of that year submitted a report and recommendations. A few weeks later the Social Security Board presented to the President and Congress a report containing similar and additional recommendations. After protracted hearings during the spring of 1939, Congress in August enacted amendments to the Social Security Act which substantially revised the financial provisions and benefit structure of the old age insurance program.

The establishment of this social insurance program has arisen from the need of society for protection against dependency among the aged, and among the survivors of workers who die. *See* OLD AGE. An insurance program substitutes benefits to which the beneficiaries are entitled by reason of their employment record, for assistance given only after a test of individual need. *See* SOCIAL INSURANCE. A contributory program facilitates the financing of benefits and offers some protection against undue liberalization or reduction of benefits. *See* FINANCING PUBLIC SOCIAL WORK. The relation of benefits to individual average earnings—to "wage-loss"—automatically adjusts benefits to individual and sectional variations in standards of living.

The Amended Act

The program as amended in 1939 preserves the basic principles established in 1935. These principles are (a) that the program should protect not only the individual but society, (b) that the program should be contributory, and (c) that benefits should bear some relationship to the wage-loss suffered by the beneficiary. The amendments indicate a change in direction, however, and a significant shift in emphasis as well as a broadening in scope from that of the original program. Under the amendments the family rather than the individual is the unit of protection; the social purpose of the program—to relieve society of a part of the burden of dependency—is more clearly realized; and the emphasis upon individual equity—the relation of the benefits to each individual's contributions—is re-

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

placed by greater emphasis upon the adequacy of benefits to provide minimum subsistence for each beneficiary and, hence, protection for society.

The amended law provides for the commencement of monthly benefit payments as of January 1, 1940. These benefits are payable not only to retired workers, as provided for by the 1935 Act, but also to the wives and children (under sixteen, or under eighteen if attending school) of these primary beneficiaries. Monthly benefits are payable as well to the widows and children, and in some cases to the dependent parents, of workers who die. These survivors' benefits take the place of lump sum payments payable at death under the original law. Lump sum payments up to a maximum of six times the primary benefit are now payable upon the death of insured wage-earners who leave no survivors entitled to receive monthly benefits.

The basic or primary monthly benefits are now computed by taking 40 per cent of the first $50 of the worker's "average monthly wage" and adding 10 per cent of the average monthly wage above $50 and not in excess of $250. This result is increased by 1 per cent for each year the worker was paid wages of $200 or more in employment covered by the Act. The total is the primary benefit payable to an aged, retired worker; it also serves as the base to which all other payments are related. The wife of a retired worker, if she is sixty-five years of age or over, may receive a monthly benefit equivalent to 50 per cent of the primary benefit; the aged widow, or the widow having a child of the wage-earner in her care, 75 per cent of the primary benefit; and each child or dependent parent, 50 per cent. The minimum monthly benefit payable to a single individual or family is $10. The maximum payment is $85 a month, 80 per cent of the worker's average monthly wage, or twice the primary benefit, whichever is the least. The substitution of the "average monthly wage" for the former accumulated wage base and the addition of supplemental benefits for wives and children serve to increase materially the benefits payable in the earlier years.

The liberalization of benefits during the early years of the program will manifestly increase costs. Yet simultaneously with this liberalization the 1939 amendments provided for the postponement of the increase in taxes on employers and employes originally scheduled for 1940. The amended law provides that taxes on both employers and employes are to increase from 1 to 2 per cent each in 1943, and subsequently by one-half of one per cent each three years until the rates reach a maximum of 3 per cent each, a combined total of 6 per cent, in 1949. Together, these changes preclude the possible accumulation of a vast reserve fund. At the same time, to assure the continuity and certainty of specified benefits which are characteristics of social insurance distinguishing it from assistance, provision was made which allows for the accumulation of an adequate though smaller contingency fund. The eventual annual cost of benefits under the amended law will, it is estimated, be somewhat lower than the cost of benefits provided under the original 1935 Act.

Current Operations

From January 1, 1940, to September 13, 1940, a total of 220,955 claims for benefits had been received under the amended Act in 477 field offices of the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance of the Social Security Board. As of August 31, 1940, eight months after the administration of monthly benefits to retired workers and to survivors had commenced, approximately 145,000 persons were regularly receiving payments. The average primary benefit payment to these beneficiaries approximated $22.50 a month. The average monthly payment to man and wife approximated $36.

Benefit payments are made at the close of each month to the bulk of all beneficiaries who have filed claims for that month. The promptness of payment of monthly benefits

has been facilitated by the considerable administrative experience gained under the 1935 Act in the payment of lump sums. Experience has also demonstrated the feasibility of maintaining the millions of individual earnings accounts upon which benefits are based. Of a total of $84,000,000,000 in taxable wages reported for the years 1937 through 1939, by 2,000,000 employers for 37,000,000 workers, 99.1 per cent have been properly identified to the individual employes' credit. The use of these earnings records in paying benefits to more than 500,000 claimants and in answering the inquiries of about 300,000 workers who had made written inquiries as to the status of their accounts has proved their substantial accuracy and adequacy.

In the administration of old age and survivors' insurance there are utilized, at the same time, some techniques and methods commonly used by the private insurance enterprises and others characteristic of social service agencies. In its relations with the beneficiaries the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance is developing new techniques which will enable it to assume the responsibilities of a public agency administering a social service, while not encroaching upon the activities of the beneficiaries or their use of benefits to which they are entitled as a matter of right.

The maintenance of the individual earnings accounts, the receipt and payment of claims for benefits, and all other administrative operations incident to the old age and survivors' insurance program have been carried on at a lower cost than was originally anticipated. The original estimates placed administrative costs at 8⅓ per cent of tax collections for the early years. Actually the total costs of administration, including all direct and estimated indirect costs incurred by any agency of the federal government, have been less than 5 per cent of the payroll tax collections each year. The amended law, in keeping with the substantially self-sustaining character of the system, provides for the meeting of all direct expenses of administration from the receipts of the payroll taxes rather than general revenues.

Steps in Further Development

While experience with the old age and survivors' insurance program has been brief, three years' operation and analysis have demonstrated the importance of three steps in the further development of this system as an instrument for the protection of society against dependency. The first step consists in the extension of the protection afforded the worker to include protection against the hazard of total and permanent disablement as well as the hazards of dependency in old age and death. At any one time in this country about 2,000,000 men and women under age sixty-five are totally disabled. Their status is similar to that of the worker displaced by old age; if they are to have any measure of individual security, or if a considerable proportion are not to become dependent upon society for public aid, some provision for insurance protection must be made.

The second step involves the appraisal of provisions of the existing law which base the benefits paid upon the average monthly wage and, hence, upon the pattern of each worker's experience as it includes periods of employment, uncovered employment, and unemployment. Periods in which the individual is actually or effectively out of covered employment because of (a) total and permanent disablement, (b) service in noncovered employment—for example, agriculture, domestic service, self-employment, (c) unemployment, (d) intermittent employment, and (e) employment at very low wages—for example, less than $50 a calendar quarter, now serve to reduce the worker's "average monthly wage" and in turn the worker's benefits, or to prevent the worker from qualifying for benefits. The extent to which benefits payable are reduced below adequate standards for a substantial proportion of all workers affected will be revealed by analyses of the employment par-

terns of insured workers. These analyses of the wage records of insured persons will indicate the extent to which modifications are required. *See* UNEMPLOYMENT COMPENSATION.

The third and most important step is the extension, to groups now excluded, of the protection afforded by old age and survivors' insurance. The extent to which the present insurance system penalizes workers who move into and out of covered employment, the basic needs for security of workers in employment not now covered, and the development of pension Utopias to meet the demands of those still unprotected, all point to the need for the extension of the coverage of old age and survivors' insurance.

The principal groups excluded from coverage under the old age and survivors' insurance system and the Railroad Retirement Act (*see* RAILROAD WORKERS' INSURANCE) are domestic servants in private homes (from 2,200,000 to 2,500,000); agricultural workers (from 3,000,000 to 4,000,000); employes of non-profit organizations (approximately 700,000); self-employed workers other than farm operators (about 4,000,000 to 4,500,000); farm operators (approximately 6,800,000 to 7,000,000); and public employes (from 2,500,000 to 2,700,000); and, in addition, unpaid family workers in agriculture (from 3,500,000 to 4,500,000) and persons receiving work relief (from 3,500,000 to 4,500,000).

Opposition from representatives of and employes of non-profit institutions to coverage under the old age and survivors' insurance system in 1939 was replaced in 1940 by the presentation of a bill supported by many of these institutions which proposes the extension of coverage to the bulk of these employes. It is expected, therefore, that Congress will include such employes under the program ar an early date, since both the Social Security Board and the Advisory Council on Social Security have already recommended such legislation.

Scattered employing units with only one or two employes pet unit and frequently shifting employment make the coverage of agricultural workers and domestic setvants administratively difficult. The fact that most of the employers of these groups are unaccustomed to keeping records adds to these difficulties, and is also one of the barriers to coverage of farm operators and a large group of self-employed workers.

The financing of benefits for self-employed persons also raises a problem with respect to a substitute for funds derived for employes from their employers' contributions. The increasing urgency of the need for insurance protection will force an early choice between administrative methods less adequate than or deviating from those used under our existing social insurance systems, and the continued lack of protection for these groups of workers. The fact that many of these persons are intermittently employed in covered employment focuses further light on the character of this problem.

Old age and survivors' insurance, at the close of the first half-decade of its existence, still faces many tests in the crucible of experience; yet even now the vital necessity for its further extension and development is patent. While a substantial and growing proportion of the population receive benefits related to earnings and contributions under the unemployment compensation and old age and survivors' insurance systems, persons receiving assistance are at present considerably more numerous than those entitled to insurance payments. As the old age and survivors' insurance system matures and is extended to other areas of employment, it is expected that it will provide support for an increasing number of persons who would otherwise become public dependents.

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OLD AGE ASSISTANCE.[1] The principle that the national economy must be geared to provide some measure of security for the aged is now well established. This social concept has found expression in two governmental programs, both implemented by the Social Security Act and both national in scope. One system, that of old age and survivors' insurance, is based upon principles of social insurance and is federally administered. *See* OLD AGE AND SURVIVORS' INSURANCE. The other system, known as old age assistance, is administered (or supervised) by the states, with federal grants-in-aid. All the 48 states, the District of Columbia, Alaska, and Hawaii have old age assistance plans in operation under the latter system.

The insurance system makes it possible for wage-earners during their years of financial productivity to build up protection for the future; the assistance system provides present protection for old people whose needs are not met by the insurance system. Taken together, these systems constitute the most comprehensive attempt in social history to provide economic security for any single population group. Though the two systems must not be confused in regard to their respective methods of administration, of financing, and of establishing payments, they should be looked upon as representing a single national objective.

Old Age Assistance Coverage

In June, 1940, a total of 1,973,513 persons received old age assistance payments from the states, under the provisions of Title I of the Social Security Act. The time is rapidly approaching when two million persons will be receiving such payments. This number represents approximately 25 per cent of the population sixty-five years of age and over. Immediately prior to the passage of the Social Security Act in 1935, there were approximately 400,000 aged persons receiving assistance under state and local programs especially designated for this group. General relief, local poor relief, and almshouse care represented other forms

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

of assistance then available to the aged group. But all of these taken together did not begin to approach, either in number or in expenditures, the coverage or cost of the present-day old age assistance program.

A substantial portion of the individuals now receiving old age assistance comprises a group not previously recognized as public dependents. This does not mean that their need is not genuine, or that loose administration has permitted the inclusion of ineligibles. It does mean that the standards by which need is measured have been appreciably raised. It also means that the base of public aid has been broadened to provide for thousands of persons who in the past have had to rely upon irregular and inadequate support, either through their own efforts or through sharing the often limited income of children, relatives, or friends. In 1934, when the Committee on Economic Security was exploring this problem preparatory to making its legislative recommendations, it found that the number of aged without means of self-support was much larger than the number receiving pensions or public assistance in any form.

Social Data

Data (for 1937–1938) on the sex, marital status, and living arrangements of old age assistance recipients reveal some interesting facts. For the country as a whole, the distribution as between males and females is almost identical with the distribution in the total aged population in 1930. This, however, does not follow the same pattern in all states; in many the distribution of men and women on the old age assistance rolls is uneven as compared with the census distribution. This uneven distribution may be due to differences in the marital status of men and women in the aged population of these states.

It seems clear from available data that marital status conditions need. While the widowed constitute the largest group of recipients (43 per cent), the difference between men and women is striking: 60 per cent of the women approved for assistance were widowed, and only 28 per cent of the men. The sex distribution of married recipients (who constitute 41 per cent of the total) is also striking: 53 per cent of the men and only 28 per cent of the women were married. Similar differences in the two sex groups also obtain for single persons and for divorced and separated persons. It appears from the data that single women are more likely to be cared for by friends and relatives than are single men, and that married persons are less likely to become dependents than are single, widowed, or divorced persons.

The data on living arrangements indicate that only one-fifth of the recipients were living alone. The remainder, with negligible exceptions, were living in household groups, some with spouse only, some with spouse and others, and some with relatives without spouse.

Since one of the primary objectives of old age assistance is to enable aged persons in need to live their own lives, manage their own affairs, and enjoy a degree of security unmarred by the strains of family dependency, the question can be raised as to how many of those living with relatives are doing so as a matter of normal family relationships, or as a matter of economic necessity in spite of assistance, or as a matter of necessity for personal or health care. Around the question of living arrangements revolve social considerations of importance to the recipient. Many of the recipient group require personal care; many are bedridden; many require continued medical attention. While adequacy of grants is basic in giving effect to what these programs are intended to accomplish, experience is demonstrating very clearly that public responsibility for care of the aged does not end with determining eligibility and placing the applicant on the assistance roll. This is not to say that every recipient requires a multiplicity of services, but neither can it be assumed that a monthly check is all that is

necessary to bring security and peace of mind to every needy old person.

Under any categorical program like old age assistance a tendency to emphasize factors relating to eligibility may appear, to the possible neglect of the social and personal considerations underlying sound public welfare administration. There is no reason to believe, however, that this tendency is inherent in categorical assistance. In fact, there are many indications of an increasing awareness that welfare concepts are basic in the administration of old age assistance. Growing recognition of the need for adequate medical care, and the development of better facilities and resources for the chronically ill, are both encouraging current trends. Concern for the housing conditions under which old people are often compelled to live is further evidence of this growing awareness that public responsibility relates primarily to the people, rather than to categories. Experience is demonstrating that grouping dependents into categories need not stand in the way of developing adequate services or treatment, designed to promote and safeguard the normal needs and relationships of the individual. Constructively interpreted, categorical treatment can facilitate these services and relate them to the actual situations which produce the need for financial aid. *See* OLD AGE.

Eligibility

One area in which a good deal of confusion still exists is that of eligibility. Each state determines its own eligibility requirements within the general pattern set up by the Social Security Act. The Act, however, contains but two specific requirements and one that is somewhat general. The first specific requirement is that recipients of aid to which the federal government contributes must be sixty-five years of age or over; the other is negative—the recipient must not be an inmate of a public institution. The general provision requires that the individual be in "need," and (after July 1, 1941) that the state in determining need shall take into account the applicant's income and resources.

1. Age. Age as a factor in eligibility does not present any particularly serious problems. Because of the general absence of birth records, the most frequent question is that of weighing conflicting evidence. But the fact that "age" has a literal and fixed quality should not invest its determination with extraordinary importance.

2. Inmate of public institution. At the outset of the old age assistance programs the provision of the federal Act that denies federal matching of funds to states in the case of inmates of public institutions caused some difficulty. Through administrative interpretation this provision has now been construed to permit a reasonable period of time, after the determination of other eligibility factors and the receipt of the first payment, for the recipient to make other living arrangements. It has also been construed to allow for a temporary stay in an institution for medical or surgical care or for any other purpose that might serve the immediate interests of the individual. In other words, this provision was not intended to be restrictive or to deprive an otherwise eligible person from receiving a service that an institution could offer. It was placed in the Act as an incentive to the states to substitute this more humane and self-respecting form of aid for the typical local poorfarm or almshouse. *See* HOMES AND ALMSHOUSES.

3. Living in private institution. In several states the provision regarding residence in public institutions has given support to another requirement which tends to exclude persons from aid: inmates of private institutions are not deemed eligible for assistance so long as they remain within the institution. The limitations which these states have adopted extend from outright prohibitions against such payments to specific provisions relating to the financial arrangements existing between the inmate and the institution. The issues involved here seem rather simple. Quite apart from the ques-

tion of assistance to needy old people the states, in the interest of public welfare, have an obligation to see that private institutions conform to fire and health regulations and that the standards of care, set up by the state, are maintained. When this obligation is discharged the sole remaining question, so far as eligibility for assistance is concerned, should be that of the individual's need. Requirements and provisions should be no different than those established for determining the resources of any other applicant. If a private institution is able to supply his essential requirements out of funds accruing to it, presumably the individual is not in need and is therefore ineligible so long as he elects to remain there.

The danger, if there is any, does not lie in the fact that otherwise eligible individuals continue to live in private institutions. For many this may be the best solution of their living problem. But there are many kinds of private institutions for old people. Unless the state administrative agency is in a position to take cognizance of standards that protect the welfare and integrity of the inmates, practices may develop that are contrary to the principle of unrestricted money payments to the individual, as required by the Social Security Act. Without proper safeguards there is always some danger of duress or coercion being placed upon the inmate in his use of funds which in principle are intended to be spent as he sees fit.

4. Need. The most difficult problem relating to eligibility is the determination of "need." The federal Act reads that "for the purpose of enabling each state to furnish financial assistance, as far as practicable under the conditions in such state, to aged needy individuals, there is hereby authorized to be appropriated," and so forth. The "conditions" in each state, therefore, are the controlling factors so far as its standards of assistance are concerned. State legislation dealing with the question of need is replete with variations on the central theme of the applicant's inability to maintain a standard of living compatible with decency and health. Apart from the vagueness of the standard, the practical "condition" which administrative agencies face is that funds too often do not permit a standard approaching "decency and health." The policy of liberality reflected in many state laws too often must give way to practices that are not far removed from those of the traditional poor law. The average monthly payment per recipient for 51 jurisdictions with plans approved by the Social Security Board for August, 1940, was $20.12. In August, 1936, the average payment for 37 states making payments under approved plans was $18.51. The variations by states for August, 1940, ran from a low of $7.22 to a high of $37.93.

5. Property limitations. Although many states have defined need as "insufficient income to provide reasonable subsistence compatible with decency and health," superimposed upon this general definition are various forms of property limitations affecting eligibility. These limitations specify the amount of real property which an applicant may own, with occasional provisions exempting the residence or homestead from consideration in determining eligibility.

Legislative limitations on the amount of personal property which an applicant may hold are found in a large number of states, with the most common range of exemption varying between $300 and $500. One other form of property limitation relates to insurance holdings. A wide range of diversity exists among the states on this subject, but in substance few go beyond permitting an insurance resource sufficient to provide for illness and burial.

Experience is demonstrating that arbitrary property limitations are of doubtful value in measuring need as a condition of eligibility. Market values are difficult for a welfare agency to determine, and assessed values often reflect a variable and misleading picture. A condition of real need may exist even though, from a property point of view, the applicant is far from destitute. Only by entrusting the administrative agency

with discretionary responsibility, under sound policies and procedures, is it possible to achieve an equitable and just consideration of the relationship of property holdings to the need of the individual in whom such holdings are vested. Consideration must be given to the use of such property to the applicant, its immediate value as a home or as a cash asset, and its potentialities as a resource or as an investment. Rigid property and insurance proscriptions are often self-defeating. To be equitably resolved, these problems require expert analysis and decisions based upon a number of factors. These can be soundly developed only by administrative policy, not by legislative fiat.

6. Responsibility of relatives. The problem of the responsibility of relatives or family is another major issue in determining need. Some requirements relating to family obligation are based upon general state statutes applicable to all forms of public aid; others are a part of the state's specific old age assistance legislation. The most common requirement is, that in order to be eligible an applicant must have no legally liable relative able to support him. The persistence of such provisions in laws that were intended to raise old age assistance above the legalistic philosophy of the poor laws is generally regarded as unfortunate.

Old age assistance should provide for persons in need and do so without forcing their relatives to a substandard level of life. Such families often can barely manage to maintain themselves on a standard of decency and health. Contributions for the support of elder relatives should not be obtained at the expense of depriving children of opportunity for education, or at the risk of making it difficult for self-maintaining families to provide against their own dependency. The assumption that this problem can be solved by law—by placing legal responsibility on relatives—works out in practice as a questionable basis for family support. This is especially true in families of small incomes; in such cases insistence upon support tends all along the line to create problems as difficult as those which the "relative responsibility laws" are intended to obviate.

It is one thing, however, to contend that relatives should not be held responsible as a matter of law and quite another to maintain that support—in whole or in part—that is actually given, willingly and without undue sacrifice on the part of relatives, should not be taken into consideration in determining individual need. It may be that administrative discretion cannot always be trusted to read between the lines—to recognize support that may appear voluntary but is given at the price of undue financial sacrifice and strained relationships. It is a known fact that stringency of public funds often means throwing the burden back upon relatives, regardless of the consequences upon the recipient or upon those who are expected to assume the burden. Inadequate funds make it comparatively easy to rationalize grant reductions or eliminations on the expectation that relatives or friends will step in when the state defaults in the declared obligations.

7. Residence. Though still a source of difficulty, residence or settlement has been eased somewhat as a restriction on eligibility through the provisions of the Social Security Act. The Social Security Board cannot approve any state old age assistance plan that imposes any residence requirement which would exclude for reasons of residence anyone who has lived in the state five years during the nine years immediately preceding application, including one continuous year immediately preceding application. The federal Act simply sets this as a maximum, but it would seem that most of the states have taken it as a standard. This requirement appears as the qualifying provision regarding residence in all but a few states.

While present residence provisions are much more liberal than those which prevailed in many states prior to the adoption of the Social Security Act, agencies are still confronted with many serious and difficult

situations. There is pressing need for the states to work out cooperative agreements in regard to the retention of settlement or residence in one state until it is established in another. There is also the plight of applicants without legal settlement; in the absence of some specific provision in the state law to protect them, such persons may find themselves disctiminated against by local authorities. Several states have provisions in their laws whereby the state is empowered to pay the costs of assistance to people who lack legal settlement in the county. The whole problem of residence is another example of the kind of administrative difficulties in which it has been necessary to liberalize and humanize administrative practices through the impetus of federal and state legislation.

8. Citizenship. The federal Act prohibits the Social Security Board from approving any state old age assistance plan that imposes, as a condition of eligibility, any citizenship requitement which excludes any citizen of the United States. A substantial number of state plans do not require citizenship as a condition of eligibility, and of the jurisdictions which contain such a provision a few permit as an alternative a continuous period of residence in the United States ranging from ten to thirty yeats. In recent years there has been a slight trend toward liberalization so far as citizenship is concerned.

Taken together, the various problems related to eligibility still require a good deal more study and analysis in terms of the primary objectives of old age assistance. Many restrictive features, whether vestiges of the old poor laws or the reflection of traditional prejudices toward dependent groups, should be eliminated. In particular the determination of need should be made as realistic as possible—based upon considerations of health, family solidarity, and the satisfaction of those human needs which enable the individual to live as a self-respecting member of the community. *See* PUBLIC ASSISTANCE.

Fair Hearings

Some protection against arbitrary or capricious administrative action is afforded through one of the few mandatory requirements of the Social Security Act: that all state public assistance plans, to be approved by the Social Security Board, must contain provisions for granting a fair hearing to any individual whose claim for old age assistance has been denied. This requirement is construed to include the right of appeal on changes in the grant as well as on outright denial. The putpose of this provision in the basic federal Act is to guarantee equitable treatment to all applicants, based upon uniform state-wide policies and procedures established under state authority. It cannot, of course, give rise to an enforceable right to assistance beyond the administrative agency's financial capacity to provide such assistance. But the very fact that responsibility for assuting equitable treatment as among all eligible individuals is vested in a single state agency makes for the development of more consistent policies and more stable administration, and hopefully for more adequate financing of these programs. It is through the results of effective planning in these areas that the individual receives his best guarantee of security based upon principles of equity.

Personnel

The need for competent personnel in the administration of old age assistance is much more clearly recognized today than it was when the program began to get under way in 1936. The many difficult problems associated with determining eligibility, arriving at the amount of the grant on an equitable basis, and providing appropriate services have emphasized the importance of qualified personnel as essential to sound administration.

The 1939 amendments of the Social Security Act, effective January 1, 1940, require the establishment and maintenance of personnel standards on a merit basis. Even prior to the passage of these amendments

many states had adopted objective personnel standards relating to minimum requirements of education, training, and experience. With the change in the federal Act and the issuance of federal standards for a merit system of personnel administration in public assistance agencies, all the personnel of such agencies, both state and local, have been brought under a merit system conforming to federal standards. This system may be a state-wide civil service system or it may be a specially established system administered by an impartial body generally known as a merit system council, which may serve the assistance agency alone or other agencies as well. The federal standards prohibit the disqualification of any person from taking an examination, from appointment to a position, from promotion, or from holding a position because of political or religious opinions or affiliations. Political activity is also prohibited except that an employe shall have the right freely to express his views as a citizen and to cast his vote.

As a basis for the merit system each state administrative agency is required to develop a classification plan for all positions. These shall be based upon an analysis of the duties and responsibilities of each position, and shall include a description of the requirements as to minimum training, experience, and other qualifications suitable for the performance of its duties.

In many respects the application of merit principles to the administration of old age assistance and other forms of public aid marks one of the most far-reaching developments in modern public welfare administration. *See* PERSONNEL PRACTICES IN PUBLIC WELFARE.

Finances

For the fiscal year 1939–1940, the amount of obligations incurred from federal, state, and local funds for payments to recipients of old age assistance, exclusive of the cost of administration, was $453,000,000. Less than half of this amount was incurred from federal funds; payments in excess of amounts toward which the federal government may contribute under the Social Security Act and to recipients not eligible under the Act were incurred from state and local funds only, without federal participation.

The federal Act was amended in August, 1939, to permit federal matching on a 50 per cent basis up to $40 per month per eligible recipient. The effect of this amendment upon the adequacy of individual grants will depend primarily upon the availability of state and local funds to meet the new federal matching maximum. In June, 1940, only two states—California and Colorado—had an average monthly payment per recipient in excess of $30.

In general, residents of states with greater resources are likely to secure more adequate assistance than persons in similar circumstances living in states with more limited resources. Inability to finance old age assistance adequately often results in practices that are inconsistent with the basic objectives of the program. Long waiting lists are established, grants are reduced without regard to individual need, and pressures are brought to bear upon relatives to assume the obligations which the state cannot meet. Some of these inequities might be overcome if federal grants could be placed upon some variable basis related to the fiscal ability of the state to meet the needs which it recognizes as existing.

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PETER KASIUS

PERSONNEL PRACTICES IN PUBLIC WELFARE.[1] Public welfare service is becoming increasingly more technical. Twenty years ago the work could be done, and often was done, by persons who were amateurs. The tasks, however, are much more complicated today. *See* PUBLIC WELFARE. As a result the methods of selection of personnel are more important. A sound personnel system is essential no matter how well an organization is set up or conceived. *See* ADMINISTRATION OF SOCIAL AGENCIES. The rest comes in finding and developing people qualified fully to perform the duties of their positions. Public welfare personnel administration, viewed as a whole, includes all the techniques of staff management from the selection of competent and qualified staff to the retirement of the older worker.

The problems involved in the formulation of standards for the selection and management of public personnel have not been entirely solved for any functional area. Public welfare administration has only recently become one of the major functions of government. Social work has had its peculiar difficulties in establishing its professional identity and status. When these factors are coupled with the fact that scientific personnel management in general is a comparatively new professional technique, it becomes apparent why personnel administration is a perplexing problem for public welfare agencies.

This article in the main emphasizes the problems of personnel selection as they pertain to professional social work staff in public welfare agencies. It is ironic but true that there is more experience and accurate knowledge on clerical and stenographic personnel and their selection than on professional staff. The criteria for testing knowledge of clerical and stenographic and business positions are clearer and have had more general acceptance.

Merit Systems

Civil service is the term frequently used to describe the older merit systems, established by detailed statute and providing an

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

elaborate set of legal controls in a central agency for the protection of governmental agencies from spoils politics. In contrast to this, more recent developments have emphasized administrative collabotation and a minimum of outside control in the selection and management of personnel. Both systems have as their ultimate objective the development of public service as an area of opportunity for only competent and qualified personnel. Many social workers and public welfare administrators have viewed civil service selection as a static or mechanical procedure, because they were familiar with only the "police" aspects of this function in its early stages of development and because only recently have they become familiar with the more effective and satisfactory techniques evolved by personnel administrators.

The civil service reform movement began in 1883 on the federal level, at a time when public welfare functions were emerging from the local level to the state level. The nineteenth century developments in both civil service and public welfare placed emphasis upon reform and controls. In the twentieth century, especially since 1920 and even more markedly since 1930, both civil service and public welfare have experienced rapid growth and expansion on the state and local levels.

In addition to approximately 622,000 employes of all classes covered by the federal civil service, there are large numbers of state, county, and city employes of all classes covered by civil service. A recent study[1] by the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada reveals that constitutional or statutory authority provides civil service commissions, departments, or boards in 17 states. In two of these states, New York and New Jersey, the civil service agency also serves county personnel. In New York, 17 counties are served by the state civil service agency, and in New Jersey 11 counties make use of state facilities. Independent county civil service agencies exist in 14 different counties scattered over almost that many states.

[1] *See* Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, *Civil Service Agencies in the United States: A 1940 Census* (*infra cit.*).

Merit Systems Under the Social Security Act

Following the passage of the Social Security Act in 1935 and with the development of social security programs in the states immediately thereafter, a significant and new pattern of public welfare personnel administration emerged. This new pattern involved federal, state, and local relationships. Under the original Act, the Social Security Board was not charged with the responsibility for the selection, tenure of office, or competency of specific individuals who were employed by state and local agencies administering public assistance. The Act did, however, make the Board responsible for seeing that state plans were efficiently administered. Since efficient administration depends largely upon the quality of personnel employed, the Board did not approve any state plan unless it contained provisions developed by the state for establishing minimum objective standards for the selection of both state and local staffs.[1]

Another major factor in the emerging public welfare personnel pattern was found in the United States Children's Bureau's responsibility for developing plans for child welfare services jointly with the state agency, and for including in these plans a description of plans for the selection of personnel. This provided an opportunity for federal leadership and supervision; and in addition the fact that federal funds provided a part or all of the salaries for a large number of child welfare workers on state or local staffs made it possible for the Children's Bureau to insist upon staff selection based upon professional qualification and proven ability in the child welfare field. *See* CHILD WELFARE, CRIPPLED CHILDREN, and MATERNAL AND CHILD HEALTH.

[1] Social Security Board, *Second Annual Report. 1937.*

This emerging new pattern of federal, state, and local relationships was formalized into a definite structure of public welfare personnel administration with the August, 1939, personnel amendment to the Social Security Act which became effective January 1, 1940. This significant amendment called for a merit system of personnel administration in every state for the following social security programs: employment security, public assistance, child welfare services, maternal and child health services, and crippled children's services.

To assist the state agencies in implementing these standards, the federal agencies developed suggested rules and regulations as illustrative to the states of the basic elements of personnel administration. Personnel standards developed by the Social Security Board were based on the experience of state agencies already operating under merit systems. These principles and standards are embodied in such essential provisions as: establishment and maintenance of classification and pay plans; recruitment and appointment of personnel through open competitive examinations; a program of promotion based on merit; regulations governing furloughs, suspensions, separations, and removals; a service rating system; and regulations prohibiting political activity or religious discrimination. These and related provisions were considered to constitute the basic minima of a merit system. Where there was no consensus as to what constituted good civil service practice on a particular point or procedure, the provisions were left optional. In addition, the federal agencies have attempted to allow for some variations in procedure where traditional state practices make local variations advisable and where the other personnel provisions are in substantial conformity with the established standards.

At the time of the enactment of the amendments to the Social Security Act in 1939, in addition to 10 states where the social security agencies were operating under state civil service, 21 states had merit systems for unemployment compensation personnel, 5 for public assistance personnel, and one had a joint system for unemployment compensation and public assistance personnel. *See* PUBLIC ASSISTANCE and UNEMPLOYMENT COMPENSATION. These systems varied in their standards and their effectiveness. Sixteen states now have statewide civil service systems that will embrace the employes of the state social security agencies, and will in some cases be supplemented with certain additional regulations applicable to the social security agencies. In the six of these sixteen states in which the public assistance programs are administered on a state-county basis, county employes in these programs will be covered by merit systems which, it is hoped, will be administered by the state civil service agencies.[1]

The significance of the merit system amendment to the Social Security Act is recognized when it is realized that approximately 100,000 state and local public welfare agency employes[2] will be involved with the initiation of merit systems in those states where statutory or constitutional systems do not now exist.

Job Analysis and Classification

In order to select the proper personnel for a public welfare agency it is necessary that a classification plan be established. While it is well recognized that a sound classification plan must be based upon a thorough job analysis, a number of factors have made the determination of the exact nature of a worker's responsibilities and duties a difficult task. The rapid expansion of welfare activities, the creation of new departments, and the sometimes hurried reorganizations of old departments have frequently been accompanied by the immediate launching of new programs which usually result in a temporary confusion and a vague

[1] *See* Aronson, *infra cit.*
[2] *Ibid.*

concept of function. This is a difficult setting for a job analysis upon which to build a sound personnel classification plan.

With the public welfare agency which is already in operation, a description of the daily function of each worker is the first step. This sometimes involves recording in a daily or weekly log a detailed list of the actual operations by each worker. Usually a questionnaire form is used. The questionnaire covers items of previous training and experience which, when used with a description of the work actually performed, makes grouping on the basis of similarity of duties and qualifications an easier task. A thorough job analysis also includes interviews with the workers to assist them in securing an understanding of the use of the questionnaires and their logs, and more extensive interviews with a selected sample of the staff to ensure accuracy in the description of the tasks performed. Space is usually allowed on job analysis sheets for the name of the immediate supervisor and also a list of persons who are under that person's supervision. This device serves as a check on the accuracy of the administrator's conception of the flow of authority and responsibility within the organization.

When the job analysis is completed the next step is the actual classification or regrouping of the positions upon the basis of their similarities. Such a sorting of positions into classes allows a more accurate determination of compensation rates and more uniform employment practices, and provides other fundamental benefits relating to recruitment and management. The class specifications which are developed as a result of the job analysis are usually designed to include statements of:

The title of the position.

The scope of duties and responsibilities involved, and an enumeration of typical tasks performed.

The educational and experience qualifications necessary.

Personal factors such as age, health, and personality, which will be taken into consideration.

Special knowledge, skills, and abilities required.

In some state merit systems the class specification also includes a statement of the entrance salary and the salary range for the position described, and in some cases the lines of promotion to and from other positions are described. Periodic revision of the classification plan is an important personnel practice in public welfare agencies where expanding programs and changing techniques are characteristics. Such periodic review of classification plans not only reveals the need for revision and the significant points of growth in public welfare programs, but also serves as a check on the need for additions or reductions in the total staff.

Recruitment and Qualifications

The term "recruitment" connotes efforts which are made to attract qualified people to compete for positions in the civil service. The function of recruitment is obviously a fundamental part of any personnel program that aims to put a superior group of persons at the disposal of each appointing officer. Without at least some superior individuals in the competing group, the best that can be hoped for in the eligible list is a high level of mediocrity. During the years when the primary function of civil service was to eliminate special privilege and secure fair competition to an unselected mass, recruiting was limited to wide dissemination of examination announcements. More recently that function has become secondary to the more aggressive personnel program of securing, developing, and retaining a high level of skilled performance.

While the task of recruiting is primarily to attract people to government service, it has a corollary educational value. It is impossible to attract personnel without describing the position offered. If description is well done, particularly in a new or an unfamiliar field, the interested public

will necessarily learn something about the position involved. For both reasons the nature of the presentation is highly important to the agency administering the merit program, to the operating department seeking both personnel and public acceptance of its program, and to the profession or special field involved.

Recruitment of staff is a continuing process, from the initial steps of consideration of professional qualifications through the probationary period of the employe who is selected for the position. This process calls for the careful preparation of application and examination techniques and the development of sound procedure for certification and appointment.

The actual consideration of personnel standards for the administrative, professional, and clerical staffs of public welfare departments is a matter dependent upon a number of variable factors. In some states, personnel standards are stipulated in the legislation creating the welfare organization and programs. Other laws make no provision for personnel standards. Qualifications for professional positions are usually stated in terms of the education necessary, the experience required, the knowledge and ability desired, and the personal characteristics desired of an applicant for a given position. The educational background is described in terms of the kind of education and the number of years of attendance in undergraduate and graduate schools. The experience is defined in number of years of experience in agencies performing similar or related functions. The personal characteristics required usually relate to age, sex, appearance, health, and so forth.

In recent years there has developed a trend in the direction of including a specific statement for qualification for personnel in the state welfare organization act. In most of the state department acts passed in 1937, general description was made of the qualifications required of the state director. A combination of the words "training, experience, and ability in public welfare administration" was characteristic of the phrase used to describe the qualifications.

On the county level of administration there is a definite indication in the newer state laws of a trend toward state control and stipulation of personnel standards for county staffs. This control is either by direct appointment by the state board of county directors or by virtue of state review of appointments made by county officials.

A form of localism that threatens the merit principle is the increasing rigidity and length of residence requirements for appointment to state, county, and municipal positions. Residence may be variously defined in terms of actual domicile in the territory, record of voting, record of tax paying, or domicile of relatives. In some cases only intent to establish domicile subsequent to appointment is required.

The narrower residence restrictions are territorially, the more hampering they are to a system of appointing and promoting on merit. They not only limit recruitment of qualified personnel but prevent advancement from state to state or county to county. The absurdity of city residence requirements is seen clearly in the case of large centers like Chicago, New York, and San Francisco where large numbers of the working population of the city, and particularly those with families, live in suburban areas and thereby are excluded from the city civil service unless they move into the city proper.[1]

An analysis of qualifications for welfare positions published by various civil service authorities and welfare departments reveals wide variation in qualification requirements. It is difficult to state educational and experience requirements definitely and still allow latitude for the admission of some exceptional and desirable candidates. The provision of "equivalents" without the preparation of specific definition of what is to be accepted as an equivalent makes for a situation which is difficult, if not impossible, for the public welfare administrator.

[1] *See* Klein, *infra cit.*

Rating of Training and Experience

There are three important aspects to examinations, (a) rating of training and experience for the more responsible positions, (b) written and performance tests, and (c) an oral examination for positions requiring frequent contact with the public or which involve important supervisory or administrative duties.

Personnel officers and merit system supervisors in many states have experienced difficulty in rating education and experience for public welfare positions. The state welfare agencies have used, in addition to the criteria established by the American Association of Schools of Social Work, standards of the various associations which accredit educational institutions. It has been impossible, however, to establish any relative scale which would enable the personnel officer to rank the various colleges and universities in an effort to provide variable weights to educational qualifications. In an attempt to rate experience qualifications, the lack of any continuous rating of social work agencies has made it necessary for personnel officers to rely upon the impressions and experiences of qualified social work administrators and their descriptions of the type and quality of work characteristic of various agencies.

Where unassembled examinations are held and the personnel agency does not have the additional check of written examinations, the rating of education and experience is even more important. In unassembled examinations, however, the state agencies usually require a more comprehensive statement of experience, which is a considerable aid in grading.

The state agencies are attempting to develop as objective a procedure as possible in grading education and experience, but they have needed and will continue to need the assistance of qualified social workers in developing sound procedures and more effective methods to allow for due regard to recency, quality, and pertinency of experience, especially where substitution of training for experience and experience for training is provided.

Written Tests

The construction and administration of written tests for social work and administrative positions have raised a number of problems. In an effort to develop examinations practical in nature and constructed to reveal the capacity of the applicant and his general background and related knowledge, personnel agencies have initiated a rapid exchange of test materials even though most of the test items have not been reviewed or their reliability established. Some personnel officers in their search for test materials have plunged into sociology and into less reliable sources in an almost frantic scramble for new questions. The federal agencies and several national associations have attempted to meet this sudden demand for materials by supplying more reliable test materials, bibliographies, and loan materials from special libraries.

Since not all of the merit system supervisors have had much experience in test construction, some of the tests being set up are not well balanced nor are they entirely free from ambiguity and confused directions. The personnel technicians agree with social workers that extensive study is still necessary to establish greater reliability and more validity in social work tests.

Further experimentation is also needed with the written examination to develop types of questions which examine reliably for skill in social work practice by testing the application to social situations of knowledge and discipline acquired in training and experience and used in practice. Such experimentation would need to relate the questions to the knowledge and skills needed in a specific job and to a full description of the duties in that job, so that each question would be formulated in terms of testing for a specific aspect of that skill.

Of special importance is some sustained scrutiny of examination validity as measured by later performance on the job. Thor-

ough validation of examinations is a long-time research process, requiring continuous accumulation of data regarding the records and performance of not only those who pass the examination but also those who do not.

Oral Interviews

Oral examinations or interviews have been an essential part of the total examining process in most of the states which have established merit systems. Oral boards have consisted of two or more persons, with at least one person who is technically familiar with the character of work in the position for which applicants are being examined. These boards question the applicants, observe their reactions, and attempt to form a judgment about their fitness as a whole or on specific points.

Persons who have participated on these boards differ in their opinions as to the value of oral examinations because in most states insufficient time has been allowed for each interview and because it is thought that personality factors may obscure accurate judgment on any or all specific points. Attempts have been made in a number of states to reduce subjective impressions to numerical equivalents on an oral rating scale which is used by the oral board members in recording their impressions. Only a very limited number of correlations have been made between these notations and later performance on the job.[1]

Few problems in personnel administration are more difficult than the perfecting of adequate tests for social workers, whose dealings involve people directly and intimately. The heart of the difficulty lies in the fact that the successful performance of such duties calls for marked skill in delicate human relationships in addition to comprehensive knowledge of the various subjects involved in social work.

The best existing device for securing persons with the required skills in human relationships and the right attitude toward life in general and the profession in particular is to admit to the tests only those who have already demonstrated the possession of such qualifications or at least have demonstrated the high possibility of being able to acquire these qualifications under such conditions as the agency in which they are to work can reasonably be expected to supply.

Unfortunately, no one has yet discovered a method of testing in the examination room those skills in human relationships and those basic attitudes toward life and work that are the heart of the profession. Some evidence suggests that oral examinations skillfully conducted by experienced social workers who have themselves trained and supervised case or field workers are of real value provided sufficient time is given each candidate. Some experience in personnel interviewing suggests that about half an hour to each candidate is the very minimum for an effective oral examination. Obviously, the amount of time required dictates that the oral interview be held after the formal written tests and that only those who have qualified in the written tests be admitted to the oral examinations.

Personnel Management

Of equal importance to recruitment and examinations are all of the various techniques which are part of personnel management. In order of sequence they begin with the selection by the appointing agency of qualified or certified candidates from the top of certified lists. In some states no residence is required of applicants to take written examinations, but at the point of selection from eligible lists preference for local, regional, or state residence may be a determining factor.

Next in importance, but properly valued very infrequently, is the use of the probationary period. Very little is known of probationary practices in public welfare agencies, in all probability because the probationary period is not properly utilized as part of the total merit selection process for

[1] *See* Meriam, Lewis, "Civil Service Testing for Social Work Positions," *infra cit.*

eliminating the worker who fails on the job in the first six months or year.

No comprehensive study has been made in public welfare agencies of personnel practices involving transfer, promotion, and demotion of personnel, and little information exists relating to separations, lay-offs, and removals. Since these have been the practices which have concerned the unions of professional and clerical workers, these groups have compiled some valuable information which should be studied. *See* TRADE UNIONISM IN SOCIAL WORK.

Every person lost to the service, except by the completion of a temporary job or for incompetency, costs the government a very substantial sum of money in wasted recruiting and training. Department heads anxious about economy and efficiency strive to reduce such turnover.

These personnel practices, like the policies and procedures relating to sick leave, working hours, vacations, overtime work, expense allowances, holidays, and other items of staff-employer relationships, are important aspects of personnel management which need more careful study. As matters of personnel policy, they deserve clearer statement and more adequate treatment than the cursory coverage now given them in rules or regulations. These factors are at present subordinated to consideration of the problems of selection and examination.

In-Service Training

A great concern of public welfare agencies in the area of personnel management is the widespread need for development of in-service training. Social work as a developing professional service was caught short in the recent economic depression, in that trained personnel in sufficient numbers were greatly lacking. *See* SOCIAL WORK AS A PROFESSION. Professional social work education was ill-distributed geographically and ill-supported financially. *See* EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK. Legal status for social workers, and therefore protection to the public, had not been established. There was little public understanding of the qualifications needed for social work, and added to this the problem of political interference was always present. The result was an unprecedented problem of social work administration for which no group was fully prepared by experience.

The shortage of qualified personnel existing even today requires that large numbers be employed on the basis of general educational background and any kind of training, experience, and interest that is deemed related to an understanding of social service responsibility. These persons require supervision and training of a kind that will develop their capacities and ensure their ability to carry out functional responsibilities.

Some of the present in-service training plans for social workers try to gear in with the total governmental in-service training procedures and plans, and with available public and private social work experiences, in order to establish social work as a profession rather than as an unskilled service. They try to make clear the professional and non-professional titles, qualifications, and functions, and try to use the best resources available in other professional fields for the strengthening of the social services.

Service Ratings

One other personnel problem upon which little groundwork has been done is the determination of relative efficiency, or service value, of employes.[1] Some local and state welfare agencies have formulated means of evaluating the performance of their staff members, usually at intervals of six months or a year, but there is generally evident the need for more thought and experimentation on this subject.

Modern personnel management has come to realize the importance of the personality factor in determining success on the job. Many rating systems make an effort to measure this factor by evaluating such items

[1] *See* American Public Welfare Association, *A Public Welfare Job Study* (*infra cit.*).

as tact, manners, self-reliance, poise, sense of humor, judgment, critical ability, initiative, leadership, and so forth, in addition to analyzing factual data on performance. The rating systems do not attempt to give a definite percentage to these items but rather to rate them on a relative scale by using such terms as "superior," "fair," "poor," and "unsatisfactory."

The first prerequisite to the successful operation of any rating system is a knowledge, on the part of the person making the evaluation, of his organization's structure and functions. It is necessary to have clearly in mind (a) a composite picture of the individual, (b) his place in the organization, (c) the success with which he carries out his assigned work, and (d) his relative value in comparison with others performing approximately the same tasks.

The use of evaluations as a part of a staff-training program is beginning to be recognized. Their value is in direct proportion to the effectiveness of the working relationship carried on through staff meetings, individual supervisory conferences, and group discussions. Evaluations also include careful consideration of materials prepared by the individual such as reports, case records, letters, summaries, or memoranda on any special assignments. An evaluation will have little value unless such material has been carefully studied by the supervisor before he tries to help improve the worker's skill in these matters. Therefore the evaluation process implies the necessity of the supervisor keeping a file, however informal, of specific instances of the individual's performance over a period of time, and of discussing this record with him.

The results of evaluation discussions are now usually committed to writing, to be incorporated later in the personnel files and to be studied when a service rating chart is filled in. There is general agreement on the part of the administrators, supervisors, and personnel officers as to the importance of continuing the careful experimentation and analysis of the experiences with rating sheets.

Future Developments

Social workers and public welfare administrators have recognized that in addition to their advocacy of merit systems they must collaborate with the technicians of the personnel field in the improvement and refinement of personnel administrative techniques. This collaboration is an already established relationship in many states, but for the most part it has been limited to joint efforts in classification and examinations. Continued cooperative effort must be directed toward the abolition of residence requirements, improvement and greater equality in compensation, extension and strengthening of facilities for in-service training, clarification of educational prerequisites, and more concentrated attention to those activities which are fundamental to an effective career service. It seems clear that each step in the development of personnel administration in public welfare has been taken out of the immediate necessity for the solution of a particular problem. Much remains to be done in integrating the steps which have already been taken.

Today's trends are toward a positive personnel program under the leadership of the chief executive and the department heads, the employment of qualified persons as personnel officials, and appointment on the basis of merit. It is anticipated that we shall ultimately see the development of a career service with promotion from the ranks. Such a system will undoubtedly be geared in with the educational systems of our country both in pre-entry and in-service training. It can be anticipated that forward-looking policies will become established concerning salaries, recruitment, promotions, tenure, and conditions of work, in order that the efficiency and morale of the public welfare personnel may be improved.

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PROTESTANT SOCIAL WORK.[1] Social work in Protestant Christianity is an inclusive concept: it comprehends family and individual care; group work; the maintenance of hospitals, homes, and settlements; Christian social education; and Christian social action. Broadly speaking, case work and institutional care appeal more to the conservative elements in the churches, while liberals give more attention to education and action looking toward social reconstruction. Latterly, education and action tend to be regarded as parts of an integral process. Social education is aimed largely at guidance in social action while projects in social action, on the other hand, are increasingly regarded as having definite educational significance. *See* SOCIAL ACTION.

Protestant social work is carried on by individual churches, where increased attention is being given by ministers, deaconesses, and other parish workers to the case work features of pastoral care; by denominational and interdenominational agencies; by Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations through their great institutional centers; by the Salvation Army and the Volunteers of America; and by hospitals, homes, and settlements, the Protestant designation of which may mean full or partial church control or a predominance of Protestant directorship and support.

The Protestant Pattern

The relation between the several aspects of Protestant social work can best be understood by reference to their historical development. As is generally known, the church

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

was the mother of social work. It was inherent in the conception of the early Christian community that it constituted a fellowship whose members were held together by the bonds of Christian charity, and that the care of all the needy was a responsibility of the whole fellowship. It was one of the marks of the integrity of the society of Christians that it took care of its own needy. During the Middle Ages the dominance of a spiritual conception of the ordering of society fosteted religious control of remedial functions.

The secularization of social work has come about inevitably. The mere factor of growth in size and complexity of community life has tended to make the rendering of social service a community responsibility. The stupendousness of the task of social care in modern urban civilization renders piecemeal efforts in this direction quite inadequate. But aside from this factor, the fragmentation of the religious community as a result of the Reformation rendered the dominance of the church in social work impracticable. In addition the passing of the medieval concept of life as ordered under an inclusive and paramount religious sanction—in other words, the secularization of the common life—loosened the hold of the church on social activities.

It is true that the existence of sects differing in marked degree among themselves tends to put a premium upon parish-centered social activities, for the care of bodies and the cure of souls have always been closely related. The more a religious group consciously differs from the prevailing religious pattern in the community, the stronger its tendency to maintain so far as possible its own social services. In other words, this is the sectarian pattern of action. The Mormons today illustrate this tendency to maintain social work as a patt of a compact community life. When, however, as is true in America, the majority of the population belongs to communions which differ in relatively unimportant ways, the differences between prevailing ideals and standards of the churches and those of the community as a whole are narrowed. The fact that the great Protestant churches have far more than their numerical proportion of the well-to-do, who in one way or another must furnish the major support of social services no matter under what auspices they are conducted, tends to carry over into secular social work the ideals and purposes that are held by the church constituency. This tends to lessen the demand for distinctively Protestant social work.

Thus, partly from sheer necessity and partly because of the diffusion of a common religious spirit among secular agencies, there has grown up in America a Protestant pattern of social work in which the Christian motive tends to find its social expression through individual voluntary participation by members of the Protestant churches in activities and agencies that are conducted under secular auspices. These agencies furnish a channel of Christian benevolence and also furnish vocational outlet for the ideals of service that Christianity has fostered.

This tendency sets the Protestant churches as a whole in rather sharp contrast to the Catholic and Jewish bodies. Among the Catholics and Jews, as among some of the smaller Protestant sects, there are much more definite religious or cultural criteria by which these faith groups distinguish themselves from the majority groups in the population. The Protestant pattern is impressively illustrated in the fact that the Protestant churches do not have a specialized clergy for social work. To a limited degree a specialized clergy has been developed for religious education, in which the social emphasis is very strong, but in general the contrast is sharp in respect to specialization between the Protestant churches on the one hand and the Catholic and Jewish bodies on the other.

It has neverrheless been a feature of the Protestant pattern that exploratory and pioneering work for social betterment has been carried on in communities where secular enterprise has lagged behind. An example of

this is the "institutional church" which, a generation or so ago, attained prominence in urban Protestantism and of which there are still many examples. Characteristically they are not in the old Christian tradition, to which reference was made above, since they have a varied constituency extending far beyond the bounds of a church congregation, and hence do not represent a parish in the ordinary sense of the word. The institutional church—which has been defined as an effort to "save all men, and all the man, by all possible means"—has a highly elaborated program of social services. For this very reason it tends to contract its program as the community "catches up" with it and develops its own social services. The natural history of such a church seems to be to "develop by loss of functions" in a community which is becoming progressively organized in terms of social responsibility. The genius of the Protestant churches expresses itself more in organized worship and religious education than in the elaboration of community services. Quite definitely, the motive of benevolence in Protestant churches has found most characteristic expression in the maintenance through money and personnel of secularly conducted enterprises.

This tendency toward contraction of community services on the part of the city church has apparently been considerably accentuated during the depression. It has become very difficult for a church with a large budget for institutional activities to sustain itself. Financial pressure tends to limit activities to those which are regarded as most central and most distinctively the task of the church. In rural communities the churches often present a contrast to this picture; this may be partly because, to a much greater degree than in the city, rural social leadership has come from the church and partly because the rural church is still in the stage of expanding functional adaptation to a "consolidating" rural community. Whether the rural "larger parish" will undergo the same process of devolution which the urban institutional church is experiencing it is too early to say.

It should be pointed out that the stimulation of volunteer service in secular activities as an expression of religious motive is in line with the historic Protestant principle of the "universal priesthood of believers." The Protestant minister is in theory "first among equals" and his ministrations are not assumed to have particular efficacy because of his ordination. The Protestant social pattern, therefore, has direct relationship to the theoretically lay character of Protestantism.

It is interesting to note in this connection the difference between the Protestant and Catholic use of the word "charity." The difference is, of course, in terminology rather than attitude. In the Catholic vocabulary "charity" continues to be a noble word carrying all the spiritual richness of the Latin "caritas." Among Protestants, on the other hand, it has become almost a word of opprobrium, representing an inadequate substitute for justice. It is significant that the word "charity" which once appeared quite typically in the names of philanthropic organizations has been so largely replaced by the term "social work." These facts are symbolic of the close relation in philosophy and outlook between secular social work and the Protestant religious community.

Protestant Welfare Work

Despite the prevalence of the social work pattern above described, it is important to note that the trend toward withdrawal from specific social services does not seem to apply to hospitals or to homes for the aged, nor does it interfere with certain well-established institutional services that involve ministrations of a highly personal sort. In the case of the hospitals this may be due to the fact that the care of the sick so typically involves pastoral attention and to the fact that hospitalization, particularly for the middle classes of the population, has long been so conspicuously inadequate. In the case of homes for the aged it has been

pointed out that the continued interest in them and acceptance of responsibility for their maintenance by the churches are doubtless related to the tardiness with which modern society has recognized its obligation to the aging portion of the population.

Protestant social work thus presents a paradox: Protestant money and personnel are prevailingly absorbed in secular social enterprises, but existing Protestant social institutions enjoy the support of a stable and loyal constituency which takes great pride in their maintenance.

Furthermore, there is apparent agreement among Protestant churches that they have a definite responsibility to see that persons of Protestant affiliation who are in need of relief or of any kind of case work are given prompt and adequate assistance. It has often happened that, whereas members of the Catholic and Jewish faith who are in any kind of difficulty—persons discharged from correctional institutions, juvenile delinquents, and the like—are promptly cared for by the appropriate Catholic or Jewish agency, Protestants in similar circumstances are not so fortunate because of the lack of specialized Protestant agencies. Hence an effort is being made to provide under federated Protestant auspices for counseling on a case work basis and for referral of cases to appropriate agencies. This is done through local church federations (sometimes called councils) or through a Protestant welfare federation. A similar pooling of church resources is sometimes effected through a denominational city mission or "city society."

A notable development of the federated type is the extensive program of the Federation of Protestant Welfare Agencies in New York City. Its 150 members include hospitals and agencies giving convalescent care, homes and relief agencies for the aged, adoption and child-caring agencies, camps, day nurseries, homes for blind and crippled children, temporary shelters, protective agencies, housing agencies, church neighborhood houses, young people's associations, agencies to assist seamen and handicapped workers, and others offering general services. The Federation has three main functions: (a) supplying information to ministers and church workers regarding services available; (b) giving guidance to individuals and families who are in need, by helping them to know where to go for aid; and (c) giving service to social agencies and interpreting to them the needs and points of view of the churches. In 1939 more than a quarter of the churches in Manhattan and nearly half the churches in Brooklyn made use of the Social Service Information and Referral Bureaus of the Federation. Conferences are held with ministers and staff members of churches and with staff members of general social agencies. Forums for board members of constituent agencies are conducted which result not only in improvement of standards but in the education of the laity concerning social work. A close relationship, through interlocking personnel, is maintained with the Greater New York Fund—the nearest equivalent the city has to a community chest.

The social activities of city church federations have developed under the pressure of necessity for competent interdenominational handling of cases requiring attention. In addition to the employment of staff workers who are trained in case work, church federations have in a number of instances effected useful consultation between ministers and social workers looking toward better techniques in dealing with individuals and families. There is, in practice, much in common between the techniques used by social case workers and those used by religious workers in dealing with personal problems. *See* SOCIAL CASE WORK. This consultative process has been stimulated by the Committee on Relations Between Churches and Family Agencies of the Family Welfare Association of America.

The Association of Church Social Workers has become an active force in promoting this type of consultation and collaboration. It now has over 700 members and has assembled a list of 1,500 or more persons

who are engaged in social work under church auspices. It is seeking more accurate definition of religious social work and clearer demarcation of functions. It is developing standards of social work conceived as a profession, and accepts responsibility for accrediting church social workers.

The Church Conference of Social Work, administered by the Department of the Church and Social Service of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, meets annually in conjunction with the National Conference of Social Work. Among its specific objectives are the making available to church social workers of the values derived from the discussions and associations of the National Conference of Social Work, the development of interest in cooperation by churches and social agencies, the recognition of the resources of religion in the rehabilitation of individuals and groups, the promotion of approved methods of social work, and the development of a Protestant strategy in church social work.

The Training of Ministers and Chaplains

An important contribution to the improvement of techniques in personal work is the program of the Council on Clinical Training. In 1939, training was given to about sixty students, each devoting at least three months to the course. The Council now has centers in five federal penal and correctional institutions maintained in cooperation with the Committee on Prison Chaplains of the Federal Council of Churches.

The Philadelphia Divinity School (Episcopal) has completed its first three years under a reorganized plan whereby all students take clinical training, the first class graduating in the spring of 1940. The first year's course centers in a general hospital, emphasizing contact with social work agencies; the second year's work in a mental hospital; and the third in a parish, in close cooperation with a family welfare agency. Students attend school eleven months of the year, taking ten weeks' clinical work each year.

A number of theological schools now have their own programs for clinical training in addition to what is done in cooperation with the Council on Clinical Training. Among these schools are the following: Andover Newton Theological School, Newton Centre, Mass.; Episcopal Theological School, Cambridge; Boston University School of Theology; Bangor (Maine) Theological Seminary; Graduate School of Applied Religion, Cincinnati; and General Theological Seminary, New York City. They provide students with scholarships and give clinical training extending beyond the familiar types of field work.

The Committee on Prison Chaplains above referred to selects, trains, and nominates candidates for full-time chaplaincy in federal penal and correctional institutions, supervising the work of chaplains in service. After five years of work in selecting, training, and supervising federal prison chaplains the Committee has promulgated a set of standards for the prison chaplaincy including education, personal fitness, and special training. Increased and serious interest is being taken in the chaplaincy as a distinctive function not to be confused with institutional administration on the one hand or general remedial social work on the other.

Religion and Health

For many years a joint committee on religion and health was maintained by the Federal Council of Churches and the New York Academy of Medicine. Some valuable research work was done and fruitful conferences held between ministers and physicians representing various fields of specialization. An effort was made to explore the area in which collaboration could be profitably carried on between the two groups, and to develop a type of ministry which would be basically pastoral but which would require a certain amount of psychological training. The central idea was col-

laboration by ministers and physicians in treating illness. A major difficulty was encountered in that clergymen who interested themselves in such a ministry to the sick were inclined to become amateur psychiatrists rather than to develop the potentialities of Christian pastoral ministry in cooperation with specialists in medical fields.

In 1938 this joint committee was succeeded, so far as the church constituency is concerned, by the Committee on Religion and Health of the Federal Council. It is directing its attention particularly to the education of ministers, endeavoring to secure an extension of conventional theological training to include the general principles of mental hygiene and the relation of religious experience and religious ministrations to the maintenance of mental health. *See* MENTAL HYGIENE. Conferences were held in 1939 and 1940, with the cooperation of the Committee, at Union Theological Seminary, New York City. At Chicago a conference was held in 1940 in which the Divinity School of the University of Chicago, the Chicago Theological Seminary, Disciples Divinity House, and 10 Midwest church federations cooperated with the Committee. Additional regional conferences of this sort are projected by the Committee.

Protestant Social Institutions

The institutional work conducted under Protestant auspices comprises chiefly hospitals and homes for children and the aged. The latest (1938) figures, compiled on the initiative of the American Protestant Hospital Association, show 353 hospitals that are quite definitely under Protestant auspices, classified as follows: Methodist, 85; Episcopal, 77; Lutheran, 76; Baptist, 31; Salvation Army, 28; Evangelical, 22; Presbyterian, 17; Seventh Day Adventist, 17. The number of beds totals 38,966. Some of these hospitals are large institutions of very high standing in the medical world. Of the total number in 1938 there were listed 198 as approved by the American College of Surgeons, while 24 were partially approved. *See* MEDICAL CARE.

It is not possible to give complete statistics for homes for the aged under Protestant auspices but according to figures available in 1940 the following may be considered a minimum: Methodist, 51; Episcopal, 60; Lutheran, 87; Disciples, 6; Evangelical, 6; United Presbyterian, 2. *See* HOMES AND ALMSHOUSES. The same uncertainty obtains with reference to children's institutions, but it is competently estimated that there are about 400 of them. Leaders in this field have been undertaking for some years to discourage the founding of new institutions of this sort and at the same time, and with much success, to improve standards in the existing institutions in matters of intake, housing, education, and placing in foster homes and institutional administration. *See* CHILD WELFARE.

The Denominational Organization of Social Work

Protestant social work, as already noted, in addition to institutional care and social case work, includes social education and social action in the interest of general welfare and of social reconstruction. This is provided for in the denominational structure in a variety of ways. There has been a definite tendency to distinguish social education and social action in the sense above referred to from institutional care on the one hand and parish and missionary work on the other. This has led to the maintenance of separate agencies in some church bodies for educational work in relation to social problems. Thus the National Council of the Protestant Episcopal Church has its Department of Christian Social Relations, with corresponding organizations in 90 dioceses. The Department maintains the Episcopal Social Work Conference which meets annually in connection with the National Conference of Social Work. Fundamental social problems, especially in the economic and industrial field, are dealt with on an educational basis.

The Church League for Industrial Democracy is an unofficial organization within the Episcopal communion which crusades for recognition by the Church "that this matter of substituting cooperation and social planning for competitive individualism is a practical thing."

The Methodist Church (which now comprises the bodies that were until 1939 the Methodist Episcopal Church, the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, and the Methodist Protestant Church) integrates its official social education and action program through its missionary and educational boards, maintaining, however, a special Board of Missions and Church Extension; a Board of Temperance, Prohibition and Public Morals; and a Commission on World Peace. The Methodist Federation for Social Service is an unofficial organization which has pioneered in exploring the meaning of the "social gospel." It seeks to "deepen within the Church" the sense of social obligation to the end that the method of "struggle for profit" shall be replaced by social economic planning for a society "without class distinctions and privileges." The Federation publishes a monthly *Social Questions Bulletin.*

The Congregational and Christian Churches maintain a Council for Social Action which is wholly official and which seeks to "make the Christian gospel more effective in the community." It has departments dealing with industrial-economic relations, race relations, international relations, and rural life. The Council publishes *Social Action,* a monthly bulletin.

The Presbyterian Church in the United States of America (the northern branch of the Presbyterian Church) has modified its policy of providing administratively for social education and action through its Board of National Missions by establishing a Department of Social Education and Action. It is an official agency, operating through 300 committees in the synods and presbyteries of the denomination. The Department prepares literature and holds conferences dealing with social, economic, racial, and international problems. It publishes *Social Progress,* a monthly periodical.

The National Lutheran Council set up in 1938 a Department of Welfare which is a noteworthy development in Protestant social work. The old Inner Mission Board has become the Board of Social Missions. The Department of Welfare is studying and classifying on a functional basis the various Lutheran agencies engaged in family welfare work and child welfare work, and the homes, settlements, and other institutional features of Lutheran enterprise. Attention is being given to the training of religious social workers and a placement service for trained workers has been set up.

Unique among the Protestant bodies is the work of the American Friends Service Committee, an organization representing most of the 29 Yearly Meetings of Friends in this country. The Committee frankly undertakes to make its social services embody the Quaker testimony, yet it is nowhere thought of as a propaganda agency. The organization comprises Social-Industrial, Foreign Service, Peace, and Refugee Sections, a Committee on Spain, and a Fellowship Council. The Foreign Service Section maintains centers in Paris, Frankfurt, Geneva, Berlin, Vienna, Amsterdam, Copenhagen, and Shanghai. The Refugee Section works through these centers and elsewhere in helping victims of persecution and war. Relief and refugee work in the United States and Cuba are handled through local Friends Centers as well as through headquarters in Philadelphia.

These agencies have been singled out for mention because of the extent, range, or novelty of their programs. Other denominations having specialized agencies for social education and action are the Northern Baptist Convention, the Church of the Brethren, the Disciples of Christ, the Evangelical and Reformed Church, the Presbyterian Church in the United States, the Reformed Church in America, the Church of the United Brethren in Christ, and the Uni-

tarian Churches. Nine free fellowships of the type of the Church League and the Methodist Federation above mentioned are represented in the United Christian Council for Democracy.

In the foregoing discussion attention is given only to social work on the national level. The greater part of such work is, of course, carried on under regional or local auspices.

Interdenominational Organizations

The Federal Council of Churches, which is a federation of 22 national Protestant denominations, maintains among others the departments of the Church and Social Service, Race Relations, International Justice and Goodwill, and Research and Education. The Department of the Church and Social Service is a clearing house for methods of community work, administers the Church Conference of Social Work, and carries on an extensive educational program in the field of marriage and the home. *See* THE FAMILY. Its Industrial Division maintains and furthers cooperation between the churches and the labor movement, holding conferences, making field surveys, issuing an annual Labor Sunday Message, and cooperating actively with Catholic and Jewish bodies with reference to problems of relief, unemployment, and the like. The Department of Race Relations centers its attention chiefly on relations between Negroes and whites and stresses cooperative activities between the two racial groups as a means to better understanding and greater good will. The Department of Research and Education publishes a weekly *Information Service* and occasional reports and bibliographies.

Two organizations—the Home Missions Council and the Council of Women for Home Missions—federate the church boards of domestic missions and the women's home missionaty organizations in the approach to needy areas in America. Major interests at present are remedial work among migrant workers and the sharecroppers of the South, and educational and welfare work among American Indians. *See* MIGRANTS, TRANSIENTS, AND TRAVELERS and INDIANS. The religious work at Boulder, Grand Coulee, and Shasta Dams and the government resettlement projects, under the supervision of the Home Missions Council, is pioneering work of a socio-religious type.

Although a cooperative educational agency in a strict sense of the term, and having no direct relation to welfare undertakings, the International Council of Religious Education is increasingly influential as a social force. Responsible as it is for the planning of religious education programs for all the larger and some of the smaller Protestant bodies, the Council has been able to socialize these programs in marked degree, both in content and in method. Its leadership training work has made for the same result. The Council administers the newly created United Christian Adult Movement, which conceives itself as operating on a broad social front in the interest of the Christianizing of modern life.

A specialized form of religious social work that has a strong emotional appeal is that known as Goodwill Industries. It is carried on in about 200 centers throughout the country, chiefly autonomous and governed by interdenominational boards of directors. They "provide employment, training and rehabilitation for handicapped and disadvantaged persons, helping them to attain their highest physical, mental, vocational and spiritual usefulness." The local centers are related through the National Association of Goodwill Industries. The Methodist Church pioneered in this movement at Morgan Memorial Church in Boston, and continues to sponsor a large portion of the enterprises. The New York Goodwill Industries is administered by the Protestant Episcopal City Mission Society. *See* VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION.

The American Committee for Christian Refugees has come into existence to meet the problem arising from an influx of refugees whose religious affiliation made them

a responsibility of the Protestant churches. The Committee ministers to 11 different nationalities, providing funds for refugees in Europe and the United States who are without the necessities of life. It maintains a personnel service division for refugees in this country (since January 1, 1940, 4,500 refugees have been under care) and arranges places of settlement wherever possible for these homeless wanderers. The Committee cooperates with various denominational agencies. *See* IMMIGRANTS.

The Committee on Foreign Relief Appeals in the Churches was constituted in 1939 by the Federal Council of the Churches and the Foreign Missions Conference of North America to coordinate the relief appeals from abroad to the churches in America, to provide information concerning the relative urgency of needs, and to recommend these to the churches as their responsibility. The objects of greatest solicitude on the part of the Committee have been Chinese civilians, Evangelical Christians in Europe, war refugees—Spanish, Polish, Dutch, Belgian, and French—missions of the churches in countries at war, German Christian refugees, and chaplaincy service to prisoners of war. With every day that passes, however, the scope of needed relief increases so rapidly that the task is coming to be conceived as a world refugee problem. *See* INTERNATIONAL SOCIAL WORK. In this connection it should be noted that the missionary work of the churches overseas has a broadly social aspect, for example, in medical care, health education, and the improvement of rural life.

Twenty-four Protestant bodies are represented in the Conference of Church Pension Funds, although not all those represented are now maintaining pension funds for retired ministers and their dependents. It is not known just how many other denominations maintain such funds although doubtless there are others. In most cases the provision made is as yet modest: the range is from less than $200 to $1,500 a year. The median is about $400 a year. Little provision has as yet been made for the retirement of lay employes.

A rather sharp controversy has arisen recently over the proposal to extend the coverage of the federal Social Security Act to include employes of non-profit agencies. The churches have long advocated in official pronouncements the principle of social security, but the proposal that their own employes be covered in the federal security plan aroused much opposition on the ground of the "separation of Church and State." Many have feared that such a step would lead to taxation of church property. Others have argued that exemption of church employes, either clerical or lay—and even general tax exemption—constitutes special treatment and as such is itself a violation of the principle of separation of Church and State. At this writing it appears that a working agreement may be reached among the non-profit agencies to the effect that at least the lay employes of the churches—excluding the members of religious orders as well as clergy—should be covered by the Social Security Act.

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PSYCHIATRIC SOCIAL WORK[1] is a special field of social case work which has developed in relation to the practice of psychiatry. *See* SOCIAL CASE WORK. It is case work applied in the study and treatment of persons—adults and children—whose personal and social maladjustments are caused primarily by mental health problems. Such problems include mental disease and defect and various emotional disturbances revealed either through unsocial behavior or marked inability to meet ordinary requirements of social living. *See* MENTAL HYGIENE.

Psychiatric social workers are, then, case workers who bring to their work a special knowledge of social psychiatry and mental hygiene, and experience in its application to case work problems. Psychiatric social workers are usually employed in agencies which combine psychiatric and social treatment, such as hospitals for mental disease and the various psychiatric, mental hygiene, and child guidance clinics established to study and treat emotional problems. In past years, however, experienced psychiatric social workers have been in increasing demand by various agencies, particularly family and child welfare agencies, public welfare organizations, educational institutions, and public health agencies where their work is largely concerned with mental hygiene education.

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

Historical Development

In 1900 or thereabouts there appeared within psychiatry a new approach to treatment of mental diseases—one that emphasized the life history of the patient and the significance of environmental stresses, family relationships, and school and work adjustments as causative factors. Detailed studies of a developing personality in relation to the social, educational, and vocational setting of the patient were first made by the psychiatrists themselves, later delegated to the social workers functioning under psychiatric supervision. The Sub-Committee on the Insane of the State Charities Aid Association of New York had, since 1896, been concerned with the after-care of patients discharged from state hospitals. The first trained social worker was employed for such work in 1906 by the Manhattan State Hospital. Interest in the use of social service in general hospital clinics for nervous disorders was likewise developing at about the same time. In 1905, social workers were employed in neurological clinics at the Massachusetts General Hospital in Boston, and in Bellevue Hospital and Cornell Clinic, New York City. However, it was at the Boston Psychopathic Hospital that psychiatric social work was first given its distinctive title to designate its special function. Under the leadership of E. E. Southard and Mary C. Jarrett, a well-organized program was developed here that provided not only service to patients but also laid the foundation for community education for the prevention of mental disease, and provided the first facilities for professional training.

The 1914–1918 World War years, emphasizing an urgent need for treatment of nervous and mental disorders among the men of the Army and Navy, added impetus to an already steadily growing application of social case work to the study and treatment of mental disease and emotional maladjustment. Growth of the work was rapid in both civilian and government hospitals and in an increasing number of clinics.

An apprenticeship training course was established in the Boston Psychopathic Hospital in 1914. In the summer of 1918 an intensive eight weeks' coutse in psychiatric social work, supplemented by six months' field work, was offered at Smith College under the joint auspices of the National Committee on Mental Hygiene, Smith College, and the Boston Psychopathic Hospital. A year later the Smith College School for Social Work was established on a permanent basis. Similar programs were soon organized elsewhete and, by 1930, specialized preparation for the new field was available in several schools of social work.

Institutions for Mental Disease

Mental hospitals have steadily progressed from custodial institutions to hospitals with a well-developed program for study, treatment, and prevention of mental disease. As a direct result the demand for social service has grown. The psychiatric social worker cooperates with the psychiatrist in the social-psychiatric study of the patient upon his admission and in subsequent treatment during the period of hospitalization. In preparation for the return of the patient to his home and community she works with relatives, friends, and social agencies in the community for the purpose of modifying those environmental and emotional factors which may have contributed to the breakdown. When the patient is released from the hospital she cooperates in his supervision during the parole period, and aids the patient in readjusting to life in the community.

Many hospitals, particularly in Illinois, Massachusetts, Michigan, New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania, in addition to the work within the institution have developed an active program of community clinics for preventive work, and are carrying on educational activities within the community. Psychiatric social workers are sharing not only in work with the hospitalized and paroled patient but also in the clinic program and educational work.

The most recent figures from the United States census report of 1936 give a total of 213 social workers in state hospitals. There are today 97 in hospitals and regional offices under the Veterans Administration. Since 1936 the number of state hospital workers has increased somewhat, the figure for both state hospitals and the Veterans Administration being approximately 350 in June, 1940. *See* VETERANS.

Psychiatric and Child Guidance Clinics

Psychiatric social workers also frequently function as members of the staffs serving psychiatric and child guidance clinics, of which there are some 700 in operation in the United States under both private and public auspices.[1] In most clinics the psychiatric social worker functions as one of a threefold staff which includes a psychiatrist and a psychologist. The responsibilities of the psychiatric social worker in a clinical setting may include the social-psychiatric study and treatment of patients, cooperation with the workers of referring agencies, the training and supervision of students, educational activities, and leadership in the development of community mental hygiene programs.

Child guidance clinics have had a rapid development. The five-year demonstration program of child guidance clinics begun in 1922 under the joint auspices of the Commonwealth Fund and the National Committee for Mental Hygiene gave marked impetus to its growth. In these clinics the psychiatric social worker was established as a member of the clinic staff that included

[1] *See* Kirkpatrick, *infra cit.*

the psychiatrist and psychologist. Progress in this work slowed during the depression years, but the number of clinics is still increasing. They have offered to the psychiatric social worker not only opportunities as a clinic case worker, but also a share in a community educational program. In the past, experienced psychiatric social workers have served as consultants or cooperative workers with various community agencies which utilize the clinic's services.

Child guidance clinics have had a strong influence upon the program of work with individual children in public schools. Psychiatric social workers were, for a time, in demand in connection with guidance programs within educational institutions, from preschool to college levels. Progress was seriously retarded by the depression years but even so the work is growing and there are now clinics operating under boards of education in 14 cities, each with a staff consisting of a psychiatrist, psychologist, and social workers. *See* Psychiatric Clinics for Children in MENTAL HYGIENE.

Other Fields

The spread of mental hygiene throughout all social work fields has led to the employment of workers with special training in social psychiatry and mental hygiene in many agencies other than hospitals and clinics. They function as executives, mental hygiene consultants, supervisors, and case workers, in the family and child welfare field and in public welfare agencies. Psychiatric social workers are also employed as mental hygiene consultants and instructors in nursing and health agencies, as executives and educational directors in societies for mental hygiene, as visiting teachers, counselors, and instructors in educational institutions, as instructors and field work supervisors in schools of social work, as vocational advisers in employment bureaus, and as probation officers in agencies caring for delinquent children and adults.

While at an earlier period many psychiatric social workers were employed by social agencies as mental hygiene consultants and educators, the majority are now filling regular staff positions. In 1928, 4 per cent of the members of the American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers were employed in family welfare agencies; in 1940, 23 per cent. In child welfare agencies 1 per cent were employed in 1928; in 1940, 10 per cent. Approximately half of the members of the Association are employed in agencies other than hospitals or clinics.

Professional Education

Requirements for professional preparation for those who enter the field of psychiatric social work vary widely. Generally, they imply completion of a two-year program in a graduate school of social work, with special courses in social psychiatry and mental hygiene and field work in a psychiatric agency. Apprenticeship training is no longer accepted in lieu of professional education in a school of social work. Admission to the professional schools of social work is, with few exceptions, open only to graduates of accredited schools and colleges who have majored in sociology and psychology.

The length of the program of study varies from fourteen months, for persons with previous training and experience in social work, to two years or more for persons without such previous experience. Under the general organization of the two-year program, the first year usually offers basic courses desirable for all social work, with specialization planned for the second year. The core of specialization is the field experience in a psychiatric agency, and seminars closely related to it. Both psychiatrists and psychiatric social workers share in the instructional program. Field experience generally is offered through cooperation with hospitals for mental diseases, psychiatric or mental hygiene clinics, and social and educational agencies and institutions which provide psychiatric clinical service for their clients. In most of the schools courses lead to the master's degree.

The following schools have well-developed facilities for special training in psychiatric social work: Smith College School for Social Work, New York School of Social Work, University of Chicago School of Social Service Administration, Western Reserve University School of Applied Social Sciences, Pennsylvania School of Social Work, and Simmons College School of Social Work. Other schools of social work offer training for a few workers or are in process of developing their programs in psychiatric social work. *See* EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK.

The Commonwealth Fund, which has long given generous support in the training progress for psychiatric social work, has provided each year a few scholarships for the training of psychiatric social workers in the first four of the schools listed above.

Professional Association

The American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers was established in 1926, its purpose being to promote association and to maintain standards of training and performance in the field. It had previously functioned, in 1920, as an informal discussion group made up of workers in or near Boston and later, from 1922 to 1926, as a section of the American Association of Hospital Social Workers.

In 1940 there were 537 members in the Association. It is estimated that half of all workers employed in psychiatric social work in the United States are members of the professional organization. The Association is affiliated with the National Conference of Social Work and holds its annual meeting at the time and place of the Conference. It publishes a quarterly *News-Letter*.

Requirements for admission to junior membership include a bachelor's degree or the equivalent and graduation from a course in psychiatric social work of not less than nine months' duration at a school of recognized standing, or graduation from a similar course in social work, with not less than six months' supervised experience in psychiatric social work. Admission to active membership requires, in addition to the above, one or two years of experience in a position in psychiatric social work.

Recent Trends

A study of the field of psychiatric social work, sponsored by the American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers and being prepared for publication in 1940, has revealed significant trends.[1] In 1924, 80 per cent of the Association members were working in hospitals for mental diseases or in psychiatric and mental hygiene clinics. In 1936 approximately 50 per cent were so engaged, the other 50 per cent working in various social work agencies, public health agencies, or educational institutions. In 1940 the proportion remains the same. This situation was brought about by two factors. One was the increasing demand from many agencies for staff members with psychiatric social training and experience. The other was the decrease in opportunities, since 1930, in clinics and hospitals. The unchanged proportion in agency affiliations since 1936 indicates that there are again opportunities in the hospitals and clinic field, a situation further evidenced by actual placement figures. The situation, however, caused some confusion as to the definition of psychiatric social work and presented to the professional association administrative problems embodying the varied interests of its members.

This trend was also revealed in the progress of professional education. Courses in mental hygiene and social psychiatry had become increasingly a part of the basic education for all social workers, and certain knowledge and techniques which once were the province of the psychiatric social worker gradually permeated the entire field of social work as generally accepted practice. Field work in psychiatric agencies remained the distinguishing characteristic of the educational program. Yet a few schools expe-

[1] *See* French, *infra cit.*

rienced real difficulty in finding available resources that would meet the required standards.

Since 1930 the American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers has been working on the problem of clarifying the basis for definition of the field and developing a recommended program for professional education. In June, 1939, such a program was presented and approved, it being the result of joint efforts of the Association and the American Psychiatric Association, with the aid of the American Association of Schools of Social Work. There was evident a definite increase in the number of psychiatric agencies available for student field work which, together with the advanced seminars connected therewith, was regarded as the core of specialized training for the field.

The Association, also in June, 1939, took a significant action that reaffirmed the basis on which its program rests, namely, that psychiatric social work is social work practiced in connection with psychiatry. Such action meant that activities of the members in mental hygiene education and in the application of special knowledge and experience to other agency settings, although regarded as of vital interest to the Association, will not continue to be defined as psychiatric social work or confused with the steady progress of social case work in agencies primarily concerned with emotional maladjustment and offering combined psychiatric and social treatment. This action will do much to clarify questions as to the field of psychiatric social work, and to enable the Association effectively to continue its program.

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PUBLIC ASSISTANCE. The full range of public assistance in the United States may be visualized by depicting what disposition is made of applicants gathered in the waiting room of any modern city department of public welfare. *See* PUBLIC WELFARE. Here may be found people who have come with a variety of needs and requests. Not all are seeking relief—some may want only advice or information or may be here on a business errand. It is impossible to tell by mere inspection which of them are in need —they are just such a group as one might see at the post office or waiting to do business at the office of a gas company.

Although these people cannot be classified into types, their problems and needs can be and are so classified—roughly, at first, by the intake worker at the front desk; and more precisely, later, through the process known as social investigation. The clas-

sification is based upon the kinds of service which the agency or community has to offer.

Most of the services provided by the local department of public welfare are contingent upon the establishment of eligibility for some sort of financial assistance, though many modern departments carry a small number of "service only" cases, where the need is other than financial: perhaps a health problem, dissension in the home, the care of problem children, the budgeting of a small and irregular income, or similar matters. In the main, however, the problems presented fall into four main groups: (a) needy old age; (b) dependency of children; and either (c) unemployment or (d) inability or failure to earn a livelihood, on the part of the age groups in between. Programs of relief, social insurance, work relief, and institutional care are available in the states and local communities, though in widely varying degrees of adequacy, to meet the needs presented.[1]

Classification of Applications

1. The aged. For persons whose handicap is old age, government offers assistance of several kinds. If the applicant has been employed in certain occupations since the passage of the Social Security Act he may be eligible to receive old age benefits under the old age and survivors' insurance program. *See* OLD AGE AND SURVIVORS' INSURANCE. This program, a form of social insurance, is administered wholly by the federal government. Eligibility for benefit is conditioned upon premiums paid and not upon the applicant's need. Therefore, granting or withholding these benefits is entirely outside the jurisdiction of the local department of public welfare. The intake worker would presumably be thoroughly informed about the program, however, and in interviewing an elderly applicant would secure information showing his presumptive status regarding old age and survivors' insurance benefits. If he seemed eligible he would be referred to the proper address.

Many aged persons, however, have never been insured persons under the terms of the Social Security Act or, if they were entitled to a small lump sum benefit, have long since drawn and used it. For such aged persons as can establish their need of relief and meet other eligibility requirements, old age assistance is available in all states. *See* OLD AGE ASSISTANCE. The chief distinction between old age and survivors' insurance benefits and old age assistance is that the first rests upon a contractual basis while the second does not. In most communities the local department of public welfare itself administers old age assistance and hence will not need to refer the eligible applicant elsewhere for attention.

Some aged people need more than an allowance. They may be too feeble to care properly for themselves; they may even be bedridden and helpless. Formerly, the only public aid offered such persons was a bed in the poorhouse; but in modern practice, public welfare departments often find it possible and desirable to place such people in private homes and to pay for their care and maintenance there. Some communities also maintain public infirmaries for the aged and chronically ill. *See* HOMES AND ALMSHOUSES.

2. Children. The problems of dependent childhood fall into two main groups. First, there are those children living with parents or kinsfolk who lack means adequately to maintain the home and provide for the children. In some instances survivors' insurance benefits may be drawn; but if not, when the normal breadwinner is dead, undergoing long-term hospitalization, in prison, or otherwise absent without providing support, government may be called upon to subsidize the home and keep the

[1] A complete roster of assistance provisions would include programs for youth, for rural workers, and for temporarily ill persons, not described in this article. *See* Civilian Conservation Corps and National Youth Administration in YOUTH PROGRAMS; Farm Security Administration in RURAL SOCIAL PROGRAMS; and MEDICAL CARE.

children together in it. This it does through programs of mothers' aid or aid to dependent children. *See* AID TO DEPENDENT CHILDREN. The local department will probably have responsibility also for the administration of these services.

In other instances of homes broken by death or desertion, or otherwise unsuitable places for the rearing of children, it may be necessary to provide care for dependent children in foster homes or institutions. *See* CHILD WELFARE. Further, children with certain handicaps of mind and body, even though their own homes are good homes, may often be more suitably cared for in foster homes or institutions, for their own sakes and those of their normal brothers and sisters. Referral may be made to other agencies for these forms of care.

3. Employable adults. Unemployment, like old age, has been recognized as a responsibility of government, to be met in so far as possible by the method of social insurance. *See* SOCIAL INSURANCE. Since 1935 the states have been installing and perfecting systems of unemployment insurance or compensation to meet this problem, until today all 48 have them in operation. *See* UNEMPLOYMENT COMPENSATION. Unemployment insurance differs from old age insurance in the following ways: (a) it is administered by the states, not by the federal government; (b) in most states the premiums are paid entirely by the employer, although in seven the worker is also required to contribute from his wages; (c) a maximum duration of benefit payment is fixed, whereas in old age and survivors' insurance, benefits are continued to cover the duration of eligibility.

When the work of an employable adult is interrupted by injury connected with his service (in some states also by disease contracted as a result of his occupation) the worker may be entitled to special compensation payments during his period of disability. This form of social insurance is known as workmen's compensation. *See* WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION.

Many adult workers exhaust their right to unemployment benefits before securing other employment; others cannot present the type of employment history which entitles them to draw benefits or have never been insured persons under the unemployment insurance plans of their states. For such persons, government work programs have been set up as relief measures, either by the federal government—as in the case of the Work Projects Administration (WPA)—or by local units of government. *See* WORK RELIEF.

Work projects, however, are of value only to the totally unemployed. The worker who has regular work on short time, but who cannot earn enough for his and his family's needs, cannot hope to secure supplementary work on government projects and is usually ineligible for unemployment insurance benefits. He may or may not, according to the regulations and resources of his locality, be able to secure assistance in the form of general relief. If not, the anomaly arises of children who would be better off financially if their father were dead or had deserted them, than if he were living at home, working regularly, and earning an insufficient income.

Neither relief nor insurance programs exist in this country to meet the needs of the family whose breadwinner is unable to work because of temporary illness. In other countries, more or less complete systems of invalidity insurance have been set up. The American worker whose incapacity is due to illness not directly resulting from his work has to rely, like the underemployed person, mainly upon the weak reed of general relief for support for his family, although in most communities there is some provision for hospitalization of the invalided worker himself. *See* MEDICAL CARE.

4. Handicapped adults. Persons not actually in need of hospital or institutional care but whose physical disability or mental deficiency prevents them from earning their living are not eligible for unemployment insurance benefits nor can they be as-

signed to the usual types of governmental work relief. Some communities have developed "sheltered workshops" where persons with certain handicaps can work for relief wages. A special group—the blind—are included under the assistance provisions of the Social Security Act. *See* BLINDNESS AND CONSERVATION OF SIGHT and VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION. For the seriously handicapped, who cannot be taken care of in their own homes, institutional care of various kinds is provided by the states and by many municipalities.

General Relief

When all the persons who are eligible to receive any of the types of insurance benefit or public assistance discussed above have been accounted for, there will remain others whose needs cannot be met through any of these special provisions. Some will be unable to establish the necessary qualifications—they were not born in the right place, or have not lived long enough in the community where they now are. *See* IMMIGRANTS and MIGRANTS, TRANSIENTS, AND TRAVELERS. Some are not old enough, some not young enough, some not well enough, some not sick enough, to receive a given type of assistance. In other cases, while they can qualify and receive some of these special benefits, the amounts that can be granted under the law will not fully cover their particular needs. Also there are waiting periods before a definite type of eligibility can be established and benefits begin to be received; gaps in receipt of a given benefit or assistance due to changes in the applicant's circumstances; and, in the case of unemployment insurance and work relief, cessation of benefits when the given time-limit has expired.

The system of special, or categorical, assistance and benefits has been likened to a life-net with very large meshes. Some people land upon it safely; others slip through the meshes. Provisions exist in the laws of all states—the so-called "poor laws"—which direct that local officials shall supply necessary general relief to persons in need; but these laws are so circumscribed by regulations as in many instances to defeat this purpose. In most states, residence of varying periods is prescribed as a qualification; in some, the recipient of general relief must also be a citizen, and physically or mentally unable to support himself. It is obvious that there must be many persons and families in serious distress and deprivation who can qualify for neither insurance, work relief, the categorical assistances, nor the underlying structure of general relief which is theoretically supposed to support the rest of the relief structure.

Determination of Eligibility

When an application for aid is received the public welfare agency, as we have seen, first tries to find out if a probable right to social insurance can be established and the applicant directed elsewhere to secure it. If not, the applicant must present facts that constitute a presumption that he is "in need" of the help which the categorical or general forms of public assistance are expected to make available to him. That being the case, the agency must have certain facts upon which to determine the type of assistance that can be extended. For example, the applicant's age must be established as sixty-five or over (in most states) if he is to receive old age assistance and as under that age if he is to be assigned to most work programs. The composition of his family and status of his dependents affect his eligibility for aid to dependent children or for survivors' insurance benefits. A presumption of "employability" must exist before he can be assigned to a work relief program. Lack of citizenship disqualifies him for certain forms of assistance through federal or state regulations. As pointed out above, residence in the place of application, for a period prescribed in each state, is demanded in most states as a qualification for all but the most temporary grants of general relief.

The ability of the applicant to help him-

self through his natural resources must also be canvassed. Has he assets upon which he still might draw? Has he property which he might sell or upon which he might give a lien to the agency in return for assistance granted? Has he relatives within the relationship specified as responsible in the state law, who might be forced to assume his support? The degree to which the applicant for relief is required to denude himself of all his possessions, sacrifice his life insurance, or subsist upon what can be legally extorted from unwilling relatives varies, of course, very greatly between communities, but the information concerning such potential resources is called for as a matter of routine at the first application. In some places it must be substantiated by the applicant's sworn statement. In the practice of the best agencies, however, the effort is rather to enlist the applicant's willing cooperation in a process of establishing his own eligibility and submitting proofs, the necessity for which has been carefully and considerately explained to him.

The degree to which outside inquiries are made by the agency's staff to corroborate the information given by the applicant and to obtain further documentary proof of his eligibility also varies from place to place; but in general, some investigation is made of every applicant's statements. If emergent need exists pending the investigatory process it is met, in the practice of the best agencies, through interim grants of general relief.

Determination of Degree of Need

When the facts of need and of eligibility have been established the next point to be determined is the degree of need, for it is this which prescribes the amount to be granted. Most agencies have a "standard budget" covering minimum costs for the essentials of living for family groups of different composition. These budgets are, or should be, based upon actual costs in the community, and should be revised when important changes in price levels occur.

Using the standard budget as a sort of slide-rule, the living costs of the applicant's family group are calculated. The family's financial assets in the way of earnings of members, value of food raised or sold, and any other regular income is totaled and subtracted from the living costs as calculated; and the result is known as the family's "budgetary deficiency." Theoretically, this should determine the amount of assistance to be granted; but actually, in most communities, the maximum limits placed upon the grants by law or regulation and the constant shortages of state and local funds make full budgetary relief the exception, not the rule. However, it is generally agreed that the only equitable way to apportion scanty funds, or to decide which persons shall receive assignments to work relief when quotas fail to meet the need, is through a working knowledge of each family's budgetary deficiency.

Because family incomes fluctuate and conditions change for the better or worse, it is not sufficient to fix the budgetary deficiency once and for all. Re-visits and re-investigation are necessary from time to time, to comply with the provisions of most public welfare laws.

Roughly speaking, grants of old age assistance and aid to the blind are apt to be the most nearly adequate to need. In the first place, they provide for the maintenance of only one or, at the most, two persons. Secondly, there are active organizations of the aged and the blind which exert political pressure to get the grants raised. In no state can the average grant be termed excessive—the statement is merely that old age assistance and aid to the blind usually command a larger share of the welfare dollar for the maintenance of fewer dependent persons than is the case with aid to dependent children. At the bottom as far as adequacy goes are the grants for general relief.

During the fiscal year ending June 30, 1940, the number of persons receiving old age assistance each month rose steadily from

a total of 1,858,000 in July, 1939, to 1,970,000 in June, 1940; the number of individuals receiving aid to the blind rose from 69,000 in July to 72,000 in June; while the number of families granted aid to dependent children rose from 312,000 in July to 346,000 in June. In these families aided in June were 831,000 children for whom allowances were made. In contrast with these steady trends upward, the cases granted general relief (like numbers employed by the WPA) fluctuated appreciably from month to month, rising from 1,540,000 in July, 1939, to a peak of 1,689,000 in January, 1940, afrer which they declined to 1,373,000 in June, 1940.

During the same fiscal year, old age assistance grants averaged approximately $20 per month; aid to the blind grants rose more or less steadily to an average of $23.68 in June; while grants for dependent children also rose more or less gradually to $32.10 in June, 1940. General relief grants fluctuated somewhat from month to month and were slightly higher during the winter than other seasons, reaching a maximum of $25.78 in January, 1940.

During the calendar year 1939 WPA employment averaged slightly more than 2,400,000 each month, falling sharply from a peak of neatly 3,000,000 in January to a total of only 1,656,000 in September. In October it began ro rise again, reaching 2,235,000 in March, 1940; but by June, 1940, it had again declined, to 1,670,000. Earnings throughout the year 1939 averaged approximately $54 per worker per month.

There are no figures available to show how many persons or families were denied relief, either of the particular type they sought or general relief. Spotadic studies made of persons laid off by the WPA because they had worked continuously for eighteen months show that a very small proportion are able to secure other work and to maintain their families. Only about 13 per cent of some 138,000 workers discharged in July and August, 1939, for example, were employed when visited in November. Where general relief was available, such persons dropped back to the meager subsistence level of that form of relief; where general relief was not granted to families of unemployed workers, such phenomena are reported, in dry official terms, as eviction resulting in whole families becoming wanderers and homeless, acute suffering and malnutrition, children unable to attend school, door-to-door begging and "panhandling," theft of food and money, and even suicide.

Sources of Public Relief Funds

The sources from which public relief funds come present a complicated picture. *See* FINANCING PUBLIC SOCIAL WORK. Local tax funds of various kinds bear most of the burden of general relief, although many states reimburse localities for part of these expenditures, particularly those made for persons without a local relief settlement. In a few states, notably in Pennsylvania, general relief is entirely from state funds.

In most states the localities are also required to share with the state in varying proportions the expenditures for the three social security assistances—old age assistance, aid to the blind, and aid to dependent children. They are also required to meet outright or share with the state the cost of institutional care in state institutions, and of foster care of children not in the custody of their own parents or relatives. Where localities maintain institutions for the care of their own dependents, these are seldom subsidized from state funds. In some communities certain types of institutional care are provided in privately managed institutions, in which the public agency contracts to pay for the care of its wards, either at individual weekly rates or by a lump sum annual appropriation.

Under the Social Security Act the federal government participates with states and localities in the assistance grants up to 50 per cent of the maximum grants specified in the Act, an added 5 per cent being given

from federal funds toward the cost of state and local administration. It is left to each state to determine in what proportion the state's 50 per cent shall be paid from state funds or assessed upon the localities.

During the fiscal year ending June 30, 1939, a total of $1,002,826,300 was expended for the three special types of public assistance and for general relief, of which $231,359,700, or approximately 23.7 per cent, came from federal funds. *See* Table I.

TABLE I

Public Assistance Expenditures for Calendar Year 1939[a]

(In Thousands of Dollars)

Program	*Total*	*Federal*	*State*	*Local*
Old age assistance	$ 433,575.2	$208,317.4	$182,004.8	$ 43,253.0
Aid to the blind	12,439.8	5,387.5	4,552.3	2,500.0
Aid to dependent children	120,744.7	29,463.8	52,557.3	28,723.7
General relief	481,529.4	[b]	285,198.3	196,331.1
Total	$1,038,289.2	$243,168.7	$524,312.7	$270,807.8

[a] Expenditures for the special types of public assistance include medical care, hospitalization, and burials but these items are excluded from the data on general relief (except when provided for in the cash grant to recipients).

[b] Federal Emergency Relief Administration funds of $90 were available in Nevada.

Federal funds meet practically the entire cost of WPA wages and the administration of the program. States and localities are required to meet 25 per cent of the project costs, in the form of "sponsors' contributions," these contributions being used primarily to pay for materials and equipment. An unseen cost of the program which is borne in large measure by states and localities is the expense of investigating the eligibility of persons for assignment to WPA, and of re-investigating from time to time their eligibility for continued employment. During the fiscal year ending June 30, 1940, $1,330,321,000 was paid from WPA funds as wages to an average of 2,041,250 workers per month. It should be pointed out that communities frequently consider these sponsors' contributions to be part of their relief expenditures, resulting in lessened amounts being made available for the social security assistances and general relief.

Where local and, in a few instances, state work relief programs have been set up, the entire costs are borne by local or state funds.

Standards and Supervision

To epitomize the situation as regards the setting of standards and the supervisory controls exercised by one level of government upon another, it may be said that these functions follow only upon financial participation between the two levels. For example, the federal government administering the WPA program in the states and localities prescribes its own regulations, fixes sponsors' contributions, assigns quotas to be filled, and passes upon the eligibility of workers proposed by local authorities for employment. The state and local public welfare agencies have no function with respect to the WPA except to furnish lists of relief recipients whom they desire to receive WPA jobs. In the federal program of social security assistances, however, where the program is administered by the states and where costs are shared more nearly equally, the initiative of proposing the plan lies with the state; the Social Security Board either approves the plan or suggests acceptable alterations and, after approval, requires reports at regular intervals and in prescribed forms. Field supervision by the Social Security Board involves considerable cooperative give-and-take with state welfare departments, and is directed mainly toward assuring the Board that the agreements entered

into under the state's approved plan are being carried out in good faith. The federal government seldom finds it necessary to exercise the disciplinary measure, which is always at its disposition, of completely withholding reimbursement for the assistance grants which have been given in a state.

Since the federal government makes no contribution to general relief, it issues no regulations concerning its administration. The only supervision it exercises in this area is indirect and almost accidental; by raising the caliber of state and local staffs administering the social security assistances the administration of general relief may also be improved, if administered by the same staff.

State departments of public welfare vaty greatly as to the degree of supervision exercised over local units, especially in the matter of selection of personnel. Regulations binding upon local boards and departments are issued in all areas of relief in which the state has a financial interest, especially those in which the state expects participation by the federal government. When general relief is given wholly out of local funds without state reimbursement, there is little a state department can do beyond seeing that local departments do not grossly violate the provisions of the state's public welfare law, and securing as regular reports as localities are willing to give of the amounts of general relief expended. When, however, the state contributes to general relief or finances it entirely a much higher degree of supervision can be successfully exerted.

By what means to bring about a more even-handed and adequate provision of public assistance in this diverse country is a question abour which there are opinions but no answers. The states' right of self-determination in their domestic affairs is written into our Constitution; so that the chief means of inducing equality exercised by the federal government is the giving or withholding, upon conditions, of federal funds. Whether federal legislative and regulatory powers can run beyond this point has never actually been tested. But even if it were possible to fix a uniform relief system upon the country many students of the subject doubt that essential justice could be done thereby among regions which differ as widely as do ours in customs, composition of the population, and standards of work and living.

It seems obvious to many that the federal government should extend its present system of reimbursement, plus standard-setting, to cover general as well as categorical relief, particularly to meet the needs of the unemployed who cannot be absorbed into federal work projects and of people who have lost their legal settlement. On the other hand, large and articulate groups are clamoring for a recession on the part of the federal government and a return of the relief function to the localities, where it formerly reposed.

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PUBLIC HEALTH.[1] Man has always been concerned over his personal health, but as communities have developed there has grown also the realization that individual health security is dependent upon collective health security. Community life has been found to be possible only if human wastes are properly disposed of, water supplies protected and purified, nuisances controlled. The struggle with physical environment, therefore, constitutes the first chapter in the nation's public health story.

The earliest public health measures were regulatory and restrictive, legal rather than scientific, and invoked usually in emergencies. Popular demand from 1850 on brought into being permanent organizations to deal with health and sanitation. The legal duties of these early boards of health reflected the prevailing philosophy that government's concern was solely with conditions beyond the control of the individual. They were limited almost entirely to community cleanliness and to feeble attempts at quarantine and isolation.

The great period of mass application of sanitary science was ushered in by the development of the germ theory of disease. The years from 1880 to 1910 constituted an era of bacteriology and the control of water-borne diseases and of infections transmitted from one person to another. The laboratory became the scientific foundation of public health campaigns, and the results of research were applied to the people through the administrative control of health departments. The health officer relied, however, upon his legal and police powers rather than upon education of the public in achieving his objectives. The movement for public education in health, deferred until about 1900, was a later outgrowth of recognition that the protection of the individual against infection is the best protection of the community. Mass health instruction, however, was not construed in the early years of the twentieth century to be the function of government, nor were attacks on special problems like tuberculosis, infant mortality, cancer, blindness, heart disease, and venereal diseases. Accordingly, as a further expression of an individualistic age, the voluntary health agencies came to be established, working outside the then generally accepted boundaries of health department concern.

The past few years have brought to the people of this country an understanding of the technique of using government to distribute benefits more equitably. The responsibility of government for the health of the individual as well as for the health of the community is emerging conspicuously as a national social principle, exemplified in the form of a national health program which

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

would assure health, medical, dental, and hospital services for the entire nation. *See* MEDICAL CARE. Recent articulations of many groups would seem to indicate that in the public consciousness public health now is seen to be collective security, arrived at by consciously erected governmental and other machinery to remove or counteract all influences, natural and artificial, which affect adversely the physical and mental well-being of the mass. Since the mass is the multiplication of individuals, public health must be concerned with the vital resistance of every person from the prenatal stage to old age, and in securing for every individual the highest state of physical and mental efficiency by every aid of sanitary and medical science.

Proposed Standards for Official Agencies

Public health services in the United States are classified broadly as official and non-official. Official public health work is that for which government is responsible. Non-official health work is conducted under non-governmental auspices. Certain standards for the conduct of official public health work have been proposed by the American Public Health Association, a professional society with a membership of 7,000 public health workers. Among these recommended provisions are:

The employment of a full-time, well-qualified local health officer, appointed under a merit system.

An annual local appropriation of at least $1.00 per capita, exclusive of hospital services and of those services usually rendered by the state and federal governments.

Freedom for the health officer to select trained personnel for medical, nursing, sanitary, laboratory, statistical, and other services.

A board of health or public health council, with some legislative and judicial authority, to determine general policies in consultation with the health officer and to which the health officer is directly responsible.

These basic principles are far from having universal application. Some few states still have state health officers who are not on a full-time basis, while part-time service is common in the smaller cities. Annual appropriations for health work vary from less than 10 cents to $2.50 per capita. Selections of personnel are frequently dictated by political expediency, and tenure of office of competent persons is curtailed by political changes. There is little uniformity in state or local practice concerning the appointment of the health officer, nor in the method of appointment of boards of health or public health councils. Too often new appointments of both are made by each incoming administration. The trend, however, is generally toward qualified public health personnel and exemption from factional pressures.

FEDERAL HEALTH SERVICES

Because of the fact that every department of the federal government has had one or more divisions concerned with some phase of the national health, the need for centralization of federal authority in health matters has been frequently urged. In 1939, a first step in this direction was taken by the creation of the Federal Security Agency, to which was transferred the United States Public Health Service and a group of other agencies concerned with health, education, and welfare. Important public health activities are still being carried on by other departments of the federal government, however, and although the first constructive step has been taken it is the opinion of many health and medical authorities that further consolidations in administration should be made and that health services at the federal level should be integrated under one cabinet officer, preferably a Secretary of Health. Some of the present government divisions with evident health functions are the Children's Bureau in the Department of Labor; the Division of Vital Statistics of the Bureau of the Census in the Department of Commerce; the Office of Indian Affairs in the Department of the Interior; and the Food and Drugs Administration, Bureau of

Animal Industry, Bureau of Dairy Industry, and Bureau of Home Economics in the Department of Agriculture. Some of these bureaus administer laws, such as the Federal Food and Drugs Act, while others conduct research, collect data, and issue information. The Children's Bureau carries federal responsibility for maternal and child health and for crippled children as well as for child welfare. *See* CRIPPLED CHILDREN and MATERNAL AND CHILD HEALTH.

The United States Public Health Service

The United States Public Health Service, formerly in the Department of the Treasury and now under the Federal Security Agency, continues to be the principal center of national health work. Its multifarious duties and responsibilities touch every part of the country and affect the welfare of every citizen. The Service had its origin in au act of Congress in 1798 which provided for hospitals for the medical care of American seamen. Its public health functions grew slowly; and it was not until 1878 that Congress authorized extensive use of the Service as a federal health organization. In 1890 it was authorized specifically to assist in preventing the introduction of cholera, yellow fever, smallpox, and plague. In 1893 its quarantine functions were extended to include all infectious and contagious diseases, in cooperation with state and local health agencies. Other public health functions were added from time to time, and this expansion was recognized in 1902 when the name was changed to United States Public Health and Marine Hospital Service, which remained in effect until 1912 when the present title was adopted.

In 1901 the Hygienic Laboratory was established for investigation of contagious diseases and other matters pertaining to public health; and in the next year the Service was charged with the duty of supervising and regulating the manufacture and sale of sera, vaccines, and similar products shipped in interstate commerce. In 1912 the duties of research were greatly broadened, taking in the investigation of all diseases of man and the conditions tending to influence their propagation and spread, including sanitation and sewage and the pollution of navigable streams and lakes. An important advance came in 1930 with the creation of the National Institute of Health, succeeding the Hygienic Laboratory, with very broad powers and duties of investigation.

The federal Social Security Act of 1935 imposed on the Service further duties of assisting states and districts to establish adequate health organization and to train personnel. Title VI of the Act authorized an annual appropriation of $8,000,000 for grants-in-aid to be allotted by the Service to the states for public health work. It also authorized $2,000,000 annually for expenditure by the Service for investigations of disease, problems of sanitation, and cooperation with states. Grants-in-aid to the states are made by the Surgeon General in conference with state and territorial health authorities. Allotments are based on population, special health problems, and financial needs. Between 1935 and 1940 a total of $36,833,000 had been appropriated. In 1939 Congress increased the amount authorized annually to $11,000,000, of which $9,500,000 was actually appropriated for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1940. The Surgeon General reports that 44 per cent of the federal funds allotted to the states during the fiscal year 1939–1940 were used for state-wide health services, with sanitation and sanitary engineering heading the list of expenditures and supervisory and consultant services to local health departments second. Labotatory services, industrial hygiene, pneumonia control, and tuberculosis were the next services in order of amounts expended.

The accomplishments of the Service since 1935 have been notable. With the stimulus of federal grants on a matching basis, there has been an increase of 132 per cent in the number of counties in the United States having local health departments under the full-time direction of a medical

health officer. On January 1, 1935, there were 594 such counties; at the end of 1939 there were 1,381. Use of federal funds in combination with state and local appropriations has resulted in wide expansion of basic services on the local level. In the cooperative projects alone, annual appropriations from state and local sources totaled $64,996,733 on January 1, 1940, an increase of more than $33,000,000 in five years. Thirty-seven state departments now have divisions or bureaus concerned with the promotion and supervision of local health services, 31 have bureaus or divisions of industrial hygiene, 38 have dental units or bureaus, and 32 have cancer control programs. Practically all have improved their functions of public health nursing, engineering, and vital statistics.

The grants-in-aid program has made possible the technical training of large numbers of individuals for positions in official health departments. From February, 1936, to the close of the fiscal year 1939, public health training was provided, in whole or in part from federal funds, for some 5,400 individuals, including some 1,200 medical officers, 2,600 nurses, 270 engineers, 820 sanitarians, 272 laboratory technicians, 13 dentists, and 38 statisticians.

The National Cancer Act, passed by Congress in 1937, established the National Cancer Institute as a division of the United States Public Health Service with wide duties covering investigation and research as well as treatment, and providing assistance to other agencies, public and private. An appropriation of $570,000 was made for the work of the Institute during the fiscal year 1939–1940. The National Cancer Act represents the first instance in which grants-in-aid for medical research have been authorized to private institutions. It is the purpose of the Act to extend present knowledge of the cancer problem for the benefit of future cancer patients and to secure a more complete application of existing knowledge for the benefit of present cancer patients.

The Venereal Disease Control Act was passed by Congress in May, 1938, and greatly extended the activities of the Division of Venereal Diseases of the United States Public Health Service. This Division was created by Congress in 1918 with power to cooperate with state departments of health for the control and prevention of these diseases. The Act authorizes $3,000,000, $5,000,000, and $7,000,000, respectively, for the first three years of cooperation with states and localities. Five million dollars were provided for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1940. State and local authorities have appropriated about two dollars for every dollar of federal funds. In 1939, 67 per cent more persons with syphilis were reported to have sought treatment in public clinics than in 1938. The number of reported treatments in clinics for venereal diseases increased from 5,000,000 to 8,000,000. The number of reported arsenical injections for syphilis increased from 1,800,000 to 3,200,000. Through federal-state funds every doctor in 43 states can use the best modern drugs for syphilis without cost to him or his patient. Good laboratory service for diagnosis of syphilis, a *sine qua non* in a control program, is now available in almost every locality. In all but two states, good laboratory service is free. Twenty states now require a premarital examination for syphilis, including a blood test, in order to secure a marriage certificate, and prenatal tests for syphilis are required in 18 states. By the close of the fiscal year 1939–1940, each state in the Union, including the territories and the District of Columbia, had established a separate administrative unit for the control of venereal disease. In 1938, such units of control existed in but 27 of the 53 areas. *See* SOCIAL HYGIENE.

A National Health Program

The Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities, appointed by the President in 1935, received and publicized in 1938 the reports of a National Health Inventory made by a group of

federal agencies. It expressed the following conclusions, among others:

This country loses ten billion dollars annually through illness and premature death.

Each year seventy million sick persons lose over one billion days from work.

Seventy-five thousand infants are stillborn every year, 69,000 die before they are a month old, more than 12,500 women succumb to causes connected with pregnancy and childbirth.

During the same twelve-month period, 518,000 persons are beginning syphilis treatment, twice that number are starting to obtain medical care for gonorrhea, 100,000 are dying of pneumonia, and 150,000 are being admitted to institutions for mental disease.

Disabling illness in the relief population occurs at a rate 68 per cent higher than among those families with an annual income of $3,000 or more. The unemployed have twice as much disabling illness as the employed, and WPA workers have a disabling illness rate 40 per cent more than that of any other groups of employed persons.

At a National Health Conference held in Washington in July, 1938, the Committee submitted a program of five tentative recommendations, to be brought to full operation after ten years, with half of all costs to be borne by the federal government. These were:

1. Eradicate tuberculosis, venereal diseases, and malaria; control mortality from pneumonia and cancer; promote mental hygiene and industrial hygiene through strengthening of public health organizations and expanding present cooperative programs of the Public Health Service and the Children's Bureau. It is estimated that a full program of health service for the public would require annual expenditures of $200,000,000.

Make available to mothers and children of all income groups and in all sections the minimum medical services essential to reduce high mortality rates among mothers and infants, and to prevent in childhood diseases and conditions leading to serious disabilities in later years by means of a gradually expanding program requiring by the tenth year an additional expenditure of $165,000,000.

2. Provide 360,000 beds in tuberculosis, mental, and general hospitals, in rural and urban areas, and construct 500 health and diagnostic centers in areas inaccessible to hospitals, requiring special annual expenditures of $35,400,000—which includes the first three years' maintenance of such institutions.

3. Through federal grants-in-aid to the states, implement the provision of public medical care for two broad groups of the population: (a) those for whom local, state, or federal governments have already accepted some responsibility through the public assistance provisions of the Social Security Act, through work relief programs, or through provisions of general relief; and (b) those who, while able to obtain food, shelter, and clothing from their own resources, are unable to procure necessary medical care. This program might begin with the expenditure of $50,000,000 and be gradually expanded by the tenth year to $400,000,000, the estimated cost of minimum care to all medically needy groups.

4. Reduce the burden of sickness costs by appropriate devices for their distribution among groups of people and over periods of time through a comprehensive program to increase and improve medical services for the population, supported either (a) by general taxation or special tax assessments, or (b) by specific insurance contributions from the potential beneficiaries of an insurance system; the role of the federal government to be that of giving financial or technical aid to the states in development of sound programs of their own choice. The alternate nature of parts of this recommendation and the preceding was pointed out.

5. Assure wage-earners continuity of income through periods of disability by means of temporary disability insurance established along lines analogous to unemployment compensation, and permanent disability (invalidity) insurance developed through the system of old age insurance.

No attempt was made to obtain resolutions or plan legislative action. Delegates

to the Conference, representing professional organizations, health and welfare workers, public officials, and representatives of labor, farm organizations, organized women's groups, the press, and the public, were asked to discuss the recommendations and to report facts and findings to the organizations they represented. Subsequently, adherents and non-adherents to the philosophy of the need for a "nation-wide, public health program, financially and technically aided by the Federal government, but supported and administered by the state and local health departments" went on record as either favoring or disapproving the translation into action of the principles expressed.

In an attempt to implement the recommendations of the Committee with concrete legislation, Senator Wagner of New York introduced in 1939 the National Health bill (S.1620). The bill would make available to the states grants for the purpose of establishing, expanding, and improving state programs for (a) child and maternal health, (b) services for crippled children, (c) general public health services, (d) construction of needed hospitals and health centers, (e) general programs of medical care, and (f) protection against loss of wages during periods of temporary disability. Although this bill is still technically before Congress its passage is regarded as quite improbable. Nevertheless it has been the focal point of much profitable discussion and has led toward a plan of breaking down the huge and complicated program into units which can be more readily managed, as, for example, the Hospital Construction bill of 1940, described below.

The best cross-section of opinion of what the public health profession regards as desirable provisions of a national health program may be found in an action of the American Public Health Association approved in January, 1939. The public health profession believes that it is theoretically desirable that a single state agency should be administratively responsible for carrying out a national health program as it may be enacted into law. The Association frankly recognizes that the present pattern in most states does not conform to this proposal, yet there is evidence that both organized medicine and many public welfare officials share the opinion that ultimately the state health department should be the responsible agency. It may well be asked whether at the state level there is any agency so readily or effectively able as the health department to provide professionally qualified personnel or to maintain high professional standards of medical care. This report concludes that however reluctant medical health officers may be at present to take over these added responsibilities, as they consider the alternative solutions they will see the benefit of having a single agency responsible for all tax-supported medical activities. Such a basic recommendation would not preclude a working arrangement in some states with existing machinery outside of the official health department, provided that the state health officer retains supervisory control over the broad plans and the general purposes of the funds which the state may receive.

It is universally the opinion of public health workers that wide latitude should be given to the states in the definition of the population to be served, the selection of the method of providing medical service, and other important phases of any program. Similar latitude should be provided with regard to the method of raising funds in the states to accomplish approved objectives. The public health profession is also rather unanimous in its opinion that recent experience demonstrates the acceptability of the current provisions of the Social Security Act for aid to the states for health work, and that these provisions constitute a suitable framework for the expansion of preventive health services. This report is emphatic with regard to the necessity that each state program, to be approved for federal aid,

must contain adequate provisions for the maintenance of high personnel standards; and further, that payment of such federal aid to state agencies should be withheld when it is found that substandard services are being furnished. Similar policies should obtain with respect to state aid to local areas within a state, but the formula for this purpose is not yet apparent. The Association is of the opinion that the appropriate federal administrative authorities should have power to establish minimum standards through rule and regulation after consultation with competent advisory professional bodies.

Early in 1940 a bill was introduced before Congress which, in its amended form (S.3230), is known as the Hospital Construction bill. This bill, still pending before Congress, provides for a program of hospital construction and equipment and for assistance toward the maintenance of these hospitals, and calls for an appropriation of $10,000,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1941, and the same amount for each of the five ensuing fiscal years. Provision is made for federal contributions to the maintenance of these hospitals over a period not longer than five years after construction. The hospitals would be built by the Federal Works Agency, after application by states and localities to the Surgeon General of the Public Health Service and on approval by a nine-member National Advisory Hospital Council, and would be leased to the state or municipality for a limited period, the transfer of title to be mandatory at the end of five years of successful operation.

State and Local Health Services

State Agencies

The state department of health is the department of state government to which is entrusted by law the supervision of the health of the people. This authority includes the responsibility of developing a program planned to meet the health problems of the state and to control and prevent unnecessary illness and death. There is a central health department or board of health in each of the 48 states,[1] the District of Columbia, Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands.

The executive health officer is appointed directly by the governor in about one-half of the states and by a board of health or health council in the other half. Eight states have public health councils and 33 have boards of health whose duties are legislative and advisory. Some of the boards are continuing agencies with members having overlapping terms, but the majority are appointed by each incoming state administration. The terms of service of the executive health officer vary from two to seven years, four or six-year terms being customary. Annual salaries range from $2,500 in Nevada to $12,000 in New York, the average being recently $5,665.

Public health experts agree that, in addition to its executive functions, a state department of health should be an educational, advisory, stimulating, coordinating, and stabilizing agency. Besides providing leadership at the state level it should perform certain functions which supplement but do not replace the proper activities of local health departments, as for instance the establishment of personnel standards, rules of tenure, and so forth. The services commonly regarded as minimum and essential follow, with an indication of the extent to which they are now available in the states:

1. Supervision of local health activities. Thirty-five state departments now have divisions or bureaus concerned with the promotion and supervision of local health activities.

2. Financial aid to local health departments as required. It is general practice for all states to make grants-in-aid to local health work.

3. Establishment and enforcement of minimum standards of performance of

[1] For a list of state health departments, with their bureaus or other administrative divisions related to social work, see State Agencies—Public in Part Two.

health departments, particularly in respect to communities receiving state aid for public health. A substantial proportion of county health department budgets is borne by state and federal funds, and supervision is maintained in all states over the qualifications of personnel and standards of service.

4. Enactment of regulations dealing with sanitation, disease control, and public health, which have the force of law throughout the state. No local board of health may set up standards or enforce local ordinances inconsistent with those established by state authority.

5. Collection, tabulation, and publication of vital statistics for each important political or health administrative unit of the state and for the state as a whole, through cooperation with local agents.

6. Collection and distribution of information concerning preventable diseases throughout the state. All states have divisions offering consultant service to local health agencies in diagnosis and control of the various preventable and communicable diseases, and conducting epidemiological investigations. All states have separate divisions for the control of venereal diseases.

7. Maintenance of safe quality water supplies and control of the disposal of human waste for all communities of the state. All states have a special division under the direction of a sanitary engineer for the supervision of environmental sanitation. Federal assistance through emergency funds has made possible in the past six years 1,500 sewer and sewage projects in hundreds of communities, 873 sewage treatment plants, and the construction of nearly 2,500,000 sanitary privies.

8. Establishment and enforcement of minimum sanitary standards for milk supplies. Milk supplies are safeguarded by state regulation in all states, with supplementary local inspection and control. More than 90 per cent of milk supplies in cities of more than 10,000 population are pasteurized.

9. Prescription of qualifications for certain public health personnel. A few state health departments prescribe qualifications for persons to be employed in local health departments. Higher standards are being established and enforced with the increased use of federal and state funds for personnel training.

10. Maintenance of a central laboratory and necessary branch laboratories for the standard functions of diagnostic, sanitary, and chemical examinations; production of therapeutic and prophylactic preparations and their distribution for public health purposes; establishment of standards for the conduct of diagnostic laboratories throughout the state; and laboratory research in the causes and means of control of preventable diseases. All states but one have central laboratories, and many have branch laboratories, making bacteriological and chemical examinations of milk, water, and sewage and supplying physicians and health officers with diagnostic service for communicable diseases. Several states manufacture and distribute free many biologic products of proven value. Twenty-three states report research work in their laboratories.

It is emphasized that the above are regarded as basic, minimum services. Some of the states are lacking in one or more and in all states effectiveness of performance varies widely. Separate administrative divisions for the conduct of these services are set up in most of the states. The better organized states, besides operating services in connection with communicable diseases, laboratory, and sanitary engineering, have divisions of child hygiene, public health nursing, health education, and industrial hygiene, and in addition include tuberculosis, pneumonia, cancer, dental health, and mental health in their programs. *See* MENTAL HYGIENE, PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING, and TUBERCULOSIS. Enforcement of food and drug laws constitute health department responsibilities in about half the states; and three states, Connecticut, New York, and Pennsylvania, exercise narcotic drug control. Two states, North Carolina and South Carolina, make birth control a public health service. *See* BIRTH CONTROL.

According to recent summaries, it appears that special divisions for the following pur-

poses are now in existence in the various state health departments as follows:

Purposes	*States*
Local health service	37
Dental health service	38
Cancer control	32
Tuberculosis control	17
Health education	21
Industrial hygiene	31
Public health nursing	32
Child hygiene	48
Engineering	48
Laboratory	47
Venereal diseases	48
Communicable diseases	48
Vital statistics	47

Local Agencies

Great variation is found in the organization and administration of local health service. Among more than 3,100 cities in this group there may be found counterparts of the best state organization as well as instances of almost no systematic provision for protection of the public health. Similarly, among the 3,000 counties may be found excellent full-time departments with well-qualified staffs as well as provisions quite inadequate to operate modern health protection. Even less organization is to be found in the 13,000 rural areas, the majority of which are unincorporated. It would appear that until political groups of size sufficient to provide a minimum full-time service are organized, local health service will continue at its present uneven level.

The six primary functions of modern local health departments are described by the American Public Health Association as follows:

1. Vital statistics: the collection, tabulation, analysis, interpretation, and publication of reports of births, deaths, and notifiable disease.

2. Sanitation: safeguarding all water supplies, both public and private, commercial or household; securing the sanitary disposal of human and industrial wastes in a manner to avoid nuisance and to prevent the pollution of foods or water supply; supervision of the production and distribution of milk and milk products by licensing, inspection, and laboratory tests; supervision of the production, processing, and distribution of food stuffs, including shellfish; supervision of housing to secure adequate light, air, water, sanitary necessities, and protection from inclemencies of weather, and to prevent overcrowding of occupants: also control over the environmental sanitation of public camp sites, swimming pools, bathing beaches, parks, and other public properties; control of mosquitoes, rats, and such other insects and vermin as may affect the public health; control over the environmental conditions of employment; and control over atmospheric pollution by smoke, dust, and harmful fumes.

3. Control of communicable diseases: provision for the reporting of cases, the isolation of patients, and immunization of susceptible persons; systematic effort to find cases of infection not yet the subject of official report, such as tuberculosis, syphilis, gonorrhea, malaria, hookworm disease, and epidemic diarrheas; provision for diagnostic, consultative, and treatment facilities where necessary and, particularly for tuberculosis, X-ray service for diagnosis and review of progress, and sanatorium care.

4. Laboratory service: building up and maintaining a laboratory service for the diagnosis of communicable disease, for control of foods, and other features of general sanitation.

5. Protection of health in maternity, infancy, and childhood: concern with the health status of the man and woman preparing for marriage, continuing with supervision over the health of the expectant mother, and carrying on with the protection of health of the newborn, the infant, the preschool and school child; and finally supervising the conditions of work and the fitness to work of young people even to the age of eighteen years in some states. *See* SOCIAL AND HEALTH WORK IN THE SCHOOLS.

6. Public health education: to make health knowledge accessible to the average man in a form that he can understand through such channels as general newspaper or magazine publicity and personal work with individuals by public health nurses and other professional and lay staffs; through the distribution and publication of books and pamphlets dealing with subjects

of personal and community health; through lectures and personal and group demonstrations, using lay and professional staffs; and through pictures and exhibitions, the film, and the radio.

These provisions are regarded as basic and minimal. In many of the larger cities more responsibilities are assumed and efficiently discharged. In many small cities and rural units the health department has been able to meet only the most urgent health needs; in others, the state department of health has been forced to undertake many health activities. The development of county and local health units carrying on at least the services enumerated above under the direction of a full-time health officer has been increased from 594 in 1935 to 1,381 at the end of 1939 through the use of federal funds.

The level of accomplishment in preventive and protective health work has been raised as higher professional qualifications for public health personnel are achieved and as health budgets increase. The American Public Health Association, through its Committee on Professional Education, has established minimum qualifications for health officers, public health nurses, industrial nurses, public health engineers, sanitarians, sub-professional field personnel in sanitation, and school health educators. These are receiving general acceptance.

Non-Official Health Services

Health protection and promotion efforts constitute either a major part or the entire program of several of the great philanthropic foundations, the health associations and agencies, and many of the fraternal, religious, and patriotic groups operating throughout the country. Many similar organizations function within the confines of the states and in the cities, counties, and villages.

Foundations

Sixty-two foundations report total grants of $13,495,898 for medicine and public health in 1937. This figure includes all sums allocated for the prevention and cure of disease and "for the practice of physicians, dentists, nurses, psychiatrists and other individuals, and the work of all types of medical schools and public health agencies, whether mental, medical or surgical, curative or preventive."[1] It also includes grants for research and education.

It is obviously impossible to break down the total into exact categories of "public health" and "medicine," because there is no longer any sharp line of demarcation between the two. With a rigid and narrow definition in mind, and ruling out all activities that cannot be classed as preventive and protective, easily one-half and perhaps more of the total amount may be said to have been expended on public health.

A number of foundations have exerted tremendous influence over public health practice and progress. The International Health Division of the Rockefeller Foundation, for example, maintains its own laboratories and scientific staff and gives assistance to public health work of one kind or another in 37 different countries. Either by direct grants or through its own technical staff, studies on the common cold, hookworm disease, malaria, rabies, syphilis, tuberculosis, and influenza were carried on in the United States during 1939. In addition to the control and investigation of specific diseases, the program of the International Health Division includes assistance to state and local health departments and public health education.

The Commonwealth Fund promotes health through medical education, medical research, the establishment of rural hospitals, and the strengthening of rural health work in selected states. It is currently sponsoring public health activities in five states —Alabama, Massachusetts, Mississippi, Oklahoma, and Tennessee. The Fund has inaugurated a program of state health studies in cooperation with the American Public Health Association.

[1] *See* Seybold, *infra cit.*

The Milbank Memorial Fund has been responsible for the first attack in the United States on the problem of healthful housing from the scientific point of view, making possible the work of the Committee on Hygiene of Housing of the American Public Health Association. In addition it supports studies on nutrition and tuberculosis. It has interested itself in the development of health centers in New York City and in the past has conducted significant health demonstrations in New York City, Syracuse, and Cattaraugus County, N. Y.

The Carnegie Corporation of New York has made an interesting contribution to health education by cooperation with the American Museum of Health in using the New York World's Fair as a means to develop the possibilities of a permanent museum of hygiene and public health.

The W. K. Kellogg Foundation has interests in many fields, with a major interest in public health. Studies to help prevent the spread of diphtheria, scarlet fever, typhoid, measles, and whooping cough are carried on in cooperation with the American Public Health Association, and the Foundation supplies funds for an annual Rural Health Conservation Contest in the United States and Canada. Chief emphasis, however, is placed upon the Michigan Community Health Project, involving plans for health service, education, and welfare in seven cooperating counties.

The National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, Julius Rosenwald Fund, Children's Fund of Michigan, Josiah Macy, Jr. Foundation, Zachary Smith Reynolds Foundation, Charles H. Hood Educational Trust, Twentieth Century Fund, and others are concerned with one or more phases of the health program. *See* FOUNDATIONS AND COMMUNITY TRUSTS.

Health Associations and Other Groups

Membership organizations, either exclusively of professional public health workers or of professionals and laymen alike, offer powerful support to national and local health programs. The largest and most influential of these are federated in the National Health Council. The American Public Health Association and the National Organization for Public Health Nursing are the ranking professional societies, their energies being directed toward the development of standards in practice and qualifications in their respective fields. The National Tuberculosis Association, American Social Hygiene Association, American Society for the Control of Cancer, National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, National Committee for Mental Hygiene, American Heart Association, American Society for the Hard of Hearing, and the Maternity Center Association are among the active members of the National Health Council. The chief effort of each is indicated by its name.

The American Red Cross, National Congress of Parents and Teachers, General Federation of Women's Clubs, Young Men's Christian Associations, Young Women's Christian Associations, American Legion, Rotary International, Kiwanis, and so forth are but a few of the many organized groups which include some phase of health among their activities. Many service clubs, lodges, labor organizations, and religious bodies appear in some manner in the public health scene. *See* CIVIC AND FRATERNAL ORGANIZATIONS.

The work of voluntary groups frequently finds local expression through community health councils designed to coordinate activities of the voluntary agencies and the official health department. Sixty-seven cities of 50,000 population or more recently reported that they endeavor to coordinate health work in their communities through a council, committee, or division of some type. The National Committee of Health Council Executives has played a leading part in this movement.

The non-official agency has a definite and important place in the public health structure. Modern public health activity has come into being largely through the stimu-

lation of independent citizen groups, both through insistence upon legislative action and through improvising machinery themselves, without official sanction or consent, to combat specific diseases and to bring to the people the benefits of medical and sanitary science. Democracy is slow in action; scientific knowledge has come like a flood in the last half century. The place of the voluntary agency is to close the gap between what a self-governing people ought to have and what they can get in health services. Their functions in health education, in demonstrating promising activities which have not yet reached the point where they can be supported by tax funds, in research, and in bridging over the lacks in the programs of the official organizations continue to be vital to the advancement of public health in the United States.

Trends in Public Health

In speaking before the 1940 annual Conference of State and Territorial Health Officers, Dr. Thomas Parran, Surgeon General of the United States Public Health Service, pointed to a significant trend and to the changing initiative for new advances in the public health. Hitherto it has been the professional groups who assumed the major burden for advancing the public health movement and for determining the content of the program. At last, Dr. Parran pointed out, the general public has become informed on such matters and is beginning to assert its views. Popular notions as to what should be done and the methods for doing the job are apt to be at variance with those of professionals accustomed to another dispensation. As yet popular opinion has not become particularly definitive in matters pertaining to individual and community health, but a clear-cut public policy is almost certain to grow out of awakening interest.

It is clear that health departments, if they wish to retain their leadership in the community, must not neglect those problems that impress the citizens as being most important. In the public mind it matters little which technic or discipline may be required for the accomplishment of a given purpose. If a particular health objective may be pursued most expeditiously through organized community effort, then its attainment becomes a public health problem. The trend is toward the expansion of tax-supported health services. The problems of the individual are in the forefront, and consequently the trend is toward tax-supported health services which include diagnosis and treatment.

Now and in the future the health officer will regard the control of communicable diseases as his first responsibility, though he must not become complacent about the basic provisions for a safe and healthful environment. He will exercise the constant vigilance that is the price of our freedom from epidemics and plagues. He will face new hazards as they come, such as the present potentialities for the re-introduction into the United States of previously conquered yellow fever carried by mosquitoes from infected areas, traveling as unwanted passengers on airplanes; and the newly recognized menace to human life from a prevalent disease of horses, encephalomyelitis. The western states have an expanding plague problem and the southern states a real typhus fever problem. Newer knowledge of tuberculosis and syphilis makes imperative the systematic application of our modern technics, while an older method like vaccination against smallpox must be promoted diligently in all states.

Recent studies in air bacteriology point hopefully to further progress in the control of respiratory diseases. Housing and problems of heating, lighting, and ventilating are areas awaiting health department cultivation. The medical aspects of public health increase from year to year. The new chemotherapy (treatment by means of chemicals or drugs directed against a parasite) opens up immense vistas for the health officer in the treatment as well as the control of pneumonia, gonorrhea, trachoma, meningitis, and

other infections. The fact that we are becoming an older nation brings the health officer to grips with the problem of degenerative diseases, for which no preventive measures *per se* exist but which call for community planning and service of a high order. Nutrition is another field of activity for the health department. Its function here promises to be not alone educational but remedial as well, bringing especially to each mother help in feeding the family. *See* CONSUMER INTERESTS.

Better-qualified personnel is demanded to cope with the special problems which are encompassed in the new public health. The need for adequately prepared and trained health workers is great now and growing, and growing with it is the recognition that higher skill requires higher financial compensation and compensation in such values as security in appointment and freedom from the old-time political domination. In answer, merit systems for public health workers are being developed, or rules and regulations which will supplement advantageously existing state civil service laws. The personnel amendments to the Social Security Act, added in 1939, will have far-reaching effect on all public health work which shares in support from federal funds.

Not at any previous period in our history have public sanctions and national consents toward expansion of public health and "constructive medicine" manifested themselves as they do at the present time. This moment in the twentieth century may some day be characterized as the period when the public health education of the past thirty or forty years "took," and when public health became public business. Health consciousness on the part of the public has long been recognized and frequently exploited by commercial organizations, as any reader of newspaper or magazine advertising knows. It is something new to have a public conviction of an inalienable right to all methods for achieving and maintaining health.

Examples of public interest in public health are so common as to go nearly unremarked. In 1937, for the first time in the history of Congress all 96 senators joined in introducing a bill: the National Cancer Act. The introduction into Congress of the National Health bill in 1939, of the Hospital Construction bill in 1940, and also in 1940 of bills pertaining to stream sanitation, health insurance, medical care of transients, special programs for respiratory diseases, tuberculosis, silicosis, cancer, and dental caries are the end results of public interest indicated in unmistakably clear tones to our legislators. Some of the examples of public concern with health which undoubtedly influenced this legislation are worth enumerating briefly:

The Medical and Public Health Building at the New York World's Fair attracted an attendance in 1939 of more than seven million persons, third highest in number of admissions to any building.

The many books on health and medicine written for a large, popular audience in the past few years.

The space given in all magazines to topics considered, not so long ago, too technical or taboo for popular treatment. In the current illustrated weeklies the indices on health compare very favorably with the number of articles on subjects always regarded in journalism as uppermost in the public mind.

The stage plays, full-length feature films, documentaries, and shorts, with health and medicine as their subjects. The March of Time alone released three during a recent twelve-month period.

The many hours of radio time, both sustaining and commercial.

These are all acknowledgments by those whose business it is to know what the public wants that an urge to understand health and medical problems exists, and that stating the problems and proposing methods for their solution are "good box office."

Indications of concern from organized consumers are not lacking. Both the American Federation of Labor and the Congress of Industrial Organizations have incorporated health planks in their platforms and

the major political parties have done the same thing.

National Defense Program

In 1940 the Health and Medical Committee of the Council of National Defense was formed. Its purpose is "to advise the Council of National Defense regarding the health and medical aspects of national defense and to coordinate health and medical activities affecting national defense." The Committee consists of the Surgeons General of the Army, Navy, and Public Health Service and two civilian members.

As this is written in late October, the Committee had reviewed the acute problems of a medical and public health nature which have already resulted from the sudden expansion of Navy yards, arms plants, and airplane factories and the concentration of military forces in areas unprepared as to housing, public utilities, and health services.

It is expected that this Committee, together with committees on national defense of the American Medical Association, American Public Health Association, American Hospital Association, and others, will serve to increase public appreciation of the importance of man-power at its best in the national defense.

Although still in its organizational stages, the Health and Medical Committee has taken steps to assist in the operation of the Selective Training and Service Act by making available the most recent information on disease prevention for the physicians engaged in the examination of recruits and in their induction into military and naval services. The special problems arising among those rejected on account of tuberculosis or the venereal diseases are receiving attention from the appropriate voluntary agencies with the aim of conserving all the values of the examinations. *See* MEN IN MILITARY SERVICE.

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Public Health Nursing

PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING[1] is a service offered by graduate registered nurses to citizens of a community, under the direction and support of a community agency maintained by official or private funds or a combination of the two. It joins with the other two branches of professional nursing service, hospital nursing and private duty nursing, in an effort to make skilled nursing care available for all persons who need it, regardless of race, color, creed, or economic status. It merges its services with those of other community health workers, social workers, industrialists, and teachers to create an environment which makes health possible. Its own peculiar individual function is to recognize health and related social problems of the family and to interprer and promote the means for meeting these needs.

The public health nurse's function is alleviative because skilled nursing care under the orders of a licensed physician is an important part of the program; and educational because every situation with which she comes in contact affords an opportunity to teach health principles. She functions as nurse and teacher in homes, in clinics, in industrial and business establishments, and in camps, colleges, and schools.

Public health nursing had its beginning in the United States in 1877 when the Women's Branch of the New York City Mission employed a graduate nurse to give skilled nursing care to the sick in their homes. Early recognition that health problems were not confined to the sick nor to the poor encouraged extension of service to the sick and well of all economic groups. As different phases of the program were developed, separate groups of nurses were employed for care for a special ailment or age group. It was soon found that it was impossible to isolate the nursing needs of individual members of a family. Therefore a generalized service—that is, one in which one nurse performs all the public health nursing functions in her district—has been found to meet the needs of the family most effectively and to avoid conflict and overlapping of service.

Today there are public health nurses wherever people work and live. Their number has steadily increased until there were 20,000 full-time nurses in 1931 and over 23,000 in 1939. The ratio of one public health nurse to 2,000 people, which has long been advocated as a minimum requirement to meet the needs of any community, has not yet been reached and would require a personnel of 65,000 nurses in the United States. Rural areas have an average ratio of one nurse to 11,000 population and cities an average of one to 5,000. And now with the goal of 65,000 barely one-third attained, a closer study of the problems leads some authorities to plead that even one nurse to 2,000 would be inadequate. With the increasing trend to extend bedside nursing to rural areas, where the distance between homes and the character of the service would of necessity reduce the case load, a larger proportion of nurses will be required. Of the 3,000 counties in the United States there are still about 780 without public health nursing service for the rural population. Fourteen cities have no public health nursing of any type.[1]

Administration and Support

Public health nursing services may be supported by voluntary funds and be administered by a board of citizens representative of the community; or they may be supported by tax funds, as an integral part of a department of health or a school system. A noteworthy sign of progress is the increase in combinations of public and private agencies with a view to economy of funds and efficiency of service.

Privately supported public health nursing agencies function under the name of visiting nurse associations, public health nursing as-

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

[1] U. S. Public Health Service, *Total Number of Public Health Nurses Employed in the United States and in the Territories of Hawaii and Alaska on January 1 of the Years 1937, 1938, and 1939.* 6 pp. 1939.

sociations, community nursing services, or similar titles. Public health nurses may also function in privately supported agencies organized for service in a special field, such as tuberculosis associations, infant welfare societies, and the like. Such services usually are local in jurisdiction. However, there may be national organizations functioning through local units, such as the American Red Cross, which is a pioneer in rural nursing and, through its disaster relief program, makes nursing service available at times of disaster and for subsequent rehabilitation. *See* DISASTER RELIEF. The Red Cross aims to prepare the way for or supplement the governmental service where public health nursing service would otherwise be inadequate.

Private agencies offering public health nursing service receive their funds through contributions (given directly or through community chests), through interest on endowments, through purchase of their service by official agencies, industries, or insurance companies, and through fees of patients who are able to pay. The charge is based on the average cost of a visit which is usually about $1.00, with a sliding scale based on the patient's ability to pay. Service is given without charge to those who cannot pay. Certain insurance companies conduct nursing services for their policyholders or pay the local public health nursing agency for visits made to policyholders under specified conditions. Some small industtial concerns purchase part-time nursing service from local public health nursing associations for health work in their plants and with their employes. Because of the increased interest now shown in the health of the worker, the Committee on Healthful Working Conditions of the National Association of Manufacturers is giving special study to this problem. Large industries employ full-time nurses for first-aid and dispensary work only or for general health supervision and instruction as well.

Public agencies employing public health nurses are of two kinds: boards or departments of education, and boards or departments of health. The work of nurses employed by boards of education is usually limited to health supervision of the school child and often is restricted to work within the school itself. In some cities and in most rural districts this function is successfully assumed by the board of health as a part of its health program for the community. State departments of public instruction may employ public health nurses who act as consultants to such local nursing services. *See* SOCIAL AND HEALTH WORK IN THE SCHOOLS.

Boards or departments of health may cover any governmental unit, such as a town, township, county, city district, or state. One federal agency, the Office of Indian Affairs, administers direct public health nursing service to the Indians. *See* INDIANS. The United States Public Health Service and the United States Children's Bureau subsidize local public health nursing service through the state departments of health. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH. The standard unit of administration of the rural department of health includes a full-time health officer, sanitarian, clerk, and public health nurse. Some units cover one county, while others cover a district composed of several counties. Such units have greatly increased both in number and in personnel under the impetus of the Social Security Act which permits the state to attack the health conditions in rural districts where there is the greatest need. The number of public health nurses increases in greater proportion than other personnel in the health unit, because of the demand for their direct service.

While funds for tax-supported agencies have increased, budgets of many private agencies have been reduced because of the recent economic depression. In many instances departments of health have extended their activities to include nursing service previously offered by the local private agencies. Nevertheless it is recognized that there is need for the voluntary agency to develop programs to meet less well-recognized needs

and to prepare the way for public support of such activities. It is heartening to see an increasing development of community health councils to study community needs and determine the contribution of the various agencies accordingly.

Increasing emphasis is being given to more active participation of lay citizens in the program of the public agency. In many official agencies nursing committees, made up of local citizens, have been developed to aid the nurse and develop support for the nursing service. The *Board Members' Manual* (*infra cit.*), prepared in 1930 by the National Organization for Public Health Nursing and revised in 1937, serves as a guide in matters of organization, policy, personnel practices, and lay administration.

Community Nursing Service

A step toward better community nursing service has been made through the appointment of the Joint Committee on Community Nursing Service of the three national nursing organizations—the American Nurses' Association, the National League of Nursing Education, and the National Organization for Public Health Nursing. Representation on this Committee includes non-professional members of civic and social groups as well as nurse members. The Committee has conducted studies of community nursing needs and resources, from which have resulted community nursing councils, representative of groups interested in nursing. These councils have helped to promote better nursing care and are beginning experiments in the better distribution of all types of nursing care through one central bureau in the community. The Committee has formulated a suggested guide for the development of such councils.[1]

In any community, persons other than graduate registered nurses are employed in the care of the sick. As a profession, nursing recognizes responsibility for safeguarding the public in the employment of this group of subsidiary workers as well as in the employment of professional nurses. The three national nursing organizations have joined together to outline suggestions for the preparation, supervision, and duties of these subsidiary workers.[1]

Consideration of and experimentation in plans for group nursing service have occurred in some communities. The National Organization for Public Health Nursing has recommended that if any state should establish an insurance system to take care of the needs of the medically needy, there should be included nursing services of a standard acceptable to the professional organization.

Personnel

Minimum qualifications for all levels of positions in public health nursing were first outlined by the National Organization for Public Health Nursing and the American Public Health Association in 1924. These have been periodically revised at five-year intervals and are used as the basis for requirements for positions in both private and official agencies. Minimum qualifications for school nurses and public health nurses working in industry and in orthopedic programs have also been formulated by the National Organization for Public Health Nursing. These qualifications were published in its official magazine, *Public Health Nursing*, for March, 1936. In addition to being a graduate of an accredited school of nursing the public health nurse should have additional study in approved postgraduate programs of study, plus supervised experience in public health nursing, before she functions without supervision or as a supervisor. There are now 26 universities offering programs of study in public health nursing which meet the standards of the Education Committee of the National Organization for Public Health Nursing.

A survey of public health nursing made in 1933 by the National Organization for Public Health Nursing showed that few public health nurses were prepared to teach and that the quality of their performance

[1] *See* Reid, *infra cit.*

[1] *See* Joint Committee, *infra cit.*

was directly affected by their preparation and the supervision and education which was available on the job. Since then a concerted effort has been made to improve performance through better preparation and more adequate supervision and staff education. The recognition of health teaching and community service as the responsibility of every nurse is shown in the recommendations of the revised *A Curriculum Guide for Schools of Nursing* published in 1937 by the National League of Nursing Education (*infra cit.*). Public health nursing agencies are cooperating in offering experiences to students in schools of nursing which will help fit them for such responsibilities.

Placemenr service and vocational counseling on a national scale were available until July 1, 1938, through the Joint Vocational Service, sponsored by the American Association of Social Workers and the National Organization for Public Health Nursing. On that date, by action of the board of directors of the National Organization for Public Health Nursing, the public health nurse placement service was transferred to Nurse Placement Service, Chicago. A second placement service for public health nurses developed in the Nursing Bureau of Manhattan and Bronx, New York City, and has been approved by the Advisory Committee on Vocational Counseling of the National Organization for Public Health Nursing. Thus the placing of public health nurses is affiliated with placement in other fields of nursing.

Personnel practices in both private and public agencies including salary ranges are reviewed annually and discussion is published in *Public Health Nursing*. In 1937 a study of personnel practices in selected official agencies was made under a special committee of the National Organization for Public Health Nursing. Recommendations regarding personnel policies appear in the report of this study[1] and in the *Board Members' Manual*. It is expected that personnel standards for public health nurses as well as for other personnel in official agencies will become more stable and uniform as a result of the requirements of Title V of the amended Social Security Act, which provide that personnel employed under certain provisions of that Title must be employed on a merit basis.

Interest in retirement plans has been stimulated as a result of the provisions for old age annuities under the Social Security Act. Nurses, by reason of the non-profit-making character of their employing organizations, are not at this time included in the governmental provision. As a result more public health agencies are considering annuity plans.

Under the Social Security Act, grants-in-aid have been given the states to carry on expanded and more intensive services for maternal and child care, for crippled children, and for the control of syphilis and gonorrhea. Many nurses working in rural areas are now supported by these funds. They find cases, assist at clinics, give nursing care, and participate in the educational programs in these fields. *See* CRIPPLED CHILDREN, MATERNAL AND CHILD HEALTH, and SOCIAL HYGIENE.

Nursing care at time of confinement has long been a neglected service, especially in rural districts where hospitals and nurses are few and distant. Some 50 delivery nursing services have been developed under the provision of the Social Security Act. Even though it may be necessary for some time for certain aspects of these services to be rendered by especially prepared nurses, effort is made to integrate them into the generalized family health service. Specialized consultant nurses from the United States Public Health Service, the United States Children's Bureau, and the state departments of health aid the local nurses in developing these special phases of their programs.

Stipends for postgraduate study in these fields have been provided through social security funds. The National Organization for Public Health Nursing in 1935 formed

[1] *See* Randall, *infra cit.*

a Council on Maternity and Child Health and in 1936 on Orthopedic Nursing, made up of medical and nursing experts to assist in setting standards for public health nursing in these fields. This group and the National League of Nursing Education, in close cooperation with the federal agencies, have joined to set standards for and promote the development of postgraduate courses in maternity and orthopedic nursing. A grant from the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis has made it possible to have specialized consultant service in this field in the National Organization for Public Health Nursing. Still, there are too few prepared nurses for these fields and far from adequate facilities for preparation are available. The opportunities for preparation for the control of syphilis and gonorrhea are still less adequate.

The National Organization for Public Health Nursing was organized in 1912. It is an organization made up of over 10,000 citizens and nurses engaged in providing public health nursing service in communities all over the United States. It includes also in its membership 351 agencies administering such services. This organization promotes public health nursing activities, serves as a standard-making body in policies and practices of public health nursing, and interprets public health nursing to national, state, and local groups and to the general public. The potentialities of the public health nurse for service in allied fields is being recognized as the National Organization for Public Health Nursing studies and defines her function in relation to housing, safety, nutrition, social work, physical therapy, and industrial hygiene. A study is now under way to review and extend the preparation which the nurse needs to meet her rapidly developing functions in the public health program.

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PUBLIC WELFARE.[1] Constantly expanding activities in the field of public welfare, and the broad political connotations which the term "public welfare" itself carries, create increasing difficulties in delimiting the scope of the field and designating a specific meaning to the term. The problem of defining the field is further complicated by the fact that functions of public welfare agencies differ at all three levels of government —federal, state, and local—and vary widely between any two types of agencies at the same level.

For the purpose of this article the term "public welfare" refers to the public, tax-supported social security and welfare programs now in force in this country as functions of federal, state, and local governments. Within its meaning are included all governmental activities for the prevention and alleviation of suffering resulting from dependency, neglect, delinquency, crime, disease, and physical or mental handicaps. Various types of public aid, including general relief, unemployment relief—both direct and work relief—disaster relief, and financial assistance to such individuals as needy old people, dependent children, and the needy blind, also fall within the field of public welfare activities. In addition to the programs above listed these activities include various welfare and health programs with specific emphasis on those providing welfare services for special groups—such as underprivileged children, the physically and mentally handicapped, and the delinquent—and maintenance of institutions for the necessary care of some of the individuals comprising these and similar groups. Significant of the scope of these activities is the fact that the institutional programs frequently call for cooperation in correctional and prison activities, while other phases of the work are closely related to measures for social insurance and social planning.

General relief and institutional care have long been recognized as belonging to the field of public welfare. In more recent years emphasis has been placed upon the obligation for, and advantages to the community of, adopting constructive and preventive measures characterized by such programs as those for rehabilitation and for prevention of the causes of dependency. As a result, progressive steps in public welfare measures have developed simultaneously on a number of fronts. In general these are evidenced by the wide scope and importance of the welfare funcrions assumed by all levels of government, the greatly increased number of individuals served by the various programs, and the increasing emphasis being placed upon the cooperative relationship participated in by the various government levels. In terms of the amount of tax money devoted to public social work and the number of people served, the extension of aid given through public welfare measures has been startling.

Developments Prior to 1930

A full appreciation of the tremendous advance made in the general concept and development of public welfare activities in this country can best be gained by examining the early relief measures and tracing the development of social security and welfare provisions up to the present time. This historical development can be broken down roughly into two major phases—the slow evolution of social legislation prior to the depression beginning in 1930, and the rapid extension of governmental activities in this field

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

brought about by conditions characterizing the depression period.

American public welfare has its roots in the Elizabethan poor laws to which the first colonies fell heir. These laws were the basis of early "poor" or "pauper" laws in the colonies in this country. The statutes invariably included three major factors which still enter into many state laws—local responsibility for care of dependents, restriction of aid to those having legal residence, and denial of aid where a family member could be held legally responsible.

In the early years of our national life, care of the dependent and unfortunate members of society was left to the small communities —either the town or county governments. These small units of government were called upon to care for, as best they could, the feebleminded, insane, delinquent, physically handicapped, and dependent. Later the states —realizing the inability of the local communities to deal with these problems—provided state institutions for large groups of those needing special care. Despite this trend many persons continued to be cared for in improvised local almshouses, jails, and other local institutions unsuited to the purpose. Even after the states accepted a portion of responsibility for aiding needy individuals and established state institutions for care of the destitute and dependent, the aid given left the victims in a sad plight.

As first organized, each state institution was an independent authority with its own board of managers, responsible to the governor, and directly dependent upon appeal to the state legislature for appropriations. At this stage there was no attempt on the part of the states to integrate the functions under the various local programs for institutional care. But by the middle of the nineteenth century both state and private institutions had grown to such proportions that there was recognition of the need for some state supervisory regulations to maintain adequate standards. To meet this need the first state supervisory agencies for public welfare were created in the 1860's. The first of these was a board of state charities established by Massachusetts in 1863. This was followed by the establishment of similar agencies in Ohio, New York, Illinois, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island in the 1860's, and in other states in the following years. These first boards had visitorial and inspectional powers, and very limited supervisory powers which nearly always proved inadequate. As a result, many of the states came to establish boards of control with extended administrative powers over the state institutions.

The principal development through the next few decades was experimentation with different types of state agencies, looking toward more practical governmental methods of caring for the various types of dependents. The general tendency was in the direction of increasing the scope of activities and powers of the state agencies. After the beginning of this century many of these agencies were given the responsibility of supervision of private institutions, as well as state institutions, and in some states their functions were extended to include stimulation and supervision of local social welfare activities.

Increased acceleration in development of extended activities and closer integration with local units within the state public welfare departments began in 1917. About this time the term "public welfare" was coming into use where formerly "charity" or "corrections" had been applied. There were other indications of a change in the general attitude toward care and aid provided by public means for the destitute and helpless. County public welfare agencies were developed in several states, sometimes as a result of mandatory legislation, sometimes by a combination of permissive legislation with stimulation provided by state agency activities. In some states these agencies were established without any statutory basis at the state level.

During the first decade of the twentieth century the ground work had been laid for a more ambitious program of public assist-

ance involving financial aid to certain groups living in their own homes. By the end of 1928 six states and one territory had made provision for such aid to their aged, with laws of the optional type, leaving the adoption of the system to the discretion of the counties. From then on the movement was fairly rapid with many states passing old age assistance laws which incorporated a change from the optional to the mandatory type. Some of these statutes provided for the state itself to share in the financing of the program. By the end of 1934 twenty-eight states and two territories had passed old age assistance laws.

Aid to dependent children, then generally known as mothers' aid, mothers' pensions, and mothers' assistance, developed during this same period. The purpose of this legislation has been to make it possible for needy children to live with their own families and to enable the mother to stay at home to care for her family, instead of placing such children in institutions or in foster homes. By the end of 1934 legislative authorization for public aid to mothers with dependent children had been provided by all the states except Alabama, Georgia, and South Carolina. Generally the county was the local unit responsible for granting aid to the individual, with the state agency supervising administration in many of the states.

During this period the states developed resources for caring for dependent and neglected children in institutions and in foster homes, for protecting illegitimate children, and for assisting the handicapped. Aid to the blind was also developing during these years. As of August 1, 1935, twenty-seven states had laws providing for cash payments to the blind.

A conception of how great was the expansion of public welfare activities during the second period can best be gained if the statutory position of public relief in 1929, just prior to the depression, is briefly summarized. Old age assistance was on the statute books of only 10 states; blind assistance had been enacted in 22 states; all but 5 states had provisions for aid to dependent children in their own homes; and 47 states had laws making possible the care of dependent children in foster homes. It is true that these laws signified progress in measures for aiding the needy. But in most states the laws were not implemented with funds to any degree commensurate with the need, and in some states the laws had not been put into operation.

Certainly existing provisions were grossly inadequate to meet the coming problem of widespread unemployment. The basic form of relief was still that given under the state poor laws which had not been modernized to meet changed conditions. Generally speaking, relief was still considered a local responsibility and only scattered suggestions had been made that federal assistance was either needed or desirable.

Developments During Depression Period

The second large period of development in public welfare—the depression period—had as its chief distinguishing characteristic the entrance of the federal government into a field which traditionally had been considered primarily the responsibility of local communities, and for which the states had begun to accept only a limited degree of responsibility. Before the impact of the depression had begun to subside, more changes had occurred in a few short years in the field of public welfare than had occurred in the three centuries since the first English colonization in the United States.

The growing realization of need for a national public welfare program was given sudden impetus by the quick plunge into depression conditions. It was soon recognized that the capacity of the states and local communities to furnish aid for the destitute was hopelessly inadequate. The rapid expansion of social legislation during this period stems from measures adopted by the federal government for relief of the overwhelming numbers left stranded by the economic de-

pression and measures to prevent recurrence of such widespread destitution.

Early federal participation in the relief problem was provided through the Emergency Relief and Construction Act of 1932 and administered by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation. The first federal funds for relief were made available to the state emergency relief administrations and were on the basis of loans to the states. However in March, 1933, the Federal Emergency Relief Administration was set up to provide federal aid by means of grants to the states for relief of the unemployed. The Federal Surplus Commodities Corporation was incorporated in October of the same year. With these first steps taken toward federal participation, new developments rapidly emerged. As early as April, 1933, the Civilian Conservation Corps was organized to provide employment for young men, preferably from needy families, and to carry on a program of conservation. *See* Civilian Conservation Corps in YOUTH PROGRAMS. From November, 1933, to March, 1934, employment was provided for about 4,000,000 persons through the Civil Works Administration. This program was short-lived and was succeeded by the emergency work relief program organized as a regular part of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration activities.

This succession of developments on the federal level had important results in the states. Under state measures, administrative machinery was strengthened with the county emerging as the important local unit. Emergency relief legislation crowded the state statute books, and the personnel of state and local welfare agencies increased to an unprecedented size. This rapid growth naturally resulted in some states in a confusion of loosely worded statutes, hastily constructed organization, and the recruiting of inadequately equipped personnel. In other states the reverse of this situation was the case; welfare administration and organization were improved as a result of the emergency.

In 1935 the federal emergency program was supplanted by one having a more permanent character. In January of that year the federal government ceased granting funds to the states for direct relief and as a substitute established a program of work relief for "employables" under the federal Works Progress Administration. In the following month the National Youth Administration was established within the Works Progress Administration to deal with special problems of youth. *See* National Youth Administration in YOUTH PROGRAMS.

Federal participation since that time has been twofold: a work program for employables under the Works Progress Administration and the National Youth Administration; and a permanent system of federal grants to states for assistance to and services for certain groups of unemployables under the various programs included in the Social Security Act. This Act, passed in 1935, was an omnibus measure providing a federal system of old age insurance and enabling the states to participate in federally aided programs of unemployment compensation, old age assistance, aid to the needy blind, aid to dependent children, child welfare services, crippled children's services, maternal and child health services, vocational rehabilitation, and public health work. The assistance programs for the aged, blind, and dependent children represented a declaration of federal policy of continuing participation in assistance to some groups of needy persons considered unemployable. *See* AID TO DEPENDENT CHILDREN, BLINDNESS AND CONSERVATION OF SIGHT, CHILD WELFARE, CRIPPLED CHILDREN, MATERNAL AND CHILD HEALTH, OLD AGE AND SURVIVORS' INSURANCE, OLD AGE ASSISTANCE, PUBLIC ASSISTANCE, PUBLIC HEALTH, UNEMPLOYMENT COMPENSATION, and VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION.

Recent National Developments

From 1935 to 1939 the federal programs for public welfare services were carried on through the agencies mentioned above. In

1939 there were several important revisions within the federal government. Early in the year most of the federal agencies concerned with public welfare were consolidated in a new organization called the Federal Security Agency. This organization is comprised of the Social Security Board; the Public Health Service, formerly under the Treasury Department; the Office of Education, formerly under the Department of the Interior; the Civilian Conservation Corps; and the National Youth Administration, formerly under the Works Progress Administration. The reorganization plan also affected the administration of the United States Employment Service which was transferred to the Social Security Board for integration with the Board's unemployment compensation functions. The Works Progress Administration was made a part of the new Federal Works Agency. *See* FEDERAL AGENCIES IN SOCIAL WORK.

Later in the year came two congressional acts which will have a profound effect upon the operation of public welfare programs throughout the country. The first was the revision of the federal work program. The name of the Works Progress Administration was changed to the Work Projects Administration and appropriations for its activities were drastically cut. This change in federal policy had considerable impact on local organizations responsible for general relief in that they found an increase in applications for such relief with no increase of the funds available. *See* WORK RELIEF.

Another action taken by Congress in 1939 held promise for increased security for the people through amendments to the Social Security Act liberalizing its various features. As a result of these amendments the maximum federal reimbursement on individual grants for old age assistance and aid to the needy blind was raised from $15 to $20 per month; the federal share of the cost of aid to dependent children was raised from one-third to one-half with the maximum age limit raised from sixteen to eighteen years, provided the dependent child being aided is regularly attending school; increased federal funds were made available for maternal and child health services, crippled children's services, vocational rehabilitation, and public health services.

The old age insurance provisions of the Act were also considerably liberalized. The effective date for beginning payment of monthly benefits was advanced to January 1, 1940. The wage base for computing benefits was changed from total accumulated wages to average monthly wages, thus providing larger benefits to those retiring in the early years of the system. Wages earned after age sixty-five are now credited toward benefits, so that those who have already attained that age may still qualify for benefits. Insurance protection was extended to aged wives and dependent children of retired workers and to surviving families of insured workers. In addition, coverage of the system was extended to include maritime workers and employes of certain banking institutions. The unemployment compensation provisions of the Act were also amended to bring the coverage of the unemployment compensation system more nearly into conformity with that of the old age and survivors' insurance program.

Another far-reaching amendment was that relating to personnel administration in state and local public assistance agencies. The original Act specifically exempted personnel from any federal control of standards by providing that a state plan must "provide such methods of administration (other than those relating to selection, tenure of office, and compensation of personnel) as are found by the Board to be necessary for the efficient operation of the plan." The amended form provides for "such methods of administration (including after January 1, 1940, methods relating to the establishment and maintenance of personnel standards on a merit basis, except that the Board shall exercise no authority with respect to the selection, tenure of office, and compensation of any individual employed in accordance with such methods) as are found by

the Board to be necessary for the proper and efficient operation of the plan." This change is particularly far-reaching as it affects plans for the administration of old age assistance, aid to the needy blind, aid to dependent children, maternal and child health services, and services for crippled children, and for the administration of unemployment compensation in the states. It will result in the operation of some sort of merit system in every county in the country. *See* PERSONNEL PRACTICES IN PUBLIC WELFARE.

The year 1939 also saw the inauguration, on an experimental basis, of a new plan for the distribution of surplus commodities. Under the first plan the Federal Surplus Commodities Corporation (now the Surplus Marketing Administration, United States Department of Agriculture) purchased certain commodities when prices fell so low as to indicate that there was a surplus. These commodities were then delivered to distribution depots maintained by state and local public welfare agencies. Recipients of various types of public assistance were then certified as eligible to receive surplus commodities, and the commodities were either called for by, or delivered to, the eligible persons. Under the new plan, generally known as the "stamp plan," the surplus commodities are handled through the regular channels of trade. Eligible persons are allowed to purchase, from their assistance grants or their work earnings, orange stamps which may be used to make any food purchases. For each two dollars' worth of orange stamps a person buys, he receives free one dollar's worth of blue stamps. The blue stamps may be used only for the purchase of surplus commodities. Both blue and orange stamps are redeemable by both wholesale and retail grocers at the local banks.

The stamp plan has the advantage of allowing more freedom of choice to the client in the selection of surplus food stuffs, while making it possible for both wholesaler and retailer to realize a profit on the transaction. Its drawbacks are chiefly that it is more expensive than the old plan, and that it is open to abuse by local grocers. Their full cooperation is essential. It has also been reported that in some communities the much publicized "stamp plan" has resulted in a reduction of the regular food allowances in family relief budgets, the supposition being that the value of the surplus commodities should be considered a part of the food allowance. This, of course, would nullify the whole purpose of the plan, which is to increase the consumption of food products. At the end of 1939, however, the advantages of the stamp plan seemed to outweigh its disadvantages. Early in 1940 this plan was in operation in approximately 100 cities.

Extension of the stamp plan to purchases of cotton goods, as a means of expanding domestic cotton consumption and reducing the cotton surplus, has been under active consideration ever since the plan was first applied to surplus food products. Application of the stamp plan to purchases of surplus cotton goods was initiated in 1940 in two communities, but by June of that year the plan had not been adopted by any other localities.

The activity of the federal Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities, and the several bills which have been presented to Congress on the subject of national health and medical care, indicate another direction in which public welfare may expand. Whether future action on these bills places the function of medical care for the needy or low-wage groups in the public welfare or health agencies, there will be a field where relationships must be worked out. And in any case it will mean that new or improved services will find their way into the public welfare activities. *See* MEDICAL CARE.

Through 1939 and early 1940 groups of individuals were at work on reports for the 1940 White House Conference on Children in a Democracy. The Conference discussed every phase of social welfare as it affects the

child under such topics as the family, housing, education, leisure time, social service, health, youth opportunities, religion, and so forth. The final report contains 98 recommendations which grew out of the experience and judgment of consultants and members of the various committees totaling well over 600 individuals. Far-reaching results should be felt in the children's services and programs in many public agencies. *See* WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCES.

Recent State and Local Developments

In 1939 there were also a number of important meetings of state legislatures—44 regular sessions and 2 extraordinary sessions. A review of enactments emerging from the heterogeneous mass of welfare proposals introduced in these sessions reveals one fact above all others: that the federally aided public assistance programs are enjoying a more or less orderly state development, whereas in the field of general relief shifting federal policy has rendered state planning virtually impossible and made state programs a continuous process of difficult readjustments.

Other aspects of state welfare legislation offer some encouragement. Fields showing the greatest activity were public assistance and unemployment compensation. In the first the great preponderance of activity was in old age assistance, where the general trend was toward restricting assistance so as to make it apply only to the needy, and raising standards of adequacy by attempting to obtain more federal money. Enactments in the other categorical assistances were few, yet liberal in their provisions—especially in the field of aid to dependent children, where trends toward a higher age limit and larger grants were plainly noticeable. Changes in organizational structure have also, generally speaking, been on the constructive side. Eleven states established new welfare departments; and three other states made substantial changes in the administrative set-up by splitting existing departments into two agencies.[1] In unemployment compensation there was a marked trend toward simplification.

Just as the development of emergency programs on the federal level had important and far-reaching effects in state and local public welfare activities, the more recent changes of a permanent character have been correspondingly reflected in the other levels of government. In the states, important and significant modifications have continually been made in public welfare legislation. The great number of bills passed in the states pertaining to finance indicate that the financial problem is still basic to the field of public welfare. The number of states which provide for the financing of public assistance and relief programs from general, rather than earmarked funds, however, gives evidence of the acceptance of these functions as a continuing responsibility of state government. *See* FINANCING PUBLIC SOCIAL WORK.

In spite of the problems involved in obtaining sufficient funds to support a public program of social welfare activity, the states have continued to broaden and liberalize public assistance programs, particularly for special groups of dependents such as the needy aged, needy blind, and dependent children. It is well to note in connection with the liberalization of public assistance programs, particularly for the needy aged, that changes have been reasonable and none of the extravagant pension schemes—such as the "$30-every-Thursday" plan—has been passed.

The work of the Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities has been reflected in increased state legislative interest in the problems of medical care. In 1939 Maine, New Mexico, and Rhode Island passed legislation permitting the incorporation of non-profit hospital insurance plans. New York State continued to study the problem of medical

[1] For a list of state welfare departments, with their bureaus or other administrative divisions related to social work, see STATE AGENCIES—PUBLIC in Part Two.

care in the state. Many states had bills in preparation in the event that the Wagner Health bill were passed by Congress.

In the field of administrative organization in state and local agencies, perhaps the most important recent development in public welfare has been the previously mentioned amendment to the Social Security Act requiring merit standards for personnel. There is general agreement among the states of the desirability and basic necessity for sound and effective state merit systems for selection and management of personnel in agencies administering the various programs under the Social Security Act. Successful operation of merit systems in the state and local communities under this recent amendment will requite the finest type of cooperation between federal, state, and local governments if its full potentialities are to be realized. Before this merit program can operate to its best advantage, however, certain practical difficulties in the states must be surmounted. In some states, constitutional and statutory limitations upon state powers and budget inadequacies may constitute handicaps.

There has been evidence in the states of continuing concern with the administrative organization of their public welfare programs. New state departments have been established or substantial changes made in existing agencies during 1939 and 1940 in Idaho, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, Oregon, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Texas, Washington, and Wisconsin. Other states have made organizational changes of minor importance.

The Problem of General Relief

From the time the federal government withdrew from the field of general relief under the old Federal Emergency Relief Administration program the problem of providing for the so-called "unemployables" has been a pressing one in the states, and particularly in local communities. In 1939 this problem was aggravated by the drastic cut in Work Projects Administration appropriations. As a result of this federal policy many persons meeting the eligibility requirements for aid under the Work Projects Administration have been thrown back on the general relief rolls, and responsibility for support of these people has fallen in some instances to the state; in others, as a shared responsibility, to state and local governments; and in still others, entirely upon the local community. Also as a result of this federal policy the states and local communities extended certain programs of work-for-relief as a substitute, in some instances, to a general relief program and in others as a means of making some provision for employables left jobless.

It should be recalled in any discussion of the growing pressure of this general relief problem that national policy in 1935 contemplated provision for all the needy employables who were unemployed through the federal work program. This goal has been reached in only a few instances, and a certain number of persons on the general relief rolls during the entire period since 1935 have come from the "employable" group who have not been placed on work projects supported in part by the federal government. In this field there has been considerable confusion on all three levels of government with a notable lack of coordination on the several levels. It seems clear, after the experiences of the past ten years, that the combined resources and capacities of the federal, state, and local governments must be applied and correlated in a continuing program of general relief.

Local public welfare administrators, more than anyone else, have seen a pressing need for stabilization of the general relief program. At a meeting of the American Public Welfare Association in Washington in 1939, more than 100 local administrators requested the appointment of a national commission similar to the British Royal Commissions to conduct an inquiry into the whole problem of general public welfare. Similar suggestions for a national inquiry

into the problems of public assistance and relief have come from other sources. Late in 1939 a technical study looking toward long-range plans for organizing both direct relief and work relief programs was begun by the National Resources Planning Board. Studies on particularized phases of these problems are being conducted by other organizations. Among these are the activities carried on by a staff affiliated with several universities and coordinated by the Brookings Institution in Washington. The Social Science Research Council, through its committees on social security and public administration, is also adding its efforts toward obtaining essential data on the precise nature of the problems of dependency.

Of these studies the one creating the most widespread general interest is that of the National Resources Planning Board. The committee in charge is directing its inquiry to (a) an analysis of the unemployed—their number and the types they represent—to determine the scope of the underlying problem; (b) an evaluation of work relief, as contrasted with direct relief, in terms of costs—both monetary and human—with a view to determining the broad principles by which long-time programs, utilizing one or the other or both methods, should be guided; (c) an evaluation of the responsibilities of various levels of government in terms of capacity, areas within which each can best function, and administrative pattern; and (d) determination as to whether public welfare administration should be concerned only with providing relief for persons in need or whether preventive and rehabilitative responsibilities are an inherent part of the problem.

The feeling is growing that there is room for more of this kind of governmental research and planning as an adjunct to our programs for public welfare. Moreover, through the 48 states there is ample opportunity for making relatively small-scale experiments in this field of governmental service. As a result of these fact-finding and experimental activities a third period in the history of public welfare in America may emerge, leading to the establishment of permanent programs of social welfare activities based on known need and a knowledge of what constitutes a rational division of responsibility between federal, state, and local governments in their operation of these programs.

Organization of Public Welfare Agencies

Although the picture of public welfare administration may appear to be confused, a fairly consistent pattern of organization for these activities is gradually evolving. Certain problems of organization persist, however, and the problem of how many functions should be brought together in one agency—how far the process of integration should be carried—still remains unsolved. It is apparent, also, that another major problem of administrative organization of welfare activities is found in how best to distribute welfare functions between different levels of government; that is, the problem of centralization versus decentralization arises. Accompanying these major questions of organization are the many complicated administrative problems involved in deciding the general type of agency or agencies to be established and the complicated problems relating to interdepartmental structure. Many of these problems will continue to exist regardless of the over-all pattern which is evolving in public welfare activities, since they are problems involved in the dynamic process of agency operation. New and better ways of operation will undoubtedly be found, but they in turn will be subject to change and improvement.

Many of the problems of integration—the bringing together of related functions into one organization on one level of government in an ordered relationship—are being worked out in the state and local communities where the trend has been to place all public welfare functions under a single agency. On the federal level this has been partially accomplished through the recent

reorganization of public welfare activities under the Federal Security Agency. The purpose of integration is to prevent over-multiplication of administrative agencies that lack correlation in their services by substituting a well-balanced mechanism, the parts of which relate to each other in smooth operation.

The process of centralization always involves the transfer of certain functions from a lower to a higher level. In the evolution of the administrative structure in the field of public welfare this trend has been followed paralleling the assumption of increased responsibility, first, by state governments, and second, by the national government. Until the nineteenth century, as we have seen, nearly all public welfare functions in the United States were local. During the century, state institutions were provided to care for special classes such as the insane, feebleminded, blind, deaf, orphan children, and criminals. As the necessity arose, the states established agencies to supervise these institutions and local public welfare services. Later, administrative functions were added to these agencies or new agencies established with administrative powers. During the depression there was a rapid trend toward centralization of welfare activities under the Federal Emergency Relief Administration. With the withdrawal of the federal government from the general relief picture the reverse process of decentralization took place.

The administrative structures of welfare agencies may be classified, on the basis of the highest administrative authority in the organization, into three main types: (1) Those administered by a single administrative officer appointed by the chief executive, whether national, state, or local. In some cases there is associated with him an advisory board. (2) Those under the control of an appointed board, which in turn appoints an administrator responsible to the board for administration of the agency. (3) Those having a salaried full-time board of three to five members which serves as a multiple executive.

The first form is rather common in the federal government. The Federal Security Agency, Federal Works Agency, and Federal Loan Agency are all of this type. This form is also common among the states that have reorganized their welfare functions under a relatively small number of comprehensive departments. The second form, the appointed board, is not used much in the federal government, but is common on both the state and local levels. The third form has been more widely used in the past than at present. Iowa, Kansas, and Nebraska still have this form of administration with salaried full-time boards. Where county commissioners themselves serve as welfare boards controlling the administration of local welfare functions, the form of organization is similar.

All of the states have statutory provision for some type or types of state-wide public welfare agencies, and the majority have statutory provision for local departments related to the state agency. On both the state and local level there is great variation in the organizational structure, the extent to which functions are integrated, the scope of the functions undertaken by the state or local government, and the relative importance of welfare as a function of government.

The pace of the states' integration of their welfare functions into single comprehensive departments has been accelerated in recent years. Beginning in 1917 this trend has advanced steadily except for the counter movement to establish separate agencies for unemployment relief in 1930–1933. Recently the states have been concerned with integrating the functions of administering relief and social security measures with those of the older state and local agencies. In a large number of states a single welfare department has been established, with the department responsible for a broad general program of public welfare, including the administration of state institutions.

Relationship of Different Governmental Levels

With the rapid expansion in welfare activities and the entrance of the federal government into this field, many problems have arisen in developing cooperative relationships among the three levels of government. Entering into these problems are such factors as the degree of financial participation, standards for administrative procedures and selection of personnel, and reporting procedures. Where a welfare program is financed entirely at one level of government, as in the case of state institutional care or local poor relief, these problems are at a minimum. Where two or more levels of government participate in financing a program the degree of supervision by the higher branches of government which will result in the greatest efficiency must be determined, and adjustments must be made as the need for them is recognized.

In states with federally approved plans the public welfare functions stimulated by the Social Security Act are financed cooperatively either by the federal and state governments, or by the federal, state, and local governments. The Act authorized grants to the states for assistance to the aged, the blind, and dependent children. The states, in turn, may either assume responsibility for the remainder of the cost of these services or may require the county or municipal governments to pay a part of it. The latter is the usual procedure. Federal grants for child welfare services, crippled children's services, and maternal and child health services are authorized by the United States Children's Bureau in much the same way, although the amounts of the grants are differently determined. In the work program the federal government shares the cost of each project with either a state or local government. Vocational rehabilitation is handled by the states and the federal government on a grant-in-aid basis.

With the system of grants-in-aid there is necessarily a certain amount of supervision. Under the Social Security Act the federal supervisory agencies must see that the various activities are being efficiently administered by the states. Otherwise grants must, under the law, be withheld. State supervision varies considerably in different parts of the country. In connection with some programs, it accompanies grants-in-aid to the localities; in connection with others, the fact that the state has delegated power to the counties justifies its supervision of their activities. In some states, state agencies may appoint county directors of public welfare; in others the state supervisory function is limited to mere reception of reports.

Closely allied with the problem of supervision is that of establishment of adequate standards for both assistance and administration. In those states where the legislators have turned the full relief burden back to the local communities, standards of aid are generally lower than in comparable sections of the country where state aid has been continued. State participation and supervision have resulted in more adequate assistance, as the state governments have been able to insist upon certain minimum local standards.

A recent development to facilitate the solution of problems of relationship involved between states and the state and federal governments was the organization of the National Council of State Public Assistance and Welfare Administtators as a section of the American Public Welfare Association. Partly through conferences and partly through the medium of a monthly newsletter, it is hoped that the Council will serve as a clearing point for opinion and experience among administrators in the public welfare field.

National Defense Program

The need for special services in connection with the national defense program is expected to result in an expansion of the activities of public welfare departments. Regulations issued pursuant to the Selective Training and Service Act of 1940 provide for discretionary consultation by the local

Public Welfare

Selective Service Boards with state and local public welfare departments on policy matters relating to the deferment of registrants on the grounds of dependency. Furthermore, the Boards may ask the assistance of public welfare departments in investigations of fact relating to dependency in individual cases. In such cases, however, full authority and responsibility for decisions will rest with the Selective Service Boards.

While by late October no definite plans had been worked out for allotments of pay and for allowances to dependents of service men, it was anticipated that Congress would undoubtedly enact legislation establishing such plans in the near future. It seemed probable that either the Federal Security Agency or the Veterans Bureau would be made responsible for the new services when established. Regardless of where the authority will rest in the federal government, there will unquestionably be many calls upon the local welfare departments for aid. Services will also be sought of agencies in localities adjacent to the army camps and to new industrial concentrations devoted to defense production. It is assumed that the principle of operation through existing agencies, some of them expanded for the occasion, will prevail in any new program.

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FRED K. HOEHLER

PUBLICITY AND INTERPRETATION IN SOCIAL WORK.[1] The informational side of social work so far lacks a generally accepted title or terminology. The terms "publicity," "interpretation," and "public information" are used along with many others, especially "public relations," "public education," and "public reporting." The Community Service Society of New York maintains a Department of Public Interest whose functions include fund raising, publicity, maintenance of a volunteer bureau, exchange of information among members of its large staff, inter-agency interpretation, and response to requests of the public for information. "Public Interest" is an appropriate and understandable name for this department, as its duties illustrate typical forms of public interest in social work. These are mainly financial support, volunteer service, cooperative relations with the employed staff, and use of the agency's services. As conceived of here, the public extends into the heart of the organization and includes the members of the staff itself in so far as their relations to each other and their understanding of the agency's policies affect outside relations.

Inrerpretation, publicity, and public information are important devices, although not the only ones used in maintaining and serving the public interest in social work. These terms often are used interchangeably; a speaker or writer chooses whichever he happens to prefer. In practice, however, each gradually is acquiring a usage of its own which distinguishes it from the others. Thus, social workers use the word "interpretation" in describing their own efforts to improve their public relations and explain their work to an inner circle. "Publicity" is broadly inclusive of interpretation, information, and appeals, and usually is presented through channels whose use calls for special skills. In social work, publicity most often is used in promoting financial support. "Public information" is becoming an accepted term in public social work, and workers in this field are known (in the federal government especially) as public information specialists. The same techniques are employed as in publicity. Public information is limited for the most part, however, to reporting to taxpayers and explaining government services to those who might benefit by them or who, under the laws creating these services, have obligations to fulfill.

Social Workers as Interpreters

Leaders in social work now are placing increasing emphasis on interpretation as part of the social workers' daily tasks. This results partly from the rapid expansion of public welfare programs during the 1930's, which brought the social services into a close relationship with large numbers of politically appointed administrators, hastily trained or untrained investigators, members of advisory and administrative boards of public agencies, clients—many from the ranks of business and the professions—and friends of these clients. Many of those affected scarcely had been aware of social work. In their daily relations with this new public, social workers found that many persons whose cooperation they needed either failed to understand their methods and objectives or regarded them as unreasonable or undesirable.

During this period, too, the young profession of social work has been adapting fairly new techniques to rapidly changing

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

conditions. This situation greatly hampers interpreters because policies and goals are none too clearly defined and cannot be set forth in clear and positive terms. The rapid development of methods and skills in social work may be responsible in part for its hastily assembled glossary of technical words —some of them familiar words used in a sense unfamiliar to the public; others so broad and vague as to confuse professionals as well as outsiders. Although the social worker may try to omit technical phraseology from conversation with laymen, he has come to use it naturally and unconsciously.

Despite these handicaps, social workers possess many assets as interpreters. Conversation as an effective device for interpretation is one with which they are familiar. Again, social workers meet many individuals from all walks of life, and these contacts afford excellent opportunities to spread understanding widely. As a rule social workers do not accept responsibility for informing a broad public. Their public usually includes the board and committee members of their agencies, fellow-workers—both professional and volunteer—and individual community leaders. In addition to conversation, methods used include meetings, annual reports, and occasional bulletins.

Some chapters of the American Association of Social Workers have appointed committees on interpretation to encourage and help members become more effective interpreters. Several case work agencies have arranged informal study courses for staff members under the leadership of a specialist in publicity or interpretation. State, regional, and national conferences frequently include institutes on interpretation. In a number of cities publicity councils or the interpretation committees of councils of social agencies promote study courses, institutes, and other projects directed toward increasing the skill of social workers in this area.

It seems clear that rapid and sweeping change in social problems and methods of dealing with them will continue for some time. It is questionable whether social workers carrying a full load in their daily work can, by their own unaided efforts, cope with the amount of interpreting which will be needed. Some social agencies are training staff social workers who seem to have an aptitude in this direction to act as specialists in interpretation. Such an assignment is especially desirable in coordinating the efforts of staff interpretation with a broader program of publicity carried on by a separate department within the agency or by the community chest or council of which it may be a member. Another function of this representative might well be to help keep the staff sensitive to the currents of opinion affecting public attitudes toward their clients and the agency.

Publicity

Publicity for social work in local communities has developed chiefly as an adjunct to fund raising. The trend in fund raising for private social work during the past twenty years has been toward a steady widening of the base of support. *See* FINANCING PRIVATE SOCIAL WORK. As the number of givers increases, the need for publicity grows. The contributors to a community fund represent varied economic, social, and intellectual levels. *See* COMMUNITY CHESTS.

In their publicity programs, fund raisers utilize the generally accepted and popular methods of public communication, including newspapers, booklets, photographs, movies, plays, broadcasts, speaking engagements, and meetings. During the period of intensive campaign publicity the content usually is held close to the average person's understanding of helplessness and suffering, and his tendency to sympathize readily with the traditionally dependent groups, namely children, old people, and the physically handicapped. Campaign publicity avoids controversial issues on which the public is likely to be divided.

In most cities campaign publicity is the most exrensive and the most conspicuous of any carried on for social work. Thus it has become synonymous with publicity in the

minds of many persons who know it only as it expresses itself in these broad appeals to the giving public. No inherent reason exists why the content of publicity should not probe more deeply into social problems even when it is addressed to prospective supporters. And now that the community fund movement has settled down into a familiar and accepted pattern, its publicity is moving away from the very simple and highly emotional appeals of the earlier days to an increased educational and informational content.

This is especially true of publicity programs dissociated from the direct appeal of the campaign and conducted throughout the year. The "year-round publicity," as it is called, tells the public some of the complex human problems with which social agencies deal. This information is conveyed in feature articles in newspapers, radio forums or dramatizations, organized tours to social agencies, and other ways. Councils of social agencies frequently take the leadership in these year-round programs. *See* COUNCILS IN SOCIAL WORK. Especially effective are publicity projects in which the general public is divided into smaller groups, with publicity adapted to their particular interests. An outstanding example is an educational program for the public schools in Cleveland, which included the preparation by the interpretation committee of the Welfare Federation of a complete textbook describing local social work. Educational programs in some cities also have been arranged by funds or councils in cooperation with labor unions. Funds and councils also have prepared study programs for church and civic groups.

National social agencies conduct publicity programs directly and indirectly related to fund raising, as well as publicity with an educational purpose only. *See* NATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS IN SOCIAL WORK. Both the Boy Scouts of America and the Girl Scouts, Inc., set aside a special week each year for intensive nation-wide educational publicity. In the public health field outstanding examples of such efforts include the Early Diagnosis Campaign of the National Tuberculosis Association, and Social Hygiene Day sponsored by the American Social Hygiene Association.

National agencies have access to important channels for reaching the public, such as magazines of wide circulation, national news services, the national radio networks, and sometimes news reels—advantages which are not available locally. National agencies also produce publicity material for local use, such as radio transcriptions, booklets, motion pictures, and loan exhibits.

Social agencies occasionally carry on publicity to promote legislation or other forms of social action. More often, however, they provide information to be used by citizen groups for this purpose.

An enumeration of positions in publicity work made in 1938 by the Russell Sage Foundation shows that the larger number of full-time positions occur, in the following order, in community chests, national private agencies, child welfare organizations, certain types of privately supported health and group work services, state health departments, state public welfare departments, and unemployment compensation bureaus. Part-time positions and general staff services in interpretation also occur relatively frequently in the same fields.

Public Information

Providing information to its citizens is the primary function of government publicity. Government information divisions are found in all major federal departments. Opponents of the administration in power are watchful of public information services, holding that the name is but a thin disguise and that these services engage chiefly in partisan publicity and propaganda.

A federal law born of that suspicion was enacted in 1913. It provides that "no money appropriated by this or any other act shall be used for the compensation of any publicity expert unless specifically appropriated for that purpose." Although the law failed

to define a "publicity expert," the intention of some of the legislators was established clearly in a debate in which one representative declared there was "no place in the Government Service for an employe whose sole duty was to extol and to advertise the activities of any particular service of the Government." And again, "I do not believe that any department or bureau or service should employ men to extol its virtues or its activities."[1]

The first—and still the most extensive—information service to be established in the federal government is that of the Department of Agriculture. The act of 1862 which created the Department directed it to "acquire and diffuse useful information on the subjects connected with agriculture." Other government departments have carried on informational work regularly for many years. But the new services established during the depression have far exceeded in amount and variety anything which preceded them. Individuals and agencies entitled to benefits of the new services needed to know of what they consisted; the conditions of eligibility for aid; and how, where, and when to apply. Probably not since the draft registration in 1917 had the government been under such great pressure to spread information among so many persons as when the Social Security Act went into effect in 1935. Added to the difficulty of making clear the benefits and requirements of the Act was the necessity to combat misinformation and to meet organized opposition in order to gain the essential cooperation of citizens. The Work Projects Administration (formerly the Works Progress Administration) has been hampered throughout its existence by the misgivings, and often violent criticism, directed at the recipients of work relief. The Administration has met this criticism with a steady stream of reports in which its accomplishments have been counted, pictured, and explained.

Government information services use all the usual channels of publicity, with special emphasis on the newspaper, radio, public speaking, magazines, motion pictures, pamphlets, and exhibits. Letters sent in response to requests for information represent another of their most important devices. An enormous increase in the volume of mail directed to the White House alone has taxed many of the newer government services.

A striking improvement has been made in the appearance of government printed and duplicated material and in the use of readable text, interesting photographs, and pictorial charts.

A few state departments of welfare maintain public reporting or public relations offices. Their function is to prepare newspaper releases, reports, and bulletins as these may be required in the administration of public assistance and other services. However, many state departments and most county welfare offices provide little or no public information as such. During the rapid growth of public service so much effort has been required to get information to the quickly assembled staffs and to the public officials that very little time has been available for attention to the larger public.

In the earlier years of the depression some local public agencies set up machinery for conference with delegations representing organized pressure groups. In some instances committees of the clients have become, in effect, unofficial representatives of the departments, explaining to members of their own groups the regulations and restrictions under which assistance is given. Citizen groups cooperating with public departments also are helpful as interpreters of policies and problems.

Trends in Skills and Techniques

The basic techniques common to interpretation, publicity, and public information are found in the skillful use of the spoken and written word and pictures. Steady ad-

[1] Brookings Institution, *Report on Government Activities on Library, Information, and Statistical Services. No. 13 of Investigation of Executive Agencies of the Government.* Senate Resolution No. 217 (74th Congress). 31 pp. 1937.

vances have been made in mechanical developments of these forms of communication. Experiments constantly are made with the format of the printed page. New type faces are designed and new processes made available for duplication of typewritten or printed material. Better cameras increase the effectiveness of both still and motion pictures taken by amateur as well as professional photographers. Improved methods of recording speeches and plays for later transmission and the arrival of television represent other examples of technical advances.

Although social work of necessity trails the commercial field in taking advantage of these developments, there is another side of the art of communicating information in which social work is showing great improvement. That is the recognition that the technician must know his subject as well as his medium. Thus the most familiar and utilitarian of publicity instruments, the annual report, is year by year telling the story of social work more intelligently and readably.

Having established the importance of more thoughtful selection of content in agency reports, social work is advancing to a much more careful analysis of source material used in all forms of publicity. One factor which may be influencing this greater attention to the quality of source material is the popularity of so-called "documentary" material. The term is used generally in connection with motion pictures, but stage and radio too are tending to make fact-gathering the basis of new dramatic forms.

Among the most familiar documentary motion pictures are two produced by the Farm Security Administration: *The River* and *The Plow That Broke the Plains.* The Federal Theater Project invented the *Living Newspaper* as a dramatic form in many ways similar to the documentary film. A striking illustration is the play *". . . one-third of a nation . . ."* a well-documented story of bad housing in New York City and what might be done about it. This later was made into a commercial motion picture. A *Living Newspaper* staged by the Greater New York Fund as the main feature of its 1940 campaign traced the progress of social work in New York from its early days to the present. The novel, *The Grapes of Wrath,* employed a technique in which alternating chapters traced a family story and a broad social movement. A dramatized account of the development of the United States census, presented in advance of the 1940 census, was in many respects a "documentary" play. A single characteristic of all these productions is that they adapt the form to the material. They bring out all the color behind the facts. Even figures assume dramatic importance. Included in a dramatization are short episodes, a rapid and moving piling up of evidence through quick recital by an anonymous narrator, and the unfolding of a broad social problem or a social movement.

This particular form has proved a great boon to social work whose statistical material, human interest stories, and records of changing conditions and methods can be presented to advantage through such dramatic combination.

More thoughtful planning of the content of publicity is a response in part to the popularity of the public opinion polls which now appear to have an established place in American life. Turning attention as they do to public attitudes on all sorts of questions, these polls bring home to social organizations their failure to make themselves and their methods understood. Some of the polls conducted by *Fortune* magazine or by the Gallup organization report attitudes toward government relief and the extent of understanding of such subjects as cancer and tuberculosis control, child labor, and other social and health subjects. Community funds recently have begun to experiment with polls of local opinion.

National Leadership

Conspicuous among the national agencies active in this field is the Social Work Pub-

licity Council which serves its many members and affiliated local councils as a clearing house of ideas and information on interpretation and money raising. The Council's periodical *Channels,* formerly called *News Bulletin,* is a digest of current publicity practice, while its series of "how-to-do-it" bulletins gives practical assistance with technical problems. Service members of the Council may avail themselves also of the special consultation privilege. At the National Conference of Social Work the Council conducts meetings on interpretation, offers free consultation service, and arranges a portfolio exhibit of representative examples of publicity. At other times this exhibit may be studied at the Council's headquarters in New York.

The Department of Social Work Interpretation of the Russell Sage Foundation cooperates with the Council in maintaining the portfolio exhibit and various other services, but is primarily concerned with studies and publications dealing with the development of programs and resources for interpretation and the adaptation of general publicity techniques to the problems of social work. Its publications include two basic texts: *Publicity for Social Work,*[1] and *How to Interpret Social Work.*[2]

The American Public Health Association pioneered in recognizing publicity as a function of social and health work when it established a Public Health Education Section in 1920. It continues its interest through meetings, institutes, and exhibits at its annual convention.

Community Chests and Councils, Inc., operates a publicity exchange for its members, publishes occasional special bulletins on interpretation, and discusses publicity regularly in its monthly bulletin. With the endorsement of other national agencies it sponsors the annual Mobilization for Human Needs which reinforces the campaign publicity of individual chests by national publicity on an extensive scale.

[1] *See* Routzahn and Routzahn, *infra cit.*
[2] *See* Baker and Routzahn, *infra cit.*

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RAILROAD WORKERS' INSURANCE. Most industrial workers in the United States are covered by federal old age and survivors' insurance provisions of the Social Security Act and by state unemployment compensation laws. *See* OLD AGE AND SURVIVORS' INSURANCE and UNEMPLOYMENT COMPENSATION. Railroad workers, however, are subject to federal laws in both fields and have certain protection against invalidity not available to workers outside the railroad industry. Railroad social insurance

systems are administered by a single federal agency, the Railroad Retirement Board.

Retirement System Operations

The Railroad Retirement Act of 1937 provides annuities for four classes of employes: (a) those sixty-five or more years of age, (b) those who have completed thirty years of service and are totally and permanently disabled for regular employment, (c) those aged sixty with thirty years of service, and (d) those aged sixty with less than thirty years of service but who are totally and permanently disabled for regular employment. Annuities for the third and fourth classes are reduced by 1/180 of the normal amount for each month by which the individual is less than sixty-five when his annuity begins.

Annuities are calculated as certain percentages of average compensation multiplied by the number of years of service. Service after age sixty-five is not creditable. By an amendment approved by the President on October 8, 1940, credit is extended for certain military service rendered prior to January 1, 1937. Such credits are subject to the same limitations as are credits for prior employer service. A bill for crediting future military service was pending in Congress on November 1, 1940.

Only persons who were employes on the date of enactment may receive credit for service prior to January 1, 1937. No annuity will exceed $120 per month. Employes entitled to annuities may, subject to certain limitations, elect joint and survivor annuities in lieu of life annuities.

In addition to annuities provided for employes the 1937 Act provides for the assumprion by the retirement system as of July 1, 1937, of the pensions paid under the voluntary plans of the railroads up to $120 per pensioner per month. Finally there is payable with respect to deceased employes a benefit equal to 4 per cent of the creditable wages received prior to death and subsequent to December 31, 1936, less annuity payments if any.

The enactment of permanent retirement legislation resulted in a large wave of retirements from the railroad industry. From June to December, 1937, the number of permanent retirements was about 5 per cent of the number of active employes in the industry. While this rate of retirement could obviously not be maintained, annuity awards have continued to be high.

As of October 15, 1940, annuities had been granted to 132,000 persons or approximately 11 per cent of the average covered employment. Pensions had been awarded to 48,500; survivor annuities to 2,600; while lump sum death payments had been certified to 33,000 persons. The number of annuitants and pensioners surviving on the rolls was about 147,500 for whom aggregate monthly payments amounted to $9,350,000. The total number of individuals to whom payments in one form or another had been made constituted about 17 per cent of the average number of persons in the industry during the preceding three yeats. Monthly payments to annuitants averaged about $66, to pensioners about $59, and to survivor annuitants about $33. Lump sum death payments had averaged $125. Of the annuitants about 75 per cent were sixty-five or over when their benefit payments began. Almost 20 per cent of the awards were based on disability.

The number of retirements, both by reason of age or disability, has been substantially larger than was anticipated when the Act was passed. The Act provides no compulsory retirement; benefits are, on the average, not more than 45 per cent of the full-time compensation received at the time of retirement; and most aged employes have long seniority. It was expected on the basis of these facts that employes in good health would remain in service until seventy but such has not been the case. To a considerable degree, the heavy age retirements probably resulted from the sharp downturn in employment beginning in the latter part of 1937, which was reflected in the closing of or curtailment of work in many railroad

shops and other facilities. There was a noticeable drop in the retirement rate with the rise in employment which began in 1938 and this became rather marked toward the latter part of 1939. The reasons for the unusually heavy retirements for disability have not yet become clear. The Act does not provide benefits for persons who, even though disabled for specific railroad occupations, are nevertheless capable of substantial gainful employment; and a substantial number of employes, particularly in the train and engine service, have been physically disqualified by railroads but have been held not to be eligible for disability annuities. The rate of disability retirement, however, may be falling, suggesting the initially high rates may have been due to temporary conditions. In general, however, the experience is too brief to permit the formulation of definitive judgments.

Although the Railroad Retirement Act provides for appropriations from general revenues, in practice Congress has regarded the revenues under the Carriers Taxing Act as the basis for financing the benefits payable under the Retirement Act.

Because of the relatively high age distribution of railroad employes, the assumption of the pension load, and the immediate effectiveness of benefits, the ordinary form of old age insurance financing could not produce very large reserves, relative either to current payments or to payroll. The high rate of retirement, moreover, has reduced the anticipated reserves so that the retirement system is, in effect, on a financial basis not appreciably different from that which is ordinarily referred to as "pay-as-you-go." Taxes due through October, 1940, will be about $413,000,000. Total benefit payments were approximately $348,000,000 and about $20,000,000 more will be paid before the end of the current calendar year (1940), during which period further taxes of about $33,000,000 would be due. Of the total through October, 1940, $242,000,000 represents annuity payments and $98,000,000 pensions, with the balance accounted for by the other benefits. As of the end of October the amount of investments in the reserve was $85,400,000. While the tax rate (now 6 per cent of payroll divided equally between employers and workers) will increase at intervals to 7.5 per cent in 1949, it has become probable that unless there is an unusual increase in railroad payrolls, or a sharp fall in the rate of retirement, appropriations in excess of tax receipts may be required before the full tax rate is teached.

Railroad Unemployment Insurance

The volume of compensable unemployment in the railroad industry since July 1, 1939, has been relatively light. This situation arose first from the low employment in 1938 which testricted the number of individuals earning qualifying wages; second, there was a substantial increase in employment in the late summer of 1939; third, the operation of the railroad retirement system probably curtailed the volume of otherwise compensable employment. While it is possible that many employes who were retired under the provisions of the Retirement Act were not replaced, some reabsorption of the unemployed probably resulted from the retirement process.

Payments under the Railroad Unemployment Insurance Act were effective with the period beginning July 1, 1939. By June 30, 1940, a total of a little less than 211,000 initial applications had been received, representing approximately 17 per cent of the average volume of employment in the industry during the period.

While substantially all of the 211,000 persons making application had the required minimum of $150 in wages in the calendar year 1938 to qualify for benefits, only 191,000 or 90 per cent were unemployed for a sufficiently long period to qualify for a waiting period. This consists of fifteen consecutive days in which there are at least eight days of unemployment. After the waiting period has been completed, benefits are payable with respect to days of unem-

ployment in excess of seven within fifteen-consecutive-day periods. By the end of June, 1940, benefits had been certified to only 163,000 different unemployed applicants. The maximum eligible unemployed at any one time was about 72,000 (in December and January), falling later to about 36,000 (in June). This drop represented in part the exhaustion of benefit rights but in still larger part it resulted from the return of the unemployed to some employment. By the end of April less than 10 per cent of the employes initially making application had exhausted their benefits.

Benefits under the Railroad Unemployment Insurance Act prior to November 1, 1940, ranged from $1.75 a day or $14 in a period of fifteen consecutive days of unemployment to $3.00 per day or $24 for fifteen consecutive days (payment being made only with respect to unemployment in excess of seven days in each fifteen-day period). Because of the low volume of continuous unemployment, average payments have been low. The average amount per fifteen-day period has been slightly less than $15 for the ten-month period ending with April, 1940, or the equivalent of about $7.00 a week. Of the total number of certifications, about 60 per cent represented continuous unemployment for the full fifteen days; in these cases the average certification was approximately $18 or $8.40 a week.

When the Railroad Unemployment Insurance Act was passed in 1938 its benefits for unemployment lasting for fifteen days compared favorably on the average with the benefits payable under the state laws. It was expected that employes with low base year wages would receive more, and those with relatively high base year wages less than under state laws. Because the Railroad Act provided, however, for a flat duration of benefits for five months it was expected to offset the lower benefit rates for higher paid workers. Changes in benefit formulae under state laws since the enactment of the railroad legislation resulted in making the railroad system relatively inferior.

The inadequacy of the original benefits was reflected in large accumulations of reserves. Contribution accruals during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1940, were about $65,000,000, of which almost $60,000,000 was credited to the benefit payment account. Benefit payments during the fiscal year were less than $15,000,000. Although under the forms of unemployment insurance which have been set up in this country some reserve should be accumulated during periods such as has been witnessed by the railroad industry since July 1, 1939, a ratio of income to disbursements of four to one is obviously excessive. A more reasonable ratio would have been about two to one. It was quite apparent that the inadequacy of benefits was not made necessary by the financial resources of the system.

The railroad labor organizations were successful in inducing the Congress to liberalize benefits by reducing the waiting period and increasing the benefit rates. The amendments, which were signed by the President on October 10, 1940, provided for increases in benefits to a range of from $17.50 to $40 in a period of fourteen consecutive days of unemployment. The number of days of compensable unemployment was raised from eighty to one hundred while the waiting period requirement was liberalized. Maximum benefits during a benefit year will range from $175 to $400. A uniform benefit year was introduced along with several other modifications intended to simplify administrative processes. Benefit payments will be increased by the amendments from 65 to 75 per cent. An effort by employers to introduce experience rating in the form of variations in the contribution rate dependent upon the size of the reserve was defeated.

Administratively the Railroad Unemployment Insurance system has worked smoothly. The Railroad Retirement Board has arranged contracts with substantially every employer subject to the Act, under the terms of which employes designated by these employers receive claims for benefits

from and witness registration by unemployed workers. Under these arrangements about 45,000 persons have been instructed in the claims procedures and have handled, through the end of June, 1940, the 211,000 initial claims and about 1,500,000 direct claims for benefits. That the system has worked with substantially no complaint is evidenced by the fact that although a substantial number of claims have been disallowed in whole or part no appeals have been filed. The experience shows that with a relatively simple form of unemployment insurance system it is quite feasible to train great numbers of workers in all the processes which need to be carried out in connection with the registration of the unemployed and the filing of claims. Simplicity has also facilitated adjudication; over 95 per cent of the claims are certified for payment within twenty-four hours after reaching an office of the Board.

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MURRAY W. LATIMER

RECREATION[1] may be called the physical, mental, or spiritual satisfaction which comes to an individual or group from participating in certain forms of activity. Such activities are freely chosen and are usually enjoyed during leisure time. They are chosen because the participant seeks self-expression or relaxation in their performance. In common use the term recreation refers to the activity as well as the resulting experience. It is used herein as referring primarily to activities.

Under conditions of modern life recreation has become an essential for the well-being of the people. The rapid growth of cities, the changes in working conditions due to the mechanization of industry, the speed of living, the changing home pattern, the increase of delinquency, a growing amount of leisure, and unemployment of millions of people call for new and varied types of activity through which the human body and spirit can be refreshed. Many agencies, private and public, have over the years endeavored to provide the means of recreation for the people. The home, reli-

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

gious organizations, boys' and girls' organizations, settlements, schools, industry, amusements, and sports organizations have all played their part. Since the turn of the century, government authorities, federal, state, and local, have directed their attention to extending the movement. For thirty-five years the National Recreation Association has been a powerful factor in the development of the recreation movement. The National Park Service, United States Department of the Interior, the Forest Service, United States Department of Agriculture, and several of the emergency agencies such as Civilian Conservation Corps, National Youth Administration, and Work Projects Administration have made great contributions in recent years.

While much has been done, the task is far from completion. Millions of children in city and country are not being served. The combined service of all agencies is not enough. Few if any cities have enough playgrounds or city-owned recreation areas. School authorities are still reluctant to allow the use of school buildings for recreation purposes, although this attitude is changing for the better. Municipal finances in many instances prevent any worthy advance. Political patronage in some cities is still given consideration over the needs and interests of children.

Community Recreation Facilities

In 27 states, enabling acts give power to municipalities to establish recreation systems under recreation departments, boards, or commissions; park departments, boards, or commissions; school authorities; or other jurisdictions. Whatever the sponsoring agency may be, the essential factors in a recreation system are (a) a responsible lay board of control, (b) a full-time trained executive, (c) the availability for recreation of all suitable city-owned property, (d) a varied and comprehensive program, and (e) an adequate budget. Private and semi-private organizations which share effectively in the total recreation program have developed types of organizations peculiar to their own objectives and methods.

Neighborhood playgrounds are the basic unit of the municipal recreation system. Too often, however, the best playground facilities are found in the higher economic areas and the worst in the areas marked by congestion, low economic status, delinquency, poor health conditions, and great safety hazards. These conditions demand that steps be taken to give equitable treatment to all.

School buildings are more and more being used for recreation purposes. Enlightened communities are demanding that school gymnasia, swimming pools, and social and club rooms be set aside for public use out of school hours, usually for persons over sixteen years of age. Public parks, playgrounds, playfields, athletic fields, vacant lots, lakes, beaches, museums, libraries, and radio stations are utilized in public recreation. In addition to these, the facilities provided by settlements, youth agencies, clubs, lodges, industries, churches, commercial establishments, and other private organizations constitute an important part of a community-wide recreation set-up. *See* BOYS' AND GIRLS' WORK ORGANIZATIONS, SETTLEMENTS, and YOUTH PROGRAMS.

Community Centers

The community center has been defined as a meeting place where residents of a neighborhood, town, county, or rural area in which common interests exist, join in educational, social, or recreational activities that stimulate growth, add to the general spirit of community cooperation, or make for better citizenship. Such centers may be in special recreation buildings that are used exclusively or primarily for recreation, or in other buildings such as schools, churches, town halls, or remodeled stores or garages. Many of these community centers are under the leadership of one or more persons employed by the managing body, or by volunteer workers.

The number of these centers is indicated

by the figures in the *Year Book* of the National Recreation Association for 1939 which show that in 395 cities there were 1,666 buildings operated under paid leadership and used primarily or exclusively for recreation, of which 172 were opened for the first time in that year. A total of 58,967,564 participants was reported. In addition to these, 444 cities reported 4,123 indoor centers not exclusively devoted to recreation with an attendance of 38,125,135 participants. The growth of both types of centers has been rapid and continuous.

The most marked trend is toward the use of school buildings for recreation purposes. They are natural community centers, usually well located as to population, and contain facilities well suited for recreation use. However, there is wide diversity in state law as to the right of communities to use school property for recreation purposes. While in California every school house is a legal community center, in Kansas the schools cannot be used for anything except the purpose for which the taxes were raised and funds appropriated according to law. In recent years a majority of court decisions have been decided in favor of a wider use of the schools, giving school boards rather wide discretionary power in interpreting the law. Many communities in their planning of new schools are giving special consideration to the use of their facilities by community groups.

The program for a community center is determined by community needs and interests of the out-of-school population. Many centers include a wide variety of activities in music, arts and crafts, drama, nature study groups, forums, dancing, and other forms of social fellowship. Neighborhood councils of volunteers are organized around many of these centers. They represent the life and interests of the community and do much to secure adequate support for the community program.

The Extent of Public Recreation

In 1939, organized public recreation activities were reported in 1,204 communities. Of these, 1,148 cities spent $31,911,048 from regular funds. In 684 of these communities federal emergency relief funds in the amount of $26,306,231 (about 45 per cent of the total expenditure) were used to supplement those provided from local sources. The total number of employed recreation leaders paid from regular municipal funds was 25,042.

The following table taken from the *Year Book* of the National Recreation Association for 1939, although not showing all, indicates the type and number of public facilities and activities provided by the cities in the United States that year:

Facilities	*Cities*
Playgrounds under leadership (9,749)	792
Indoor community recreation centers (4,123)	444
Recreation buildings (1,666)	395
Athletic fields (875)	422
Baseball diamonds (3,846)	704
Public bathing beaches (548)	253
Nine-hole golf courses (146)	114
Eighteen-hole golf courses (212)	135
Indoor swimming pools (315)	122
Outdoor swimming pools (866)	399
Public tennis courts (11,617)	716
Wading pools (1,545)	426
Archery ranges (455)	257
Bowling greens (217)	77
Handball courts (1,983)	173
Horseshoe courts (9,326)	646
Ice-skating areas (2,968)	427
Picnic areas (3,511)	476
Play streets (298)	46
Shuffleboard courts (2,299)	259
Ski jumps (116)	64
Softball diamonds (8,995)	736
Stadiums (244)	176
Theaters (110)	70
Toboggan slides (301)	114
Activities	
Arts and Crafts	
Art activities—for children	445
Art activities—for adults	244
Handcraft—for children	649
Handcraft—for adults	364
Athletic Activities	
Archery	317
Badge tests	134
Badminton	447
Baseball	747
Basketball	628
Bowling—indoor	115
Bowling-on-the-green	88
Football—regulation	203
Football—six-man	112
Football—touch	389
Handball	253

Activities	*Cities*
Horseshoes	728
Paddle tennis	463
Roque	78
Shuffleboard	350
Soccer	275
Softball	793
Tennis	723
Track and field	450
Volley ball	639
Dancing	
Folk dancing	407
Social dancing	391
Tap dancing	292
Drama	
Drama clubs	237
Festivals	179
Little theater groups	110
Pageants	213
Plays	344
Puppets and marionettes	255
Story-telling	530
Music	
Choral groups	248
Community singing	326
Opera groups	42
Symphony orchestras	80
Other instrumental groups	289
Outing Activities	
Camping	218
Gardening	118
Hiking	446
Nature activities	328
Picnicking	590
Water Sports	
Boating	102
Swimming	674
Swimming badge tests	166
Winter Sports	
Hockey	190
Skating	450
Skiing	142
Tobogganing	159
Miscellaneous Activities	
Bicycle clubs	202
Circuses	125
Community-wide celebrations	386
Forums, discussion groups, etc.	156
Hobby clubs or groups	317
Model aircraft	242
Motion pictures	223
Playground newspaper	133
Safety activities	297
Social recreation	379
Supervised roller skating	137

Public Parks and Forests

National parks are established to preserve areas distinguished by scenic, scientific, historic, or archaeological features, and natural wonders and beauties. The National Park Service emphasizes the preservation of the "primeval" qualities and the inspirational and spiritual values of these areas which are maintained for a single basic purpose—public recreation. As of June 30, 1939, the National Park Service administered 154 such areas comprising 32,526 square miles with a total of 20,817,228 acres. During 1938, 16,250,000 people visited the parks, camping, hiking, mountain climbing, skiing, swimming, boating, picnicking, studying nature, riding, and enjoying the scenery. Special demonstration camp areas have also been set aside chiefly for the use of those in metropolitan areas.

State governments also have done much for the recreation of their people, constructing swimming pools and bathing beaches; boat houses and docks; nature museums; hiking, bridle, and nature trails; and winter sports facilities and areas for a variety of games and sports. As of 1939, parks and related recreation areas totaling more than 1,898,500 acres were owned in 47 states. In New York State alone approximately 500,000 campers are annually accommodated in its parks.

In 1935, 1,200 cities reported 15,105 parks with 381,496 acres. Among the properties usually included in a park system are small in-town parks, neighborhood parks, children's playgrounds, neighborhood playfields, large in-town parks (50 acres or more), golf courses, and swimming centers. Airports have recently been added to park systems. The acquisition of park lands outside city limits is an important development. In 1935, 299 cities reported 514 such parks with 129,941 acres. Many such parks have opportunities for hiking, camping, nature study, fishing, and winter and water sports. In 1935, 77 counties reported 526 parks with 159,262 acres. These also provide for the major outdoor recreation facilities. Approximately one-third of the total municipal acreage has been acquired through gifts. From 1931 to 1935 a total gift value of $12,229,179 was acquired.

The national forests constitute the greatest recreation areas in the United States. With 173,000,000 acres they provide, chiefly without charge, access to primitive wilder-

ness and to recreation facilities for camping, picnicking, fishing, hiking, and winter and water sports. The National Forests' recreation facilities were used by 32,750,000 Americans in 1939.

Home and Church Recreation

Modern living tends to take the family, separately or together, away from the home for its recreation. Attractive recreation parks, centers, and amusements coupled with easy transportation make possible and desirable many types of wholesome recreation activity. Picnics, fishing parties, tours to scenic and historic places, hikes, visits to museums and concerts, and all sorts of water and winter sports make their appeal outside the home. In spite of these tendencies the home is still one of the greatest recreation assets in family and community life. Children, parents, and neighbors enjoy their parties, music, radios, discussions, reading, dances, and dining in the friendly atmosphere of the home. The attic, the cellar, the playroom, and the backyard are centers for wholesome play and the release of exuberant spirits. The importance of keeping and enriching recreation in the home is emphasized by parents' organizations, departments of recreation, rural leaders, 4-H clubs, and others.

Leaders of church recreation in many parts of the country, gathered at the National Recreation Congress in Boston in 1939, agreed that the churches should not duplicate recreation facilities in the community if such facilities were adequate for all community needs. The church should utilize community facilities, keeping its units intact and under church leadership or comradeship as far as possible. It should also join with other agencies in insisting that the leadership in other community agencies should be of a high order. Young people's groups, where given a recreation outlet, have attracted many to the church and provided leaders for various church activities. Boy Scout and Girl Scout troops, men's and women's bowling teams, and discussion groups are increasing, while the church social dinner and picnic are commonly found recreation events.

Industrial Recreation

Growing interest in industrial recreation is shown by recent reports from municipal recreation departments, surveys by colleges, industrial research bodies, and field workers. The National Industrial Conference Board[1] states that of 2,700 companies covered in the survey 552 reported athletic activities, 411 had clubhouse or rooms, 153 had hobby clubs, 481 had social clubs, 76 had company summer camps, 209 had gardens for employes, 95 had noonday programs, and 1,009 had company picnics and outings. Purdue University in a recent survey had replies from 245 industries which had recreation programs. Preferences for recreation activities, as expressed by employes in these industries, were:

Preferences	*Per Cent*
Physical	
Bowling	83
Softball	71
Baseball	37
Golf	36
Basketball	31
Outings	
Fishing	18
Hunting	12
Cultural	
Camera club	12
Singing	12
Music (instrumental)	9
Dramatics	7
Gardening	6

The Chicago Recreation Survey (1939), sponsored by the Chicago Recreation Commission and Northwestern University, secured replies from 233 companies having recreation programs and employing 200,000 persons, which indicated that "good fellowship" was the major purpose or policy of the program. Other reasons given for recreation were to foster a social spirit, to maintain morale, to unify the program between employes and executives, to secure efficiency,

[1] National Industrial Conference Board, *Personnel Activities in American Business.* Studies in Personnel Policy No. 20. 36 pp. 1940.

and to promote good industrial relations and good will. Many industries used the public-supported facilities but claimed that these were not adequate for all their needs.

In many industries organized labor and management conduct their activities together, while in some there is the tendency for organized labor to provide its own facilities. Experience in general throughout the country indicates that employes should assume the initiative in their programs and pay as much as possible of the cost.

Recreation in Other Special Settings

Life in institutions for delinquent, dependent, and handicapped children, as well as in those which seek to rehabilitate adults, is usually a drab one. Modern science has learned that an environment brightened and relieved by play activities adds much to the enrichment of the interests of children or adults. For dependent children especially, who will grow into normal adult life, a wholesome play life is essential for their adjustment after passing out of the institution as well as for their physical and mental development while in the institution. Many institutions are now providing recreation programs for their inmates. Some have directors and good facilities. There are many more that sadly lack such provision. Leaders with the best training are required for this type of recreation work. Local recreation departments often assign staff members to advise and to conduct recreation programs within institutions. The National Recreation Association has one worker who gives her time to counseling with private, municipal, state, and other agencies on the recreation problems of their institutions. This service is generally rendered through state welfare departments and at the request of the institutions.

Provision for recreation is an accepted and essential part of public and private housing projects. City planners are deeply concerned with the recreation phase of the housing problem. Modern housing developments encourage cities to accept the responsibility for recreation which is really theirs. The United States Housing Authority states: "As a setting for the whole life of a community, a public housing project must be designed to meet the ambitions and the hopes of all of its inhabitants, from the youngest child to men and women of more than the traditional three score and ten. Individuals who may want a quiet spot in which to relax or read or tend a garden should be given as much consideration in the planning project as those individuals, young and old, who may desire opportunities to engage in active play or in group study or discussion. . . . The public housing program must mean better cities and better citizens—citizens equipped to lead fuller, healthier and more useful lives."[1] The Kenwood Housing Project of Buffalo has five club rooms, games room, three ball diamonds, swings, slides, and outdoor showers. Its program includes scout troops, mothers' clubs, nursery school, men's club, athletic clubs, baseball leagues, rod and gun club, and a study club.

Rural life has its advantages and disadvantages for the development of recreation. Its open spaces, neighborly spirit, folk songs and dances, wholesome festivals, parties and games, its flowers, running streams, wild life, and its quiet peace all play a valuable part. But lack of leadership, program, and facilities in many parts of the country leaves much to be desired. Many agencies have sought to remedy this situation. The teacher-training colleges are in many instances giving their graduates some knowledge of recreation problems. Some theological seminaries are giving students not only theoretical training but practical training in recreation leadership in rural areas. The youth service agencies such as the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations and Boy and Girl Scouts are more and more extending their services into rural and small town communities. The grange, farm bureau, and 4-H clubs all play an important part. The federal government

[1] U. S. Housing Authority, *Housing and Recreation*. 40 pp. 1939.

through the Work Projects Administration has been doing much to provide facilities and leadership in needy rural communities.

The Extension Service of the United States Department of Agriculture has far-reaching plans for promoting recreation among the rural people through the various state agricultural colleges. It conducts institutes for the training of workers. In cooperation with the Extension Service the National Recreation Association has for many years given the services of a group of experts to conduct rural institutes whose itinerary has been arranged by the agricultural colleges. Twenty-seven states in 1939 employed full or part-time workers in rural recreation and community organization.

Creative Arts and Handicrafts

Through handicraft, skill and ingenuity are brought into exercise and the joy of expression is given to the inventive faculties. Public schools, colleges, hospitals, most youth-serving organizations, camps, and private and public organizations are all emphasizing the importance of arts and crafts activities. The Chrysler Company has established a "tool library" to stimulate craft interest. The National Recreation Association has a specialist who is kept busy in institutes teaching craft activities and seeking to raise leadership standards. He reports that there are arts and crafts centers where people may secure information not only for hobby interests but for professional interests as well, and that there is interest in better professional training for leaders. The Work Projects Administration through its local recreation projects has done much to stimulate interest. Old buildings are being remodeled to make space for shops, new buildings include craft shops for boys and girls, school recreation centers provide craft activities from kindergarten to old age. National societies are seeking to preserve and develop the crafts of the South, of the American Indians, and of New England and the early settlers.

In a well-developed community center, instruction is provided in such crafts as knitting, embroidery, kite making, reed and raffia, clay modeling, marionettes, basketry, sewing, dressmaking, etching, painting, lithography, sculpture, weaving, woodworking in many forms, paper craft, creative writing, literature, photography, bookbinding, leather tooling, glove making, metal crafts, the making of bows and arrows, and quilting. Exhibitions of art and craft work do much to encourage the participants and to stimulate new activities.

Nature Activities

Nature programs for children and adults carried on through the work of public and private agencies have continued to expand. There have been significant developments in leadership training, children's museums, and nature programs in parks and recreation departments.

There are now 18 field schools for the training of nature leaders operating each summer in the United States. These schools are attempts to provide field experience to teachers, camp nature leaders, and nature leaders from youth organizations, hobby groups, museums, parks, and recreation departments. Many institutes for the training of nature leaders have been conducted by museums, colleges, and private organizations. Many city parks and recreation departments now employ naturalists or recreation specialists whose responsibility is that of developing nature programs. State and county parks have been active in developing nature trails and trailside museums. A survey by the Conservation Committee of the Garden Club of America lists 127 nature sanctuaries with nature trails. Many state parks now have available naturalist services with programs patterned after the widespread services of the National Park Service.

Twenty children's museums with trained staffs and facilities for handling nature activities are functioning in the country. Museums, botanic gardens, and zoos have continued to expand their education programs to include more classes, hobby groups, field

trips, and like activities for the benefit of the public. Camps, the Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, Woodcraft League, Young Men's Christian Associations, Young Women's Christian Associations, and other similar organizations continue to include nature activities as a part of their programs. The National Association of Audubon Societies gives splendid leadership in nature programs for both children and adults.

The new emphasis in conservation on the part of schools and other governmental agencies has resulted in the increased study of nature as an approach to conservation. The garden clubs of the country have been active in this nature study and conservation movement.

Gardening

Many public and private agencies are now taking an active interest in gardening. This has given a tremendous stimulus to the movement. The school garden movement which includes thousands of children from coast to coast has been a real leader in organizing and promoting gardening programs. The Cleveland school garden department reaches over 40 per cent of all the pupils in the public schools through classes, demonstration, and gardens.

Botanic gardens, private organizations, parks, and recreation departments are providing garden plots, leadership, and organization of garden programs for children and adults. The leisure-time project at the Brooklyn Botanic Garden includes individual vegetable plots and experimental plots for children from eight to nineteen years. The Playground Commission at Cedar Rapids, Iowa, sponsors nearly 500 individual playground gardens and 1,400 home gardens. The City of Detroit Department of Recreation provides gardening opportunities for children through 28 clubs organized for the purpose. Families have undertaken cooperative garden ventures. Many industries have provided industrial gardens for their employes. Adult garden clubs have continued to expand. There has been a tremendous growth in the Men's Garden Club movement of America which now claims more than 1,600 member clubs.

Reading as Recreation

Various research studies indicate that reading ranks first as a leisure-time interest among youth. However, at present only favored youth have access to public and school libraries. In 1938 the American Library Association reported that more than 26,000,000 persons under twenty years of age, most of them living in rural areas, were still without library service. Children's Book Week is dedicated to boys and girls and their books, and enlists the participation of librarians, teachers, book editors, social workers, publishers, and parents. State and county library authorities are providing traveling library units. Each carries several hundred books, makes regular trips scheduled in advance, and stops at country stores, filling stations, homes, schools, and small libraries. In some instances collections are left among farmers so that exchange may be made until everyone has read them. Pennsylvania has more than 300 traveling libraries. The placing of libraries in county buildings, in parks, and in renovated vacant buildings is on the increase. The Committee on Recreational Reading of the National Council of Teachers of English publishes an excellent graded and classified list of books for home reading. The American Library Association stimulates and encourages all worthy efforts to extend the use of good books. To meet the needs for extending the service of the library movement efforts have been made in recent years to establish a federal library agency.

Music

The main current of our musical life in America must come from the musical education provided in our public schools. A large proportion of the young people who have graduated from excellent choruses, orchestras, and bands in our high schools have no intention of becoming professional mu-

sicians. The children in the classrooms are not only acquiring musical knowledge and skills but are developing attitudes that will lead them to continue music as recreation when out of school. The extra-curricular singing and playing groups in our colleges are further indication that students are using their music as recreation.

There are about 100 neighborhood music schools, some connected with settlements, whose purpose is to introduce music into the everyday world of the individual rather than to introduce the individual into the world of music. Special efforts are being made in an increasing number of cities to conserve this training in adult life. Springfield, Ill., has a municipal choir of over 200 graduates of its high school choirs. The Los Angeles Department of Recreation has five smaller choirs comprised of such graduates. There is an increasing number of community symphony orchestras comprised mainly or entirely of advanced amateurs. About 250 of the smaller cities have such orchestras, most having been started since 1929. The radio, phonograph, and sound film have helped much to bring about this interest in orchestras. The National Broadcasting Company for three years has presented a "Home Symphony" whose programs were announced long in advance so that home players could get the music and join the radio orchestra.

The Library of Congress has stored 5,000 records of folk songs of our country which is an indication that there is still considerable family folk singing in our rural areas and among our Negro people even though the radio now dominates the home music scene. The National Federation of Music Clubs encourages women to keep up their musical interests and to further community musical developments. City recreation departments and many youth-serving organizations promote and encourage musical activities among the children on the playgrounds and in community buildings. The Federal Music Project is nation-wide and has done much to stimulate interest in listening to fine music. In some cities and rural communities it has also brought about the formation of orchestras, bands, choruses, and chamber music, dance, and opera groups.

Radio as Recreation

In July, 1940, there were 836 radio stations in the United States and 100 air-lanes under the control of the Federal Communications Commission, in Cuba, Mexico, the United States, and Canada. Programs were being received in almost 25,000,000 homes. Music, dramatics, talks and dialogue, and sports and general news were receiving the attention of approximately 90,000,000 people. The tremendous influence of these programs, especially, in the thinking and conduct of children and youth is being increasingly recognized. Teachers, librarians, and the broadcasting companies are joining in efforts to provide better recreation programs. The Radio Committee of the Child Study Association, made up of lay and professional people, has attempted to study the needs and interests of children in their radio listening, to determine what programs have worthy recreation and educational values.

Broadcasting by school children from the third grade up is a new radio development. Some social agencies and municipal recreation departments put on regular radio programs. In 1939 the Oak Park, Ill., Recreation Department gave 32 programs on the School Time Hour, including fairy tales, drama, and Christmas carols. More than 100 boys and girls of grade school age were on the air and the programs were heard in more than 4,000 schools throughout the Middle West. The programs of music appreciation for both youth and adults have lasting cultural and recreation values, and continue to improve in quality.

Drama

Community drama is promoted under various auspices: the little theater and the civic theater, which are usually self-governing, self-sustaining, adult dramatic units; the children's theater, sponsored by adult groups

such as the American Association of University Women and the Association of the Junior Leagues of America; and drama leagues and community arts players. Included are festivals, pageants, choric speaking, and puppets. Public organizations such as the schools, recreation departments, libraries, and private social work agencies all sponsor or cooperate in the promotion of drama activities. There are adult groups who play for children; children's groups who play for children; groups that use well-known plays; and others which create their own plays and settings. Radio drama fills an important place.

The recreation departments and community centers emphasize the general participation of children and adults in an effort to give opportunity to all the talent in the community. They also cooperate with the more closely organized drama units in the community. Sheboygan, Wis., had 1,600 members in its Players Association in 1939. Hartford, Conn., had 719 participating in 12 plays and 250 in two large pageants witnessed by 10,000 people, and gave 52 radio broadcasts. Oak Park, Ill., emphasizes drama service to churches, clubs, schools, and other organizations. The children of the Los Angeles Recreation Department presented 49 matinee programs at six playground community center buildings from October, 1939, to February, 1940, and 1,450 children participated in a series of outdoor matinees which included skits, dances, choric speech, and various musical activities. Winter carnivals; festivals of roses, cherry blossoms, azaleas, oranges, tulips, and potato blossoms; and scores of other occasions enlist tens of thousands of children and adults in varied forms of drama presentation each year.

Social Recreation

Social recreation is recreation for friendly gatherings of persons intent on sociability and fellowship. It is designed to provide fun and the joy of playing together for people under any circumstances, whether in an auditorium, after a meeting, in a clubroom, at a convention, at a house party or camp, or on a picnic.

Leaders in recreation agencies and most churches have recognized the values of activities which enable youth and adults of both sexes to play together. The crowded environment of much of American life thwarts the normal desires for social fellowship and youthful romance. Earnest attempts are being made all over the nation to supply some of these lacks. Municipal directors of recreation are making possible for hundreds of thousands of citizens a wholesome association of both sexes. Supervised community dancing and roller skating, cozily decorated "hangouts" for youth, seasonal parties, "splash" parties, hiking clubs, folk dancing, co-ed badminton, rhythm bands, club programs, workshops, dramatics—these and a host of other activities are conducted. Milwaukee has 53 co-recreation clubs which enjoy good times, learn to solve their problems together, and acquire experience in the art of living. A social dancing club for boys and girls in Two Rivers, Wis., proved so popular that 160 older persons signed a petition for a similar program. Aside from the purely recreation activities of these groups, participants are having lessons in etiquette and in some instances are developing motives of service to the community.

Camping

Camping is one of the most important forms of outdoor recreation and has long been an important part of the program of many private social agencies. The public schools in some cities conducted camps for undernourished children as early as 1912 and in 1919 the Chicago school system experimented in camping for normal children.

Local municipal governments in 1939 reported 104 organized camps in 92 cities with 109,953 campers in 76 camps. The Forest Service authorities have developed excellent camping facilities in the National Forest areas. The National Park Service

has set aside demonstration areas of 350,000 acres, valued at $30,000,000, to be devoted in part to camping. In 1939, camp attendance in these areas was 972,842. Schools, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, Future Farmers of America, American Youth Hostels, 4-H Clubs, the Young Men's Christian Associations, the Young Women's Christian Associations, the church, and other miscellaneous groups used the facilities. State parks offer camping facilities which attract thousands of campers each year.

Private and public agencies increasingly emphasize the value of day camping and overnight camping. In 1939, 88 municipalities conducted 160 day camps of which 86 camps reported 293,326 campers. Municipalities, settlements, and civic clubs put special emphasis on camping for underprivileged children. Winter camping is increasing. Park authorities are educating the people on how to use the camps. The American Camping Association, the agencies mentioned herein, and others are doing much to raise the standards of camp facilities and practices.

Water Facilities and Activities

Swimming and fishing rank first among the water recreation activities. Rowing, water sports, motor boating, and model yacht sailing are other forms of water activity as reported by the National Park Service and state, county, and municipal parks. The Encyclopedia of Sports (1939) states that there are 12,000,000 fishermen in the United States, of whom 6,000,000 are licensed. In spite of this great interest in water sports it is reported by the National Park Service that only 1 per cent of the total coast line of the United States is in public ownership. The federal government is seeking to conserve water areas for recreational use, such as streams and shorelines and in projects such as Boulder Dam Recreation Area. Many other projects are under development by state governments. Municipalities in 1939 reported 315 indoor swimming pools (122 cities), 866 outdoor swimming pools (399 cities), and 1,545 wading pools (426 cities). Aquatic activities include water sports programs, canoe and shell rowing, motor boat and sail boat racing, yachting, co-ed swimming parties, water pageants, carnivals, circuses, and polo. Red Cross courses in life-saving and other first-aid training are given. Swimming campaigns are conducted by various youth-serving organizations. Many golf clubs, athletic clubs, and colleges have indoor and outdoor swimming facilities.

Amateur Athletics and Sports

In 1938 there were at least 34 national organizations established for the promotion of amateur sports and athletics. These were concerned specifically with archery, bicycling, canoeing, fencing, skating, softball, trap shooting, hiking, paddle tennis, snowshoeing, mountain climbing, soccer, football, baseball, rowing, fishing, tennis, shooting, shuffleboard, skiing, skate sailing, hockey, lacrosse, golf, polo, volley ball, and other forms of amateur athletics and sports. Winter sports of all kinds are increasing rapidly. The rapid growth of softball has greatly increased both the number of players and participants and in some cities has overshadowed baseball.

Major organizations such as the Society of State Directors of Health and Physical Education (public schools) and the National Collegiate Athletic Association, the American Association of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, the Amateur Athletic Union of the United States, and the American Olympic Committee, are interested in the establishment of high standards of competition.

The participation of women in competitive sports grows rapidly. The Women's Section of the American Association of Health, Physical Education and Recreation has published basic standards for all girls' and women's athletic activities. "The one purpose of athletics for girls and women," they say, "is the good of those who partici-

pate." Publicity in athletics for girls and women should stress the importance of the welfare of the players, the achievement of the group rather than of the individual, and the recreational values of competition rather than the winning of championships.

Some of the old dangers still survive: the win-at-all-costs motive, false values that center around star athletes, excessive emphasis on gate receipts, and dangers of overstrain still challenge the best in the organized sports movement. Higher standards of leadership, better training for officials, and the provision of more and better facilities by public and private organizations are being emphasized.

Personnel

"The fundamental purposes of leadership are: to guide and serve the leisure-time interests of all the people—not dictate them; to enlarge and deepen interests so that they will be more richly satisfying; to provide organization and instruction where it is desired; to furnish the means for self-expression through recreation activities so the basis of leisure will make for joyous living. The achievement of these objectives is possible only if trained, sympathetic leadership is provided, and this attainment assures the success of a municipal recreation program."[1]

This statement is significant for leadership in recreation, whether in a public system or a private organization. Such standards of service call for qualifications of mind and character which can be secured only by the most careful selection and training. They require broad cultural backgrounds and potentialities for growth and development. Conferences for the college training of recreation leaders were held at the University of Minnesota in 1937 and at the University of North Carolina in 1939. Trends in recreation, the participating agencies, and the nature and extent of college training required were discussed. Most national agencies, private and public, are alive to the needs for a higher type of leadership and by increasingly careful selection and by in-service training are raising the standards of these leaders and their service.

Since most organizations concerned with recreation are dependent on a large amount of volunteer leadership, it is essential that the same care in its selection and training be observed. The Young Women's Christian Associations, Girl Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, and Boy Scouts particularly have highly developed methods of training their volunteer leadership. The National Recreation Association, by means of recreation institutes in a number of urban centers and in rural areas, has given training to the professional and volunteer leaders of many agencies.

Organizations like the Camp Fire Girls, Girl Scouts, and Boy Scouts depend primarily on volunteer adult leadership. The Young Men's Christian Associations and Young Women's Christian Associations, Young Men's Hebrew Associations and Young Women's Hebrew Associations have hosts of volunteers who serve on boards and committees, head group activities, and engage in finance and membership campaigns. Most church recreation leaders are volunteers. Public recreation departments enlist volunteer service in their boards and commissions, committees, and various phases of their cultural and athletic programs. Mothers' clubs, parents' clubs, and various community councils in many cities assume financial and other responsibility on playgrounds and in community centers. Basically, the whole recreation movement in America, including both private and public agencies, is greatly dependent on volunteer leadership. This is a credit to the wise guidance of those in the professional group who multiply their own usefulness by enlisting able and willing volunteer associates.

Commercial Recreation

Commercial recreation is a form of business enterprise organized by private individuals or groups for the purpose of mak-

[1] *See* Butler, *infra cit.*

ing a profit. Considering the extent of its operations, amount of patronage, and income received, it is the largest phase of the whole recreation movement. It has grown with the expanding interests of the country and is now a vital part of our economic as well as our recreation life. Steiner says that "provision for recreation on a commercial basis is as legitimate as is the supply of food and other articles required in daily living."[1] The Chicago Survey of Commercial Recreation, 1937, lists the rapid development of commercial facilities for passive enjoyment as the most important trend. Conservative estimates indicate that Americans spend between three and four billion dollars for commercial recreation annually. Chicago alone spends $250,000,000 or $80 per capita annually.[2]

Of 37,677 places of amusement listed in the United States Census of Business of 1935, 12,024 were motion picture theaters. Billiard and pool parlors and bowling alleys were more numerous than any other type of establishment. Swimming, tennis, golf, and baseball are all highly developed commercial sports. Hobby trains, bicycle trains, husking bee trains, fun trains, winter sports trains, camera trains, all appeal to the hobby interests and natural urge of people to get out-of-doors and away from cities.

Emergency Service

The Work Projects Administration has made a most valuable contribution to the whole field of recreation. Its total construction projects up to June, 1939, include 7,621 new recreation buildings, 2,394 new athletic fields, 2,078 new playgrounds, 1,164 new swimming and wading pools, 6,347 tennis courts, and 332,618 acres of new park areas. While about 75 per cent of its projects were of a construction nature, many in the professional and women's fields include: art—instruction, painting murals, sculpture; music—classes, symphony and concert orchestras, opera; arts and crafts—all kinds of handicraft work; and drama—dramatic classes, performances, circuses, puppets, and so forth. These and numerous other activities stimulated local communities especially in small towns to see the values of a recreation program. Some towns and cities which depended heavily on Work Projects Administration assistance have assumed responsibility for their programs and their support. Likewise some leaders trained in the emergency program have been employed in the recreation departments of towns and cities. The loss of the best recreation workers to private employment has seriously affected the quality of the program in some places.

In February, 1939, there were 41,537 persons working on WPA recreation projects supplementing the work of city departments of recreation. The majority of these were in cities of less than 2,500 population. There were more than 10,000 organizations and agencies acting as co-sponsors of the projects, contributing cash, materials, and supplies.[1]

Effects of National Defense Program

The launching of the national defense program in the summer and fall of 1940 and the consequent expansion of the military establishment have precipitated many new problems in the recreational field. While morale-building activities in the cantonments and training centers are to be organized under the direction of the War Department's Division of Morale, civilian agencies and personnel may have a part to play in the recreational activities connected therewith. *See* MEN IN MILITARY SERVICE. Communities adjacent to these centers, as well as those in which expanding war industries are located, have already begun to experience (as this is written in late October) a sharp increase in the demands being made upon their recreational facilities. As the defense program gathers momentum it

[1] *See* Steiner, *infra cit.*

[2] Todd and others, *The Chicago Recreation Survey 1937.* 4 vols. 1937–1939.

[1] *See* Work Projects Administration, *Community Recreation Programs: A Study of WPA Recreation Projects* (*infra cit.*).

is likely to require marked adjustments in the organization and financing of recreational services in many American communities.

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E. C. WORMAN

RESEARCH AND STATISTICS IN SOCIAL WORK.[1] Research in social work seeks to discover social needs and resources or techniques for meeting these needs. As social work eludes precise definition, so research in social work may be difficult to distinguish from related inquiries in the fields of economics, sociology, and political science. Emphasis will be given here, however, to research in problems that organized social work attempts to solve through the provision of social services.

Statistics is one of the tools employed by research in social work as it is in other fields of research. The central collection of statistical reports from agencies engaged in social work, organized on a routine, periodic basis and designed toward analysis of the field of social work, is thought to be of sufficient importance to warrant special attention in this article. Such statistical re-

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

ports are for the most part quantitative statements of the cost of social services, the instances in which services are rendered, and the numbers of families or persons served. Statistics are presented for fields of service that are generally recognized as distinct either in technique or in organization and are sometimes classified according to degrees and kinds of service.

Organizations Engaged in Research

Research in social work may be said to antedate the modern organization of social work itself. John Howard's study of the *State of the Prisons* in England in 1777 set an example that may still guide research in social work. "Heating the cry of the miserable," he wrote, "I devoted my time to their relief. In order to procure it, I made it my business to collect materials, the authenticity of which could not be disputed." Twenty years later Sir Frederic Morton Eden "sent a remarkably faithful and intelligent person; who . . . spent more than a year in travelling from place to place, for the express purpose of obtaining exact information" which was presented in his comprehensive volume on the *State of the Poor*. Nearly a century afterward, in 1886, Charles Booth undertook a study of the *Life and Labour of the People in London* that was to occupy him and a group of associates for seventeen years and whose results influenced the organization of both public relief and voluntary philanthropy in London.

In the United States a counterpart of these early English studies is to be found in Dorothea Dix's study of the conditions of paupers, lunatics, and prisoners. Her memorial to the Massachusetts legislature in 1841 led to the first modern institutional provision for the insane in the United States. By 1847 she had visited 18 state penitentiaries, 300 county jails, and 500 almshouses, and had published *Remarks on Prisons and Prison Discipline in the United States*.

Individual research workers are still contributing to knowledge about social needs and about ways of meeting needs but the expense of extensive social inquiries has led in recent years to their organization chiefly under institutional auspices. Thus research in social work is now undertaken by voluntary social agencies, faculties of universities and schools of social work, research foundations, professional organizations of social workers, governmental committees or commissions, and public welfare agencies.

Voluntary Social Agencies

Some voluntary social agencies and most community chests and councils of social agencies undertake inquiries that may be considered as research in social work. *See* Community Chests and Councils in Social Work. If undertaken by individual agencies these are usually directed toward the exploration of a problem prevalent among the clientele of the agency; if undertaken by community chests and councils of social agencies they are more likely to be directed toward broader aspects of social planning for a local community.

Unfortunately the results of the greater part of this study cannot be found in books that are catalogued and shelved in public and private libraries and are likely therefore to be neglected by students unless special efforts are made to locate them. Even in councils of social agencies and community chests in the larger cities where funds are regularly budgeted for research, the lack of adequate financial resources often limits the proper presentation and preservation of research material. Reports are often hastily prepared for a special purpose, usually cannot be printed because of cost, and finally are filed locally in manuscript form after serving the immediate need. Since such results are not readily available for study in other communities, considerable duplication of effort may occur in the study of problems that are common to many communities. Community Chests and Councils, Inc., has attempted to meet this problem by publishing lists of studies undertaken by local chests and councils, and manuscripts of these stud-

ies are sometimes exchanged by obliging research staffs. Some private libraries, notably the Russell Sage Foundation Library in New York City, also have extensive collections of unpublished reports. The Welfare Council of New York City issues a mimeographed list of its research products comprising 119 titles and has published studies of chronic illness, delinquency, illegitimacy, the problems of youth during the depression, and financial trends in organized social work.

An obstacle even greater than the lack of funds for publication, however, is the lack of time allowed for finished production. Research in the midst of an administrative organization is likely to be research under pressure of time. The demands of a fund distribution committee for immediate information upon which agency budgets can be approved, or the demands of an executive committee for decisions upon proposed mergers between agencies, impose serious limitations upon genuinely scientific research. One of the essentials of research in any field is time for reflection upon the significance of the data. No real reflection is possible, however, under the high pressure of the present community organization for social work, nor is literary production feasible when the next task must be undertaken before the last manuscript is revised.

Given reasonable working conditions, however, research in social work may gain more by the reality of the setting in a social agency than it loses by lack of ideal conditions for work. One of its gains is the result of constant criticism by practical social workers. When the research staff of a council of social agencies is able to maintain a nice balance between the social workers' desire to use the method of research as a method of community organization and the tendency of most research workers to conduct research in over-simplified surroundings, valuable results may be achieved. In a round-table discussion of the question of research in community chests and councils of social agencies at the National Citizens Conference of Community Chests and Councils, Inc., in Detroit in 1940, it was concluded that "research as a major approach cannot be carried on with full success by one or more staff members alone but requires participation by representatives of the varied interests concerned with the problem under consideration. This means that there should be group decision as to the problems to be attacked and group interpretation of the findings and their implications."

Community Chests and Councils, Inc., reports on the basis of replies from 45 cities that programs for social research have been carried on by councils of social agencies and community chests with special staff members assigned to research or statistical work in 35 cities, with staffs ranging from one person part time to eight full-time staff members. These research departments had completed during 1939, 26 studies of agency programs (9 of which were in the field of public service), 21 studies of fields of service (such as care of children and leisure-time activities), 10 area studies, 19 studies of social problems (such as delinquency), and 11 administrative studies (such as reporting procedures and personnel).

The individual member agencies of these and other councils also make studies of importance in the community wherever their resources will permit such activity. The social settlements, such as the Henry Street Settlement in New York City and Hull-House in Chicago, have been particularly well equipped for these studies. *See* SETTLEMENTS. The national social agencies such as the Family Welfare Association of America, the Child Welfare League of America, and the National Organization for Public Health Nursing also have to their credit the planning and publication of studies in the field of social work.

Universities and Schools of Social Work

Research undertaken by the faculties and students of universities and schools of social work is a source of contribution to sci-

entific knowledge in the fields of voluntary social work and public welfare administration. Monographs on child welfare, contributions to the history and theory of social work, and critical evaluation of the methods pursued by public and private agencies by members of the faculty and students have been published by the New York School of Social Work, the School of Social Service Administration of the University of Chicago, and the Pennsylvania School of Social Work (jointly with the Philadelphia Community Council). The American Association of Schools of Social Work has recently made a study of the needs for education and training in relation to the expanding public social services.

Research Foundations

Research in social work in the United States has been financed in large part by privately endowed research foundations, and some of these foundations also carry on research projects through their own research staffs. Pioneer in this field is the Russell Sage Foundation whose publications during three decades have reflected the changes in community problems, the need for social information, and the developing techniques of the social worker. Its list of publications forms an impressive bibliography on the technique of social work. The Commonwealth Fund of New York has contributed studies in the fields of prevention of delinquency, visiting teaching, methods of child guidance, and psychiatric social work. An occasional entrant into research in social work is the Brookings Institution which published in 1935 a general treatise on *Public Welfare Organization* by Arthur C. Millspaugh and has recently undertaken a broad study of the public relief problem. The Twentieth Century Fund has issued studies in the field of old age security. The National Bureau of Economic Research, although devoted primarily to general economic research, in 1928 published *Trends in Philanthropy,* by Willford I. King and, in 1930, *Corporation Contributions to Organized Community Welfare Services,* by Pierce Williams and Frederick E. Croxton. The recent Committee on the Costs of Medical Care and the present Committee on Research in Medical Economics have brought new light on health problems to social workers.

The Social Science Research Council through its committees on Public Administration, Social Security, and Studies in Social Aspects of the Depression has published monographs on various aspects of social insurance, administration of relief, and public assistance, and a comprehensive bibliography on problems of relief. Among these may be mentioned *Administration of Old-Age Assistance in Three States* (1939) by Robert T. Lansdale and associates, *Seven Years of Unemployment Relief in New Jersey* (1938) by Douglas H. MacNeil, *Old-Age Security: Social and Financial Trends* (1939) by Margaret Grant, and *Research Memorandum on Social Work in the Depression* (1937) by F. Stuart Chapin and Stuart A. Queen.

Among local foundations that from time to time have undertaken or published research in social work may be mentioned the Buffalo Foundation, Buhl Foundation of Pittsburgh, Chicago Community Trust, Cleveland Foundation, Helen S. Trounstine Foundation of Cincinnati, and the Judge Baker Guidance Center of Boston.

Foundations financing research in social work but not ordinarily directing or publishing it are numerous. Among these may be mentioned the Carnegie Corporation, Commonwealth Fund, General Education Board, Milbank Memorial Fund, Rockefeller Foundation, Rosenwald Fund, and the Wieboldt Foundation. *See* FOUNDATIONS AND COMMUNITY TRUSTS.

Professional Organizations of Social Workers

The American Association of Social Workers, through its national office, has made significant contributions to research in social work by its job analyses in several

fields of social work. Some of its local chapters have sponsored studies that have served local purposes and occasionally have appeared in mimeographed form. The American Association of Medical Social Workers has published the results of scientific study in the field of medical social work. The National Conference of Social Work serves as a vehicle for reporting the results of research undertaken by individual members of the profession and for the critical professional evaluation of the technical accomplishments in the field. *See* SOCIAL WORK AS A PROFESSION.

Perhaps the greatest contribution to research by social workers themselves lies in the occasional analytical statement of policies and points of view that may be classified as philosophy rather than as research. The report of the Milford Conference on *Social Case Work, Generic and Specific* (1929) is one example. *See* SOCIAL CASE WORK. Such creative analysis is now being undertaken in the field of social group work by the American Association for the Study of Group Work which publishes a journal, *The Group: In Education, Recreation, and Social Work,* as a vehicle for its thought. *See* SOCIAL GROUP WORK. In a third field, that of community organization, similar analysis was initiated under the auspices of the section on Community Organization of the National Conference of Social Work in 1938, and a report of the first year's work was published in the *Proceedings* for 1939. A second report was made at the 1940 Conference. *See* COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION FOR SOCIAL WORK.

Governmental Committees, Commissions, and Conferences

The public investigating commission is also older than social work itself and the English parliamentary poor law commissions, beginning with that of 1819, are well known. Widespread criticism of public welfare organization in the United States during the depression following 1929 gave rise to the appointment of numerous public investigating committees and commissions that have been able in certain instances to collect information of permanent value in the field of public welfare administration. This has been achieved in spite of the controversial situation in which the investigating groups have found themselves and in spite of the general tendency to suppress unpalatable facts. Among state commissions may be mentioned the Governor's Commission on Unemployment Relief of New York State which issued a series of reports in 1935 and 1936, the Citizens' Committee on Public Welfare which reported to the governor of Wisconsin in 1937, the Special Commission on Taxation and Public Expenditures of Massachusetts which reported in 1938, and the Committee on Public Assistance and Relief which reported to the governor of Pennsylvania in 1936. Outstanding among federal commissions of this petiod was the Committee on Economic Security of 1934 which laid the foundations for the Social Security Act and whose final report has been published by the Social Security Board. The published hearings before the Special Senate Committee to Investigate Unemployment and Relief of 1937 also presented comprehensive data about relief needs and administration.

Among other federal committees of the depression period that have contributed either directly or indirectly to the development of organized social work are the following: the Committee on Recent Economic Changes of the President's Conference on Unemployment, for which the National Bureau of Economic Research issued a report in 1930 on *Planning and Control of Public Works;* the President's Research Committee on Social Trends, which published *Recent Social Trends* in 1933; the Great Plains Drought Area Committee, reporting in 1936 (in *Planned Society, Yesterday, Today and Tomorrow,* edited by Findlay Mackenzie); the Great Plains Committee, whose report on the *Future of the Great Plains* was transmitted to Congress by the President in 1937 (75th Cong. 1st Sess. Doc. No. 144); the

President's Committee on Farm Tenancy, which issued a report on farm tenancy in 1937 prepared under the auspices of the National Resources Committee; the Advisory Committee on Education, which published the *Federal Government and Education* in 1938; the Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities, which published in 1938 the *Need for a National Health Program;* and the Advisory Council on Social Security (appointed jointly by the Senate Committee on Finance and the Social Security Board to study the advisability of amending the Social Security Act) which issued its final report in 1938 (76th Cong. 1st Sess. Doc. No. 4).

Quasi-governmental conferences, although not directly engaged in research, may bring together the results of research in an effective way for social improvement. The White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, called by President Franklin D. Roosevelt in 1939, has recently issued a report including a comprehensive compilation of social and economic facts about children and families. *See* WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCES.

Public Welfare Agencies

The most marked advance of recent years in research in social work has been made in public welfare agencies—federal, state, and local. A decade ago only the United States Department of Labor with its Bureau of Labor Statistics, Children's Bureau, and Women's Bureau could be said to be making a contribution on the part of the federal government to scientific research in social work. In 1933, with the establishment of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, the federal government launched a vast social research program which has been continued on a somewhat smaller scale by the Work Projects Administration. Now the Social Security Board, the United States Public Health Service, the Bureau of Home Economics in the Department of Agriculture, and the National Resources Planning Board are also engaged in research either directly or indirectly connected with social work. *See* FEDERAL AGENCIES IN SOCIAL WORK.

The development of research in state and local departments of public welfare has been even more impressive. Prior to 1935 only the states of New York and New Jersey had established research programs in their permanent state departments of social welfare, although many states had conducted social research as a part of their emergency relief programs. Since the enactment of the Social Security Act all states administering public assistance under that Act have been required to collect routine statistics, and in a number of states the statistical requirements have been expanded into a broader social research program. In October, 1939, the Social Security Board published a bibliographical list of *Special Studies in the Field of Public Welfare* (*infra cit.*) that included titles of studies made by twenty different state departments and eight city or county departments of public welfare. A supplementary list was issued in February, 1940. The development in state and local departments has been so rapid that the demand for trained and competent research and statistical personnel exceeds the supply. *See* PUBLIC WELFARE.

SUBJECTS OF RESEARCH

The subject matter of research in social work is as broad in scope and as varied in approach as social work itself. Probably still in the lead in volume are inquiries into the nature and extent of certain social problems such as poverty, chronic illness, unemployment, and uses of leisure time. A comprehensive study of this type—a study of the relief problem throughout the United States—is now under way in the National Resources Planning Board.

The critical appraisal of the technique of a particular social agency or a group of social agencies in a certain field of work also forms a large part of the research undertaken by voluntary social agencies, community chests and councils, schools of social

work, and some governmental agencies. In the Social Security Board the Division of Administrative Studies of the Bureau of Public Assistance conducts such inquiries into the technique of state administration of public assistance. Some state agencies make similar inquiries into local administration. Many national voluntary agencies such as the Family Welfare Association of America, the Child Welfare League of America, Community Chests and Councils, Inc., and the Council of Jewish Federations and Welfare Funds conduct administrative studies at the request of local agencies. Administrative studies are also conducted by certain research organizations and are sometimes provided on a fee basis by organizations such as Public Administration Service.

The historical study of public welfare administration, with emphasis upon the efficacy of certain types of legislation and administration, has also occupied a large place in social work research in recent years. The School of Social Service Administration of the University of Chicago has published studies of public welfare administration in a number of states. The New York State Department of Social Welfare has made a comprehensive historical study of the problem in the state of New York. Studies of particular fields, such as old age assistance, have been made by the Committee on Public Administration of the Social Science Research Council.

Comprehensive social surveys of cities are now seldom made, but a recent community survey of Pittsburgh by Philip Klein and associates, under the auspices of the Citizens' Committee of the Social Study of Pittsburgh and Allegheny County, suggests new points of view for the social survey.

A relatively new topic for research in social work is that of methods of financing social work with special reference to taxation and other economic problems. The subject of equalization methods for federal grants-in-aid to states for public welfare purposes has been approached by the Bureau of Research and Statistics of the Social Security Board and by individual research workers. *See* FINANCING PUBLIC SOCIAL WORK.

Although the development of standards and techniques is an important aspect of professional social work, the research literature in this field is relatively scanty. The *Chicago Standard Budget for Dependent Families* published by the Chicago Council of Social Agencies and relief budgets published by the Heller Committee of the University of California were for many years the leading works on the problem of desirable minimum standards for relief. Recently the Family Welfare Association of America has published *Adequate Family Food Allowances and How to Calculate Them* (1939), prepared by the American Home Economics Association. Many councils of social agencies have issued statements of minimum standards of care or technique for the guidance of agencies in a particular field of work. The standards are usually those upon which agreement can be reached in delegate conferences and committees and are reviewed from time to time with a view to raising the standard.

Beginning with salary studies conducted by Ralph G. Hurlin of the Russell Sage Foundation in 1926, personnel research has become an increasingly popular field for professional organizations of social workers and for councils of social agencies. Comprehensive classifications of social work positions have been developed as a result of studies of personnel in Los Angeles and Dayton. Working conditions, education, professional training, and employment practices have been studied in these cities and in Minneapolis and Peoria (Ill.). The American Association of Social Workers has performed a pioneer task in a more detailed job analysis in several fields of social work.

The development of source materials for research in social work is one of the most neglected fields. The idea of developing within a single social agency facilities for teaching and research, such as those pro-

vided by a modern medical school, hospital, and out-patient department, is now proposed by the Community Service Society of New York. Although social case records have been used for many years for study and teaching of case work, they have not been used very exhaustively for scientific research into human behavior except in the field of delinquency. Moreovet, it is beginning to be recognized that records have not been developed as yet for purposes of research in the process of community organization.

The development of statistical measurement of qualitative aspects of social needs and methods of meeting needs is as yet in its infancy. Some experimentation with an appraisal form for the social work of a community, corresponding to the appraisal form for public health work developed by the American Public Health Association, was carried on by the New York State Department of Social Welfare in one or two communities in New York State. More recently Community Chests and Councils, Inc., has suggested a technique for measurement of social breakdown in a community. This technique, described in *Social Breakdown: A Plan for Measurement and Control* (1939), involves a comparison of statistics for several selected social factors, including the number of unemployable relief cases, the number of divorces, the number of cases handled by juvenile and other courts, and the number of cases of mental disease and deficiency. An obvious weakness in the use of the technique as a general method is the possibility that over a period of time or from one community to another variations in law and in administrative practice may invalidate comparisons of the data. It is conceivable that a rising curve in the number of cases appearing before a juvenile court may indicate rising social consciousness rather than increasing social breakdown. Analysis of such social statistics together with the administrative practices that lie behind the data cannot fail, however, to be of value to any community that undertakes to look into the matter of social breakdown.

United States Census Data

The contribution of the federal government toward knowledge about social problems and about the volume of social services provided by public and voluntary social agencies deserves particular mention in an account of research in social work in the year in which the Sixteenth Decennial Census of the United States was taken (1940).

As early as 1850 the United States Bureau of the Census collected statistics throughout the United States with regard to persons supported wholly or in part at public expense. In 1860 and 1870 the almshouse population was enumerated, and in 1880 the first national census of homeless children was taken. In 1940, as in previous decades, the census of population will provide data on the distribution of the population according to sex, age, color, nativity, country of birth, and other characteristics. Data for families will include size and composition of family, lodgers, servants, number of families living in the same dwelling, and number of gainful workers. More accurate data on the volume of unemployment will be provided than has heretofore been available, and up-to-date information on occupational and industrial classifications of employed workers will be given. New questions included for the first time in the population census will show income and the highest grade reached in school.

In addition to the population census the Sixteenth Census includes for the first time a comprehensive account of housing conditions. Not only rent, value of home, and tenancy, which were included in the Fifteenth Census, but also questions of overcrowding, sanitary facilities, and heating arrangements will be published. Tabulations of housing data will be published for individual blocks in cities of a certain size —a degree of detail not hitherto provided by the census for any other questions. *See* Housing and City Planning.

For several decades the Bureau of the Census has cooperated with local committees in certain cities that desired population statistics for areas smaller than those for which data were ordinarily published. The small tabulation areas for which these local committees request data are known as "census tracts." In 1940 for the first time the cost of tabulation of census tract data will be borne by the federal government, and although locally published will be uniform in presentation from one city to another. The census tract data provide valuable information for social workers, such as the characteristics of the population and data on housing and unemployment in small neighborhoods.

Through its institutional censuses also, the Bureau of the Census has provided for many decades information of value to social workers. Special reports were published in 1930 for the blind and for deaf-mutes, and in 1933 for juvenile delinquents in public institutions. Some of these counts are no longer made in connection with the decennial population census but represent special studies by the Bureau of the Census. In 1933 an enumeration of children in institutions and foster homes throughout the country was made jointly with the United States Children's Bureau. Annual statistics are now collected and published by the Division of Vital Statistics of the Bureau of the Census on marriage and divorce and on inmates of prisons, hospitals for mental diseases, and institutions for the feebleminded and epileptic.

Central Reporting of Statistics

The recording and reporting of statistics of social work by public and voluntary agencies responsible for the administration of services is one of the most noteworthy developments of the past decade. Statistics of social work are not entirely new, since the United States Bureau of the Census collected data on relief recipients as early as 1850. Moreover, for many years state departments supervising local public and voluntary social agencies have collected statistics from agencies and institutions under their supervision. As early as 1869 such statistics were published in the state of New York by the Board of State Commissioners of Public Charities. The present State Department of Social Welfare is the descendant of that early Board; and through an unbroken series of annual reports from 1869 through 1935 this agency has presented statistics of welfare administration in the state of New York.

Social agencies and institutions, whether organized under public or private auspices, also have been accustomed to the annual duty of preparing a report showing the accomplishments and problems of the agency and the needs of its clientele. Annual reports are prepared by local public agencies for county boards of supervisors or for the mayor or board of aldermen. Such reports are prepared also by voluntary agencies, not only for their own boards of directors but also for central coordinating agencies or financial federations such as councils of social agencies and community chests.

Efforts to improve the reports of individual agencies in their statistical aspects and to make the statistics comparable from agency to agency and from city to city have been made continuously since 1924, when Raymond Clapp of the Cleveland Welfare Federation in cooperation with Community Chests and Councils, Inc. (then known as the American Association for Community Organization) undertook the first study of volume and cost of social work in 19 cities in the United States. That undertaking led to the establishment in 1928 of a registration area for the collection of social statistics, first under the auspices of a joint committee of the University of Chicago and the Association of Community Chests and Councils and later transferred to the United States Children's Bureau. The registration area for the collection of social statistics under the direction of the Children's Bureau has been in existence for ten years and now includes 44 cities. In subject matter this reg-

istration area includes not only statistics of child care but statistics of the entire field of social work and also hospitals and out-patient departments. The reporting system covers financial data as well as service data, and in 1939 the Children's Bureau issued a report on the total cost of social work in 29 cities.

Improvement in the statistics of social agencies through the establishment of a central reporting system was begun also as early as 1926 by Ralph G. Hurlin of the Russell Sage Foundation, first in the field of family welfare and relief and later in other fields. The Bureau of Jewish Social Research began collecting figures from Jewish agencies throughout the United States in 1929 and the Council of Jewish Federations and Welfare Funds (which has taken over the activities of the Bureau) now publishes an annual volume on statistics of family welfare, child care, hospitals, dispensaries, and care of the aged under Jewish auspices throughout the United States. Moreover, all the importanr national social agencies have been concerned with the improvement of statistics in their own functional fields and several of these collect statistics periodically from their own agencies. The national agencies and national professional associations have made their chief contribution through the publication of handbooks that define terms and describe statistical procedure. While most of these handbooks have appeared since 1932, work was in progress on all of them before that time. Handbooks are now available for statistics of legal aid (1924), child guidance clinics (1930), public health nursing (1932), medical social service (1933), family welfare (1934), and hospitals (1935). A series of handbooks was published by the New York State Department of Social Welfare in 1935 and 1936 to improve local statistical reporting in the field of foster care of children, hospitals, out-patient departments, private institutions for the aged, and mothers' allowances.

Despite the improvement both in quantity and in quality of the statistical reporting by social agencies since 1924, it is still impossible to produce for the United States a comprehensive statement of the volume and cost of public and private social services such as that published for the British Social Services by the Committee on Political and Economic Planning. Even in New York State, where the reporting is more complete than in any other state, there are gaps in reports from the voluntary social agencies in certain fields. Only in the field of public relief is it possible to publish each month for the United States as a whole, and for each state and local community, the number of cases, households, or persons receiving assistance and the amount of assistance received.

The present fairly complete state of public relief statistics is the result of cooperation among state and local agencies achieved under the leadership of five federal agencies (United States Children's Bureau, Federal Emergency Relief Administration—liquidated June 30, 1938, Work Projects Administtation, Social Security Board, and Central Statistical Board) with the encouragement of the Joint Committee on Relief Statistics of the American Public Welfare Association and the American Statistical Association.

The Children's Bureau

The Children's Bureau played the first part in the federal development of relief statistics. Interested in the imptovement of statistics of local child-caring institutions and agencies and the relation of these statistics to those of other social work agencies, it assumed responsibility in 1930 for the collection of social work statistics from a number of cities which had been begun by the Association of Community Chests and Councils and the University of Chicago in 1928. Early in 1932, monthly collection and publication of complete relief statistics for 120 urban areas, begun by the Russell Sage Foundation, was also taken over by the Children's Bureau. Continued throughout

the depression, this series has supplied a valuable current guide to changes in the volume of various types of relief. The series was transferred in July, 1936, to the Social Security Board. A detailed summary report of the data through 1935 was published by the Children's Bureau. A second summary has been prepared for publication by the Social Security Board.

The Children's Bureau has also made important contributions to social work statistics through special studies of maternal and infant deaths. As mentioned above, it participated in the decennial census of child-caring institutions and agencies in 1933. Its statistics of work permits issued to children of school age since 1920 have given clear evidence of the decline in child labor both before and during the depression, and of the effect of the National Recovery Administration codes in almost eliminating work certification of children under sixteen years of age. The Children's Bureau has effected the standardization of juvenile court statistics through its collection and publication of these data beginning with 1927. The Bureau is now engaged in organizing nation-wide reporting of maternal and child health, crippled children, and child welfare services, which it is administering under the provisions of the Social Security Act. A complete national register of crippled children, showing the extent of need for physical restoration, is being developed. A study of child adoption, now in progress, will yield important new statistics.

FERA–WPA

The current reporting system established by the Federal Emergency Relief Administration (FERA) early in 1933 produced practically complete national statistics of unemployment relief throughout the country during the period in which federal grants were made to the states for direct and work relief. Monthly reports from counties were obtained through state offices, covering case loads, relief granted, administrative costs, and sources of funds. During the latter part of the period, applications and movement of cases were also reported. With the introduction of the Works Program and withdrawal of federal grants for general relief in the latter half of 1935, the reporting system for relief from state and local governments was seriously impaired. The Works Progress Administration (WPA), however, continued to collect and publish statistics each month, supplying its own estimates for areas for which reports were lacking or inadequate. In April, 1937, this reporting system for general relief was transferred to the Social Security Board, which by that time had established direct relations with most state welfare departments and was already collecting statistics on public assistance administered under the Social Security Act. The Works Progress Administration (now the Work Projects Administration) continued to be responsible for compilation and publication of statistics of operations under various phases of the comprehensive Works Program.

In addition to collecting current, routine reports the Bureau of Social Research of the FERA, later of the WPA, has produced a vast amount of valuable statistical information concerning various aspects of the relief problem. In October, 1933, it made a substantially complete census of emergency relief cases, the results of which have been published in a series of three reports. In March, 1935, in anticipation of the new work program, an occupational census was made covering employable persons on relief. Special statistical studies of relief problems in both rural and urban areas have been made.

The Social Security Board

The Division of Public Assistance Research in the Bureau of Research and Statistics of the Social Security Board now publishes each month in the *Social Security Bulletin* public relief statistics for the United States and for each state. An integrated series including WPA statistics and the sta-

tistics of other public aid programs is published and an estimated, unduplicated count of households and persons receiving relief is given. The Division is also continuing the series of urban relief statistics from voluntary as well as public agencies transferred from the Children's Bureau in 1936. The most recent addition to the Board's several statistical series on relief is the collection of more detailed relief data from public welfare agencies in cities of 400,000 or more. Statistics of unemployment insurance and of old age and survivors' insurance are also published by the Social Security Board in the *Social Security Bulletin*. Special studies in the field of public assistance are also undertaken from time to time by the Division of Public Assistance Research and are published in the *Social Security Bulletin*. A plan for a case census to be taken in local communities was issued in 1938. A study of the forms of administration of general relief is now in progress. The Division is also cooperating with the Bureau of Public Assistance in a study of the causes of blindness among recipients of aid to the blind.

Central Statistical Board

The Central Statistical Board has contributed toward the improvement of national relief statistics through the exercise of its advisory function in relation to statistical inquiries by the several federal agencies. Established by executive order in 1933, the Board's function has been to plan and promote the improvement, development, and coordination of federal statistical services and to eliminate duplication among them. On July 25, 1940, the Board's functions were taken over by the Division of Statistical Standards of the Bureau of the Budget.

Joint Committee on Relief Statistics

The Joint Committee on Relief Statistics was organized by the American Statistical Association and the American Public Welfare Association in 1936 at the request of the Social Security Board. Advice to the Division of Public Assistance Research of the Social Security Board is, however, only one of its functions. It has also exercised the independent function of improvement in relief statistics through three methods: the publication of a series of papers on relief statistics; the publication of an occasional bulletin of information to relief statisticians; and the sponsoring of conferences of federal, state, and local relief statisticians.

State Agencies

The rapid development of research programs in state and local public welfare agencies has been mentioned above. In the field of relief reporting the development is even more marked. As a result, first of the FERA program for the collection of relief statistics, and more recently of the requirements of the Social Security Board, a very nearly complete and coordinated network of reporting systems has been developed at the local and state levels to build into the national total of amounts of public assistance. It is still impossible for most states and localities to estimate the total unduplicated number of households and persons receiving assistance but data are available for the numbers of cases receiving various types of assistance.

Most state departments of public welfare now publish monthly statistical bulletins giving county and city figures and state totals. The *Social Security Bulletin* in its issues for May and June, 1938, listed 58 of these periodicals. These state bulletins and also some of those published by local agencies, such as the Philadelphia County Relief Board, are also vehicles for the publication of special studies in the field of public assistance.

Periodicals Publishing Research Studies

Although the expense of publication has prevented the issue of many studies in the field of social work, the availability of space in several periodicals devoted to the field is

an encouraging development of recent years. *Survey Midmonthly, Survey Graphic,* and *Social Work Today* publish articles based upon research in social work, for the general reader as well as the professional social worker. *The Family,* monthly organ of the Family Welfare Association of America, is devoted primarily to the technique of family case work. *The Social Service Review,* a quarterly published by the School of Social Service Administration of the University of Chicago, presents the results of current inquiries in the fields of public and voluntary social work, summarizes public documents of importance to social work, and presents historical materials. *Social Forces,* published by the University of North Catolina, contains articles on the technique of social work as well as more general studies in the field of social research. *The Jewish Social Service Quarterly* is devoted to results of research with particular reference to problems of Jewish social work. The annual *Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work* and the bulletins of several state conferences of social work contain the papers presented at these professional meetings of social workers.

The *Social Security Bulletin,* published monthly since January, 1938, contains articles on public assistance and the social insurances in addition to statistics of administration. Bulletins published in recent years by the state departments of public welfare of a number of states have included significant analyses of current practices in social welfare administration. *The Social Service Year Book,* published by the Chicago Council of Social Agencies, is one example of an effective method of preserving summaries of the results of research in social work undertaken by local voluntary social agencies. *Trends,* published quarterly by the Division of Social Studies of the Los Angeles Council of Social Agencies, is a recent addition to the list of social work periodicals. Articles of interest to social workers appear also in the *Journal of the American Statistical Association, American Journal of Sociology, American Sociological Review, American Economic Review, Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Monthly Labor Review,* and the *Public Welfare News* of the American Public Welfare Association.

Education and Training for Research

Education and training for research in social work are given at several of the professional schools of social work where the facilities for academic education are combined with resources for first-hand investigation into the problems with which social agencies deal. Minimum requirements for personnel in the field of research in social work include graduate study in professional social work and in the social sciences, ability to plan and conduct independent research, and judgment and skill in the analysis and presentation of results.

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RURAL SOCIAL PROGRAMS.[1] Although social work has been less extensively organized in rural than in urban communities, numerous significant developments have taken place during the past thirty years. An extension of social work is steadily going on in rural America, as social problems and maladjustments are increasingly discovered and governments and public opinion make a response to them. The definition of "rural" most commonly accepted is that of the Bureau of the Census which includes under this category persons living in the open country and in villages and towns having up to 2,500 people. The magnitude of this population group is apparent when one considers that there are almost 7,000,000 farms in the nation, possibly nearly 100,000 small hamlets, villages, and towns, and over 3,000 counties with rural population.

The farm population, according to the latest annual estimate made by the Division of Farm Population and Rural Welfare of the United States Department of Agriculture, was 32,059,000 persons in January, 1939. The "all-time" high for persons living on farms was 32,077,000 in January, 1910. From 1910 to 1927 there was a decline of about 2,000,000 individuals in the farm population. From 1927 to 1939 there was a net increase of about 2,000,000 in

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

the same group; and many abandoned farms were taken up by people who might otherwise have had to apply to city relief agencies. During the same period, however, literally millions of people left farms for villages, towns, and cities, yielding to the pressure of the excess of births over deaths on farms. The birth rate of families on farms is double that of families living in cities of over 100,000 population. In addition to the farm population there were 23,662,710 persons living in places with less than 2,500 people—the so-called "rural, non-farm" group.

Social and Economic Trends

Certain of the social and economic trends in rural life are of peculiar interest to social workers: for example the growth of tenancy, which has proceeded steadily since 1880 until within recent years the number of farm tenants has increased at the rate of 40,000 annually. It is generally agreed that an increasing rate of tenancy makes for a less stable and satisfactory community life. American farmers owned a much lower percentage of the total value of farm land in 1935, the year of the latest agricultural census, than did the farm operators of 1880.

Another great rural social problem is increasing mobility of the population. Especially during the 1930's had migration of farm and village people made for an acute situation in certain areas, notably the West Coast. By 1940 it was estimated that more than 2,000,000 rural people were members of families who were at home only on the road. They were displaced and uprooted people. The weather and man's unwise use of the land contributed mightily to migration by creating the "Dust Bowl" in the Southwest and other parts of the Great Plains. Mechanization of cotton and wheat culture went rapidly on. Sharecroppers tended to become day laborers or to become not needed at all in the cotton country. In their "jalopies" they went west, looking for a chance for seasonal labor on the large-scale farms of California. Here they received national attention, largely through Steinbeck's *The Grapes of Wrath* and the motion picture based upon it. *See* MIGRANTS, TRANSIENTS, AND TRAVELERS.

Thus rural America finds itself in the midst of trends for which modern industry and commerce are largely responsible. Commercial agriculture has been plunged into a price and market regime. But there are large numbers of people unfitted for commercial agriculture and unable to migrate successfully to cities for jobs because of mass unemployment in urban areas. Thus we are witnessing heavy rural population pressure upon urban areas and vice versa. The resulting stress and strain have made it necessary for one rural family out of every four to receive some form of public assistance during the years following 1929. In addition, soil depletion has been so extensive that experts of the United States Department of Agriculture estimate that half a million farm families are living on land so poor that they are raising an inadequate supply of food, and that more than one-fourth of all farm families are living under what have been popularly called "slum" conditions.

The wealth of the nation has tended to be concentrated in cities. Farm families make up about 23 per cent of the people but they have had for about fifteen years less than 10 per cent of the total cash income of the people of the nation. This is one of the basic elements conditioning rural social work and explains in part why rural schools, for example, receive only about one-half the support per teacher that prevails in urban schools; why there is a lack of elementary medical and health services in large areas; and why there is lively discussion of the method of federal grants-in-aid for the support of rural public education, libraries, and social and health services generally.

The total rural situation is a dynamic one, with a ferment of public discussion going on about the reasons for the disadvantaging conditions and what should be done about them. There is a school of thought

that emphasizes self-help. The old expression "The Lord helps those that help themselves" is increasingly being modified in rural communities to read "The Lord helps those who help each other." Techniques of mutual aid are being zealously sought after. Rural opinion has never been "sold" on the indefinite continuation of cash relief through government. Farm people have joined voluntary cooperatives much more readily than city people, even though the farmers are usually labeled the more individualistic. A few self-help cooperatives designed to permit men without money to produce limited items for their own use persist in rural areas. In addition, cooperatives for marketing and purchasing have been widely extended. During recent years cooperatives handling farm supplies have bought over 12 per cent of the feed, seed, and fertilizer purchased. Marketing cooperatives have sold for farmers about 15 per cent of the products annually sent to cities. There were in 1939 over 20,000 farmers' cooperatives of all types. *See* Cooperation in CONSUMER INTERESTS.

Cooperatives increasingly regard themselves as agencies of adult education and are interested in organized recreation. Many of our American farm cooperatives thus put themselves squarely in line with the Rochdale tradition of devoting a portion of the surplus of the business to education. The group of cooperatives associated with the Ohio Farm Bureau appropriated $140,000 in 1939 for education and recreation. Does this practice, perhaps, offer a new way of financing social enterprise? Thus far taxation and private philanthropy have financed social work. It may be that new possibilities will be opened up by the emphasis on economic cooperatives in rural communities.

Rural people, like urban people, have looked to governmental agencies for increasing services and have utilized democratic government itself as a most important technique of mutual aid. The most widespread and spectacular of the new agencies has probably been the Agricultural Adjustment Administration (AAA), begun early in 1933. The original AAA aimed to adjust the production of important export crops to the effective demand of domestic markets and the greatly reduced export demand that the international financial crisis that began in 1929 had brought to the farmers. It was the "export acres" that were originally to be taken out of production.

By 1940 the national farm program had become of greater magnitude and significance. The United States Department of Agriculture, which has had research, regulatory, and educational functions, has also become, in a few of its branches, frankly an agency of social action. Its general staff has been described as one of the most notable of all those engaged in any form of social planning anywhere in the world. The Department has also for some time been known as the largest research organization in the world. In short, the federal government has been carrying on as banker, functioning as conserver of the soil, and assisting in marketing operations by attempting to keep production in line with effective demand. The conservation activities have been very important, both from the point of view of their education of the people and the changing of old attitudes of exploitation of soil into more constructive social channels, and from the point of view of the preservation of wealth and national resources.

The national farm program has been flexible and offers an example of a democratic government carrying on great experiments in a time of crisis. It has been observed that its chief results have been educational rather than economic; it has given the people an opportunity to learn by doing and to become familiar with their social and economic situation while trying various ways and means of improving it. These gigantic efforts to improve the economic status of the farm population are the concern of every social worker. Should they be successful they might tend to reduce disabilities, promote stable community life, and in-

deed make it possible for farm people to contribute financially to social enterprise to a degree far beyond their current capacity.

Farm Security Administration

The governmental agency closest to social work and the spearhead of national relief efforts among farm families is the Farm Security Administration (FSA). Its wide program is one of relief, rehabilitation, and resettlement. The FSA has employed numerous social workers to carry on its activities. Since 1935 over 1,231,000 of our 7,000,000 farm families have received some form of assistance from this agency. In the fiscal year 1938–1939, 589,000 families were helped. The FSA aims eventually to help farm families on or near relief to become self-supporting.

The FSA report for the fiscal year 1938–1939 records the building since 1933 of 161 new communities housing over 14,000 families. Certain of these have combined industry and agriculture. Others have been frankly small farm projects in which people poorly situated have been located in more favorable conditions. For example, at Penderlea, N. C., families from all parts of the state were resettled on tracts of rich loam and supervised in the management of diversified farms producing vegetables, fruits, and animals. At Lake Dick, Ark., 80 farmer-sharecroppers have become cooperative farmers cultivating an unbroken tract of 2,600 acres. These former workers on plantations are being helped to a new kind of life, continuing to work under supervision to which they were accustomed, but also being given opportunity eventually to own land, tools, animals, and small homes.

During the same period the FSA made rehabilitation loans to over 63,000 families from among a total of 232,947 families (including 1,186,302 persons) who made applications and whose situations were studied during the fiscal year. In 1939 the total amount of loans outstanding was $280,837,769, made to 589,000 farmers. Collections proceeded at the rate of 80 per cent of amounts due, except in drought areas. Emergency subsistence grants at the rate of $20 a month were made to families, the cash disbursement for this purpose amounting to $22,758,444. In the month of June, 1939, 69,000 needy families received these grants. It should be emphasized that the FSA is making loans and grants to destitute people who have no security and no credit standing—"the worst possible credit risks."

The importance of land ownership is emphasized by rural leaders everywhere. Sharing this point of view the FSA has carried on an extensive tenant-purchase program. In 1939, long-time mortgage loans were made to 4,340 persons, of which 722 were to Negroes in 14 southern states. Recipients of these loans lived in 732 counties. The tenant-purchase program was authorized by Congress in 1937 following extensive studies of the President's Farm Tenancy Commission. The appropriation for loans of this type was $25,000,000 in 1939, of which 5 per cent was used for administration and the balance allocated. The demand for loans was great: there were 146,090 applications during the year and an average of 34 potential borrowers for each loan made. Applications for loans must be approved by county committees consisting of three local farmers. Also, each farm selected for purchase must be appraised by the local committee. Each family agrees to follow a farm-and-home-management plan worked out in cooperation with agents of the Extension Service of the United States Department of Agriculture. Loans are secured by first mortgages on the property, including land and improvements. In May, 1940, Congress authorized the Reconstruction Finance Corporation to make available for farm tenant loans the sum of $50,000,000.

A recent expansion of the operations of the FSA has been the setting up of camps for the use of seasonal farm laborers. The need for such camps has increased rapidly, particularly on the West Coast, and the camp program has been expanded in order

to meet it. In the area served by the FSA it is estimated that there are from 200,000 to 350,000 migrating families working the crops and having extremely bad living conditions. Frequently they find little or no provision for shelter, health protection, or schooling. Twenty-six stationary and six mobile camps in seven states—Arizona, California, Florida, Idaho, Oregon, Texas, and Washington—have been established. The stationary camps consist of rows of tent platforms and a few permanent one-room shelters laid along graveled streets. The camps are equipped with sanitary units. The camp residents elect a campers' committee which serves as a governing body and represents the entire population in its relation with the management. Every family pays 10 cents a day into a general fund handled by the camp committee. Each person in the camp is expected to contribute two hours' work a week in return for the general use of the camp ground.

The small mobile camps can be moved by truck from one area to another as the migrant families follow the crops. These measures have been very effective in relieving misery and in protecting both the migrants and the near-by communities from epidemics. It is recognized by the FSA, however, that the provision of these camps and shelters represents only a beginning toward a solution of the migrant labor problem. This is stated in the latest annual report to call for two procedures: (a) for the surplus workers other employment must be found than that available in seasonal work on the large commercial farms, and (b) for those actually needed to harvest the crops there must be provision for decent shelter, opportunities to educate children, and wise guidance and advice as to where jobs may be found.

Extension Service

The Extension Service of the United States Department of Agriculture and the state colleges of agriculture administer cooperatively the most widespread rural program in the nation.[1] The national effort, begun in 1914, has been built through a system of grants-in-aid upon experimental work previously begun in the states. Agricultural extension in its early stages emphasized vocational adult education, working with small groups on specific projects. The program is still mainly vocational but a moderate expansion, particularly of the work among women and young people, has taken place. *See* 4-H Clubs in BOYS' AND GIRLS' WORK ORGANIZATIONS.

During the fiscal year 1938–1939 the total expenditure for agricultural extension was $32,402,254 of which $17,955,485 was federal money, the balance coming from within the states, including county and farm organization funds. There were 8,769 professional workers in the Service, of whom 1,570 were subject-matter specialists assigned on state staffs to supplement the work of the numerous agents at work in 3,075 counties. (In 1940, provision was made for 1,660 specialists.) The county extension workers tend to be "generalists" rather than specialists. They mediate between specialists and laymen and train numerous lay leaders. It has been said that many farmers become teachers of their fellows by supervising local demonstration. The demonstration of methods found good in experience was the original basis of the program but today it has been supplemented by practically all the techniques well known in adult education, particularly the use of pamphlets and visual aids.

The range of services of the agricultural extension work may be indicated by enumerating the areas of work of certain of the specialists in 1940, particularly in fields closely related to social work. Eighteen persons were specialists in child care and training, 65 in clothing, 5 in health and sanitation, 65 in home management, 19 in home training, 8 in home industries and crafts, 72 in nutrition, 8 in food preservation, 7 in exhibits, 15 in extension schools, 15 in ru-

[1] For a list of these colleges see STATE AGENCIES—PUBLIC in Part Two.

ral organization, 33 in rural sociology, and 5 in rural youth—all "not far from social work" and all part of the rural social enterprise of the nation.

The Extension Service has cooperated closely with the AAA and many other governmental agencies which carry on part of the national farm program. It is said to be the most effective means of communicating information to the farmers of the nation. It was widely organized before many of the newer agencies were formed, and they have naturally sought to relate their work to it. A notable example is the Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA), which in carrying forward its agricultural program in its region found that it could proceed best in most counties by employing an assistant county agent to work with the other extension workers. In this way much of the important conservation work, including the distribution of samples of fertilizers, the demonstration of terracing, ditching, strip plowing, and so forth, has gone forward.

Other Governmental Services

The TVA has numerous functions, its program being urban as well as rural as it proceeds with the unified development of the Tennessee Valley. Rural people, however, have a special interest in many parts of it. The TVA builds dams, generates, distributes, and sells power, controls floods, improves navigation, conserves and plants forests, improves soil, prevents erosion, invents new low-cost machines for farm use, encourages local industry and farm cooperatives, stimulates progressive schools, provides for the recreation of the people, educates its workers, and so forth. The Civilian Conservation Corps, about half of whose enrollees are rural boys, has actively worked in cooperation with TVA. *See* Civilian Conservation Corps in YOUTH PROGRAMS.

The food stamp plan administered by the Federal Surplus Commodities Corporation (now the Surplus Marketing Administration, United States Department of Agriculture), begun in 1939, has had important implications for rural social policy as well as for urban home relief agencies. The Corporation during recent years has used various methods to encourage the use of farm supplies, for which there was no effective demand through customary markets. It has, for example, purchased outright numerous foods and donated them to public relief agencies which have in turn distributed the supplies to supplement the food budgets of families on home relief. The food stamp plan, begun in Rochester in May, 1939, and since widely extended, set up a system whereby persons on home and work relief by purchasing a minimum quantity of food per week received in return, without charge, stamps to exchange for additional designated quantities of foods supplied by the Corporation and distributed through regular merchandising channels.

The food stamp plan was soon followed by the cotton stamp plan, first applying to mattresses and more recently to low-cost cotton clothing. This plan has proceeded experimentally, city by city, and in a few instances has been made applicable to all low-income families of a city and not only to those on relief. It has raised interesting questions, such as this: "If huge federal funds are to be appropriated in the form of various aids to agriculture, would it be better to use them mainly to stimulate consumption rather than to reward farmers for reducing production?" There are those who think this plan may presage a shift in the whole national farm program and provide for a frontal attack to meet the challenge of under-consumption, with relatively less emphasis on problems of over-production.

The United States Children's Bureau has throughout its history had a rural-urban program. It has made, for example, pioneering studies of conditions of child labor in agriculture, as distinguished from family work on farms. Many of its educational publications on child care and child health have been much needed in rural areas. Lately the rural public has had a special interest in those provisions of the Social Se-

curity Act which are administered by the Children's Bureau, because some of these activities were begun in recognition of the urgent needs of neglected rural children. Certain of the funds are apportioned to the states according to the percentage which the rural population of the state is of the total rural population of the nation. *See* CHILD WELFARE, CRIPPLED CHILDREN, and MATERNAL AND CHILD HEALTH.

Still another financial grant of the Social Security Act, that of $8,000,000 annually for general public health activities in counties, is administered by the United States Public Health Service. The Public Health Service reported in 1939 that 1,371 counties had public health departments with full-time personnel. In 1935, prior to passage of the Act, only 594 counties had such departments; the 1939 figure was an increase of 130 per cent over 1935. The residents in villages and farms are thus experiencing a rapid improvement in these facilities. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH.

Rural America is also interested in the general federal social security program, more so in old age assistance and old age and survivors' insurance than in unemployment compensation. Thus far agriculture and agricultural labor have been exempted from the application of the social insurance features of the social security law. But there seems to be increasing rural public discussion of ways and means of gradually extending the Social Security Act to groups not originally covered. This applies particularly to old age and survivors' insurance. Many elderly people who retire on allowances or insurance prefer to live in villages and the open country because of relatively low living costs, and thus rural communities promise soon to become increasingly aware of social insurance.

Throughout the whole history of work relief, rural communities have been as much interested as urban in relief policy. Activities of the Work Projects Administration (WPA) and its predecessors have in some instances been of peculiar use to rural areas. An instance is the building and repair of farm-to-market roads, secondary highways not included in the regular federal road program but of special value to farmers going back and forth to village and town for markets and supplies. During the fiscal year 1938–1939 the WPA made ready for public use 110,000 miles of highways, of which 97,884 were rural roads of the farm-to-market type. These extensive road-building operations provided for the construction and improvement of 255 miles of unpaved roads per day. New construction included 17,596 bridges and viaducts, mainly in rural areas. Certain WPA activities have been much more needed in rural than urban areas, for example, library extension. One of the most potent forces in popularizing library extension during the past six years has been the demonstration work done by WPA. In numerous instances WPA rural library projects have convinced communities that they ought to have permanent local library services. Although most WPA undertakings are construction jobs, rural areas have been greatly assisted by the "white collar" projects in adult education and particularly in recreation, since most rural recreation remains unorganized. *See* WORK RELIEF.

In home relief activities, rural America has received the services of numerous state and county welfare departments which have gradually been equipped with better-trained county personnel for the administration of public assistance. When home relief was financed by the Federal Emergency Relief Administration during 1933–1935, every county in the nation had a local relief office although at least one-half of these local offices did not have the services of a trained social worker. Now that states and local governments have the main responsibility for home relief, the trend has been toward the establishment of county public welfare departments on a permanent basis. *See* PUBLIC WELFARE.

Voluntary Services

Rural voluntary social work differs markedly from that in cities. Rural social control is far different from urban. Many social workers learn these lessons reluctantly, or at least with difficulty. For one thing simple, unorganized, mutual aid still is carried on in many rural areas, just as barter often takes the place of cash transactions. Old-fashioned neighborliness and the informal social work of little churches are powerful and constructive social forces which the organizer of social work ignores at his peril. The National Catholic Welfare Conference, National Conference of Catholic Charities, Home Missions Council, Council of Women for Home Missions, Jewish Agricultural Society, and the National Council of Jewish Women have all encouraged local churches and voluntary organizations to render more effective services and to take an interest in organized social work.

Most national voluntary social work agencies carry on both urban and rural activities and often do not "departmentalize" them. The National Child Labor Committee, for example, has consistently emphasized both these aspects of its task. It has continually called attention to the large amount of child labor in large-scale commercial agriculture (now much larger than that in any other industry). The tural public has been relatively uninterested in child labor legislation because it fears interference with children's work on farms. But with a steady growth of corporation farming on a large scale, the problem of work on "industrialized farms" needs separate attention and seems to be getting more than was the case five or ten years ago. The group work agencies all have reason for a special interest in rural communities since these offer many small, informal groups of adults, young people, or children for social or educational programs.

The national voluntary agencies interested in the improvement of case work are constantly making their contribution, mainly to the improvement of this technique among governmental institutions and public assistance agencies. This field particularly emphasizes the need and opportunity of voluntary-governmental relationships. Throughout the rural regions notable work is being done in this difficult atea. State conferences of social work and the National Conference of Social Work have done much to promote mutual understanding and cooperation. The financial situation being what it is, there seems to be more prospect of expanding rural social work through taxation, particularly federal grants-in-aid, than through any other method. But voluntary social enterprise nevertheless has vital functions in rural communities.

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SETTLEMENTS. The first settlement, Toynbee Hall, was established in London in 1884 by Samuel A. Barnett, then vicar of St. Jude's Parish and later Canon of Westminster. Canon Barnett laid down the broad lines of settlement purpose and method, and first used the term "settlement" to describe a group of people living in a neighborhood and identifying themselves with its life and interest as a means of understanding and bettering conditions. His conviction that the settlement must be free of ecclesiastical control and proselyting differentiated it at the outset from the "missions" long established in congested areas. University Settlement, New York City, established in 1886 as Neighborhood Guild, was the first American settlement. College Settlement, New York City, and Hull-House, Chicago, were both opened in the fall of 1889. Settlements increased rapidly in the next decade and during the early part of the present century to meet the needs of different areas.

The early American settlement workers were directly influenced by Toynbee Hall, but they developed their own methods and applied them to a wide variety of urban situations. The first American settlements were founded by individuals who felt a strong urge to create public opinion in regard to the appalling conditions which followed the rapid growth of industry and the concentration of immigrants in the larger cities. The pioneers gathered a group of persons about them as co-workers in the enterprise. The resident group became a household living in the neighborhood, and the common table to which guests could be invited became a potent force in stimulating exchange of ideas and new ventures. Young college graduates were drawn into the work through research fellowships; and the settlement came to provide one of the best channels through which an insight into social conditions and experience in social work could be secured.

In the second stage of development, groups of citizens—sometimes representing church or secular organizations—who felt a strong social responsibility organized, sought a base for operations, and brought together a paid and volunteer staff to carry on the work in the locality they had selected. Some older philanthropic organizations, such as boys' clubs, missions, day nurseries, and the like, adopted the name or the method and have become part of the movement. Finally, there gradually emerged groups of citizens

responsible for finance and property, and a staff—both professional and volunteer—which carried on the work. The board and contributors, residents and staff, and the "neighbors" thus came to make up the three integral parts of settlement organization.

Characteristics of a Settlement

The typical settlement works in a well-defined geographic-population area, and residence of a part of the staff in the neighborhood has come to be recognized as one of its characteristics. The family in its neighborhood setting is thus its primary concern. The settlement works with both sexes and all ages, without barriers of race or creed. It holds to no particular dogma or political allegiance. Its informality and friendliness is understood by the neighbors and expected by them as part of the characteristic atmosphere and approach. The settlement tries to increase the services available to its neighbors and to help them use existing facilities more intelligently. It therefore develops working relationships with the schools, the churches, and the social agencies and public officials in the neighborhood and community.

The experience and research of settlement workers and residents is a valuable resource for the education of public opinion, for social legislation, and for work with city-wide committees and national, state, and local public bodies. As a basis for their current programs, settlements must continually make intensive studies of conditions in their neighborhoods[1] and in addition draw on factual material about their neighborhoods from other sources.

Specialized settlements work with persons of one race or nationality or render a single type of service, such as in music, the arts, or physical recreation. Church neighborhood houses follow the lines of the typical settlement in all aspects except that of control by an ecclesiastical group. Many are free to persons of all creeds and some do no religious work.

Settlements secure their operating funds from private gifts and, since the rise of community chests and councils of social agencies, have shared in the general planning for social agencies. *See* COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION FOR SOCIAL WORK. Certain houses whose endowment funds have made it possible, or whose boards prefer to maintain the settlement independently, remain outside the chests. Along with other private social agencies, settlements have found their incomes diminished during the depression and have reorganized their work to meet this situation. They have curtailed many valuable pieces of work and have encountered great difficulties in starting much-needed experiments.

Choice of activities in the current program at any given time depends on the particular interests of board and staff, on the needs and characteristic demands of the neighborhood as they come to know them, and on other resources available in the area. Thus a house may emphasize physical recreation at one time and at another, health, the arts, music, painting, sculpture, or the dance. Generally a number of such activities will be carried on simultaneously though the emphasis will change from time to time.

It has become part of the settlement method to endeavor, once a project has been thoroughly demonstrated, to promote its wider application through public tax-supported agencies or by specialized agencies.

Group Work and Case Work

As a basis for its intimate association with its neighborhood, the settlement has always worked through the self-selected social group, usually termed the "club." The need for a place where children and adults

[1] For example, Brightmoor Community Center in Detroit has published a study entitled *Brightmoor: A Community in Action;* Greenwich House in New York City, *Longshoremen and Their Homes;* and Henry Street Settlement, New York City, *A Dutchman's Farm: Three Hundred and One Years at Corlears Hook: 1638–1939; Can We Renovate the Slums: A Study of 54 Remodeled Tenements on the Lower East Side;* and *Rooms of Their Own: A Survey of 28 Lower East Side Social Clubs.*

can meet together to follow their own bent and to do things which they enjoy with associates of their own choosing has been sensed from the first, together with the possibilities these groups afford for promoting the development of the individual. The chance for children and young people to enlarge their experience and to stretch their horizons through the activities in the settlement has contributed richly to both children and leaders. The group work technique, long practiced and now being subjected to more intensive analysis and definition, is widely used. *See* SOCIAL GROUP WORK.

The settlement uses group work as one of several related techniques, both to promote individual development and to give every participant practice in working with others to achieve a common purpose. The settlement seeks to use these natural channels for individual growth and creation of richer community life. The activities and interests of the small club are enlarged through interclub and house councils which undertake to share responsibility for larger projects, and bring all groups in the settlement into close relationship. Credit unions, cooperatives of various kinds, and joint enterprises to project and finance the activities which the groups have chosen are increasingly important means through which a sense of responsibility can be developed. *See* CONSUMER INTERESTS. These activities furnish a distinctively successful avenue for education in the democratic process; they are concerned with immediate interests, and lead to increasing participation and responsibility on the part of the individual for the good of the whole.

Case work is one of the techniques used by the settlement in departments of personal or family service. *See* SOCIAL CASE WORK. Usually problems brought by the neighborhood are cared for by referral to specialized service agencies. During the depression years, recurrent difficulties brought to settlement case workers often signalized breakdowns in the relief program of the community. In many cities settlement studies were used in approaches to public and private agencies for more adequate treatment.

Case work and group work specialists in the settlement are developing better cooperative use of techniques. In a few settlements a psychiatrist or psychologist has been drawn in to assist the staff in the understanding of special problems of individuals.

Work with Young Children

Kindergartens were almost without exception part of early settlement programs, but characteristically were maintained only until the public schools were able to operate them. Today many settlement nursery schools and play schools are cooperating with the colleges in training teachers and are pioneering in organizing groups of parents to share in the financing and the work, thus giving parents an actual experience in work with the children under expert leadership.

The afternoon programs in settlements are designed to supplement the work of public and parochial schools, to give an outlet for pent-up energies, and to provide a place where children may try out their gifts and find expression for latent possibilities in a friendly, sympathetic atmosphere. The settlement provides the opportunity to draw and paint, model, sew, or do work in the shops either as part of the program of natural groups or in informal classes. Story acting, dramatics, dancing, and singing are part of the usual settlement program. Children who show special interests or gifts are aided to secure additional instruction in music schools or special art classes.

Summer Work

Almost from the start, settlements began to find ways to get children to the country, beginning with day outings and later extending the stay to a week and then a fortnight. As a result, many have developed extensive camp or farm properties which supplement the winter program, some of which can be used throughout the year. The settlement camp period is used as a break

in the city's routine of life and is a high mark in a child's experience, when he can learn something of country life. Most programs are informal so that children and young people may have the greatest amount of freedom and choice of activities consistent with safety. Learning and health are by-products. At the present time there is a tendency to extend the camp stay to three or four weeks for children to whom the experience is considered especially important. Children and parents are given the opportunity to pay for as much of the cost as they can afford, through work and savings in advance of the camp season. In the past two years experiments in work camps have been undertaken. During the summer of 1940 several camps brought together settlement young people, refugees, and college students in projects for reforestation, building, and farming on settlement property.

Activities in the city, such as play schools, all-day excursions, street play for children and young people, picnics, open air dances, and movies, augment the summer camp program. Groups of young and old are organized to make use of public beaches and park facilities, and parents are encouraged to take their children in family parties. Among the older boys and girls there is great interest in trips to near-by cities, interchange with other settlements, and hostel trips by bicycle or on foot. *See* RECREATION.

Work with Adults

Adult clubs are both educational and social in character. *See* ADULT EDUCATION. They range from those which simply give members a chance to meet and relax in a pleasant atmosphere to those which carry on well-developed programs in parent education, home-making, housing, health education, consumers' education, and cultural pursuits. In Chicago, Cleveland, Detroit, and New York, inter-settlement organizations of mothers' clubs provide exchange of interest as well as effective means of promoting civic action.

Club work includes men and women of all ages. The women's clubs especially have held their own over the years, and many span two generations in their membership. Recently settlements have cooperated with public departments to provide social life and occupation for recipients of old age assistance and insurance. Community sitting-rooms are opened, hands and orchestras organized to provide music for folk dancing, and exhibitions held of treasures and things made by older people. Shops and other facilities are made available to give occupation along with the security assured by the government measures.

Physical recreation, tenants' associations, forums on current affairs, civic education, and workers' education invoke the interests of men. Well-developed departments of workers' education under specialized leadership are to be found in the larger settlements and the methods developed have been applied also to groups, usually of unskilled and unorganized workers, not yet conscious of their own problems. Forums and discussion groups are most successful when related to real and personal issues such as unemployment, insurance, health, jobs, and housing. Visual material and new dramatic techniques are used to make issues vivid and more easily understood.

Neighborhood organization has taken many different forms during the fifty years of the settlement's existence, but the most successful have been around specific needs or interests. A playground, a community bathhouse or other public service, a new housing project, enforcement of factory acts or the correction of some local abuse, lights on the streets, better transportation services, are some of the many objectives around which neighborhood groups have been effectively organized.

The underlying principle in all such work with adults on the part of the settlement has been to help its neighbors understand the causes of their needs and to help them do something about them cooperatively. Contacts with government have ranged from dealings with local sanitary inspectors to

pressures on the city council, state legislature, or Congress for better administration or new laws bearing on day-to-day life experiences. Chief among these interests has been the drive for better housing in which neighbors have taken an active part as tenants; and the drive for better labor conditions, which concerns them as breadwinners. *See* HOUSING AND CITY PLANNING and LABOR RELATIONS.

Work with Immigrants

The earlier settlements dealt with a predominantly immigrant population and were concerned lest the cultural gifts which immigrants brought to this country should be lost. They tried to preserve the native European music, dance, and folk arts such as needlework and design, and to give them recognition as a desirable part of American culture. At the same time they tried to interpret the needs of young people growing up in this country to the older generation, who were often frightened and dismayed by the change of custom and the great freedom which the young people enjoyed. The second generation is in a peculiarly difficult position as it lives in an old-world culture at home and is struggling to be considered American outside. The settlement provides a bridge to both groups by understanding and dramatizing the older cultures and at the same time by providing an American atmosphere and opportunity.

During the depression the desire to become citizens on the part of the older groups has been intensified by the citizenship restrictions on relief and social security. The settlements have reinforced the work of the public educational agencies by providing classes for aliens, many of long-time residence in this country, who are struggling to qualify for citizenship. Such education has not ended, however, with naturalization papers. For old and young the settlements have emphasized the responsibilities of intelligent voting and reasoned opinions on current issues.

Consistent with tradition, refugees from persecution and conquest in Europe have been welcomed in settlement activities and in residence. Whenever funds could be found to make it possible, musicians, artists, social workers, and scholars from Russia, Germany, Austria, Czechoslovakia, Spain, and Poland have come to live in the settlement group. Through their accepted presence in the settlement household they have interpreted European conditions to settlement neighbors of diverse backgrounds. Their appreciation of American democracy has been a wholesome and valued contribution to both neighborhood and staff. *See* IMMIGRANTS.

Federal Work Projects

As the depression deepened, the settlements made a creative contribution to the cultural and recreational projects sponsored by the art, music, recreation, and adult education projects of the Works Progress Administration, predecessor of the Work Projects Administration. They provided rooms, heat, light, service and equipment, supervision, and a flexible organization capable of absorbing the shocks of erratic changes in administration and the vicissitudes of relief agencies. The number of people, many of them unemployed, who have taken and still take advantage of the expanded services has increased tremendously. *See* WORK RELIEF.

The work accomplished with government support and the popular response to it are of a sort to justify completely the pioneering efforts of the settlements in the field of cultural activities. They prove that opportunities to participate in such activities are a vital need among working people everywhere. They confirm settlement workers in their belief that provision both for institutional resources and leadership should be made by the public as part of neighborhood and city planning.

Settlement workers have followed with great interest the development of programs for unemployed youth. They helped to recruit neighborhood boys eligible for the

camps of the Civilian Conservation Corps and have taken an active interest in the results of this training. The National Youth Administration has made it possible to give supervised work experience to boys and girls of sixteen to twenty-five years of age through their employment as recreation and nursery school aides, clerical assistants, and in household, switchboard, mechanical, and janitorial work. Because of their intimate knowledge of the needs of this group for jobs, education, and recreation as essential to their satisfactory adjustment, settlement workers have urged that both the National Youth Administration and the Civilian Conservation Corps be extended to greater numbers of young people and to those from other than relief families. *See* YOUTH PROGRAMS.

National Federation of Settlements

The National Federation of Settlements, organized in 1911 and incorporated in 1929, included 155 houses in its agency membership in July, 1940. Seventy-seven additional settlements were represented through individual or staff membership. In October, 1938, the latest date for which figures are available, the houses belonging to the Federation numbered 1,122 full-time staff workers, 482 part-time workers, 3,508 volunteers, 583 student workers, 1,165 Works Progress Administration workers, and 1,649 National Youth Administration workers.

The Federation is governed by the usual officers and a board of directors, elected biennially. Fifteen of the board of thirty-five are selected from the general membership, eleven are official representatives appointed by the city federations, and the remainder are chairmen of divisions, departments, and committees representing major interest. The Federation is supported by a tax on member settlements of $3.00 per $1,000 of expenditure exclusive of capital outlay, and by individual and staff memberships.

The national office of the Federation provides an avenue for exchange of information and a focus for joint action, and brings to the attention of the public the work of all settlements. One of its lines of interest has to do with methods, policies, and standards of work as they are related to the current program of the settlements; another, with personnel and training; and a third, with social action based on knowledge of needs, community by community. Standards have been improved by bringing together the leaders in such fields as boys' and girls' work, music, dramatics, arts, and camping. Each house has something to contribute to some special field, and the effort has been to emphasize excellence so that all may learn from the best practice.

As early as 1911 the representatives of settlement music departments began to meet together. In 1921 a special music committee was formed which later became the Music Division of the National Federation. In 1926 the Carnegie Foundation gave this Division a gift of $25,000 to improve the quality and to increase the quantity of music used in settlements. The settlement music schools provide instruction of high quality at moderate fees, scaled to the students' ability to pay. The experience of the Music Division as well as its personnel has been used as a basis for the work of retraining and placing unemployed musicians in settlement and community enterprises in New York City, at first under private funds and later by state and federal agencies.

In the visual arts, traveling exhibitions of crafts have been arranged and paintings and drawings made by settlement children have been collected by the Federation and sent to exhibitions at home and abroad. The Boys' and Girls' Work Division has organized regional conferences concerning common problems and practices, and has arranged interchange visits between groups of young people from different cities. It has worked on standards of training and employment practices and on more effective programs.

Settlement Personnel

The early settlement workers brought to the tasks they set themselves professional

training representative of the various fields of work from which they came: the ministry, education, nursing, medicine, and the arts. They brought as well broad culture and an impelling social conviction. The pressures of the new situations in which they found themselves toughened their capacity for administration and elicited creative imagination in dealing with people and situations.

Although specialized social work positions are increasingly filled by graduates from schools of social work, a well-rounded settlement staff today will represent a variety of professional backgrounds in addition to social work: nursery school, progressive education, household economics, nursing and medicine, adult and workers' education, research, physical education, arts, dramatics, music, and dancing. The National Federation of Settlements is working with specialized schools in providing material on background, field work training, and orientation to better prepare workers for settlement positions. *See* EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK.

The coordination of these varied skills and their application to the program of the house and to the needs of the neighborhood require a high degree of executive ability. Administrators may be drawn from among the staff specialists or from such related fields as the Young Women's and Young Men's Christian Associations, or from labor, education, or public welfare.

The settlements find that there is great value in the variety which has developed out of their individual local situations. They refuse to be regimented into any set pattern either of organization or activities. Discovering leads to interests and social trends and building up a general knowledge of the neighborhood require much time spent in casual conversation, and yet settlement workers know that such knowledge richly rewards the time consumed. Therefore most houses allow great freedom in the arrangement of time schedules.

Settlements have shared in the effort of professional social work to lift standards and wages. Job analyses and studies of personnel practices have been made by the National Federation of Settlements. Minimum standards of employment practices have been recommended to all member houses. These call for an annual employment agreement in writing and for provision for free time daily and weekly, though no actual work-week is indicated. Study, conference, and committee time are encouraged and length of vacation with pay indicated. Sick leave, workers' compensation coverage, and retirement annuities are recommended. The executives and boards of a few settlements have signed agreements worked out by representatives of their staffs and the Social Service Employees Union. The Board of Directors of the National Federation has put on record its belief in collective bargaining, with workers in the settlements free to join unions or not, as they choose. *See* TRADE UNIONISM IN SOCIAL WORK.

Social Action

The early leaders recognized that they could bring the results of local work to bear on public opinion most effectively through joint effort. *See* SOCIAL ACTION. As its first venture the National Federation of Settlements worked for the creation of the United States Children's Bureau in 1912. Settlement leaders have worked for state and federal legislation for the protection of women and children in industry, for education, and for health measures. As early as 1916 and 1917 the Federation struck out for minimum wages to protect living standards and took its stand for universal compulsory health insurance.

National studies have brought together first-hand knowledge and experience from a hundred neighborhoods on the needs of adolescents, on minimum wages, on what neighbors want in new housing, and on what could be done with old tenements. Today the Federation is seeking to educate public opinion in favor of government subsidies for low-rental housing, believing that

in no other way can the housing needs of their neighbors be met. Meanwhile the Housing Committee of the National Federation has been a clearing house for information and opinion, for methods in promoting the creation of local housing authorities, and for joint efforts in securing federal grants.

In 1928 the settlements began to feel the effects of unemployment. Neighbors who had always had steady work were finding it difficult to get jobs, though the general public and especially those in high places could not or would not recognize what was afoot. That spring, at the annual conference of the National Federation, a committee was formed to collect and publish the facts as encountered by settlement workers. This committee published first a grist of testimony by young men and women club members on *What Unemployment Has Meant to My Family,* and then in turn two books, one for popular consumption[1] and the other[2] a body of findings presenting 150 first-hand stories of household experience from all over the United States. A series of pamphlets on this material and two later unpublished studies, one on youth in hard times[3] and the other on unemployment insurance in England[4]—which exploded the myths current in America as to the British dole—were circulated widely. Thousands of reprints of these articles were distributed by the Federation and together with the books were drawn on in legislative hearings and in interpreting the need for public employment services and a system of unemployment compensation. The Federation is now interpreting to the wider public the need of increased medical care in city neighborhoods in the hope that some form of health insurance as well as federal aid to states for more adequate medical and health facilities may come into being. *See* MEDICAL CARE.

The settlements are thus pushing out horizons as they did in the days of their origin. They are cooperating with their neighbors in advances in self-government and self-support which have infinite possibilities for self-discipline and education in a democracy. Again, as half a century ago, the movement offers opportunities for adventure on the part of a new generation of settlement workers who catch its pioneering spirit in the application of flexible and creative methods to changing conditions.

[1] Calkins, Clinch, *Some Folks Won't Work.* 202 pp. 1930.

[2] Elderton, Marion, Editor, *Case Studies of Unemployment Compiled by the Unemployment Committee of the National Federation of Settlements.* University of Pennsylvania, Wharton School of Finance and Commerce, Industrial Research Department, Research Studies XII. 418 pp. 1931.

[3] Reported upon by Helen Hall at 1932 National Conference of Social Work. *See* "When Leisure Palls," in *Proceedings* of that Conference.

[4] Reported upon by Helen Hall in *Atlantic Monthly,* May, 1933, under the title "English Dole and American Charity," and in *Survey Graphic,* May, 1933, under title "The Little Green Card." Both articles reprinted and distributed by the National Federation of Settlements.

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LILLIE M. PECK

SOCIAL ACTION,[2] as the term is generally understood, is an activity that may be engaged in either within or without the area of social work. No definition of the term, as used in this general sense, is available nor is there any commonly accepted, specific definition covering its use within the field of social work. Social action is frequently discussed in social work literature in such a way as to imply action by a group toward socially desirable ends.

The committee that revised the Constitution of the National Conference of Social Work in 1934 defined social action as "covering mobilization of public opinion, legislation, and public administration." Attempts to achieve more complete or specific terminology were made at one of the meetings of Section IV at the 1940 sessions of the Conference. One proposed definition included the proviso that both methods and objectives should be legal and that the ends sought should be socially desirable. Another stated that the methods used are "persuasion or pressure." Discussion of these definitions brought out the suggestion that belief on the part of the participants that their objectives are socially desirable would be sufficient to bring them within the definition—a point previously made by Porter R. Lee.[1]

From the standpoint of objective, social action may be said to function in two major areas: efforts to bring about fundamental changes in the social or economic status quo, and efforts to bring about better conditions within the existing structure of society. The latter includes several types of activity. There are, first, those groups which attempt through voluntary joint action to promote the welfare of their own members. The movement to promote consumers' cooperatives or the extension of trade unionism might be cited as examples. A second type of activity includes campaigns to influence group attitudes or patterns of behavior that have an important relationship to social well-being. Such campaigns might include the organization of peace societies, efforts in the direction of health or safety, activities in defense of constitutional rights, movements for honesty in politics, or widespread action in support of an ideal, such as an economic boycott of "aggressor" nations. A third type involves the use of governmental or political machinery to achieve changes in the legal framework of society. Such action includes efforts for improvement in administration as well as the enactment of laws. Major emphasis here is apt to be on the legislative attack. In fact this type of activity is relatively so important that the term "social action" is frequently used as having exclusive reference to social legislation.

Role of Social Action in Social Work

Social action as a social work activity arises logically out of the basic assumption of social work; that is, out of that concern for the well-being of the individual which is the motivating element in all social work

[1] *See* Lee, *infra cit.*

[2] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

and especially in case work practice. When the case worker finds that a particular client cannot be relieved of his distress or a normal adjustment accomplished because of external conditions beyond the control of agency or client, it is obvious that either case work must acknowledge failure or a way must be found, through social rather than individual action, to control the particular environment. Such a situation exists when decent housing costs more than a family can manage to pay out of its income, or when disease spreads through a community because of a polluted water supply, or when absence of supervised playgrounds encourages street accidents and delinquency. Social agencies have long been aware of these obstacles to acceptable modes of life with which individual therapy is unable to cope: areas where no power short of the organized authority of the state is sufficient to meet the problem. If social work is to achieve its objectives where such conditions exist it is obvious that case work must be supplemented by social action: that the client of the social agency must be the community as well as the individual. When, in recognition of such circumstances, the social worker invokes the more powerful forces of community or state in order to make possible the same objectives which he was formerly seeking through individual action alone, he is still engaged in social work.

It follows that social action may be conceived of either as a tool of social work or as a major function in the social work field. It is a tool, like research, when an agency devoted primarily to activity within a distinct functional area—as case work, or group work—makes use of it to achieve its primary ends. *See* SOCIAL CASE WORK and SOCIAL GROUP WORK. For example, family welfare societies and settlements have been leaders in the movement for better housing through state supervision and subsidies. As a tool, social action has always been recognized by some agencies as essential equipment. In recent years such recognition to a greater or less extent may be said to have become characteristic of social work as a whole. This tendency is particularly noteworthy among the state conferences of social work. Of the 46 state conferences active in 1940, 14 mentioned the promotion of social legislation as among their activities. In addition, 12 had committees on legislation, and one state conference had a representative attending the sessions of the legislature. *See* CONFERENCES OF SOCIAL WORK. In a few states there are legislative committees or organizations with an independent status, for the promotion of social legislation.

But social action is also a specialized area in social work, with its own methods and techniques. The discovery of a particular social maladjustment may lead to a recognition of the necessity for setting up a separate agency for the purpose of dealing with it. Consequently we have child labor committees, consumers' leagues, associations for legislation, housing associations, and societies to promote the cooperative movement. In these we find the specialized expert in social action—the social worker playing the necessary complementary role to that of the case worker, the group worker, and the community organizer.

It is sometimes suggested that social action, instead of being a distinct type of social work activity, is more properly to be conceived of as a form of community organization. It is so considered by a group of leading social workers who have been discussing among themselves during the past two years the meaning and scope of community organization,[1] and there seems to be considerable justification for such a view. This group defines community organization, however, as covering a very broad field and names social action as one rather minor division of that field. This recognition of social action seems to be a relatively new concept among social workers engaged in community organization and

[1] Lane, Robert P., "The Field of Community Organization," in *Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work*. 1939.

it is not certain that it is one that is generally held. Furthermore, the term "social action" has come to have a connotation quite distinct from that generally attributed to community organization. As conceived of in this article, social action suggests both a distinct set of procedures and a point of view and a method that tends to permeate the whole field of social work. In view of these considerations it seems desirable to continue to think of social action as a distinct phase of social work activity.

Obstacles to the Practice of Social Action

The practice of social action by social workers generally is hampered by two things: questions about competence, and economic insecurity.

With respect to the first point, the term "area of competence" has come into common use. It is suggested that only within that area may a social worker speak with authority. Much depends on the breadth of the area that is conceded to be one of "competence." Moreover, if too strictly interpreted, this formula might serve to place social workers under restrictions not shared by other citizens. It may be granted that social workers, like others, are unfitted for leadership in a campaign unless they have expert knowledge of the issues and problems involved. But on most questions arising in the field of social legislation, the social worker by reason of his professional activities is aware of the effects of existing policy. He is competent, therefore, to exercise judgment about the wisdom of making changes in such policies and to associate himself with others in attempting to make that judgment effective.

The influence on job security of an incursion into the field of social action depends sometimes upon the nature of the proposals. Where the task is one of working out the details in applying accepted principles to particular cases, no serious problem is likely to arise. But where the basic principle itself is in question, and particularly where vested interests are involved, the situation is different. Freedom of action here will depend in part upon the point of view of executives and board members. At the same time the situation may be deeply affected by the conduct of the social worker, and by the extent to which there has been developed within the field of social work a recognized code of ethics and a sense of mutual obligation.

Methods in Social Action

Since conscious recognition of social action as a distinct field in social work is relatively new, authoritative discussion of its nature and scope is fragmentary. This is particularly true with respect to method or technique. So far as social legislation is concerned, however, certain general tendencies and distinctions can be made. There are at least two broad methods of approach. One is generally known as "pressure" and the agencies making use of this method are referred to as "pressure groups." These terms imply vigorous activity of one sort or another, the particular tactics used varying widely with different groups. In general, pressure methods involve some sort of a show of force, ranging from parades for the purpose of making a show of numbers, or packing committee rooms with proponents, to picketing or other devices suggestive of political boycott.

The other method, as suggested by one of the definitions of social action offered at the 1940 National Conference of Social Work, is one of persuasion. Here the appeal is to the intellect rather than to fear of reprisal, and the weapons are facts rather than numbers. Agencies making use of the latter methods undoubtedly feel that the factual argument will be strengthened if there are numbers behind it, and it is sometimes difficult to draw a clear line of demarcation between the two methods at the point where they tend to merge. At the extremes the differences are very marked, and the tendency sometimes to be noted of lumping together all agencies interested in legislation as "pressure groups" is misleading.

Detailed, individual steps to be taken in the promotion of a legislative program will vary according to the exigencies of a particular case; but the following general statement of some of the major procedures essential to a successful legislative campaign will not, perhaps, be seriously challenged. First, research; to discover the nature of the problem and the appropriate remedy. Second, planning; including definite formulation of remedial proposals, and bill drafting. Third, interpretation; in order to extend as widely as possible understanding of the need and appropriateness of the proposal. Fourth, promotion; including organization of supporting groups, publicity, lobbying, and organizing hearings before legislative committees and executive. Fifth, study of administration; in order to encourage effective enforcement and to discover remediable defects.

A good working relationship with legislative leaders and members of the legislature is a factor of major importance. If legislators recognize that an agency speaks only on the basis of expert knowledge and with complete fairness, the passage and defeat of many of the less controversial bills can often be secured merely by consultation. In more controversial matters, probably the most important factors are an agency's ability to secure publicity, and widespread expression of opinion from officials, influential civic and social agencies, and individuals, and its judgment in using this type of pressure. An agency with a long-term program has to evaluate the political situation from year to year. It often finds it necessary to decide whether legislative proposals can advantageously be presented, or whether they should be held for another year; whether they should be introduced in complete form for the purpose of publicity and education when there is no chance of favorable action; or whether modified proposals should be put forward in the hope of acceptance.

The important role in social work now played by government makes it certain that legislation dealing with important structural and functional changes in public welfare administration will continue to be under consideration in the coming years. Welfare agencies working in the field of legislation must assume heavy responsibilities for guiding and influencing this movement.

Types of Social Legislation

Legislation in which social agencies feel some degree of concern may be roughly classified into four groups:

Legislation affecting governmental service—federal, state, and local—in the fields of public welfare, public health, mental hygiene, administration of justice, correction, and education. This includes legislation relating to the structure and function of these governmental agencies and appropriations for their operation, as well as legislation relating to the merit system, because of its vital effect on the quality of governmental services in these fields.

Protective legislation affecting particular groups and individuals needing special protection, such as labor legislation, including social security laws, legislation relating to children born out of wedlock, protection of children and minors from cruelty, neglect, and improper influences, and so forth.

Regulative legislation establishing certain conditions under which individuals and groups may function, such as legislation affecting the domestic relations—marriage, divorce, and adoptions—and that establishing the conditions under which groups may function collectively, as in the field of social welfare.

Restrictive legislation, such as penal laws defining crime and establishing penalties.

The field of social action is therefore broad and tremendously important. As the state tends increasingly to concern itself with the development of a social and economic environment suited to the needs of its citizens, social workers must become increasingly aware of the relation existing between state activity and the basic objectives of their profession. Thus social action becomes, inevitably, a function of social work.

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SOCIAL AND HEALTH WORK IN THE SCHOOLS.[1] The school plays a leading role among the agencies which society has created for the welfare of its children and the preparation of them for adult living. Each year the nation's schools serve more than 30,000,000 children. The very fact that they deal with these children in groups enables school officials to see each individual in comparison with many others and thereby to notice traits and peculiarities which might be overlooked if the child were seen alone. Dissatisfaction and failures in classroom work, disturbing manifestations of conduct and personality in meeting the school's requirements, and frequent illness and lack of interest are symptoms of serious conditions which exist in the school, the home, or elsewhere and which require skilled understanding and treatment if the welfare of the child is to be conserved. School officials who are alert to the pressure and importance of these factors have an opportunity to take the initiative in finding the fundamental causes of the child's difficulties and in determining who can participate and what methods should be used in dealing with them effectively.

For some time the more progressive schools have found it helpful to use persons professionally equipped to bring to the school understanding and ability to treat these individual problems which children present. In many schools staff specialists in the fields of social case work and health perform these services. In other schools the work has been turned over to teachers or other persons who, although especially interested, have had no special professional preparation for these tasks.

Health Work in the Schools

Because of its close relationship to success achieved in school, the good health of school children is recognized as an important objective of public education. Routine physical examinations of school children reveal the fact that great numbers are handicapped by correctable defects and curable diseases. It has been estimated that approximately 80 per cent of all school absences are caused by communicable disease.

Elmira, N. Y., is credited with being the first city to have arranged for medical inspection in the schools, having instituted this procedure in 1872. Boston provided a similar service in 1894. A Connecticut law of 1899 and a Massachusetts law of 1906 were the first to make medical inspection mandatory. As the idea spread, the inspectional function gradually gave way to more complete medical examinations. By 1908 a total of 90 cities required some form of school health service. School nurses were introduced in New York City in 1902 and in Philadelphia in 1903. Between 1903 and 1925, 23 states passed mandatory laws re-

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

lating to medical inspection of school children; and by 1934, 39 states had some kind of statute or regulation either permitting or requiring the examination of children for physical and sometimes mental defects. The United States Office of Education reported in 1940 that in 22 state departments of education some staff member gave attention to health education although many of these officials exercised no responsibility for the medical inspection of all school children.

Advanced plans for a comprehensive school health program, including instruction, medical examinations, medical attention, communicable disease control, provision of healthful environment, and health supervision of teachers, have been worked out by the Educational Policies Commission, a body appointed by the National Education Association of the United States and the American Association of School Administrators. Although the Commission's report, *Social Services and the Schools* (*infra cit.*), has been subscribed to by representative groups of educators its extensive program has not been put into effect in most schools.

There has been considerable development in the program of health education, including also safety, hygiene, and physical education. Although much still remains to be done, there has also been increasing attention given to lighting, heating, general sanitation, seating, and provisions for safety in the erection of school buildings in recent decades.

Much confusion still exists regarding the fixing of responsibility for medical examinations and the follow-up and treatment of identified physical defects. It seems to be generally accepted that school medical service is educational rather than remedial; and for that reason the responsibility, when assumed, has been jointly shared by boards of education and departments of health. The school undertakes to make sure that the parent or guardian learns of the defects which are discovered; many feel that it is desirable for the parents to be present when the child is examined. In many communities a school nurse is employed to follow up all children who need care, making certain that the parents understand what is required and seeing that the children are in touch with community facilities for treatment. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING. It is rather generally accepted that the school is the one medium through which such work for all children can best be done. Therefore in many communities the boards of health and private health agencies unite in sending doctors and nurses into the schools to do the work. Only a few states make legal provision for boards of education to furnish medical care. Some few states authorize educational funds for the provision of dental treatment and many city school systems provide such care. This treatment usually consists of prophylaxis, extractions, and temporary fillings. Supplying suitable glasses to children having visual defects is so much of a problem that in a large number of cities a special refraction service has been set up by the school authorities. Where parents are unable to purchase glasses these are often furnished from special funds established by the school.

The school's interests in the protection of its children from communicable disease is implemented by four procedures: instruction regarding contagious diseases and their prevention; daily inspection; sanitation; and immunization. This program is being followed in most communities, many times as a joint responsibility of various community agencies. It usually includes immunization from small-pox, diphtheria, and in some instances scarlet fever; and frequently tuberculin tests for all children, with a follow-up of suspect cases. In view of the current development of public health services under state, county, and city departments of health, there is some question now as to just what responsibility the school eventually will take in this field. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH.

There is a great group of children who, because of physical or mental disability, do not fit into the ordinary school and who are absent because of disinclination on the part neither of the pupil nor of the parent: the

mentally defective, those badly crippled in limb, the blind or partially seeing, the deaf or partially deaf, the speech defective, epileptic, and so forth. *See* BLINDNESS AND CONSERVATION OF SIGHT, CRIPPLED CHILDREN, THE DEAF AND THE HARD OF HEARING, and Mental Deficiency and Epilepsy in MENTAL HYGIENE. It is evident that the school must make special provision for their appropriate schooling. This situation can be met either by employing special teachers and setting up special classes or by sending teachers into hospitals or homes. The setting up of special classes for the physically and mentally defective is, as yet, confined chiefly to large school systems; and one unfortunate group—the epileptic—is, except where instruction is given in the home, almost wholly neglected.

School Attendance

The first state-wide compulsory school attendance law was enacted in Massachusetts in 1852. By 1918 every state had passed similar legislation. These laws differ greatly in adequacy of content and administration. In most states the laws require attendance for the full school term of all children between the ages of seven and sixteen. The length of the term, however, may vary considerably. In 1937–1938 it varied from 142.4 days in Mississippi to 186.9 days in Maryland. The average number of days actually attended ranged from 109.7 in Mississippi to 166.3 in Ohio.[1]

In only two states, New Mexico and Ohio, is the minimum compulsory attendance age placed at six years. In 30 states it is seven years and in 16 states, eight years.[2] By 1939 approximately two-thirds of the states required attendance to the age of sixteen, six states until the age of seventeen, and five states until the age of eighteen. In the same year 34 states required nine or more years of school attendance.[3]

[1] U. S. Office of Education, *Preliminary Statistics of Public School Systems, 1937–1938.*
[2] *See* Deffenbaugh and Keesecker, *infra cit.*
[3] *See* Edwards, *infra cit.*

In any discussion of the importance of school attendance it is well, even at this date, to call attention to the necessity of the existence of adequate schools for the children to attend. There is still great inequality of opportunity for education due to the inadequacy of local financing. In some communities there is no opportunity while in others most inadequate facilities are available.[1]

In 45 states, legislation requires the employment of local attendance officers. Requirements for appointment vary greatly among the states and localities, comparatively few prescribing educational qualifications. One state (Wyoming) authorizes the sheriffs to investigate truancy. Eight states, however, have set up some kind of standard and require that the attendance officer be certified according to state regulations. These are Alabama, California, Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Maryland, Oregon, and Pennsylvania. In California the work of the attendance officer includes not only supervision of attendance but of "child welfare." Here the officer must have received a college degree, having had fifteen semester hours of work relating to child welfare or supervision of attendance and two years of successful teaching or social service experience. In Alabama each attendance officer must have a certificate from the State Department of Education. The requirements for the certificate are graduation from a standard college; a year of training in social work, school attendance, and related subjects; and three years' successful experience, either in teaching or in social work. Three months' training in social work may be accepted in lieu of the year of social work. The trend toward improving the service by raising the qualifications of the officers has been hastened by national and sectional conferences devoted to the development of objectives and methods.

It is difficult to say how large a school population one attendance officer can adequately cover. The 1930 White House Con-

[1] *Ibid.*

ference report states "that if an attendance officer for every 1,500 or 2,000 children enrolled in public, private, or patochial schools were provided, it would be possible to do more intensive work in every case for which such work is needed."[1] In most states there is little or no state supervision of attendance work and much of the work in rural and smaller communities is poorly done. Many cities have set up their own requirements, some of which are very high.

Studies of children presenting school attendance problems reveal maladjustments which cannot be corrected by compulsion but which require careful understanding and guidance either in the home, the school, or both. It is increasingly recognized that the fact of non-attendance is not as important as the child's feeling about school and about himself in relation to school. The cause of the difficulty may lie in the child's relationship to his family or to other children, or in emotional disturbances within himself—any of these calling for a most skillful kind of individual understanding and treatment. *See* THE FAMILY. Many times the search for causes leads back to the school with the result that changes in the child's school program are suggested. More careful study of the placement of children in school and greater individualization of the school program is being undertaken in many cities. The social effectiveness of the school is measured in part by its holding power over those children whose personal problems are evidenced in retardation, misconduct, and truancy. School systems having well-organized attendance departments find it necessary to resort infrequently to court and compulsion. In many cities special classes and institutions for truant children—an earlier development—have been abolished.

Visiting Teachers

Progressive educators are becoming increasingly interested in the individual child, realizing that the only way to help the group as a whole is by reaching the needs of the individual in the group. They are seeing their problem as the broad, all-inclusive responsibility of meeting the needs of all children. The schools in some communities are including as their function much that many years ago was considered to be entirely outside its sphere. In seeking to curtail mental illness, serious delinquencies, and social inadequacies of many kinds, society is attempting through its schools to secure for all children as happy and satisfactory a basis as possible for the formulation of healthly and well-balanced lives. Visiting teachers have been added to the staffs of a number of schools in an attempt to achieve this result.[1]

The visiting teacher is a social worker with a professional background of social work education and experience—just as the school doctor is a physician and the school nurse is professionally trained in her field. These specialists are all a part of the school system, each bringing his own contribution to the school's task of helping all children. The visiting teacher is interested not alone in children who present problems but in all conditions in the school or community which may make for unhappy experiences for any child.

Principals and teachers, parents, and community agencies refer to the visiting teacher children who show academic or emotional maladjustment, socially unacceptable behavior, or other difficulties which need attention. The study of symptomatic behavior often leads from the school child back to his teacher or to his family, and involves the cooperation of the school, the parents, and the community in a plan of treatment. The visiting teacher, recognizing that she is only one of the many factors in the school experience of the child, seeks to work definitely within the framework of the school.

[1] *See* p. 119 in White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, *The Delinquent Child* (*infra cit.*).

[1] In Philadelphia such special workers are called "school counselors," in Boston "home and school visitors," in some other places "school social workers."

This means that in addition to her social work training she must have a thorough understanding of the problems and objectives of the school.

The work of the visiting teacher is first of all social case work with individual children. *See* SOCIAL CASE WORK. Recognizing that the classroom teacher is in a position to observe the child and note difficulties as they appear, the visiting teacher holds herself in readiness to assist her. It is important that the classroom teacher should learn to recognize beginning symptoms and that she should know when the attention of specialists is needed. Through careful participation with the visiting teacher in dealing with one child, the classroom teacher learns a great deal regarding the needs of other children. In many communities where the visiting teacher staff is very small much time is given to consultation between groups of classroom teachers and the visiting teacher regarding individual children and the methods of understanding and dealing with difficult children.

There are also important group aspects of the visiting teacher's work with teachers, parents, and groups of children. *See* SOCIAL GROUP WORK. Work with parents through child study discussion groups has been carried on by practically all visiting teachers; and in various communities she has worked with groups of children, with different purposes in mind.

Visiting teacher work, like many other developments in public education, began under private auspices. The first visiting teachers began their work in 1906 in Boston, New York, and Hartford under the stimulus of social settlements. The great impetus to the movement came when in 1921 the Commonwealth Fund became interested in this work as a part of a large program for the prevention of "delinquency" and assisted in organizing the National Committee on Visiting Teachers. Thirty visiting teachers were established in as many communities in different parts of the country for a three-year demonstration. Scholarships at professional schools of social work were also offered for the education of additional visiting teachers.

The American Association of Visiting Teachers, the professional association in the field, has done much to unify methods and to develop standards. The Association now requires for admission to membership at least one year of graduate study in an approved school of social work, with basic work in mental hygiene, social psychiatry, and child welfare. *See* EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK. Sufficient credits in education to enable the visiting teacher to work effectively in schools and to meet local and state requirements for certification are also necessary. Some teaching experience is desirable but is not required under the Association's revised membership rules. The reason for removing teaching experience as a requirement is the recognition that it will probably become increasingly difficult for candidates for visiting teacher work to secure teaching experience. By requiring this experience, the field is deprived of good social workers who could do excellent visiting teacher work. The Association requires for membership at least one year of experience in social case work under the supervision of a well-qualified social worker.

In 1940 there were 209 members in the Association, some few of whom were associate members not engaged in active work. The members were located in 62 cities in 29 states. There are a good many persons, engaged in visiting teacher work in the public school systems, many of them no doubt well-qualified social workers, who are not qualified for membership in the professional association or who have not affiliated themselves with it. Considerable development of the work has taken place in California, Connecticut, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, and Ohio. No school system employs the numbet of visiting teachers which has been recommended by the 1930 White House Conference as adequate, namely, one visiting teacher for every 500 pupils. Most visiting teachers are working

in elementary schools and junior high schools; however, we find that they are usually paid salaries commensurate with those of high school teachers.

The most desirable administrative set-up is probably to place the visiting teachers in a department of their own where they may be accessible to all school officials. In Rochester, N. Y., which has had visiting teacher service for the past twenty-five years, all special services are organized under a coordinator of child services into seven departments, each with its own director. In San Diego, Calif., the director of the school's Bureau of Child Guidance was formerly a visiting teacher. Under her supervision are three visiting teachers, each of whom works intensively in the elementary schools and gives "on call" service to other schools. The Bureau also includes two attendance supervisors, trained in social work, and one psychologist with an assistant trained in giving psychological tests. Home tutors and speech correction teachers are also under the supervision of the Bureau.

One of the most interesting and adequate developments is the Bureau of Child Guidance in the public school system of New York City, which began its clinical and educational activities in 1932. The Bureau consists of a staff of psychiatrists, psychologists, and social workers. There is a central staff of supervisors, and units are located out over the city where the staff comes in close contact with the practical situations of principals, teachers, parents, and children. The work of the Bureau has been organized under three divisions: the clinical or Child Study Division, the Educational Division, and the Social Division. Individual children are referred to the Bureau sometimes for minor service; sometimes for intensive, long-time treatment. A great amount of educational work is done with teachers and parents. The Bureau has also assumed responsibility for bringing about a better understanding between the schools and various community agencies. The work of this Bureau is well described in a *Five Year Report, 1932–1937* (*infra cit.*), published by the New York City Board of Education.

The combination of visiting teacher and attendance work seems a reasonable one to many school administrators. This sort of fusion has taken place in several cities. In Minneapolis the two departments have been merged, with the result that 28 visiting teachers are now serving both public and parochial schools, working under the Child Study Department which is supervised by a school psychiatrist. This combination seems to have certain advantages if important safeguards are taken. The professional qualifications of the workers must be kept high with specialized preparation in social case work required. Workers who give a more intensive case work service cannot be required to carry the tremendous load which has often been expected of attendance officers. There are certain duties which have been carried by the attendance officer which do not seem to belong in the social case work field. School census taking and the routine checking of absences may have to be cared for by the provision of special clerks, and there is some question as to how the minimum amount of court work, which will probably always be necessary, should be carried.

Special Services

Although the school cannot be expected to meet all the needs of children and their parents, they have felt an obligation in the past few years to take on various relief functions, providing school lunches and clothing for destitute school children on occasion. While there may be some question regarding the appropriateness of the school's assuming this function, emergency needs have had to be met until the child could be put in touch with the proper community resources. Often it is the visiting teacher who has had to assume this responsibility.

Some few schools have, as a part of their services to children, child guidance clinics staffed by well-trained psychiatrists and so-

cial workers.[1] *See* Psychiatric Clinics for Children in MENTAL HYGIENE.

Many community and governmental agencies interested in the social and emotional problems of children are using the school increasingly as a means of gaining access to those children who present incipient behavior problems. *See* BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS and CHILD WELFARE.

State Education Agencies

All state departments of education have the important function of distributing state funds or (as in the case of vocational education) federal funds to local schools, and of setting up and passing upon the qualifications of teachers. The requirements of attendance, the provision for education of the physically and mentally defective, and the laws or regulations concerning medical service, health instruction, and physical education have brought about the development of a considerable staff in many state departments. There is a wide range in number and specialization of personnel, from a state with a staff numbering only four officers to another employing over a hundred and covering, besides the fields already mentioned, labor certification, vocational education and vocational rehabilitation, vocational guidance, adult education, parent education, and recreation.

State departments of education sometimes supervise state institutions for the blind, the deaf, and delinquent children. With the development of special classes in public schools for the physically and mentally defective, the state institutions are coming to be used only for those incapable of doing ordinary school work and needing institutional care.

For a list of state education departments, with their bureaus or other administrative divisions related to social work, *see* STATE AGENCIES—PUBLIC in Part Two.

[1] For an account of the work of visiting teachers and the school child guidance clinic, *see* Ryan, *infra cit.*

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SOCIAL CASE WORK shares with other processes in the field of social work the common purpose of directing positive influences toward the well-being of the individual and the betterment of the social order in which he lives. As social work itself has accepted a range of activities distinct from those of other professional fields whose practice also embodies social aims (for example, religion, education, and medicine), so social case work has achieved a separate entity within the field of social work. The marks of this identification rest upon the ascertainment of a common denominator for social case work found in its objectives, its ideological content, its methods of practice, its organizational set-up, and its educational standards. The process of definition has been furthered by serious undertakings to search out and share experience, to carry through job analyses, to examine training curricula, and to increase the body of literature.

In the total endeavor of social work toward a higher order of socialization, social case work undertakes to focus its influence upon the socializing of the individual who is unable to direct his own life toward a satisfactory achievement. Case work has always sought to relieve and remedy the situation of the person in social discord and personal distress; the person who is unable, through lack of outer material and physical resources, or innet capacities, to find solutions for the exigencies of life. In our society each individual must achieve a workable adjustment in the fulfillment of his own needs and in meeting the demands of his social relationships. While the majority of persons achieve a satisfactory equilibrium through the utilization of their own innate qualities and the influences and opportunities accessible to them throughout life, individuals in increasing numbers are becoming entangled in situations too complex to meet without some form of alleviating help. The kaleidoscopic changes taking place in our social order has pyramided the pressures on individual and familial life situations. Failure in self-maintenance may combine many factors: inadequacies in physical and mental make-up, distortions in thinking and feeling, environmental and economic hardships. The aim of social case work may be defined in terms of its influence on human lives, to sustain the individual and to mediate his responses to family life and to the social situation of which he is a part, by putting resources at his disposal and by untangling feelings and thoughts to release a more constructive output.

Faith in the dignity and unique worth of the individual and the family has always been the focal point of case work. The case worker is in a unique position to study the strengths and weaknesses in personality make-up and in the family pattern. America's great concern today is for democracy, and her hope rests on a belief in the liberation of the individual and the maintenance of the family as the basic social institution for the continuance of democratic living. *See* THE FAMILY. Because of the interdependence of individual, family, and social forces, even superficial contact with the life of any family places the case worker in a position to appraise the effect of economic and social change. Solutions for the individual cannot be separated from solutions for the social milieu. It is a two-way process in which the social case worker, through use of special techniques in studying and alleviating individual situations one by one, deepens understanding of the stuff of which the social order is made and thus contributes from that knowledge to the motivation of social forces which take into account human values.

The goal of case work which most frequently finds expression in the literature of the profession is to assist individuals in developing both capacity and opportunity to lead personally satisfying and socially useful lives. This statement embodies several convictions which represent the cornerstones of case work ideology. It implies that individual adjustment and social adjustment are compatible, and that while the urge for

social adaptation is inherent, achievement will be dependent upon the quality of personality integration. It adheres to the belief that growth is relative in terms of individual potentialities; that social case work can serve only as an assisting force to release capacity for the client to deal actively and responsibly with his own situation.

The basic practice of social case work has been summarized as follows: "Individuals are born with certain needs. They live in a world which holds promise of meeting many of these needs but which denies others and makes demands of its own in the interest of many inter-dependent people. The individual must learn how to fit into this world in such a way that he will secure a maximum of personal satisfaction, at the same time fulfilling his responsibilities as a member of society. People come to social agencies when there has been a breakdown in their ability to do this. This breakdown may result either from unusual hardship in the outside world or from weakened capacity of the individual himself to deal with the world—or from a combination of the two. The aim of case work is to lessen the external hardship, at the same time building up the individual's capacity to deal with it. The external pressures it alleviates, sometimes by direct intervention, sometimes by strengthening and accelerating the client's own efforts to bring improvement. The inner capacity it reinforces by lessening the drag of repressed feelings and anxiety, and by sharpening the edge of the individual's ability to see reality as it is. Thus freed and strengthened, the client can use his capacities to work out for himself a life both satisfying and useful."[1]

Development of Concepts and Methods

It seems appropriate to trace historical perspectives around the individual as a central core, in that the progression of the case work idea has been to deepen understanding of man's nature and his needs and to seek out palliatives and remedial treatment measures. In the early period of social work, however, we find the individual in a subordinate position. Man was considered to be governed by moral law alone, to be assisted when found worthy, to be denied when unworthy. Social work was primarily an attack to improve social standards; and bringing an individual to a higher level seemed a humbler and less effective task. By the beginning of the twentieth century the individual was assuming importance, and case work ideals began to take form in the literature. In 1908 it was observed that "Preventative work has been considered so largely from the social point of view that the possibilities of its development in what has been called 'case work,' i.e., individual effort, has been relatively neglected. The essential in case work is the attempt to raise the standard of living of the family in a given instance or to keep the standard from still further falling."[1] The attention placed on the standard of living was in tune with the current concept that the causation of man's ills had its roots in conditions of poverty. In the administering of material aid as the most prevalent measure to restore efficiency, the sifting of worthy and unworthy gave a repressive slant to the remedial work of the time.

Fortunately the personnel who undertook to carry out these measures, and most particularly the leaders who guided the early direction of "work with individuals," possessed a strong belief in the possibilities of personality and a genuine concern for the total welfare of the individual. Great insistence was laid on the value of personal service, on friendliness and tolerance, and on searching for causes outside the control of the client rather than placing blame for failure on him alone. Even in the movements toward social reform, the motivation was to prevent human loss. Thus from the very inception of the case work idea there was expressed what is still today the es-

[1] *See* Hollis, *infra cit.*

[1] Simkhovitch, Mary K., "The Case Work Plane," in *Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Corrections.* 1909.

sence of social case work; namely, a profound respect for personality, an expanding conception of the intricacies of human need, and the significance of the interaction of worker and client.

By the time a quarter of the present century had passed social case work had revealed its scientific possibilities. Interplay with other scientific developments had added greatly to the knowledge available to the case worker in understanding the client's personal make-up and ensuing difficulties. The introduction of the Binet-Simon psychometric test, the psychiatric discoveries of Hall, the work of Healy in the juvenile courts, and of Froebel in progressive education were followed with intense interest because of the applicability of their findings to case work. Stimulation to keep complete records for study of processes, and more formal agency organization, heightened a consciousness of methodology. The publication of *Social Diagnosis* by Mary Richmond in 1917 proved an outstanding incentive to scientific endeavor. From the collected and sifted results of years of experience Miss Richmond defined methods and formulated procedures which were followed meticulously for years as a pattern of good practice. Her definition of social diagnosis as "a method of social study to arrive at as exact a definition as possible of the individual social situation" established the individualizing principle of study and treatment as basic in the theory and practice of case work.

With this heightened incentive to explore for the reasons behind human difficulty, with questionings about the "why" in personality, social case work moved rapidly to identify itself with the psychiatric and psychoanalytic sciences, seeking what they had to offer in explaining psychological dynamics. Diagnostic concepts authentically established in these fields became useful to the case workers as experience proved their applicability. The greater amount of material now secured regarding early childhood experiences and feelings revealed indisputable correlations to explain present manifestations in terms of the past. Failure in early family relations to provide an atmosphere of love, warmth, acceptance, and opportunity for self-expression and achievement was found inherent in cases of maladjustment. The theory of the unconscious and psychic determinism—viewed with some alarm for its fat cry from the supremacy of moral will—disclosed motivations over which the client had no conscious control and threw light on problems of delinquency and neurotic behavior which had been most baffling to the case worker. As clients were encouraged to fuller expression of their thoughts and feelings, further evidence of unconscious cause and effect correlations became apparent.

As a more comprehending view of the total personality came to be assimilated into case work, the then accepted practices went through a variety of dislocations. The concept of "need" in a given case assumed new perspectives. Even material need and environmental lacks took on values as the significance of their meaning to the given individual was particularized. The very act of asking and being given or refused material aid frequently exceeded the monetary value for the client, as it was identified by him with earlier experiences of acceptance or deprivation. Providing environmental growth experiences, especially for children, took into consideration the emotional tones as well as the social advantages. Expecting adults to profit by new resources often involved a long period of preparation until the individual was ready to respond and make use of the new experiences.

The realization that man's capacity to change must be self-directed led to the universal acceptance of the doctrine of self-determination, assigning a role to the case worker of attempting to liberate sources of energy and self-help in the client. Self-determination connotes the possession of a healthy and sturdy free will, but when stimuli of inner needs and impulses are in conflict with outer conditions and demands,

the accumulation of anxiety, fear, and guilt must be reduced before clear thinking and self-knowledge can be achieved. The case work relationship between client and worker is the medium for making this possible as the client is able to explore the reasons for his difficulties.

Case work was never a material exchange of goods without giving due weight to the interaction of personalities. As stated in Miss Richmond's classic definition, "Social case work consists of those processes which develop personality through adjustments consciously effected, individual by individual, between men and their social environment."[1] Even when the client's presentation of need centers on practical reality requests, mutual confidence and respect and a desire for help and a willingness to be helpful are inherent. Earlier tendencies to move ahead of the client in determining what is best for him have given way to keeping pace with the client's recognition of his own need, with his readiness to accept help and to put forth effort in his own behalf. The worker is responsible for making clear the nature of the services and resources which the agency has to offer.

Social case work treatment has the twofold aim of improving the environment in which an individual lives and of increasing the individual's capacity to meet the demands of the environment in which he finds himself. Every problem invariably presents both aspects, although the predominance of causation may lie outside or within the individual. These two aims are never inseparable and must be tackled from both sides with varying degrees of intensity. Thus treatment may involve rendering objective service such as the giving of relief, referral for health care, assistance in securing employment, advice in principles of budgeting, vocational guidance, arranging for foster home placement, or providing institutional care. Few individuals are able to make use of these services entirely on their own initiative without various degrees of encouragement, interpretation, and handling of surface feeling. The chance to "blow off steam" without fear of consequences over the exigencies of daily living (for example, the job refusal, the inadequate relief check, the irritations of domestic life, the separation from members of the family) may strengthen morale and quicken purposive action. When deeper emotional pressures are standing in the way of individual initiative the case worker by realizing the source of these inner pressures may do much to lessen and relieve them. Fears and resentments piled up in childhood build a pattern of distrust of others and lack of confidence in self. Free expression acts as a catalytic agent to dispel emotions which inhibit and to release constructive energy; but only the most careful, patient, and noncritical handling by the worker will make such release possible. No matter how intricate the problem may be or how deep its roots, the client comes to a social agency with a specific difficulty which he is encountering in his daily living. The case work function is to help him deal with that specific problem, realizing whatever capacities he may possess, and handling the emotional implications only in so far as they may effect a practical solution.

The Practice of Social Case Work

Social case work has emerged from earlier services which sought to protect the economically dependent family from the degradations of poverty, and homeless children from exposure to vagrancy and delinquency. The basic formula which underlies all case work—that of basing plans on a thorough study of the individual situation—began to take specific form around the techniques of relief giving and child placing. In the early pattern of social work organization, social agencies flourished as independent units to meet definite types of problems: agencies to administer relief and meet family problems, agencies to care for neglected and dependent children, homes for wayward girls and

[1] *See* Richmond, *What Is Social Case Work?* (*infra cit.*).

unmarried mothers, juvenile courts for delinquents, hospital out-patient departments for the physically ill, and, in the early twenties, psychiatric clinics for study and treatment of adults with mental difficulties and of children with behavior problems. This pattern of organization threw into focus the type of problem rather than the methods used in dealing with these problems. The type of problem also gave designation to specializations in case work practice which came to be known as family case work, child welfare, medical social work, probation, visiting teaching, and so forth.

In 1929 the publication of *Social Case Work, Generic and Specific* (*infra cit.*) marked an epoch in the crystallization of the case work idea. A group of executives and board members from the national case work organizations explored the similarities and differences of methods used in their specific agencies, and arrived at the conclusion "that social case work is a definite entity with all the aspects of the beginnings of a science in its practice and with conscious professional standards for its practitioners." While, as the report indicated, this could not be taken as a new discovery, its formulation bore significant consequences in that it testified to the outstanding fact that the scientific knowledge and methods of social case work are common to all specialized services and agencies included in the case work category; and that separate designations are descriptive of the type of problem involved. This gave to case work a solidarity of purpose to undertake refinement of its professional practice through attention to methodology along scientific lines, and to revamp educational requirements and standards of practice.

The so-called case work agencies today are those whose primary function is case work practice. In addition, other agencies may render case work as a service supplementary to some other medical or social work activity. There are case workers in the schools, courts, churches, and group work agencies. In these latter settings the case work service is not an expression of the primary function for which the institution is maintained, nor does it exist as an adjunct to that function, but as an independent entity following its own prescribed disciplines.

The set-up of social work organization has gone through catastrophic change in recent years. Under economic pressures, government social work agencies have expanded and areas of functional responsibility between private and public agencies have shifted into new alignments. Case work practice has found itself called to adapt to unaccustomed environmental settings and previously unknown administrative demands. Fortunately for its continuance, it had moved steadily ahead in the past through a laboratory of changing community conditions and had accepted adaptation, flexibility, and lack of standardization as inherent in its philosophy. A constant awareness of the need to keep current practice in tune with the social needs of the community has stood it in good stead to prevent rigidity and too great precision both in intake of cases and range of treatment services.

A limited or so-called "short contact" type of service has grown up in situations where the client-worker relation must be used quickly and accurately for diagnostic and treatment purposes. The results of this experience have added assurance of the scientific soundness of the principles embodied in case work. Reference is made to such principles as gaining diagnostic insight from surface manifestations, establishing confidence which permits of frank and free expression on the part of the client, and encouraging fuller participation in planning and freedom in action respecting business efficiency in administrative details. With the mass problems to be handled, there was debate as to the practicability of qualitative case work practice. Experience has shown that it is the qualitative equipment of the case worker, the integration of the worker's diagnostic and treatment skill, which tests the practicality of the case work service rather than adherence to long-drawn-out

procedures. The social case work method has profited from this experimentation in developing a greater range of services and has proved its merit in any program where the client's problem, even though essentially economic, has personal and social components.

Professional Education

The American Association of Social Workers has established definite educational requirements for membership in the professional organization. Although the recognized schools of social work in the American Association of Schools of Social Work vary in emphases, all require a basic preparation in either social case work or social group work. *See* SOCIAL GROUP WORK. Learning in social case work necessitates the acquisition of a body of specialized knowledge and the development of a demonstrated skill in practice. Courses in case work cover the ideological concepts of case work theory and methodology. Case records are drawn from current practice to serve as laboratory material for the development of understanding of individuals and the recognition of the interplay between the individual, his family group, and his particular cultural and social situation. Concurrent with the emphasis on understanding is an induction to the skills accessible to the case worker in treatment methods, which stress the techniques in the process of helping, the availability of environmental facilities, and the controls set by the agency objectives and scope of services. Case material is also drawn from a variety of agencies with two purposes in mind: (a) to draw attention to the common factors in philosophy and method which are inherent in case work service, irrespective of specialization and auspices; and (b) to give a wider range of familiarity with the differences created by function and specialized techniques. Supervised field experience, adequate in amount and quality, is consistently stressed to assure assimilation of theory and refinement of individual skill. The curriculum of every school includes a group of courses which offer a background of information for the more thorough understanding of the individual. Such basic courses include a course in medical information, which covers factual material about physical health and specific diseases and also the social implications of illness; and psychiatric courses, which deal with the mental and emotional development of the individual and with the dynamics of human behavior. In like manner, more general courses give a social work background for understanding the social scene in which the individual case finds its setting. *See* EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK.

In securing professional school graduates, social case work agencies lay stress on personal qualifications as well as on the accumulation of knowledge and skill. The client-worker relationship places extraordinary demands on the practitioner to maintain a delicate balance of emotions between two people. Certain personalities seem to be intuitively equipped to be helpful in this kind of relationship. No amount of effort along educational lines will replace an innate sensitiveness and warmth. Part of the training process is toward the end of helping the student to become aware of his own personal reactions and to gain an emotional equilibrium.

The demand for qualified case workers far exceeds the supply, both on the practicing level and in positions of supervisory and administrative responsibility. The demand comes from long-established case work agencies, which are seeking to improve the quality of their service; and from the newer publicly supported agencies. Case work agencies frequently assume responsibility for providing study groups, seminars, and consultation with specialists for workers on their staffs. The importance of further education, of self-study and experimentation, and of evaluation projects and research undertakings are increasingly recognized.

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SOCIAL GROUP WORK is recognized as a type of educational process carried on in voluntary groups during leisure time with the assistance of a group leader. Thus conceived, group work is not to be confused nor identified with a particular agency, function, or field. Group work represents a specialized resource available to and utilized by many different agencies in a variety of fields.

Strictly speaking, group work has no objectives of its own except in the sense that by its very nature, as an educational process, it derives both its meaning and its motivation from a culture and an educational philosophy that are rooted in democratic values. In so far as group work operates in harmony with the basic principles underlying democratic procedure, it necessarily produces and projects objectives within the process itself.

In the main, the application of the group work process to date has been made by agencies supplying services in relation to the interests and needs of persons for play, recreation, and informal education. *See* ADULT EDUCATION and RECREATION. The reason for this dominant alignment with the so-called leisure-time agencies probably lies in the fact that in such agencies voluntary participation, flexible groupings, creative expression, and cooperative control constitute such central considerations.

Group Work as Method

Group work as method is to be distinguished both from *classroom* method and *case work* method, despite the growing tendency on the part of teachers in schools and social case workers in family agencies to adapt group work to their purposes.

Compulsory formal education, in which major emphasis frequently is placed upon the acquisition of specified information and skills, differs greatly from voluntary informal education, whether in a school or in a non-school agency. This difference in part is symbolized in the dominant type of administrative unit employed; in the one case the *class,* in the other case the *club.* This differentiation is of central significance. Group work affirms that the nature of the group is as important as the nature of the

activity, program, or curriculum. It emphasizes the role of the group *as* education, as well as *in* education. It reaffirms what social scientists have been saying these many years that "a person is influenced most by the group in which he most vitally lives."

In similar manner, while the ultimate ends for which both case work and group work are utilized may be identical, and while one method may supplement the other method in given situations, case work is concerned primarily with prevention, treatment, and therapy while group work is concerned primarily with providing creative experiences for so-called normal persons. *See* SOCIAL CASE WORK. Group work requires a positive orientation. Its effectiveness is reduced, if not eliminated, whenever the orientation is negative or narrowly preventive. Group work is not essentially a procedure to prevent delinquency, nor is it primarily a form of treatment for the clients of psychiatric case workers. Group work is a specialized and constructive approach to creative experience. Its effectiveness is enhanced wherever it is viewed in generic terms as a dynamic process available to serve creative social ends.

Few agencies engaged in recreation and informal education rely wholly upon the group work method. Reliance upon group work is a matter of degree and it varies from agency to agency. Most agencies rely also upon large groups and mass methods, as well as upon what may be regarded as an adaptation of the case work method, frequently referred to as counseling and guidance. Mass work, group work, and individual work are each legitimate and essential approaches. Arbitrarily to assign mass work to public recreation, group work to the voluntary, leisure-time agencies, and individual work to case workers in family agencies is to indulge in unwarranted and unrewarding over-simplification.

Historical Perspective

Group work as a consciously defined method is a comparatively new development in education, recreation, and social work. Actually, however, analysis reveals that in both theory and practice its roots lie deeply embedded in the natural history of the major non-school educational and recreational agencies. Some of these agencies built their entire programs upon a foundation of group organization and group leadership long before the term "group work" was devised. Awareness of common method, let alone common objectives, on the part of these agencies was not an outstanding characteristic of the pioneer period of their development. Emphasis centered largely upon promotion, occupation of the field, and the gaining and consolidation of support. The emergence of a unifying conception, a conception suited to the need for planning and congenial to the claims of a professional consciousness, awaited a later stage in functional specialization.

In the beginning, therefore, each leisure-time agency quite naturally emphasized those points at which it "differed" from other similar agencies. Gradually, however, over the years, as a result of the impact of the social sciences, economic forces, community organization, and of professional developments, each agency in turn—and in some instances with considerable reluctance—has recognized that this emphasis upon "differences" has reached a point of diminishing returns. Agencies have discovered that they share a common function and that despite traditional differences certain basic assumptions, purposes, principles, resources, methods, techniques, and criteria are coming to be identified. Group work has supplied a symbol for this new body of meanings; and if it has been viewed with misgivings in some quarters, possibly it is because group work has been erroneously conceived as an assault upon separate agencies rather than an assault—if it must be conceived in such terms at all—upon agency separateness.

This emergence of group work as a generic concept, its growing recognition as a method or process, and the current widespread discussion it enjoys in professional

and lay circles, constitute a vital movement within the field of social work today.

Any attempt to trace the main currents in group work thought and development during the past two years requires that one refer to at least four central items. (1) The meaning of group work as method has been clarified and refined. (2) The actual practice of group work has been approached more realistically and with a view to description and documentation. (3) The content and method of professional education for group work in recreation and informal education have undergone fresh and far-reaching re-examination. (4) The interdependence and interrelationships of different agencies, functional fields, and specialized methods in the practice of group work have been further explored.

Clarification of the Meaning of Group Work

Under the auspices of the American Association for the Study of Group Work a statement entitled *Toward the Clarification of Terminology* was sent out during 1940 to the Association's entire membership and to approximately fifty representative leaders, some of whom were known to have definite reservations concerning the term "group work." A preliminary analysis of some thirty-five rather representative replies was made and the findings presented at the annual meeting of the Association in May, 1940.[1] Considerable consensus was revealed. The original memorandum together with this progress report, which among other things has succeeded in sharpening up certain issues that call for further inquiry, will be used as a point of departure looking toward the production of a basic document for distribution in 1941 upon the fifth anniversary of the founding of the Association.

In this present interpretation, which treats group work exclusively in terms of its being a process or method and not a field or a function, it is appropriate to point out that there is an implicit disposition to follow the main lines of analysis as represented in the memorandum and progress report referred to above. One's chief reliance, however, centers upon the process by which clarification is being approached rather than upon the points of clarification presumably achieved. Of greater importance than definition are the dynamics involved. One quite naturally associates definitions with discussion, not debate; and with analysis, not argumentation. Premature crystallization is to be avoided at all costs. The solution must be kept fluid until all essential elements have been identified. This determination to avoid fixing group work thought in terms of any particular "school of thought" accounts in large part for the creation of the American Association for the Study of Group Work.

Objectives, it is acknowledged, must bear a functional relationship to needs. The decisive test of this functional quality lies in the integrity with which this relationship is reflected in implications for method. Much depends upon the clarity and realism of the professional worker and the particular agency involved in his approach to the understanding of individual, group, and social needs.

Broadly speaking, certain needs are now recognized in the growth and development of children, youth, and adults which can be helpfully approached through group work procedures. Social, economic, and political forces render these needs particularly acute among certain groups in given communities, at different times. Youth as a group, the unemployed, and certain minorities are in this position now. The needs referred to include (a) certain *elemental* needs—the need for friendship, recognition, adventure, creative expression, and group acceptance; (b) certain *developmental* needs that assert themselves at different stages in the individual's passage toward maturity—the need for association between boys and girls, the need for parental emancipation, and the

[1] To be published in the Proceedings of the Association.

need for adjusting one's program in relation to changes in one's physical, economic, and other capacities; and (c) certain *functional* needs—the need for the development of motor, manual, and artistic skills, the need for contact with nature, for creative contemplation, for non-vocational learning, for the development of skill in group participation and group action, and for an ever-broadening participation in community responsibility.

No emphasis has been more pronounced during the past two years than that of attempting to clarify and implement the role of group work in relation to democracy as a way of life. Life in the modern community is now largely corporate in character and therefore dependent to a degree, hitherto unknown, upon group organization, group leadership, and group effectiveness. Group work affirms, therefore, the imperative importance of developing skills in group living and particularly those attitudes, appreciations, and abilities which are essential to a responsive and responsible citizenship in a democracy. The crucial urgency of this need to develop more adequate "groupways" as part of the folkways of democracy was never more compelling than at this hour.

Greater Realism in Analysis of Group Work Practice

Gradually, as it is seen that group work has to do primarily with group organization, leader-group relations, and inter-personal behavior; that groups vary greatly in degree of cohesion, integration, and stability; and that their functional value in relation to particular kinds of activities and particular types of persons presents a correspondingly wide range, it becomes more and more apparent that methods of group formation, initial leader-group contact, and subsequent relationships between the leader and the group, natural group leaders, and individual group members, pose as delicate and as complex a set of technical problems as are found in the case worker–client or teacher-pupil relationship.

The deeper realization of this fact has produced a shift in reliance upon discussion to one of description and documentation, and from exposition to experimentation and evaluation. Many illustrations of this tendency might be cited. The following may be regarded as fairly representative.

Narrative group records are receiving more systematic attention. One of the notable sessions in the May, 1940, meetings of the American Association for the Study of Group Work was a panel organized by the Commission on Interpersonal Aspects of Group Work in which a group record was made the subject of analysis. So impressive was this procedure that the Association now has under consideration a plan to publish a quarterly supplement to *The Group* (the bi-monthly bulletin of the Association) to contain a "complete" group record together with a comprehensive analysis.

Closely related to this development is the projected publication of a series of concrete descriptions of group work in action, to be called *The Practice of Group Work*. Over one hundred manuscripts have been received for review by the Association. Additional manuscripts are being sought to ensure balance in emphasis and types of projects described.

Two pieces of research, among others that might be noted, are deserving of special mention in this present discussion. Kurt Lewin and his associates at the Child Welfare Research Station of the University of Iowa have been engaged in a most intensive and ingenious study of interpersonal behavior in groups, characterized by autocratic, laissez faire, and democratic "social climates." Most recent of their widely published findings is entitled *Studies in Topological and Vector Psychology I* (*infra cit.*).[1] The other research project selected for comment is centered at the University of Michi-

[1] A less technical discussion of these studies in club organization and leadership can be found in Adler and others, *infra cit.*

gan. Under the title *Integrating Camp, Community and Social Work* (*infra cit.*), a preliminary report on this project was published in the fall of 1939. The research program here described is to be supplemented by the addition to the staff of Fritz Redl, whose current studies of leadership in terms of dynamic relationship and of types of leader-group organization have been followed by many with growing interest and enthusiasm.

Efforts in the direction of evaluation are reflected in a great variety of recent developments. Outstanding among critical studies of individual agencies is Owen E. Pence's, *The YMCA and Social Need—A Study of Institutional Adaptation.* On the local level Charles Young's agency studies in San Francisco rank high in their critical quality. In Philadelphia and Chicago new patterns of self-study among the agencies are being explored. Several community surveys under the auspices of Community Chests and Councils, Inc., notably those in Louisville and Honolulu, are expected to yield fruitful results from a somewhat more intensive examination of group organization and leadership than has been possible in similar studies to date. Representative of still another type of critical realism is the topical report on "Leisure-Time Services for Children" prepared in connection with the 1940 White House Conference on Children in a Democracy;[1] *A Study of Organized Group Camping in California,* undertaken by the Pacific Camping Association in cooperation with the National Park Service, *infra cit.*; and Howard Whipple Green's ecological studies of the distribution of leisure-time services in Cleveland from the standpoint of the consumer, *infra cit.*

Not least among the results of these and related studies, some conducted jointly and on a rather informal basis by persons representing both group work and case work, has been a sharpened differentiation between group work and group therapy and a realization that there is a "twilight zone" in between which needs greatly to be explored.

If anyone doubts for a moment that group work has been going through a period of searching self-appraisal and that it is now moving into a new period of realistic application and refinement, he should examine carefully the program of the social group work section of the 1940 National Conference of Social Work. The theme of the section program, "Closing the Gap Between What We Say and What We Do," suggests its dynamic character.

Professional Education for Recreation and Informal Education

Agencies of the type under discussion, and particularly those in which group work practice is emphasized, require for their administration executives who are educators. The function of providing recreation and informal education requires as much character and competence in personnel as are required in providing formal education in schools or colleges. Specialized professional education coordinate with that needed for the practice of social case work and for the practice of teaching is now widely recognized. It is recognized further that the type of professional education required is not now confined to any one type of professional school.

Inquiries of many kinds and under many auspices have been focused upon problems and practices in professional education during the past two years. Quite independently, committees of the American Association for Adult Education, American Association for the Study of Group Work, the American Association of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, American Association of Schools of Social Work, the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education, National Conference on the College Training of Recreation Leaders, and the Social Work Vocational Bureau have been directing attention to many important, interrelated matters of personnel policy and professional education.

[1] *See* U. S. Children's Bureau, *Children in a Democracy* (*infra cit.*).

In addition to initiating studies on its own the Committee on Professional Education of the American Association for the Study of Group Work has undertaken to collaborate closely with a wide tange of agencies, schools, and professional associations concerned with developments in this specialized phase of professional education. Of special importance, following release of the findings of one study made under the auspices of the Association and reviewed in *Group Work 1939* (*infra cit.*), was a joint meeting held in Grand Rapids in May, 1940, sponsored by the Association's Committee on Professional Education. Representatives of practically all of the groups mentioned above were present on this occasion. A more extended joint conference of these same persons is being planned.

Among the problems to be examined further in this joint conference is that of providing more adequate accreditation for professional education programs in colleges and universities which have their roots in education rather than in social work as such. The major leisure-time agencies recruit their professional workers from a variety of types of schools. In some instances it is found that the curricula of these schools are oriented toward social work. *See* EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK. In other cases the curricula are oriented toward education. In the former the emphasis may be on group work throughout the entire training period or it may be on social work with some specialization in group work. In the latter, likewise, the emphasis may be on group work throughout or on education with specialized courses in recreation and group work. It remains to be seen whether or not the conceiving of group work as method rather than as field will provide a basis for a reorientation and reconstruction of professional education.

The *Report of Second National Conference on the College Training of Recreation Leaders*[1] contains a series of highly relevant and significant reports. A third national conference is announced for January, 1941, at New York University.

During the past two years a number of the major national leisure-time agencies have published revised statements covering a discussion of opportunities and qualifications for professional leadership in their respective organizations. During this same period the classification of "social group worker" has been officially adopted by the United States Civil Service Commission. A further evidence of heightened respect for group work can be seen in the requirement established by the School of Education at Wayne University in Detroit calling for 100 hours of volunteer group leadership in a non-school agency before an applicant can be admitted as a student in the department.

Interdependence and Interrelationships

From the standpoint of relationships, whether with agencies in the field of social work, education, or recreation, with professional societies, or with individual practitioners engaged in some highly specialized function such as physical education, adult education, organized camping, or public recreation, nothing has stood more in the way of complete cooperation and understanding than the term "group work" itself. This difficulty was inevitable just so long as group work was thought of as a field, rather than as a method available to a variety of fields and to a variety of specialists within such fields. Without doubt, progress toward clarification of the precise meaning of group work is reflected in extended and strengthened relationships during the past two years and particularly during the past year.

At several points in the activities of the American Association of Social Workers and of the American Association of Schools of Social Work the status of group work has been helpfully re-defined. An advisory planning committee on group work in recreation and informal education has been created by the Social Work Vocational Bureau. The White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, both through the

[1] *See* Wrenn, *infra cit.*

composition of its committees, staff, and consultation groups and through interpretation in its reports, gave prominent emphasis to group work. The *Survey Midmonthly* and *Social Work Today* undertook for the first time systematic coverage of group work during this period. In the case of *Social Work Today* four articles were reprinted in pamphlet form under the title *Group Work: Roots and Branches* (*infra cit.*). Substantial interchange and corresponding gains have occurred in efforts undertaken by joint case work group work committees and in similar projects involving juvenile court and probation officials, psychiatrists, and other specialists active in guidance and counseling.

As in the field of social work, so in the field of education group work relationships have undergone re-definition and re-enforcement. At various points in physical education, in extra-curricular activities, in cooperative participation in school management, and in other experimental developments within the school community, group work is being discovered and explored. Of particular significance, because of its position and prestige in physical education, has been the introduction of group work at Mills College, California. The Progressive Education Association has exhibited a growing awareness of an inherent kinship with group work. This has been apparent in enlarged collaboration, in an increase in group work articles in *Progressive Education*, and in the publication recently of an entire special issue devoted to informal education. The American Association for Adult Education included group work in its national conference program this year. This was true also in the case of the Eastern Section Conference of the Society of Recreation Workers of America.

Emerging Professional Outlook

Evidence accumulates, therefore, of growing professional interest and activity in the development of group work as a distinct and transmissible body of specialized knowledge and technique applicable to group life under certain rather definite conditions.

Conferences, institutes, seminars, workshops, and study groups are making their contribution. Professional schools, councils of social agencies, national agencies, and "professional" societies within these agencies are adding their weight. A generic professional literature in distinction to a specific agency literature is well in the making and is lending its influence. And, after four years, with a membership now of almost 1,000, the American Association for the Study of Group Work is providing a channel of communication and an instrument of cooperative inquiry, and establishing itself more and more as a formal expression of the group work movement.

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SOCIAL HYGIENE[1] deals with problems having their origins in the phenomena of sex. The goal of social hygiene is a healthy and scientific attitude by society toward sex, and a healthy sex life for individuals. Social hygiene is concerned with those infectious diseases which are spread mainly by sexual contacts. Of these the most important are syphilis and gonorrhea, although in recent years new importance has been at-

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

tached to lymphogranuloma venereum. Social hygiene endeavors to reduce the antisocial exploitation of sex appetites through commercialized prostitution; supports and protects the institution which provides biologically and socially useful forms of exercise of the sex functions, namely, the family; and by education prepares the young for successful marriage and parenthood. *See* THE FAMILY.

Organizations Concerned

Among the governmental organizations in the field of public health and preventive medicine which are concerned with social hygiene problems are the United States Public Health Service, the state health departments, and the local health services. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH. The Public Health Service acts in an advisory and to some extent supervisory capacity in relation to state health authorities, conducting investigations and scientific studies and controlling the allocation of federal funds intended for use by the states for venereal disease control. The Bureau of Venereal Disease Control in the Public Health Service is the agency charged with these duties and relationships. The importance and the activity of this Bureau have been greatly increased since May, 1938, when Congress passed the federal Venereal Disease Control Act authorizing the appropriation of federal funds for aid to the states in the following amounts: $3,000,000 for the fiscal year 1938–1939, $5,000,000 for 1939–1940, and $7,000,000 for 1940–1941. Congress appropriated the indicated amounts for the first two fiscal years and $6,200,000 for the fiscal year 1940–1941. Since federal funds must be matched by state and local appropriations, an estimated total of $28,000,000 will have been made available during the three years 1938–1941. Federal allocations to the states are made by the Public Health Service on the basis of population, economic need, and estimated prevalence of syphilis.

The United States Children's Bureau which has an active medical and public health program affecting children, and the Office of Indian Affairs which supervises the medical and public health work among the American Indians are also concerned with stamping out venereal disease.

State health authorities with few exceptions have jurisdiction over the local health authorities in their states and supervise, aid, and set standards for the official syphilis and gonorrhea control activities. In addition they maintain certain state-wide services such as serological laboratories and statistical services, and provide medical and educational aids and materials. Federal aid to the states passes through the state health department to the authorities having local jurisdiction over public health matters, whether such aid comes through the Public Health Service or the Children's Bureau. State health authorities sometimes conduct local health services such as clinics for the diagnosis and treatment of syphilis and gonorrhea.

Usually local health authorities—city, town, and county—conduct the actual medical and public health services which reach the citizens. These include clinics, sometimes serological laboratories, distribution of drugs to physicians, case-finding and case-holding activities, and educational measures. In some communities governmental hospitals, not a part of the health department, conduct clinics for the diagnosis and treatment of syphilis and gonorrhea.

The public agencies for dealing with the legal and protective aspects of social hygiene are the state and local police authorities, the courts, the prosecutors, and the penal institutions. Parole and probation officers, usually attached to the courts, play an important protective role. The function of these officials is the enforcement of the laws and ordinances of the state and cities over which they have jurisdiction, including enforcement of the public health law and laws dealing with prostitution and other sex offenses.

The United States Office of Education acts in an advisory capacity to state educational authorities, many of which are carrying on educational activities of interest to social

hygiene. In some instances these authorities encourage sex education and are able to supply advice and guidance to this end.

The national voluntary organization specializing in this field is the American Social Hygiene Association. However, many national voluntary social, educational, and civic organizations include some phase of social hygiene work in their programs. The American Social Hygiene Association has about 150 branch societies and committees scattered throughout the United States. As a voluntary agency it aids and supports the public agencies in carrying on sound social hygiene work. To this end it conducts studies, supports acceptable legislation, and interprets social hygiene policy and activities on a broad plane to the general public.

Recent Advances

Great advances have recently been made in the control and prevention of syphilis and gonorrhea. During the past ten years the number of serological tests for syphilis have increased by 242 per cent. Laboratory examinations for gonorrhea have increased by 73 per cent in ten years. The number of clinics for the diagnosis and treatment of syphilis and gonorrhea has increased by 287 per cent in five years. The number of doses of arsphenamine distributed to physicians has increased by 84 per cent in six years. Many state and city health departments have set up special administrative divisions to supervise this expanding program. The number of individuals actually reached by governmental and voluntary health agencies and by private physicians is now higher than at any time in the past.

In February, 1937, the first National Social Hygiene Day was sponsored and promoted by the American Social Hygiene Association and collaborating organizations, and has been followed each February since by increasingly widespread and successful observance of this day. During recent years there has been a phenomenal increase in the instruction of the public regarding syphilis and gonorrhea by means of the press, radio, and motion pictures, all of which have contributed greatly to the enlightenment of the population. Many new additions to popular and scientific pamphlet and exhibit materials have been made during the past year, especially by the United States Public Health Service and the American Social Hygiene Association.

The most recent addition to educational motion picture films are two: *With These Weapons,* a one-reel sound film produced by the American Social Hygiene Association, and *Doctor Ehrlich's Magic Bullet,* a commercial feature film produced by Warner Brothers. Both films have important places in the education of the public regarding syphilis. Innovations are the talking slide films *For All Our Sakes* and *Enemy of Youth* produced by the American Social Hygiene Association.

A recent study by the Association[1] indicates that sex education has made progress especially in educational institutions at the college level. High schools are now giving more attention to social hygiene subject matter through their courses in biology, physical education, and home economics.

An unexpected result of augmented public interest in syphilis and gonorrhea has been an increase in illegal and unethical practices in the diagnosis and treatment of these diseases. A study made by the American Social Hygiene Association[2] indicates that the public credulity has been exploited for selfish profit and that in spite of much more widespread information a great many people are still deceived by quack and patent medicine advertisements. The Association and the American Pharmaceutical Association have set up a joint committee to deal with this problem by educational measures directed especially at lower literacy groups.

Studies of public opinion and administrative practice with regard to prostitution and sex delinquency indicate a trend away from strict law enforcement in many cities. An in-

[1] In preparation, 1940.
[2] *See* Edwards and Kinsie, *infra cit.*

teresting phenomenon is the increase in flagrant commercialized prostitution in smaller cities, many of which permit much worse conditions to obtain than exist in large cities of the same geographical region. On the other hand, an encouraging number of cities, large and small, have maintained excellent records for law enforcement, resulting in a minimum of commercialized sexual vice.

Twenty states had so-called "premarital examination laws" and 18 had "prenatal examination laws" in June, 1940. All of these laws have been enacted during the past five years. The typical premarital examination law requires every applicant for a marriage license to submit a physician's certificate indicating that the applicant has received an examination for syphilis, including a blood test, and has been found free from the disease in its communicable form. The prenatal examination law requires physicians to perform blood tests for syphilis on pregnant women attended by them. In a few states the premarital examination law requires also an examination for "venereal disease" which, of course, includes gonorrhea. Experience with the administration of premarital and prenatal laws is too brief to permit statistical evaluation of their results, but health and medical authorities of the states which have passed these laws are well satisfied with them and regard them as important advances.

The state of New York enacted a law in 1940 prohibiting pharmacists to dispense drugs for the treatment of gonotrhea or syphilis except on physicians' prescriptions. This law is aimed at "counter" prescribing and the sale of patent remedies for the treatment of syphilis and gonorrhea in drug stores.

Research and Investigation

No recent period has seen such rapid advances in the field of research and investigation having to do with syphilis and gonorrhea as the past three or four years. Only a few of these advances can be mentioned here.

In April, 1940, a group of eminent physicians in New York City gave the medical world details of a new method of treatment of syphilis called "The Intravenous Drip Method." Using standard arsenical preparations, this method employs the intravenous drip technique to introduce the drug in high dilution into the vein of the parient. Only cases of early syphilis in the male have thus far been treated by this method, but in these cases the immediate results were about 90 per cent satisfactory. Treated patients must be observed for a much longer time before final opinion can be expressed with regard to the ultimate effects of the new method of treatment, but the consensus of medical opinion is that an important advance has been made.

A study[1] of primary syphilis brought to light the fact that of 971 cases diagnosed in the primary stage only 3 per cent sought medical attention within ten days after first noticing suspicious lesions, over half waited thirty days, and 7 per cent delayed for over one hundred days after noticing a sore before asking a physician to make a diagnosis. A case-finding demonstration[2] conducted in New York City showed that educational, epidemiological, and diagnostic methods could greatly increase the number of cases of syphilis and gonorrhea under medical attention. These methods served to increase the number of examinations for these diseases by 670 per cent during the demonstration.

Research has served to clarify the position of cultures in the diagnosis and control of gonococcus infections. Comparing the culture method of diagnosis with the microscopic or smear method alone, only 86 cases in 100 can be diagnosed by the microscopic method, signifying that without a culture 14 out of 100 cases may be missed. Studies of gonococcal vaginitis in little girls suggest that without treatment a good many

[1] *See* Clarke, *Chancres Studied from the Public Health Point of View* (*infra cit.*).

[2] *See* Clarke, *Staten Island Case-Finding Project* (*infra cit.*).

cases will achieve a clinical cure, but that about 30 per cent will continue in a carrier stage, remaining infectious over long periods of time.

Two important advances in the treatment of gonorrhea have occurred within the past few years. The applications of fever therapy under carefully controlled conditions proved an effective method of treating many cases of gonorrhea including some of its most stubborn complications. Sulfanilamide and its derivatives have proved important additions to the physician's resources. Under the most favorable conditions 74 per cent of acute cases and 96 per cent of chronic cases can be cured by the administration of sulfanilamide or its derivatives. The "most favorable conditions" include bed treatment in a hospital and the administration of large doses of the drug—a procedure which is not advisable for ambulatory patients. Patients treated with sulfanilamide, however, must be carefully followed since some still remain infectious although without symptoms.

The net result of the advances noted above is that we now have at hand more accurate methods of diagnosis and more effective methods of treatment than previously. The successful administrative application of new culture methods will require extension of laboratory facilities. The newer methods of treatment of gonorrhea and syphilis can only give their highest return when applied to bed patients, which means larger facilities for hospitalization.

Professional Opportunities

A distinct trend has been noted toward higher professional standards in the training of professional social hygiene workers. Individuals wishing to prepare for professional social hygiene work now find that they must enter through preliminary medical training as physicians, public health nursing training, or social work training. *See* MEDICAL SOCIAL WORK and PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING. Postgraduate instruction for physicians in the diagnosis, treatment, and public health control of syphilis and gonorrhea is offered at Harvard University, Johns Hopkins University, New York University, and perhaps a few other places. Specialized public health nursing and social work instruction is given at the University of Pennsylvania. Teachers interested in sex education are finding undergraduate and postgraduate opportunities for instruction in certain normal schools and at Teachers College, Columbia University. Opportunities for employment in the field of social hygiene are mainly in governmental agencies, entry to which is in most cases through civil service examinations.

Effects of National Defense Program

The great expansion of the Army and Navy and national defense industries has raised many urgent social hygiene problems. In military and naval training centers, instruction of personnel regarding syphilis and gonorrhea and facilities for the prevention of these diseases are provided, and those who become infected are given medical care. Recreational opportunities will also be provided in the Army and Navy training centers. Workers in defense industries, however, are less fortunately placed. The sudden increase in Army and Navy personnel adjacent to, and of defense workers in, smaller towns and cities present extremely difficult problems involving recreation, housing, prevention of venereal diseases, morals, and morale, which these communities are often quite unprepared to meet.

Prostitution conditions tend to become extremely bad in such communities. Since members of the armed forces as well as industrial workers become infected in the civil communities, these social hygiene problems have importance to national defense. Already in many places the venereal disease rate has increased as evidenced by the rates in the armed forces where accurate records are kept.

Official and voluntary agencies have taken note of this dangerous situation. A joint

agreement of the War Department, Navy Department, and United States Public Health Service provides principally for adequate medical care, case finding, enforcement of the laws against prostitution, and the cooperation of military, naval, and civil authorities and such voluntary agencies as the American Social Hygiene Association. The Army, the Navy, and the Public Health Service have asked for the advice of a committee of the National Research Council, which has placed before these services recommendations embodying the most modern conceptions of diagnosis, treatment, and prevention of the venereal diseases. The President has appointed the Health and Medical Committee of the Council of National Defense, having for its members two civilian physicians and the Surgeons General of the Army, the Navy, and the Public Health Service, which Committee will exercise certain advisory functions with regard to social hygiene problems and others in the realm of medicine and public health.

At the request of the Army, the Navy, and the Public Health Service, the American Social Hygiene Association is carrying on an active program in the civil communities near military and naval establishments to reduce the opportunities for exposure to infection.

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SOCIAL INSURANCE[1] is a means of anticipating common hazards in the lives of

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

employed persons and of mitigating the effects of these hazards through the provision in advance of funds from which payment of cash benefits and provision of special services may be made. Experience has shown that large numbers of the population encounter the hazards of old age, widowhood, orphanage, disability (temporary or permanent), and unemployment, and that all people face the hazards of illness and death. When one of these events occurs in the life of a worker or of a member of his family, a personal economic and social crisis is precipitated. The improvement in statistical records and the growth of actuarial science have made it increasingly possible to forecast the probability of the occurrence of any of these events in the lives of a million employed persons, whereas it is not possible to predict their occurrence in the life of a single individual. Hence, insurance against the economic risks incident to these hazards becomes necessary on a mass basis. In social insurance the amounts of money needed are estimated and provision is made for raising the necessary sums through special taxes (usually known as contributions) upon payrolls or wages or both. The sums raised in this way may be supplemented by government contributions from general revenues. The aim is to assure funds adequate to pay cash benefits in lieu of wages and to give medical or other services required by the insured person. Social insurance is mutual aid carried out on a state or national basis.

Social insurance is distinguished from public assistance both by its financing and its conditions of eligibility. Funds for public assistance are appropriated by legislative bodies from revenues raised by general taxation or borrowing. Sometimes particular taxes are assigned for general relief, old age assistance, or other forms of aid, but even when this is done the legislative body must appropriate the sums raised before they are available. Recipients of public assistance may pay some of the taxes which are levied to provide the allowances which they receive, but they pay these taxes not for the purpose of receiving assistance but because a sales or excise tax has been imposed upon commodities which they purchase with their assistance money. *See* FINANCING PUBLIC SOCIAL WORK.

Social insurance benefits are provided to persons who qualify by virtue of contributions having been paid on their wages by themselves or their employers or both for the specific purpose of providing these benefits. Historically, public assistance has been paid only on a needs basis. Minimum standards of eligibility are expressed or implied by the law and the applicant must prove, by these standards, that he is in need. In social insurance the fact of employment in some occupation which is covered by the insurance law is of primary importance, but in the case of public assistance the fact of previous employment is not in question in the United States. *See* PUBLIC ASSISTANCE.

Historical Background

Social insurance has its roots in the medieval guilds and a variety of mutual aid groups which developed during and after the medieval period. Members of the guilds contributed to common funds which were used for the benefit of members in case of illness, widowhood, old age, unemployment, or death. The trade guild was an occupational group, and the members taxed themselves in one way or another for their mutual benefit. Non-trade, mutual-aid guilds also existed, often in connection with churches, but they were less important than the trade guilds. As the factory system developed and labor became highly mobile, the old customary obligations of master and servant gradually disappeared and the trade guilds and other mutual-aid groups declined in importance. They tended to be local while the worker might have to follow his employment from one city to another. Insecurity became the inescapable lot of the new employe with earnings inadequate and employment uncertain. Throughout most of the nineteenth century society refused to recognize the changed social and economic

status of the masses of the population. By the last quarter of the century, however, pressure from the workers themselves had become so strong that governments could no longer ignore their special needs.

The German government was the first to enact large-scale social legislation. In 1881 Emperor William I recommended both accident and health insurance, suggesting that provision should be made for those who were incapable of work because of age or invalidity. In 1883 the first German sickness insurance law became effective and in 1884 a national system of accident insurance was created. Provision for old age and invalidity insurance was made in 1889. An attempt was made in 1911 to codify all of the existing social insurance laws and to coordinate administration. At the same time survivors' insurance was added, and in 1927 unemployment insurance was provided.

In the two decades which followed the enactment of the first sickness insurance law in Germany, most other European countries adopted one or more forms of social insurance. Accident insurance spread more rapidly than any other type, but a number of countries set up systems of sickness, invalidity, and old age insurance. Great Britain broke with the poor law and the employer's liability law for the first time in 1897 when workmen's compensation, the Anglo-American name for accident insurance, came into effect. In 1911 Great Britain introduced a new form of social insurance—namely, unemployment insurance—and passed a health insurance law.

The federal workmen's compensation law for employes of the United States government was passed in 1908 and became the first piece of American social insurance legislation (an earlier Maryland law had become inoperative) to weather the courts. In 1910 New York enacted two laws, one voluntary and the other compulsory. By the end of 1915 workmen's compensation laws had been enacted in 27 states and one territory. Wisconsin adopted the first unemployment compensation law in this country in 1932, but it was not put into operation until 1934. The federal Social Security Act became law August 14, 1935, and Titles III and IX provided the basis for the present unemployment compensation system. However, California, New Hampshire, and New York had already adopted unemployment compensation laws before the federal act was passed. Old age insurance was provided in the original federal Social Security Act, and in 1939 survivors' insurance was added to it. A special federal law was adopted to create both unemployment compensation and old age insurance for railroad workers. Thus, at the present time we have a system of old age and survivors' insurance administered by the federal government; old age insurance and unemployment compensation for railroad workers, also under federal administration; a general unemployment compensation system which is federal-state in its administration; and workmen's compensation, our oldest form of social insurance, administered by the states and territories. *See* OLD AGE AND SURVIVORS' INSURANCE, RAILROAD WORKERS' INSURANCE, UNEMPLOYMENT COMPENSATION, and WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION.

Contributions and Benefits

The early German social insurance laws provided for contributions by employers and employes for the support of the various types of insurance. The only exception to this was accident insurance which was financed entirely by the employer. All other countries have with variations followed the German practice. In most plans the contributions represent a percentage of wages. The employe pays a percentage of his own wages and the employer pays a percentage of his insured payroll. If the government makes a contribution it may be an arbitrary amount, an amount sufficient to meet actuarial requirements, or a sum which matches the contribution of the employe or the employer. The funds collected are held in trust for the specific purpose for which they were collected and may be used only for the

payment of benefits or, sometimes, operating costs.

Only those employes, and the members of their families, who have contributed or for whom contributions have been made may benefit from a social insurance plan. In the United States and most other countries the insurance benefit is a percentage of the average wages of the insured person. The aim is to provide for a specified period of time, when the individual is not receiving wages or salary, a fraction of his usual income and hence to guarantee a pre-determined fraction of his usual standard of living.

The insured person has a contractual right to benefits under social insurance. He must satisfy certain conditions, such as employment for a minimum period in an insurable occupation, but once these are satisfied he has a right to benefits in a sense which differs from the right of a needy person to public assistance. The maintenance of this right is a matter of policy in most countries. The only major exception to it exists in Germany, where unemployment insurance has by one decree after another been reduced to little more than a public assistance plan. The courts have in hundreds of cases upheld the right of an injured worker to receive workmen's compensation under American laws. That the obligation to pay benefits out of contributions collected is regarded as a trust is further emphasized by the fact that all social insurance systems build up large reserves to carry them over periods of reduced current income.

In many social insurance systems additional allowances of cash benefits are provided for the dependents of the insured person. A few American states grant dependents' allowances under workmen's compensation laws although most of them do not, except in case of death. Our old age and survivors' insurance system now pays dependents' allowances under restricted conditions. With the exception of the unemployment compensation law of the District of Columbia, American unemployment compensation laws make no provision for dependents in the family of the unemployed worker. The primary purposes of social insurance are only partly realized when the needs of dependents are neglected. In this respect our laws fall far short of what we should expect.

Social-Economic Functions

The social-economic functions and incidental effects of social insurance are both complex and numerous. The public, as well as the individual, is concerned with the working capacity of the citizen because human capital is the most valuable of all capital. Social insurance provides a means of developing, restoring, and maintaining working capacity and of relieving or preventing distress. Provision of insurance benefits for children of the worker makes more certain that their physical and mental capacities will have normal development. The cash and medical benefits of sickness insurance aid in the restoration of the health and hence the working capacity of the worker. To a less extent invalidity insurance has a similar function. Unemployment insurance benefits provide the means of subsistence when the worker is unemployed and, therefore, contribute in an important way to the maintenance of his working capacity. Social insurance is one of the most effective methods yet discovered for assuring the conservation of human values.

To the aged and the permanently incapacitated who have given their labor and thought to the community, social insurance brings a reward for socially useful services. Old age and invalidity insurance help to remove from the labor market persons whose productivity has seriously declined. Those who are unable to compete on equal terms are given a means of living without further employment and the able-bodied workers are relieved of this unfair competition.

A comprehensive system of social insurance has the effect of spreading the purchasing power of consumers more evenly through a period of time. People must consume

whether or not they have an income from productive work. The fully insured person is provided with cash benefits when he is incapacitated by accident or sickness, when he is unemployed, and when he is old, and his dependents are assured of means of subsistence: the adequacy of the standard of subsistence may be questioned under a specific system, but the system makes possible whatever standards are provided by law. Hence the flow of purchasing power is kept at a higher level than it would otherwise attain and employment is srimulated through the normal flow of consumers' goods.

Since contributions take purchasing power from employer and employe, there is less money to spend at the time contributions are paid. They are in effect compulsory savings on a large scale. The employe has a slightly reduced purchasing power while he is working, and the employer shows a somewhat lower net profit on his enterprise. But since the cost of the common hazards of life must be paid for in terms of suffering, deprivation, or money, and must be paid by somebody, it is reasonable to spread this burden through both time and the population. That is what happens in social insurance. When a new system of social insurance is instituted the burden of contributions is noticeable, but after it has been in operation for a few years the costs become assimilated. The experience of all countries with general social insurance programs has shown that it is not only not a burden but is a means of stabilizing the national economy. No country which has adopted a social insurance system has ever abolished it: some particular type of coverage may have been altered or abandoned but the system itself has continued.

Administrative Organization

The United States has several pieces of a social insurance system, with health insurance conspicuously lacking (*see* Health Insurance in MEDICAL CARE), but it does not have a coordinated system. Within the United States there are 52 different workmen's compensation laws administered by 51 units of government. The unemployment compensation system is a joint enterprise of the federal government and the states, and there are 52 separate laws in as many different jurisdictions. While the differences of administrative organization are fewer than in the case of workmen's compensation, they are highly diverse and create serious problems of supervision. Both old age insurance and unemployment compensation for railroad workers are administered by the federal government, whereas in the general scheme of social insurance only the old age and survivors' insurance is under federal administration. *See* RAILROAD WORKERS' INSURANCE. A coordinated and comprehensive system of social insurance requires federal determination of standards for coverage, contributions, benefits, personnel, and adjudication of claims. There is much to be said for genuine state participation in administration but as a matter of equal justice in the country as a whole the standards of service should be as nearly uniform as practical administrative difficulties permit.

Social insurance cannot meet the needs of all persons deprived of income, and the benefits are often too small to maintain a worker and his dependents. Public assistance is more flexible and must supplement social insurance benefits in such cases. Hence some coordination of social insurance and public assistance is of the first importance. The Social Security Board has recognized this problem and has issued instructions regarding cooperative procedure to both insurance and assistance agencies at various times, but the practical problems of administration have by no means been solved.

The quality of social insurance services is in large measure determined by the kind and quality of personnel. A sufficient number of employes with appropriate training and experience is essential. Since January 1, 1940, the Social Security Board has had power to require all states with approved unemployment compensation laws to select their employes on the basis of merit. The

states have been slow to place their workmen's compensation systems on a merit basis. Federal employes under the Social Security Board and the Railroad Retirement Board, barring a few exceptions, are selected under civil service. But providing for the selection and tenure of employes under a merit system does not mean that we have determined what kinds of persons can perform social insurance duties best. That is a matter to be determined by job analysis and observation of the performance of employes with different types of training and experience. There has been an assumption on the part of some that persons in the more responsible positions from junior interviewer and claims deputy up should have training and experience in "labor relations" or "labor law" (whatever those terms may mean) but if this conception should be accepted without challenge it would be unfortunate for administrative efficiency. There may be better forms of training, or these may need supplementation by some knowledge and skill in public administration and social case work.

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SOCIAL SERVICE EXCHANGES. The social service exchange, also known as the confidential exchange and social service index, is a coordinating agency which provides a central index to the case records of the social agencies in a community or geographical area. It is set up and operated to aid member agencies in careful and intelligent planning for the enhancement of the welfare of families and individuals known to them. It serves as a confidential clearing bureau, maintaining card indices of names, addresses, and other pertinent identifying information with respect to the case records of social agencies receiving applications from families or individuals seeking assistance or service. Member agencies may consult the exchange by mail, telephone, or messenger.

In general, the exchange performs two important functions. It reports to the inquiring agency the names of agencies already interested in a family or individual and the dates of the registrations; and it notifies these agencies of the new inquiry. This makes possible immediate consultation between the interested agencies. As a result of such consultation, the inquiring agency may determine whether it should withdraw or, if its services are needed, plan with the active agencies the role it should assume. In order that the service of the exchange may be effective it is essential that the member agencies clear their cases at the

point of intake before a decision is made to accept or reject an application for relief or service. The notification to already registered agencies is designed to inform the active ones among them of a new agency entering the situation and enables them to communicate with this agency if it delays consulting them.

The first exchanges were established about 1870 by the charity organization societies as a device for preventing duplication of relief. Although this purpose still continues, the exchanges have become increasingly important as a means of coordination and social planning. They continued to function under the auspices of family welfare societies until about 1920, when the development of community chests and councils of social agencies resulted in recognition of the community aspect of the exchange function and led to the transfer of many of the exchanges to these new auspices. Exchanges have been established in most of the important cities of the country. *See* COMMUNITY CHESTS and COUNCILS IN SOCIAL WORK.

For several years a Social Service Exchange Committee has functioned as a department of Community Chests and Councils, Inc. This Committee has developed principles and policies governing the operations of an exchange and has offered leadership and advice to the exchanges throughout the country, keeping them informed of important developments affecting their programs.

Administration and Support

The social service exchange is primarily a community service to social agencies. As such, it operates either as a department of a community chest or council of social agencies, independently, or under public welfare auspices. *See* PUBLIC WELFARE. It is successful only to the extent that it serves all the case work agencies in the area covered, and the member agencies use effectively the information given to them by the exchange. An advisory committee or board of directors, composed of citizens and professional representatives of the member agencies, is considered essential to ensure proper administration, adequate financing, and the protection of the confidential nature of the exchange. Such boards or committees take responsibility for interpreting the function of the exchange and assume the obligation of providing efficient and uninterrupted service.

There is no uniform method of financing exchanges. Some are supported entirely by the community chest. Others are financed partly by the chest and partly by fees charged for service to the public welfare agencies. A few are completely self-supporting through income derived from service charges made to both public and private welfare agencies. All exchanges, regardless of auspices or method of financing, attempt to operate on a cost basis, not wishing to make a profit at the expense of their member agencies. One, that in West Virginia, is wholly supported by public funds.

In the past ten years the exchanges have had to adapt their operations to meet the increasing demands for service resulting from the expansion of the public welfare agencies. This has resulted in critical examination and modification of procedures and equipment by their boards and executives. Many exchange staffs have been enlarged to handle the load. Although some experimentation has taken place, the most effective services have been found in the exchanges which have held firmly to their specific function, that of an index to case records of its member agencies. The exchange must be flexible enough to adapt readily to the needs of its member agencies. Pressures exerted for special services must not interfere with prompt and accurate recording to all its members.

Types of Agencies Using the Exchange

Social agencies functioning in all fields of social welfare use the exchange. Many of the exchanges require formal membership before granting an agency the privilege of using it. In general, any social

agency (a) performing a case work service, (b) maintaining case records, and (c) having acceptable standards is eligible to use the exchange. Although the greatest volume of clearings comes from the public assistance agencies, the exchange is also used extensively by the private agencies such as the family welfare, child welfare, nursing, health, medical social service, and group work organizations. Probation departments of courts, social service departments of churches, and schools of social work also use the exchange; the last-named, in research studies.

State-wide Developments

In the past year there has been great interest in the idea of extending the geographical area covered by the exchange and in the possibility of transferring from private auspices, such as councils of social agencies, to state departments of welfare. The need for more complete geographical coverage is felt because of the current extension of public welfare programs. This is not entirely a new development, as the Boston Social Service Index has for many years served the welfare agencies in Massachusetts by providing a system of clearance with other exchanges in the state. The Atlanta Social Service Index and the Philadelphia Social Service Exchange have served adjacent counties. There has existed for some time a system of inter-exchange clearance throughout the country on special inquiries. The California exchanges tried out and abandoned a clearance of migratory families and individuals.

In 1939 the West Virginia State Department of Public Assistance, in cooperation with the federal Office of Government Reports, established the West Virginia Index on an experimental basis. West Virginia was chosen for this demonstration because it had an agricultural as well as an industrial population, an inregrated public assistance program, and lacked an adequate voluntary clearance agency in the state. The installation represents the first state-wide clearance system operating under public auspices. It contains at present approximately 180,000 listings of household groups and 200,000 address listings. Participating agencies include the 55 county departments of public assistance, with their categories of direct relief, old age assistance, aid to dependent children, aid to the blind, and service cases; the Farm Security Administration, National Youth Administration, Work Projects Administration, Civilian Conservation Corps; and the state departments responsible for unemployment compensation and workmen's compensation. It does not at present include any voluntary social agencies. The staff of the Index consists of a supervisor and eight clerks supplemented by an average of four National Youth Administration typists and clerks. The majority of the installation personnel was provided by the National Youth Administration and Work Projects Administration. The Index is centrally located at Charleston, which makes twenty-four-hour clearance possible from any point in the state.

The purpose of the West Virginia Index has been summarized as follows:

To provide better service to the client by expediting action on applications, promoting coordination of agencies giving assistance, eliminating unnecessary investigations, and protecting the clients' privacy by directing inquiries only to the agencies which have a case history.

To avoid inadvertent duplications and overlapping of benefits, thus making it possible to give assistance to a larger number of needy persons or increase the average grant without increasing the total expenditures.

To effect administrative economies by making available to the inquiring agencies a complete record of all sources of information regarding the applicant.[1]

It varies from the usual practice of exchanges by giving special service to some of

[1] Hamblet, Philip C., *Regional and State-wide Exchanges.* An unpublished paper read at the 1940 National Conference of Social Work.

its participating agencies. It also records "start" and "stop" dates of financial benefits, although not the amounts of these benefits. It is at present entirely supported by the State Department of Public Assistance and operates from a central office with no regional or county branches.

The Ohio legislature passed a relief bill in 1939 making it mandatory for each of the 88 counties in Ohio to establish a "central clearing office." In response to this the State Department of Public Welfare has developed recommendations and policies to guide counties in the organization of such clearing offices, based upon those formulated by the Social Service Exchange Committee. The State Director of Welfare may use his judgment regarding the adaptation of existing files, either public or private, or the establishment of new offices. An advisory committee, composed of directors of the exchanges in Cincinnati, Cleveland, and Dayton, has assisted the State Department on the technical aspects of this development. Advisory committees representing all agencies have been appointed in counties where there is no central file. Existing services are being expanded to cover entire counties, and financial arrangements are being worked out to prorate the costs evenly between the public and voluntary agencies covered. The State Department recommends that each office be manned by competent personnel.

Rhode Island is using the Providence Social Service Exchange as the nucleus for a state-wide index which will include both public and private agencies as members. Indiana in June, 1940, was considering the possibility of building its state-wide index around present exchanges in the state. This would require adjustment of the present services to cover a larger geographical area, with a system of clearance between local offices of the exchange. Minnesota had a somewhat similar plan under consideration.

The Social Service Exchange Committee has met with representatives of the Bureau of Public Assistance of the Social Security Board and the Office of Government Reports, and has considered the many problems involved in the development of state-wide exchanges. There is agreement that the success of such a program is dependent upon broader understanding of the function and operation of an exchange. There must be adequate appropriations so that there will be no interruption of the service, and competent personnel must be employed and not supplemented by work relief personnel. The confidential nature of the exchange must be maintained and the geographical area so selected that prompt clearance and reporting will be possible. The Bureau of Public Assistance of the Social Security Board had in preparation in September, 1940, a statement to be entitled *Organization and Administration of a Confidential Exchange* which it was expected would be released to the states as a guide to the development of such a service, if one were under consideration.[1]

During the past year, as interest in state-wide exchanges has increased, exchange secretaries and advisory committees in at least two states—New York and Illinois—have taken the initiative for calling meetings of similar groups in their own states. They have discussed plans for improving their own standards and the possibility of extending the area now covered. Representatives of the public welfare agencies were included so that plans developed might be more realistically related to the needs of the public agencies. The exchanges in Illinois have recently completed the organization of a state committee. It includes as one of its officers a member of the State Department of Public Welfare. The Social Service Exchange Committee has recognized this committee by appointing its chairman as a member. The Illinois committee is already giving guidance to some of the smaller exchanges and is available to assist in the development of new exchanges in the state.

[1] For an advance summarization of the points to be contained in this statement *see* Blakeslee, *infra cit.*

Social Work as a Profession

Both the Social Service Exchange Committee and the Illinois committee are concerned with the relationship of the private social agencies to a state index, and the financial basis of participation if they are to be included.

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EDWINA MEANEY LEWIS

SOCIAL WORK AS A PROFESSION[1] has developed within the twentieth century, although its antecedents are found in the activities that were formerly included under such terms as "charity," "philanthropy," "poor relief," and "social reform." Attempts have been made to define social work in various ways, many of which reflect stages of growth toward professional status. Its etiology, objectives, sponsorship, and more recently its methodology, have been stressed at various times.

Since practice precedes theory in any profession, the problems of poverty, delinquency, and social disorganization commanded the attention at an early date of the state, the church, and individual philanthropists. Agencies and institutions were established to deal with specific aspects of social pathology that were serious at a particular time and place. The combined result of the rise of humanitarianism and of the biological and social sciences was an interest in the causes of dependency, delinquency, and defect. A shift in emphasis followed, from amelioration to prevention. By 1910 social work could be described as a congeries of agencies and movements which dealt with the treatment and prevention of family breakdown, neglect and protection of children, effects of physical and mental illness, work accidents, and other causes in relation to groups served.

The attempt to define social work in terms of its objectives or function marks a second period of growth. By the close of the World War of 1914–1918 advances in psychiatric and psychological knowledge diverted attention somewhat from environmental to personal causes of maladjustment. At the same time, so-called "character-

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

building" movements for youth were emerging and city-wide coordination for planning and financing of social work was spreading rapidly. Such statements as the following give something of the objectives and interests of social work, although they are so broad in their implications that they might perhaps be equally well applied to other professions: "The subject matter of social work is the adjustment of men to their environment";[1] and "Social work concerns itself with human beings where there is anything that hinders or thwarts their growth, their expanding consciousness, their increasing cooperation."[2] Elsewhere the "emerging purposes" of social work were summarized as comprising material security, emotional security, social justice, social achievement, and spiritual power.[3]

Sponsorship or source of support is another approach to describing the field of social work. While the principle of guaranteeing from tax funds a minimum of relief to all needy citizens has been generally accepted, the depression of the 1930's has profoundly affected the scope, philosophy, and quality of administration of public social work in this country, especially with respect to public assistance or aid to people in their own homes, and with respect to compulsory insurance against hazards which produce dependency—such as unemployment, old age, and widowhood. This development has opened new avenues of employment to such an extent that the number of positions in the entire field of social work is at least six times as great as the number of persons who have qualified for membership in the national professional organization, the American Association of Social Workers. Private social work, or that supported by voluntary contributions and controlled by boards of self-appointed citizens, has been the dominant influence until recently in shaping the growth of the profession; but with many of the leaders now employed in the public agencies, the methods developed by private agencies are being applied and adapted to new problems and situations with consequent effect upon the whole field of practice.

Finally, social work may be defined by the methods employed in work with individuals, groups, and communities. This classification cuts across all of those previously mentioned and gives unity to what otherwise seems diffuse and separated. The methods, however, at this time are unevenly and partially developed, the literature for some is inadequate, and much research remains to be done before the common basis of the profession can be clearly distinguished. Social case work, social group work, community organization for social work, research, and administration are the methods about which a body of knowledge and skills, essential in some measure to all fields of activity, is accumulating.

The oldest of these methods, with its origins in the charity organization movement of the nineteenth century, is social case work. As a method with techniques "directed toward the release of individual capacities and the relieving of environmental pressures"[1] it developed in a variety of settings before the concept of basic or "generic" case work emerged in the 1920's. Social case work is credited with introducing into social work the scientific mode of thought and with relating to it the specific contributions of such disciplines as sociology, biology, economics, and so forth. A reasonably adequate literature is developing. *See* SOCIAL CASE WORK.

The other methods have similarly arisen and flourished as independent units of service. Analysis of professional method and content in social group work has been stimulated by the study groups and publications of the American (formerly the National) Association for the Study of Group Work

[1] *See* Lee, *infra cit.*

[2] Reynolds, Bertha C., "Social Case Work: What Is It? What Is Its Place in the World Today?" Pp. 136–147 in *Readings in Social Case Work.* 1939.

[3] *See* Lenroot, *infra cit.*

[1] Hamilton, Gordon, "Social Case Work," p. 408 in *Social Work Year Book, 1939.*

which was formed in 1936 at the National Conference of Social Work. *See* SOCIAL GROUP WORK. Informal association of persons interested for a similar purpose with respect to community organization for social work began at the National Conference of Social Work in 1939. *See* COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION FOR SOCIAL WORK. These efforts, combined with those of the schools of social work which are attempting to teach courses in social group work and community organization, are indications of a self-consciousness which is one of the marks of professional growth.

While not peculiar to social work, the methods of research and administration are receiving increasing study and adaptation to this field under the impact of the rapid growth and requirements of the public social services. *See* ADMINISTRATION OF SOCIAL AGENCIES and RESEARCH AND STATISTICS IN SOCIAL WORK.

The concept that social work as a profession has a common body of interrelated knowledge and skills that are practiced in work with individuals, groups, and communities is imperfect and not yet completely accepted but has been furthered by the action of two associations within the past decade. In 1932 the American Association of Schools of Social Work adopted a "basic curriculum" which must be included in the course of instruction by all member schools; and in 1935, when the National Conference of Social Work reorganized its program divisions, it included sections on social case work, social group work, and community organization.

Examples of positions in social work, by divisions of major specialization of the social worker, would include (a) social case work in public and private family welfare agencies, public and private child care agencies, social service departments of hospitals and clinics, visiting teacher departments of schools, probation departments of courts, family welfare work under the auspices of the American National Red Cross, Travelers Aid Societies, and many others; (b) social group work in settlements, community centers, young men's and young women's associations, boys' and girls' clubs, public recreation departments, and other organized recreational and cultural activities; (c) community organization through planning and program promotion in individual local agencies, councils of social agencies, community chests, state and national supervisory and advisory agencies, public welfare departments, and public health and health educational agencies; (d) social research in local agencies, community chests and councils, national private agencies and foundations, state welfare departments, and state and federal bureaus and commissions; and (e) administration, especially in large public or private organizations in which problems of personnel, finance, and management take the major part of the time of the executive.

In spite of rapid social changes and consequent expansion of the field, social workers have made some progress in defining their common purposes and the means of realizing them. Certain criteria such as general and special education, formal association between practitioners, and movement toward certification, indicate the degree of professionalism attained.

Educational Requirements

In any profession there are usually two tests of education imposed: the first, one of general education; the second, one of professional competence based on special knowledge and technical skill. The first evidence of the development of the latter test appeared in systems of apprenticeship training in social agencies, often followed by lectures organized by experienced workers who shared their accumulated experience and skills with newcomers. Early in the twentieth century these efforts took definite form in half a dozen cities, and schools of social work were established, first to supplement the apprenticeship training which the agencies provided but more recently to supplant it. Since July, 1933, membership

in the American Association of Social Workers has been in terms of general and professional education as well as of experience. This requirement, combined with needs for personnel arising from the World War of 1914–1918 and from the economic crisis of the 1930's, during which federal recognition was accorded educational standards, has greatly stimulated the growth of professional education. In June, 1940, there were 41 schools of social work which were members of the American Association of Schools of Social Work; and all of these were integral parts of or affiliated with universities. An organic grouping of relevant courses of instruction into a separate curriculum for the stated purpose of professional education, a part of which must be practical instruction in the field, is required of these schools. Most of them stipulate that the baccalaureate degree required for admission shall have been earned with a minimum number of credits in the social sciences. Very real progress, therefore, has been made in defining general and technical educational requirements for social work.

Granted that professional education has become an accepted criterion for professional status, what of the education of numbers of persons in social work positions who have not had instruction in a school of social work? On the answer to this question will depend in some measure the future growth of social work as a profession. Figures for the United States as a whole are not yet available, but a census of social workers in California in 1938[1] revealed that almost two-thirds of the 4,260 persons from whom returns were received (an estimated 90 per cent of employed social workers in the state) held college degrees, and about 42 per cent had had some instruction in a professional school. A study[2] of 516 Detroit social workers in the same year showed that more than half were college graduates, and 42 per cent had had some professional study. If graduation from a recognized school of social work were used as the measure of professional standing, however, only 10 per cent of Detroit social workers would be found to have met this requirement. A third study made by the American Public Welfare Association, *infra cit.*, of a sample of 688 positions in state and local public welfare agencies in 10 different states disclosed surprisingly similar returns. Almost two-thirds of the persons in the 688 positions studied were college graduates; 43 per cent had had some professional study; but only 11 per cent held professional degrees or certificates.

The 1939 amendment to the Social Security Act which requires the maintenance of personnel standards on a merit basis for those public assistance positions through which federal grants-in-aid to the states are administered will doubtless favorably affect the standards for general and technical education.

In the meantime the higher membership requirements of the American Association of Social Workers and the advancing standards of the American Association of Schools of Social Work involve pressing problems to which cooperative study has been given by the membership of both groups. The federal and many state agencies have maintained programs of educational leave on part salary for a limited number of employes in order to raise personnel standards; and agencies have adopted in-service training programs with the counsel and guidance of federal supervisory agencies. Many persons, under the stimulus of the membership requirements of the American Association of Social Workers, have entered schools of social work. The facilities of the schools in most areas have therefore been overtaxed by the demands of students and of agencies.

Apart from the schools' lack both of the financial and the teaching resources which would be required for greatly extended training, there have been other problems. It is recognized that professional curricula need to be further developed to include

[1] *See* California Conference of Social Work, *infra cit.*

[2] *See* Whalen, *infra cit.*

provision for the requirements of the new public welfare services; the skills required for efficient functioning in these services should be more clearly defined; and more and adequate facilities for supervised practice in both private and public agencies must be created. In addition, the inclusion in many colleges and universities of courses in social work has made it necessary to guard against superficial and inadequate development of curricula to meet the pressure of current demands, both in the interest of the public to be served and of students likely to enroll for courses without professional value. Increasing attention has been directed by both the American Association of Social Workers and the American Association of Schools of Social Work to the apparently conflicting issues of unmet educational needs and insufficient resources for satisfying them, on the one hand; and, on the other, to standards which it is desirable to maintain if the progress that has been made in growth toward professional status is to be continued. *See* EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK.

Professional Organizations

Formal association of persons engaged in social work in the United States began with the first "Conference of Boards of Public Charities" which met in New York in 1874. This organization, later called the National Conference of Charities and Corrections and now the National Conference of Social Work, has afforded a continuous medium for the discussion of common problems and for the exchange of opinion and experiences. Although membership is open without restriction to both lay and professional persons and the aim of the Conference is discussion rather than action, many definitely professional developments in social work have had their origins in the Conference. Similar state bodies have been equally stimulating influences in their respective localities. *See* CONFERENCES OF SOCIAL WORK.

Because social work developed through widely scattered and apparently unrelated activities over a long period of time, the practitioners in some divisions of the field have formed their own associations and defined their standards in terms of special education and experience. Among these are the American Association of Medical Social Workers (1918), the American Association of Visiting Teachers (1919), and the American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers (1926).

The need for a common placement service led to the organization of the National Social Workers Exchange in 1916; and out of this endeavor in 1921 emerged the American Association of Social Workers (AASW), the one comprehensive professional organization. In 1927 the placement function was relinquished to the Joint Vocational Service in order that the Association might concentrate its efforts upon the development of personnel standards and the broader objectives essential to professional growth and influence. The purpose of the Association as re-defined in 1939 was stated to be "an association of social workers meeting qualifications of education and experience, working in the area of human relationships, interested in advancing the quality of social service by means of individual and collective action in defining, promoting and protecting social work concepts and principles in the following areas: social work practice, and the advancing body of knowledge and skills required in practice; personnel standards, including professional education; standards of organization and administration affecting practice; and social problems observed in social work practice."[1]

Membership requirements were at first based on length of service as the measurement of competence; but since 1933 membership has had a basis in education. Applicants for membership are now required to have a minimum of two years of college

[1] "Report on Informal Conference Discussion of Purpose and Structure Proposals," in *The Compass*. July, 1939.

credits, plus three years of additional preparation, plus two years of accredited experience, making a total of seven years. Within the three years of professional preparation, part of which the applicant may have spent as a practicing social worker, he must acquire credits for about a year's work in a school of social work, and for approximately a college major in social and biological science. The purpose of this arrangement is to require, in addition to the professional training, nearly all of a full college course without stipulating graduation. As a preferred method a six-year preparation is allowed to those who graduate from an approved university and then complete a two-year graduate course in a school of social work. A temporary junior membership is open to those who have completed junior college work and who have less experience, less social science, and fewer professional school credits than are required for full membership. Junior members have a temporary status but within five years must acquire the additional qualifications for full membership.

From an initial membership of 750 in 1922, the Association grew to 5,030 members in 1930 and to 11,274 in 1940. Of approximately 900 new members admitted in the year 1939, men constituted 24 per cent. Of the total number of new members, 40 per cent were between twenty-five and thirty years of age, 50 per cent were employed in public social work, and 48 per cent in private agencies. The largest proportion of new members from private agencies, 81 per cent, were in social case work positions; and less than 10 per cent were in social group work positions. In contrast to the membership of the Association is the total number of persons employed in social work positions—estimated, on the basis of census figures, at approximately 40,000 persons in 1930[1]—which probably had doubled by 1940.[2]

[1] *See* Hurlin, *The Number and Distribution of Social Workers in the United States* (*infra cit.*).

[2] "The President Reports," in *The Compass*. June–July, 1940.

The rapid expansion in number of social work positions since 1933 has presented a dilemma to the Association. Should the relatively high educational standards for membership be maintained, even if the majority of persons in social work positions would be unable to qualify for membership at this time? Or should the basis of membership be "broadened" so as to include persons with diverse backgrounds in education and experience? The fact that the present membership standards were adopted after a four-year waiting period during which an effort was made to blanket in all who wished to qualify on the experience basis, combined with the fact that the Association has made considerable progress in professional self-consciousness under the educational standard for membership, have made a majority of the members unwilling to lower the present standards in any revision that may be made.

Another phase of the problem has been the application of the same membership requirements to all divisions of the field when the degree of professional growth is uneven. As pointed out above, the social case work method is the best defined and the farthest developed with respect to literature and analysis of any of the divisions of methodology. Should some adaptation in membership requirements be made for persons engaged primarily in group work, community organization, research, or administration?

At its 1940 Delegate Conference the Association adopted a resolution on purpose and membership selection in order to clarify its position. The resolution re-affirmed the conviction that the Association should continue as a general professional organization with a selected membership standard, and that the maintenance of such a standard was necessary for the realization of the Association's purposes and for reliable service to social work clientele and the general public. The resolution further declared that the Association desired to develop such effective relationships with other organizations

in the field of social work "as will serve the goals entertained in common without impairing the distinctive contributions of either," and concluded that the "distinctive purpose" of membership requirement and program policies required that "membership selection should be based on the objective of increasingly greater adequacy and responsibility in social workers" and "that membership selection should be such as to secure to the AASW a membership whose program and activities will be founded on basic concepts of social work as they develop in all fields; and therefore, should recognize the relation between these basic concepts and a common educational foundation."[1]

Activities of the American Association of Social Workers

The major professional interests of social workers have been afforded a channel of expression through the three program divisions of the national Association—Government and Social Work, Employment Practices, and Personnel Standards—with similar divisions or committees in many of the 84 local chapters. Research and publication around these and related subjects have been useful in helping to interpret the function, qualifications, and status of the practicing social worker, and the need for adequate social service programs. Worthy of special mention are the series of job studies in social work, the biographical directory of members, the surveys of relief needs and conditions over the country, and the 1936 proceedings of the Delegate Conference, published under the title *This Business of Relief* (*infra cit.*). The Association's monthly publication, *The Compass*, keeps the membership informed of national and local activities and offers a medium for exchange of opinion on common problems.

The events of the depression involved professional social work in extensive activities for initiating and participating in social planning for modernized public welfare services and the improvement of living standards. The testimony by social workers which was mobilized by the Association was largely used as a basis for the legislation leading to the creation of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration in 1933. The Association has developed material on details of relief policy, such as cash relief, commissaries, work relief, health services, unemployment insurance, public works, and state welfare organizations; and has devoted its delegate conferences to assembling social work experience in relation to problems growing out of the federal Works Program, the termination of federal relief, the social security legislation, and the necessity for reorganization and development of government welfare administration. The 1940 Delegate Conference adopted a revised platform on the public social services, declaring for a broad, comprehensive program of work, insurance, and general as well as categorical public assistance, competently organized, staffed, and administered.[1]

Since sound employment practices and conditions have a direct bearing on the quality of personnel attracted to social work, their ability to function with competence, and their freedom to develop through experience, the Association has always been concerned with standards in this area. In 1937 a statement was adopted and published of principles of employment practices which might serve as a preliminary guide to acceptable standards. In 1940 the Association went on record as to the necessity of an agency's employment policies being formulated and written so that the relationship between employer and employe might be understood and the respective obligations of each defined.

The significance of selection, placement, and vocational counseling in the development of professional standards is indicated by the origin of the Association out of the National Social Workers Exchange. When the placement function was dissociated

[1] "Purpose and Membership," in *The Compass*. June–July, 1940.

[1] *See The Compass* (*op. cit.*).

from the AASW in 1927, it was lodged in an agency created for that purpose, the Joint Vocational Service (JVS), which served for twelve years through a national office as the central vocational counseling and placement service for all social workers, although the major portion of its clientele was in the case work field. In 1938 the Joint Vocational Service initiated a study which was designed to clarify its responsibilities and relationships with other national and local organizations concerned with problems of vocational counseling and placement. The report of the study committee[1] recommended that a national vocational agency with a program of research, information, planning, and promotion replace the JVS, and that placement be carried on by regional placement bureaus to be developed independently but to be coordinated by the national vocational agency. When an organizing committee was appointed, however, it agreed that such an agency was needed but took steps to re-establish a national placement agency to serve the case work fields. Known as the Social Work Vocational Bureau, the placement service began to operate in June, 1940, with headquarters in New York City. In a few parts of the United States the public employment service is setting up professional personnel divisions through which social workers along with others find positions, a development sometimes encouraged and safeguarded by local chapters of the American Association of Social Workers.

The activities of the Association with respect to personnel standards have included the study of personnel needs, consultation and formulation of standards upon civil service and merit system procedures, interpretation of the value of qualified personnel, and close cooperation with the American Association of Schools of Social Work in analyzing the basic concepts in theory and practice. The program committee has proposed that, in cooperation with chapters, the American Association of Social Workers start work on the formulation of a code of standards of professional conduct and performance.

The first enumeration of "social and welfare workers" apart from other occupations was made by the federal Bureau of the Census in 1930 at the suggestion of the Association which is again cooperating with the Bureau in anticipation of a more accurate classification and a more complete enumeration in 1940.

In its early years the activities of the Association tended to center in the national office, but gradually the increased participation of individual and chapter membership has evolved. The 84 chapters are now recognized as the basic units through which the work of the Association is carried on, although problems of financing the work of the chapters and of coordinating the efforts of chapters and national office are pressing and have had considerable discussion for several years. A forward step was taken in 1934, when an annual delegate conference was organized, composed of representatives from non-chapter territory and from chapters in proportion to membership. The annual delegate conference now serves as the official membership meeting of the Association, at which action is taken upon national policies and programs. Regional conferences are becoming valuable means of communication between members. The program of the Association has likewise broadened during the past several years from a concern with immediate interests of members to a concern with broad problems of public policy in the interests of those persons in whose service they are professionally enlisted.

Other Organizations of Social Workers

The tremendous increase in public welfare and relief activities which occurred in the 1930's resulted in placing the majority of the limited supply of social workers with professional education in administrative and supervisory positions, thus leaving the bulk of the remaining positions to be filled by untrained personnel. Primitive working

[1] *See* Joint Vocational Service, *infra cit.*

conditions, low salaries, "politics," and confusion in the administrative structure of the new agencies were among the causative factors which have produced an active trade union movement in social work. *See* TRADE UNIONISM IN SOCIAL WORK. Since 1933, trade unions have attracted many persons because they have attempted direct and vigorous action for the protection of their membership.

Another expression of the need for association felt by social work personnel is found in the organization in various parts of the country of social workers' clubs. Usually the only qualifications for membership are paid employment in social work and the desire for professional growth and development. The activities range from panel discussions and institutes to social gatherings. In several states the organizations are statewide and organized with local units. Participation and leadership have come in many localities from members of the American Association of Social Workers who realize the difficulty great numbers of persons will have in ever qualifying for membership in the Association. The clubs have become sufficiently numerous that a committee, the National Social Workers' Club Committee, has been formed to consider the creation of a national organization. *See* SOCIAL WORKERS' ORGANIZATIONS.

Certification of Social Workers

In spite of the many problems that impede the growth of social work as a profession, significant progress has been made in California and Missouri in plans of voluntary registration of social workers. In California, since 1932, and in Missouri, since 1934, the state conferences of social work have had boards of examiners which establish standards and administer examinations for persons in social work positions who wish to qualify as "registered social workers." Bills have been introduced in these and other state legislatures in an effort to have the state assume the certification or licensing of social workers as it has done for the older professions. Puerto Rico, in 1934, adopted compulsory certification by law, using the standards of membership of the American Association of Social Workers as the basis of qualifications. Obstacles to the realization of the goal of state certification are found in the unevenness of professional awareness and accomplishments in the different aspects of the field, the indifference of the public as a whole toward social work as a body of knowledge and skills that must be learned, and the independent origin of social work in settings so diverse that it has been easier to discern the differences than the common elements.

Civil service and merit system requirements since the passage of the Social Security Act in 1935 have increasingly emphasized professional competence and experience. Under the 1939 amendment which gives the federal authorities the power to require and approve merit system plans, the quality of personnel for positions in state and local public welfare agencies should show steady improvement. *See* PERSONNEL PRACTICES IN PUBLIC WELFARE.

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SOCIAL WORKERS' ORGANIZATIONS exist in a variety of forms and cover a wide range of interests. Their purposes include improved acquaintance and thereby smoother working relationships, joint study of social problems and possibly joint action with respect to them, joint protection of vocational and employment standards, and association on a professional or quasi-professional level. Social work practitioners associate for one or all of these purposes in loosely organized conferences, institutes, study groups, forums, agency or council committees, and so forth; in clubs and associations with rather continuous and formal membership requirements; in trade unions; and in chapters of nation-wide professional associations.

Traditionally the employed social worker has been eager for advancement in the knowledge and skills required in his work. One of the earliest used instruments for improved competence was the conference, through which experiences were shared, methods and results compated, and standards established. Today national, regional, state, and district conferences are held under a variety of auspices and with diverse objectives. Most of them welcome lay persons as well as employed social workers to their membership and have widespread social education as one of their chief goals. Despite the multiplicity of functions lodged in the modern conference, thousands of employed social workers belong to no other membership organization and look to the conference for the benefits which association with one's peers affords in any field. *See* CONFERENCES OF SOCIAL WORK.

Social Workers' Organizations

The emergence of a professional development within the social work movement during the past half-century brought with it a corresponding growth in educational requirements and facilities. *See* EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK. But by no means all workers engaged in practice today have had professional education as provided in schools of social work. Recent establishment of in-service training programs in an increasing number of the more advanced public agencies has made a vocational type of instruction available to many of their staff members; and extension courses, institutes, and other short-term educational ventures have reached into some localities. Staff development programs, conceived as part of the agency's administrative responsibility for rendering adequately the services for which it has been set up, have been promoted for both public and private agencies. Although progress has been made in providing opportunities for professional education through the use of educational leads, there still remains a large body of employed workers who have had to rely upon their own initiative and resourcefulness to secure, through forums or other means, even a modicum of informational or inspirational help in seeing the larger aspects of their jobs.

In cities the sections and special committees of councils of social agencies occasionally afford to a selected minority of practitioners below the executive level an opportunity to meet in professional association for the consideration of a specific problem. Many councils hold one or more open meetings each year and some conduct institutes which all workers may attend; but since the relationship of the worker to these sessions is usually that of a listener in an audience or at best a discussion participant, the advantages are considerably less than those attaching to membership in a mutual association. *See* COUNCILS IN SOCIAL WORK.

In local communities it is often the practice for functional, racial, or sectarian groups to meet for consideration of their special problems. While this offers the opportunity to meet with other practitioners in the same field of work, it lacks the stimulus afforded by association with workers in various types of agencies. Many of the national agencies sponsor regional and national conferences and occasionally hold institutes for workers in their respective fields. *See* NATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS IN SOCIAL WORK. There are many social workers, however, who are not able to take advantage of such conferences due to distance, expense, and so forth.

During the past decade there has arisen, out of rank-and-file concern with employment and other standards of social agencies, a union development within social work akin to that in other occupational and professional fields. This development, most pronounced in the public agencies of the larger cities, is described in another article. *See* TRADE UNIONISM IN SOCIAL WORK.

Coordinate with the provision of professional education for social workers has been the growth of professional associations, with membership requirements based in large part upon the practitioner's acquisition of advanced educational prerequisites. The American Association of Social Workers, formed in 1920 as a successor to the Social Workers' Exchange established four years earlier, is the basic professional association in the broad social work field; while in specialized fields organizations with specific membership requirements are found in the American Association of Medical Social Workers (1918), the American Association of Visiting Teachers (1919), and the American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers (1926). The American Association of Social Workers in July, 1940, had approximately 11,500 members, organized for the most part in 90 local or regional chapters and councils. For a discussion of the Association and its activities, *see* SOCIAL WORK AS A PROFESSION.

Local Social Workers' Clubs

Chronologically a predecessor to all of the above-mentioned forms of social workers'

organizations, with the possible exception of the conference, is the type of association known generically as the "social workers' club." Typically, this has been until recent years an urban institution to which have come for comradeship, stimulation, and mutual understanding of each other's tasks the workers of all social agencies in the community, plus a liberal sprinkling of interested lay persons. Meeting usually once a month at luncheon or dinner, with a speaker or panel to present material on a timely social work subject, the traditional social workers' club has been less a working than a listening group.

Following the sharp increase in the number of employed public welfare workers attendant upon the development of emergency relief programs (1930–1935) and the social security measures (1935–1940), social workers' clubs were formed in many communities where they had not previously existed. These newer organizations differ in several important respects from the traditional type described above. They are more closely held to a membership of employed workers; they are predominantly, though by no means entirely, made up of public assistance workers; and they seek to make of themselves an instrumentality which will afford their members as many as possible of the advantages offered by a professional association. They avoid competition and conflict with the standards of the American Association of Social Workers through admitting the different purposes of the latter organization and through welcoming Association members to club membership.

In March, 1940, the *Social Work Year Book* addressed an inquiry to 179 chest and council executives in cities of from 50,000 to 500,000 population regarding social workers' clubs and associations in their respective cities. The inquiry referred specifically to clubs and associations which included in their purposes one or more of the following objectives: (a) to foster closer acquaintance among the social workers of the community; (b) to develop professional consciousness and incentives to professional growth; (c) to inform the members on current social problems and techniques; (d) to provide avenues of practitioner participation in social planning and action; or (e) to develop worker (in contrast to agency) interests and activities in other related ways. Replies received from 119 of the persons addressed referred to 56 such clubs and associations. Subsequent correspondence with these 56 organizations elicited responses from 46.

These 46 clubs are located in 23 states. Fifteen are in six eastern states, 16 in nine middle western states, eight in five southern states, and seven in three western states. Eleven of the clubs are county-wide in scope —three each in the East and Middle West respectively, four in the South, and one in the West. The most common title used, "Social Workers' Club" or "Social Service Club," is applied to 30 of the 46 organizations replying. Other titles used include the words "forum," "welfare association," "conference," "federation," or "guild." Only one of the clubs reporting was called "Monday Evening Club," a name often used in the early days of social workers' clubs.

The earliest date of organization given was 1905. Fourteen clubs were organized in the decade 1910–1920, eight between 1920 and 1929, and 18 between 1930 and 1940. A further indication that present interest in social workers' organization is very much alive is that five of these clubs were formed in 1939 and two in the early months of 1940.

The stated purposes for which these organizations were formed were preponderantly the promotion of mutual acquaintance among the social workers of the community (29 clubs) and the increase of understanding and cooperation between agencies (25 clubs). Interest in the promotion of professional training and the development of high standards were included in the purposes of 16 clubs; the study of local social problems was listed by 13; 10 clubs speci-

fied participation in social legislation; seven included the stimulation of interest in social work in the community; and the provision of an avenue for practitioner participation was given as a purpose by three clubs. Purposes mentioned by only one club each were: research, provision of wider cultural interests, and betterment of relationships between members, the community, and clients.

The following tabulations summarize the membership information received from the clubs:

SIZE OF MEMBERSHIP

Number of Members	*Clubs*
Under 50	3
50–99	22
100–149	9
150–199	4
200–249	3
250–299	1
300–399	1
Over 400	1
Information not given	2

COMPOSITION OF MEMBERSHIP

Employed Social Workers (per cent)	*Clubs*
100	11
90–99	6
80–89	12
70–79	8
60–69	5
50–59	2
Information not given	2

The meetings are reported to be almost always luncheon or dinner meetings. One club holds weekly meetings and three meet quarterly, but the great majority—42—report monthly meetings. In general the program of the meetings consists of a talk, often by an out-of-town speaker, followed by discussion. This pattern was reported by 34 clubs, although 12 reported lectures only. In addition, six listed occasional panel discussions and five hold forums from time to time. For the most part the programs are divided about equally between purely social work topics and those pertaining to both social work and related fields. Seven clubs limited their discussion to local social work problems. Three clubs reported holding joint meetings with the local chapter of the American Association of Social Workers. Practically all the clubs have one or more purely social gatherings during the year.

The attendance figures show that 20 clubs have an average attendance at their meetings of 43 members, 18 have 60, four have 166, and two have 250. Only two reported an average attendance of 25 members and as these were both small clubs this figure represented approximately 50 per cent of the membership. In general the clubs showed an excellent percentage of members attending meetings, 29 clubs reporting over 60 per cent attendance and eight of this number giving an average of 90 per cent or over. The lowest reported was 32 per cent. Club dues are usually $1.00 a year, with 50 cents the next most common amount. Four clubs reported dues of more than $1.00, the highest amount being $2.00.

In addition to the holding of meetings, 16 clubs reported other activities undertaken during 1939 and 1940. More than a third of these clubs were actively interested in professional training. Of this group three clubs sponsored institutes, two sponsored courses in a school of social work, and one directed a well-attended summer conference with the cooperation of the local council of social agencies. Five clubs had undertaken the publication of a directory of social agencies; four reported taking part in local projects, such as a delinquency study, a drive to raise money for a recreation center, a community toy shop, and a housekeeper project; three actively supported social legislation; and two sponsored social work libraries. Among other activities reported, but not engaged in by more than one club, were a credit union for members, the protesting of a proposed cut in the budget of the local department of welfare, and the introduction of a social action section in the state conference of social work.

The above study, it should be emphasized, reports only on a limited group of urban communities and does not reflect the development in some of the more rural sec-

tions of the country, nor of other urban clubs in cities not questioned.

In 1939 and 1940, under the leadership of a small group of middle-western public welfare workers—several of them members of the American Association of Social Workers—a promotional effort was undertaken to increase the number of social workers' clubs throughout the country. The motivation of this movement was a conviction that the newer social workers, whose lack of professional educational attainments barred them from membership in the American Association of Social Workers, would profit from club affiliation and should be helped to attain it. Implicit in the thinking of this group was the feeling that eventually the clubs should be banded together in some sort of national association of state-wide units, thus providing status and a sense of occupational, if not professional, solidarity to the individual members. In 1939 the National Social Workers' Club Committee was set up to explore this possibility. A meeting of participants in the movement and other interested persons was held at the 1940 National Conference of Social Work, at which time it was reported that four state-wide federations of social workers' clubs were in existence and social workers' clubs were in the process of organization in 15 other states. One of the enterprises proposed and partly undertaken by the sponsors of the movement has been a census of eligible members in each of the potential communities of organization.

State-wide Clubs and Associations

The promotional development above referred to owed its origin in large part to the formation in 1938 of the Florida Association of Social Workers, a state-wide organization launched by a group of practitioners in that state. In April, 1940, this organization was reported to have 513 members, organized in 21 chapters throughout the state. (The American Association of Social Workers membership in Florida was 60 in October, 1939, the nearest date for which figures are available.) Prior to the formation of the Association the Florida State Conference of Social Work had been the one inclusive body to which all practitioners in the state could belong, but as it met only once a year it was not able to afford any real opportunity for participation to the many new workers who had recently entered the field. The Association's purposes as stated in its constitution are as follows: "To give representation to all persons employed in social welfare work in Florida and to improve standards of social work; to better social conditions by discussion and action; to encourage active participation in the State Conference of Social Work and similar programs, and to interpret social work and its aims to the general public."[1] The chief emphasis of the Association is on the local groups which afford the long-desired opportunity for practitioner participation. The Association has sponsored case work institutes in different parts of the state in cooperation with the State Conference of Social Work and the Florida State College for Women, and during the past year launched a successful campaign to increase membership in the State Conference. A study of the social legislative needs in the state has recently been sponsored by the Association through its Legislative Committee. A quarterly bulletin, *"Bootstraps,"* serves as a means of conveying information and of securing the cooperation of individual members in the various chapters throughout Florida.

An inquiry addressed by the *Social Work Year Book* in November, 1939, to 46 state conference secretaries and to welfare officials in New Mexico and Nevada—the two states which do not have a conference—brought replies from 40 states, indicating that developments somewhat similar to those in Florida have occurred in a few other states. Several of these state-wide associations are described below.

Modeled somewhat on the Florida Asso-

[1] Parrish, Martha, "Up by the Bootstraps," in *Survey Midmonthly*. August, 1939.

ciation, the Utah Congress of Social Workers was organized in 1939. In the following year it already had 150 members divided among five chapters, representing 15 of the 29 counties in the state. Membership is limited to employed social workers in public or private social agencies. The purposes of the Congress are the promotion of constructive social work, betterment of social conditions by discussion and action, interchange of ideas and information on social questions, development of personal acquaintance and fellowship of the members, and stimulation of interest in the State Conference of Social Work and encouragement of membership in the American Association of Social Workers. As in the Florida Association, the chief emphasis is placed on the local chapters. The Congress holds at least one stare-wide meeting annually, where officers are elected and policies established. Monthly luncheon meetings are held in the chapters. In addition, the Salt Lake City Chapter conducts weekly study meetings and the Central Utah Chapter, through a series of broadcasts, has been a means of interpreting social work and social problems to the community. A traveling library is maintained, occasional bulletins discussing current literature are issued, and plans are under way for the holding of institutes in the remote areas of the state.

Two other somewhat similar organizations are found in Connecticut and Wisconsin. Each has a Public Welfare Association with membership open to social workers in public and private agencies, although the membership is largely made up of practitioners in the public welfare field. The Wisconsin Association has been functioning since 1920 and in 1939 changed its name from Public Welfare Officials to Public Welfare Association. In 1940 the membership was 450, including social workers in public and private agencies, town and state officials, and lay persons. Its purpose is to foster closer relationship among social workers and between welfare agencies and public officials, especially county boards and supervisors, and to develop workers' interests and activities. Members are kept informed on current social problems and techniques, and an annual state-wide meeting is held, as well as three regional meetings.

The Connecticut Public Welfare Association was formed in 1937 and in 1940 had an active membership of 300 (social workers in the public welfare field) and an associate membership (open to anyone interested in the development of public welfare in the state) of 50. A number of social workers in private agencies are associate members. The Association's primary purpose is to afford social workers in the state an opportunity to meet and discuss local problems. To make this possible the state is divided into five districts which hold monthly meetings, and in addition several state-wide meetings are held during the year. The Association is actively interested in social legislation.

An interesting development occurred in 1939 when the Oklahoma Chapter of the American Association of Social Workers sponsored the organization of the Oklahoma Social Welfare Association. The new Association held its first annual conference in October, 1939, and since then has held three regional conferences. It is evident that such an organization was greatly needed, for a year after its formation the Association had 513 members. The chief activity at present, aside from the conferences, is the promotion of plans for a proposed coordination of agencies in the state. This is in response to a widely felt need for closer coordination of agencies even in the rural districts.

Both Delaware and Rhode Island have state-wide organizations whose membership is open to anyone interested in social work, whether lay or professional. The Social Welfare League of Delaware has been in existence since 1921 and in 1938 changed its name from Social Workers Club to its present title. Out of it grew the Delaware State Conference of Social Work, which within the past two years has become an independent organization. The present mem-

bership of the League is around 300. Although the League was organized under different circumstances from the Florida Association, it includes some of the same purposes in that it also makes an effort to interest untrained workers and lay persons in standards and progressive movements in social work. At present the League is divided into 15 committees studying different phases of community problems, thus securing participation of members in social work problems of the state with the hope that a more vital public opinion may be aroused, together with recognition of the need for trained workers.

The Social Workers Club of Rhode Island was formed in 1919 to afford a means whereby all those interested in social work in the state might meet together. The Club holds monthly meetings in different sections of the state. In 1940 there were over 300 members, the only requisite for membership being an interest in social work. The Rhode Island Conference of Social Work is sponsored by the Club.

A number of state conferences of social work take special interest in the new and untrained entrants to the social work field. Among these may be cited the Texas Social Welfare Association, which changed its name in 1939 from the Texas Conference of Social Welfare to its present title. (It is interesting to note that four other conferences have changed their names since 1938 from state conference of social work, assuming such titles as "association of social work," "welfare league," and so forth.) The Texas Association, which in 1940 had a membership of 1,585 including workers in the public and private fields and lay persons, has for some time been particularly interested in promoting participation on the part of staff employes. They are considered a vital part of the organization, serving as officers of the Association, appearing on the programs of both the Association's regional and annual state-wide conferences, and forming the bulwark of the regional organizations comprising the Association.

Several state conference secretaries have expressed a conviction that the new movement for state-wide social workers' clubs constitutes a duplication of the conference function and a threat to conference support. Others, however, see the functions as distinct; and still others see opportunity for their conferences to adjust their programs and organization to the new development.

MARGARET B. HODGES

TRADE UNIONISM IN SOCIAL WORK.[1] In one sense the year 1941 will mark the beginning of the second decade of development of the trade union movement in social work, for it was in 1931 that the first protective association was formed by a group of private agency employes in New York City. However, it was not until the middle of the 1930's that the first formal affiliation with the organized labor movement took place. During 1936 the majority of protective associations in the public agencies in the larger cities had joined the American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees of America (AFSCMEA) within the structure of the American Federation of Labor (AF of L); and two bodies of private agency employes in New York City and Chicago had also joined the AF of L as federal unions. Late in 1937 all union groups in the private field and all but three in the public transferred affiliation to the new Committee for Industrial Organization, later the Congress of Industrial Organizations (CIO).

An exhaustive and exact statistical picture of trade unionism in social work must await further clarification of the latter term. Development of federal programs of social service in recent years has brought within calling distance of the field the whole galaxy of administrative units associable with the initials NYA, USHA, FSA, CCC, SSB, and WPA. Thousands of their employes

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

today hold membership in the American Federation of Government Employees (affiliated with AF of L), the United Federal Workers of America (affiliated with CIO), and the National Federation of Federal Employees (independent).

Also employed in federal social service agencies and in settlement houses are numerous members of such unions as the American Federation of Teachers (affiliated with AF of L), the American Newspaper Guild (affiliated with CIO), and several unions of skilled craftsmen. In five cities public assistance workers have retained affiliation with AFSCMEA.

Most clearly oriented to the social work field as such are the State, County and Municipal Workers of America (SCMWA) and the Social Service Division of the United Office and Professional Workers of America, both affiliated with the CIO. The Division is usually designated the Social Service Employees Union (SSEU). It is with reference to these two unions that the term "the trade union movement in social work" is customarily employed. Integration of their efforts with those of the other union groups and individuals in the social work field awaits labor unity, research, and clarification as to whether such fields of effort as, for instance, housing, belong generically in social work.

Development of Trade Union Activity

The development of trade union activity as a marked tendency in the social service field cannot be understood in disjunction from the growing interest in the labor movement manifested during the present period by other "white collar" and professional workers. A result of the economic shock sustained by this group during the depression, this movement has also represented a tendency on its part to look toward and participate in the labor movement as the agency most capable of dealing with the country's social-economic maladjustment as a whole.

Thus, from the time in the early 1930's when diverse and isolated protective groups of social workers organized themselves as practitioners' councils in the American Association of Social Workers, as forum and discussion bodies, or as presumably temporary organizations for coping with salary reductions in the private field and general insecurity in the rapidly expanding public field, these bodies have concerned themselves not only with wages, hours, and working conditions, but with private agency financing, public welfare and social security programs, and professional standards as affected by community forces.

It was not until 1935 that the first national meeting of representatives of these groups was held in Pittsburgh. At that time a tentative national program relating to protective activity, maintenance of adequate relief levels, and provision of social security legislation was adopted and the National Coordinating Committee of Rank and File Groups in Social Work established. Within a year the general drift into the AF of L had taken place; and, within several additional months, that into the CIO. The principal reasons for the latter change of affiliation were: (a) the CIO seemed to be more interested in "white collar" and professional workers, and to offer more guidance to them; and (b) its program of social legislation and its broader construction of "organizing the unorganized" seemed to be more in keeping with national needs as social workers knew them.

During recent years the movement has become more definitely trade union in character, has achieved more organic relation to the social work field as a whole, and has grown in numbers and national spread. Both the SCMWA and the SSEU now have a number of signed contracts or written agreements. Both participate, through the Joint Committee of Trade Unions in Social Work, in the program of the National Conference of Social Work and, increasingly, in state conferences. Today there are approximately 14,735 SCMWA members in public assistance agencies in 26 cities, comprising 39 locals;

and approximately 3,200 SSEU members in private agencies in 18 cities, comprising as many locals. Both these international unions are industrial in character; that is they organize professional, maintenance, and clerical workers.

It should be made clear that neither the SCMWA nor the UOPWA is made up exclusively, or even preponderantly, of social service employes. The former organizes all state, county, and municipal employes with the exception of certain stated groups such as teachers, policemen, firemen, and so forth. The UOPWA has six divisions other than Social Service: Insurance, Banking, Publishing, Advertising, Art, and General Office. The Social Service Division of the UOPWA (set up in August, 1938) and the National Welfare Division of the SCMWA (set up in February, 1940) provide the mechanics through which social service employes of the two internationals can coordinate efforts and direct them toward campaigns peculiar to their type of employment. Membership in more inclusive internationals and affiliation with the organized labor movement bring to the divisions wider social stimulation, collective bargaining power, and organizational wisdom.

The SCMWA

Social service workers played an important part in the first National Convention of the SCMWA in New York City in September, 1939. Representation from public assistance locals in all parts of the Atlantic Coast, the Middle West, and the Far West indicated that organization in this field had made rapid strides since CIO affiliation. The principal emphases of this union have been support of the merit system, achieving collective bargaining rights for public servants, and cooperation with organized labor as a whole in support of more adequately financed and professionally administered public welfare programs. Both nationally and locally the union has frequently given support to other trade union campaigns; and as frequently it has received wide labor backing in its own.

The SCMWA works upon the principle that high professional and technical standards, security of tenure, and adequate remuneration for public servants are in the public interest. On matters relating to the adequacy and security of the public service it has cooperated widely with leaders in public welfare administration. Within public agencies it has concentrated upon standardization upward of salaries and working conditions and upon the right to hearings and impartial review in case of dismissals. It has carried on lobbying, either through representation or en masse, in state capitols and city halls. It has given support to all progressive New Deal social legislation and, since the outbreak of European hostilities, has taken the position (as enunciated in a unanimously adopted resolution at its first convention) that "For his own security the government worker must bend his every effort to see to it that there is no advance toward war and no retreat in legislation that will insure and extend social services to the people of our country."

In New York City and Philadelphia SCMWA Locals 1 and 46 have played prominent roles in the establishment of civil service for public assistance workers and have conducted effective state and municipal lobbies in this connection and also in respect of maintaining adequate relief levels.

During recent months the outstanding SCMWA campaign has been that conducted by its California locals. Because of their protest against drastically lowered relief levels in that state and against increased political manipularion of personnel, SCMWA members have been called up before legislative investigation committees during May and June, 1940, and have been discharged, fined, and in several cases, imprisoned. The union has received national support from the labor movement and from social work leaders in many parts of the country in its campaign to protect professional standards and maintain civil rights.

The SSEU

The national program of the SSEU reveals a difference in the nature of the employing agency. In most private agencies the employer (the board) is more proximate, but perhaps less immediately susceptible to pressure, than in the public field. The SSEU has operated upon the principle that private social work will for some time to come be an integral part of essential social service; and that the social obligation of boards extends to their employes as well as to the community generally. It has assumed that client welfare, worker welfare, and community welfare are interrelated, and has opposed contraction of private agencies where public services have not adequately assumed responsibility for meeting social needs.

The proceedings of the second convention of the UOPWA held in Washington in May, 1938, state that: "The main grievances (in the field of private social service) stem from inadequate recognition of the importance of the social service field." In accordance with this conviction the SSEU has incorporated into its national policy a program of interpretation to the labor movement as a whole (that part of the general community with which it has most organic contact) of the contribution and importance of the private social services. At the same time, it has maintained that until wider community acceptance and support are forthcoming, and until further democratization of fund raising and control has been achieved, adequacy of program and of personnel and salary standards remains a primary social obligation of that part of the community which has assumed responsibility for it.

The principal national campaign of the SSEU during 1939 and 1940 was around support of measures for inclusion of employes of private social agencies under the provisions of the Social Security Act. The SSEU has also lent support to a large number of progressive New Deal social legislation measures.

Within the broad policies enunciated by the internationals in their conventions, SSEU locals in New York City and Chicago have conducted vigorous campaigns in their own communities. SSEU Local 19 (New York City) signed the first collective bargaining contract in private social work July 2, 1938, with the national office of the National Council of Jewish Women. Conditions set down in it compare generally with such documents in industry. Between October, 1937, and October, 1939, agreements were made with 13 agencies covering $150,000 in salary increases, 400 weeks of increased vacation time, and liberalized holiday and sick-leave provisions. Strong campaigns were waged against retrenchment in New York City private agencies.

SSEU Local 39 (Chicago) has concentrated upon standardization of minimum salary scales in that city, upon automatic annual increments, and upon establishment of sick and maternity leaves as rights rather than privileges. Typical of such activity was a signed agreement (1939) with the administration of Hull-House covering, among other things, four weeks' vacation for maintenance workers, standardization of salaries upward, and pay for overtime.

Present Trends

During the spring and summer months of 1940 the SCMWA and the SSEU have concentrated upon three major types of activity. Campaigns around union recognition, wages, hours, working conditions, and so forth, have gone forward energetically. At the same time increased attention has been devoted to the attenuation of public social service programs, and to a lesser extent of private, because of the diversion of revenue to military preparations and war relief abroad. At the time of writing there is growing activity on the part of both unions around the relation of social work and of labor to the maintenance of peace. Emphasis has been placed by the internationals upon maintaining adequate social services

and protecting civil rights as the first line of national defense. A number of locals have set up peace committees as parts of their organic structure.

In general it may be said that the past two years have witnessed the evolution of a number of the larger locals of social service employes from the status of loosely knit employe groups to that of mature trade unions. In most cities outside the metropolitan centers and the West Coast the trade union movement in social work is less highly developed. Nevertheless, the tendency seems to be in the direction of greater acceptance, by the field as a whole, of the fact that trade union organization has come to social work to stay and to grow.

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TUBERCULOSIS.[1] The tuberculosis death rate in the United States dropped from 54 per 100,000 population in 1937 to 47 in 1939. The decline has been a steady one for several decades, not only for the total population but also for racial, occupational, and geographic groups in which the rates have been higher than average. In Puerto Rico, for example, the tuberculosis mortality dropped 19 per cent in the five-year period 1933 to 1938. At the present time persons up to the age of twenty-five have about one chance to 30 of dying eventually from tuberculosis, whereas twenty years ago the chances for similar age groups was about one to 15. Although the peak of the mortality curve seems recently to have shifted toward older age groups, if one plots the curve on a basis of cohorts (that is, groups of people born in a particular decade) the greatest risk of death from tuberculosis is seen to be still in the 20 to 29 decade.[2]

Census figures show a suggestive correlation between occupation and the tuberculosis death rate. The unskilled worker, for example, is about seven times more likely to die of tuberculosis than is the lawyer or physician. Negroes suffer about three times the number of deaths, proportionately, as whites. It is probable that the standard of living set by income and the environmental conditions under which people live, rather than occupation or race, account for the wide variations in the mortality rates of specific groups. By far the most important factor in the spread of the disease is close and long-continued contact with an active case of tuberculosis, which explains why tuberculosis has earned for itself the designation "household epidemic."

Steady improvement in the tuberculosis situation has stimulated speculation as to the possibility of eradicating the disease. The example set by veterinarians in this country in stamping out tuberculosis among cattle is suggestive. With the exception of two or

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

[2] *See* FROST, *infra cit.*

three scattered areas the United States has been practically freed of tuberculous cattle. This result was brought about by pursuing relentlessly for the past twenty-five years the policy of destroying all infected cattle (those reacting to the tuberculin test) whether they were sick or not. No such drastic method is proposed for combating human tuberculosis, but many believe that the same effect can be achieved by the more humane practice of isolating in sanatoria every known case of tuberculosis among human beings. At any rate it seems easily possible that in a few years cases of tuberculosis will be so reduced in number as to be individually conspicuous and therefore easily discovered and controlled.

Institutional Facilities

The latest survey of tuberculosis facilities (made by the American Medical Association in 1938) shows that there is a total of about 99,000 beds for tuberculous patients in the hospitals and sanatoria of this country, and that more than 200,000 persons are treated in these hospitals annually. At least 85 per cent of the patients receive treatment free, about 6 per cent pay in full, and the rest pay in part. Hospital care for the tuberculous represents an annual expenditure of over $70,000,000. The number of unoccupied beds (16,254) now exceeds the waiting list (8,797), a disparity due to the unequal distribution of beds geographically and, in part, socially. The shortage prevails mostly in the southern states, in so-called resort areas, and in communities of low economic status. To supply additional beds where they are most needed, several efforts have been made during the last session of Congress to stimulate hospital construction with the aid of federal funds. One estimate, made by Homer Folks[1] in 1938, is that 40,000 additional beds are needed to attain everywhere in the United States the ratio of two beds for each annual death from tuberculosis. Folks' proposal, which included recommendations for case finding as well as treatment facilities, was that the federal government should embark on a long-time plan of federal aid whereby the necessary facilities would be created over a period of six years. The cost of such federal participation would be roughly $112,000,000 for hospital construction, $56,500,000 for maintenance, and $8,000,000 for case finding.

While lung surgery, especially lung collapse by pneumothorax, tends to shorten the period of hospital care, extended bed rest is still considered to be the basic need of the patient. In some areas suffering a shortage of bed facilities pneumothorax is being used quite extensively for ambulatory patients, not as a substitute for prolonged bed rest but as an expedient to help offset the lack of beds. Under successful collapse patients are, generally speaking, able to carry on normal though restricted activities and they are not a health menace to others for they are bacillus-free. That the modern treatment is more effective than the simple bed rest of two decades ago is demonstrated by the finding that the average life expectancy of patients after discharge from the sanatorium has lengthened materially, especially for those cases in which treatment began in the early stage of the disease.

Vocational Readjustment

Marked progress may be reported in plans for the vocational rehabilitation of arrested cases of tuberculosis. Only within recent years has it been acknowledged that the restoration of the patient to social and economic health after his disease has been healed is part of the treatment. In many sanatoria special workers competent to study the needs and the aptitudes of the patient have been added to the staff. Three million dollars from the federal treasury are now available annually on a matching basis for the rehabilitation of the handicapped. An increasing proportion of these funds is being used for the tuberculous. Under the leadership of the federal and state rehabilitation bureaus, activities are organized lo-

[1] *See* Folks, *infra cit.*

cally in which practically all social agencies participate. At present eight states maintain on their staffs specialists who devote their entire time to the rehabilitation of tuberculosis patients. During the federal fiscal year 1938–1939 more than 4,000 cases of arrested or cured tuberculosis were being retrained, educated, or otherwise restored to vocational usefulness. This is in sharp contrast to the record of the preceding five-year period during which time less than that number of rehabilitation cases were completed. Sanatoria supply the greatest number of candidates for rehabilitation, tuberculosis associations rank second, and official public health agencies third. A small number of candidates are referred by private physicians. No one type of occupation has been found better than another for the expatient; the attempt is rather to prepare each individual for the kind of job he is best fitted for and which will not make undue demands on his individual physical capacity. *See* VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION.

Advances in Treatment

Scientific progress has not lagged. Research into the chemistry of the tubercle bacillus continues. A number of workers are pooling their efforts in the task of identifying the individual chemical fractions of the bacillus and testing the physiological action of each fraction, in the hope of finding ultimately the key to a specific cure. The value of the tuberculin test as a means of selecting infected individuals has stood the test of time. Among the tuberculins, Purified Protein Derivative (PPD) is recognized as the most stable and accutate. The patch test, whereby tuberculin is applied to the skin by means of a small patch of adhesive tape, while perhaps not quite so reliable as the Mantoux (intradermic) method, is finding extensive use because it obviates the prick of the hypodermic needle and is therefore less objectionable. The live-bacillus vaccine BCG continues to be used extensively in certain European countries but has not yet commended itself as a universal preventive measure in this country though it is being used experimentally in special groups, notably Indians. The current medical interest in chemotherapy has stimulated research into the effect of drugs, such as sulfanilamide, on tuberculosis but thus far no satisfactory results have been attained.

The demand for a rapid and inexpensive method of making X-ray pictures has brought forth a number of promising devices, one of them being a method of photographing the fluoroscopic image of the chest on 35 mm film in continuous rolls. The pictures when developed are enlarged with a projector for interpretation. The method holds out promise of becoming a valuable case-finding aid though not a substitute for the usual X-ray.

Understanding of the biology of the disease has clarified considerably and this is reflected in the adoption of revised standards of diagnosis and classification of tuberculosis. These standards are generally accepted by sanatoria, chest specialists, and health officials throughout the country. The new standards (1940) do not make a too sharp distinction between childhood type and adult type tuberculosis (terms which have been abandoned) but are predicated on the conception that the pathological process is a potentially continuous one, beginning with infection and ending with death or recovery, with innumerable variations and possibilities between. Revision of standards and classification has influenced certain administrative procedures—for example, mass tuberculin testing and X-raying of student groups, which is gradually being withdrawn from groups of grade school children but growing in extent in older age groups in high schools and colleges. The newer knowledge has also challenged the soundness of open window rooms, health camps, and preventoria. A special committee which studied this problem recommended that the segregation of children in special classes, camps, and preventoria is of questionable value in the prevention of tuberculosis; that the term "pre-tuberculous" is unscientific; and that the threat of tuberculosis to children is best

met by removing from the home the active case and providing for all children such individual care as is their due. Similarly, clinic procedures have been re-examined by a representative group of physicians and public health officials and their findings set forth in a brochure for the guidance of clinic directors and workers.[1]

Case Finding and Control

The program for combating tuberculosis is based on the premise that the disease spreads by contact with persons who have the disease in active form. Environmental influences play a role in the spread and development of tuberculosis but the main effort of epidemiologists is today directed toward control of the spreaders of tubercle bacilli. Since the disease is a chronic one the essential measure necessary for its control is long-time isolation of the spreader—that is, the person who has tuberculosis in active form. This is best achieved by making sanatorium facilities easily accessible and obtainable so that active cases may be arrested (cured) and taught how to keep well and how to safeguard others. Case care is, however, dependent upon case finding which in turn demands energetic search for cases through clinics, public health nurses, health departments, and other social machinery.

The Tuberculosis Committee of the American Student Health Association reports substantial progress in the establishment of measures in American colleges for the systematic search for early tuberculosis among students. Methods employed vary, but the procedure most favored is that of making a tuberculin test on all the students and X-raying the reactors. During the school year 1938–1939, 165 institutions carried on tuberculosis surveys among a total student population of 348,713. For the entire group, 27 per cent of the men and 24.3 per cent of the women reacted to tuberculin and 609 cases of tuberculosis were found, 241 of them being clinically active and 368 apparently arrested. In contrast, 117 institutions with an enrolment of 129,851, where no organized tuberculosis program was in operation, reported the finding of only 19 cases —4 clinically active and 15 apparently arrested. The inference is clear: tuberculosis is found among students if systematically searched for and is largely overlooked if reliance is placed only on the initiative of the student.

Education has, from the beginning, been the mainstay of the tuberculosis movement. An interesting commentary on the results of years of educational effort was afforded in 1939 by the American Institute of Public Opinion in its survey of tuberculosis.[1] Answers revealed that there is yet much confusion in the minds of people as to the cause of the disease. Fifty-two per cent believed tuberculosis is inherited at birth yet 76 per cent thought it was contagious, obviously an overlapping of contradictory ideas. And while more than half believed tuberculosis to be "contagious" only 18 per cent named "germs" as the principal cause, implying that many people think a disease can be contagious without the agency of germs. Answers concerning treatment were more correct. Topping the list in answer to the question about treatment was "rest," closely followed by "proper diet" and "fresh air." Perhaps the reason for this good showing is that treatment has been better dramatized than diagnosis and etiology, or made more concrete by reason of the numerous sanatoria now dotting the country.

More than 1,600 voluntary tuberculosis associations and committees headed by the National Tuberculosis Association continue to promote activities for the control of tuberculosis through education, demonstration, and research. Tuberculosis associations also unite in the spring of each year in what has come to be called the Early Diagnosis Campaign. Moderate increases in income from the sale of Christmas Seals have been enjoyed in the past several years, the total for

[1] *See* Edwards, *Tuberculosis Clinic Manual* (*infra cit.*).

[1] *See* Gallup, *infra cit.*

1939 being $5,505,502. Standards for executives are becoming higher. In 1940 the *Authorized Forms For Tuberculosis Work* were revised by the National Tuberculosis Association, with the purpose of defining more sharply the objectives of state and local associations.

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UNEMPLOYMENT COMPENSATION.[1] By the end of the year 1940 the federal-state system of unemployment compensation in the United States will have completed its fifth year of operation and its third year of benefit payments. The provision in the Social Security Act requiring two full years of tax contributions before the payment of benefits accounts for the lag which occurred in each state between the establishment of the system and the beginning of benefit payments. Also, while some states began the collection of contributions at the beginning of 1936 and were able to pay benefits in January, 1938, there were others which delayed legislation to a greater or less extent, with the result that the last of the 51 jurisdictions[2] to establish approved unemployment compensation systems, Illinois and Montana, did not begin benefit payments until July, 1939. In one state, Wisconsin, the entire system was in operation prior to the passage of the federal Social Security Act, and benefit payments began in July, 1936.

Thus there has been sufficient time to provide some testing of this federal-state system, as well as to furnish an opportunity for such modifications as seem to be desirable. It is instructive, therefore, at this time to compare the system which has emerged as a result of this trial period with the system as projected by the Committee on Economic Security in 1934—the system which,

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

[2] The 48 states, the District of Columbia, Alaska, and Hawaii.

in substance, was embodied in the Social Security Act of 1935.

Provisions of Social Security Act

When the Committee on Economic Security considered the problem of establishing unemployment compensation in the United States it had very little American precedent to guide it. Prior to the depression which began in 1930, there was comparatively little interest in any such type of social insurance. Previous depressions had brought about some legislative activity but with no definite results. The severe unemployment of the winter of 1914–1915 was reflected at both the national and the state levels in 1916, when an unemployment insurance bill was introduced in the Massachusetts Legislature and a resolution was introduced in Congress to create a committee to draft a national unemployment insurance plan. The next effort was made in Wisconsin in 1921, when Professor John R. Commons drafted a bill which was introduced in that state's legislature, though not passed. In 1928 a resolution was introduced in the United States Senate upon which hearings were held by the Committee on Labor. The Committee report recommended against compulsory unemployment insurance at that time but favored voluntary action by individual employers.

Following 1929 there was a flood of state investigations, commission reports, and so forth, looking toward some positive action; but Wisconsin was the first and for a while the only state in which legislation was passed and put into operation. The Wisconsin law, passed in 1932, went into operation in 1934 with benefit payments beginning in August, 1936.

In preparing its program the Committee on Economic Security had the advantage of the many state reports which had been prepared in this country, but of necessity it also drew to some extent upon foreign experience where various types of unemployment insurance had been in effect for many years. There are certain aspects of the Committee's program which bear the imprint of European experience on this problem. Nevertheless, the system as finally devised by the Committee was primarily an American system and reflected to a very great extent the results of previous research on this problem among the states, together with considerable influence on the part of Wisconsin.

In brief, the Committee on Economic Security rejected both a wholly state system and a strictly federal system of unemployment compensation for the United States. It established a federal-state system based upon the principle of a federal payroll tax (equalizing competition among the states) together with a device of tax credit which permitted employers to offset state unemployment compensation taxes against the uniform federal tax. There was no assurance that unemployment compensation would be adopted widely throughout the states; but at least, in so far as it was adopted, such states would be completely free from the competition of substandard states which did not pass any such laws.

Thus, in broad outlines, the system established by the Committee on Economic Security and incorporated in the Social Security Act may be characterized as follows:

1. A uniform federal tax of 3 per cent of payrolls of employers covered under Title IX of the Social Security Act. This tax was nation-wide, collectible by the United States Department of the Treasury, and payable soon after the close of each calendar year.

2. In those states which passed unemployment compensation laws approved by the Social Security Board under the provisions of Title III of the Social Security Act, employers were permitted to offset against their 3 per cent federal payroll tax any amounts paid in taxes to state agencies, under approved state unemployment compensation laws, up to a maximum of 2.7 per cent of their payroll.

3. The difference between the federal tax of 3 per cent and the maximum credit under state laws of 2.7 per cent left a remain-

der of 0.3 per cent—a residual federal tax which became part of the general revenue of the federal government.

4. All costs of administration of state agencies administering approved state unemployment compensation laws were payable out of federal funds certified by the supervisory federal agency—in this case, the Social Security Board. From the federal point of view the funds available in the residual tax of 0.3 per cent constituted, in effect, the source of the federal grants to the states for administration.

5. All funds collected by the states under their unemployment compensation laws were to be deposited in the Treasury of the United States in unemployment trust funds from which money could be withdrawn by the states for one purpose and for that purpose only: namely, to pay benefits under approved state laws to unemployed workers. Thus, by federal legislation the state taxes were earmarked 100 per cent for benefit payments.

6. Certain provisions, conditions, and requirements were written into the federal Act as standards for the states. These covered such matters as: first, methods of administration used by state agencies; second, conditions of additional tax credit allowance to employers granted tax reductions by the states for guaranteed employment or stabilization; and third, requirements for approval of state laws, among which is the requirement that workers shall not be disqualified for benefits for refusing to accept new work on account of strikes or lockouts, unfavorable working conditions, or membership in labor organizations.

7. Unemployment compensation was associated administratively with the operation of a public employment service, through the insertion in the federal Act of a provision that unemployment compensation in the states should be paid through public employment offices or such other agencies as the Social Security Board might approve. In actual fact the Board has never at any time designated any other state agency for this purpose and has upon one occasion definitely refused to certify administrative funds to a state requesting the substitution of welfare offices for public employment offices for this purpose.

It is equally important to note certain significant omissions from the list of recommendations made by the Committee on Economic Security.

1. No standards of any kind were established in the federal Act with respect to benefits—amount, duration, eligibility of workers, or (except as above noted) disqualification of workers. The theory was that the uniform federal tax provided an equalization of cost which would prevent competition among the state agencies with respect to unemployment compensation. It was thought that the benefits would be adjusted, state by state, to the amount of money available for benefit payments under the program as established, thus creating in effect a floor to benefits. Further, there was nothing to prevent progressive states from going beyond this basic federal minimum program if they wish to do so.

2. Employe contributions were conceived of as one of the devices for the achievement of more liberal benefits, but there was no provision for employe contributions to the federal government. It was felt that the states might appropriately establish such contributions if they wished; and 10 states at one time or another did in fact do so.

3. The solvency of state unemployment funds was provided for only through the provision that taxes should be collected for a period of two years prior to the beginning of benefit payments. Since the taxes in 1936 and 1937 were at the rate of 1 per cent and 2 per cent of payroll, respectively, the result of this provision was to ensure to each state at the beginning of benefit payments the equivalent of one full year's contributions under the full normal 3 per cent rate. Beyond this there were no provisions governing solvency of state funds, except the implication that states would readjust their taxes or their benefits, or both, so as to remain solvent in the long run.

Development of State Programs

In the Committee and Congressional discussions which preceded the passage of the Social Security Act, some doubt was expressed by students of unemployment insurance as to whether a program of the scope

and character outlined above could succeed in establishing itself in this country. Fear was expressed on two points: first, that the tax-credit device would not prove sufficiently attractive to induce all the states to adopt unemployment compensation systems; and second, that the lack of federal benefit standards in the Social Security Act would prevent the establishment of reasonably adequate benefits throughout the states.

With respect to the first point the fears proved to be unfounded. Although there had previously been great reluctance in the states to adopt unemployment compensation systems, there was a general rush to pass state laws in order to obtain the tax credits provided under the federal act. Many of the states acted during the early part of 1936; and by the end of the year 1937 every state in the Union, as well as the District of Columbia, Alaska, and Hawaii, had passed laws. Therefore, the program perfected by the Committee on Economic Security, as embodied in the Social Security Act, did in effect result in full and complete coverage of states.

With respect to the second point, there was also less difficulty than might have been anticipated. Draft bills which had been prepared in Washington were passed in the states, often with comparatively little change. Hence, there was in general a high degree of uniformity among the state laws, particularly with respect to the provisions governing the size and duration of benefits. The pressure of time in passing state legislation prior to the deadlines established for tax credits in the Social Security Act furthered this general tendency toward uniformity. Thus, circumstances brought the establishment of what seemed to be reasonable unemployment compensation benefits in the states, even though there were actually no standards set forth in the federal Act.

In general, the state acts have adopted the same coverage of employers as the federal Act. The states have every incentive to make their coverage at least as wide as that of the federal Act, since an employer not subject to any state law might find himself subject to the federal tax without being able to establish state unemployment compensation benefits for his employes. This situation did for a time exist, particularly with respect to businesses of a highly interstate character. Under such circumstances, employers often voluntarily made themselves subject to state laws in order to provide protection for their employes. On the other hand, occasionally the states brought in some of the employers excluded under the federal Act. The federally excluded employments are as follows: agricultural labor; domestic service in a private home; casual labor; services performed on vessels on navigable waters; family employment; service for the federal government or its instrumentalities; service for a state, its local political subdivisions, or its instrumentalities; and service for non-profit organizations of a religious, charitable, scientific, literary, or educational character. In one state, New York, domestic servants under certain circumstances are covered by the law, even though they are excluded by the federal Act. Other minor extensions also exist in a few states.

The coverage of the federal Act is limited to employers having eight or more employes for one day or more in each of twenty weeks during a year. At first the states, for the most part, adopted this same standard of coverage; but more and more, as revisions of state laws have been made, the tendency has been toward extension of coverage downward to include employers of seven, six, five, and on down to one employe. At the present time, approximately half the states have the same coverage as the federal Act, while in the other half the coverage is broader, with 11 states[1] applying the law to employers with one or more employes. This general tendency may raise the question as to whether, sooner or later, the

[1] Arkansas, Delaware, District of Columbia, Hawaii, Idaho, Minnesota, Montana, Nevada, Pennsylvania, Utah, and Wyoming. The laws of Idaho, Nevada, and Utah also provide that coverage be limited to employers who have a specified minimum payroll during a calendar quarter.

federal Act may not require revision so as to extend coverage generally to smaller employers.

Eligibility for benefits is determined by reference to the wages earned by the insured person in a specified preceding period. Thirty-four states require that a worker must have earned a certain number of times his weekly benefit amount in a given number of previously completed calendar quarters. The most common number is 30 times the weekly benefit amount, this being required in 10 states. Fifteen states require earnings of a certain minimum sum within a similar preceding period.

The majority of states (40) require an initial waiting period of two weeks; nine states require three weeks; while in two the period is only one week. As a general rule these weeks need not be consecutive.

Benefits are adjusted by reference to the past earnings of the individual applicant. In the majority of states (36) the weekly rate of benefit is a fraction of the quarter of highest earnings within a specified period; in five states the rate is a fraction of the wages earned during a preceding year. In 10 states the weekly rate of benefit is defined as 50 per cent of full-time weekly wages, using as a base either the most recent normal full-time weekly wage or an average of earnings over a period of time. The benefit rates are generally subject to over-riding maxima and minima. Most state laws set $15 as the maximum weekly benefit payment, though five jurisdictions pay as much as $18.

Although the benefits run in terms of weekly rates, 47 state laws provide for the payment of partial unemployment benefits to workers who are not unemployed for a full five or six-day week.

All the states set a maximum to the amount of benefit that may be drawn within a fifty-two-week period, the most usual limit being sixteen weeks (found in 28 states).

On June 30, 1940, the 51 covered jurisdictions had a total of $1,707,046,000 available for benefit payments. During the fiscal year 1939–1940, weekly benefit payments amounting to $482,511,000 were paid to claimants.

Employe Contributions

Contributions by employes have failed to take hold as a basic feature of the American unemployment compensation system. As mentioned previously, it was at first thought that the states might widely adopt such contributions to ensure the solvency of their unemployment trust funds and to make possible a more adequate system of benefit payments to the workers. In 10 states, at one time or another, some employe contributions were levied; but there has been no extension of this list in recent years, while in a number of states these contributions have been dropped. (Five states still levy employe contributions—Alabama, California, Kentucky, New Jersey, and Rhode Island.) In one or two states these contributions helped materially toward the maintenance of benefit payments during the year 1938; but in the others these seemed to be superfluous because employer contributions were more than adequate to mainrain benefits at the levels established by the state laws.

Furthermore, the improvement in general business conditions in the past two years and the steady growth in the size of state unemployment trust funds have served to bring about a change of attitude on the part of both labor and employers with respect to employe contributions. These are viewed as no longer necessary, and even to some extent as not a normal feature of the system. It is not inconceivable that these may be repealed in all states where they now exist, although the interest of the labor movement in such contributions is evidenced by the fact that in two different states labor leaders and the unions themselves fought hard to maintain employe contributions against the drive of employers to abolish them. The explanation of the attitude of these employer groups is to be found in the fact that they were interested in experience rating and wished to counteract the labor influence

which was being exerted against experience rating.

Plant Reserves Versus Pooled Funds

One of the basic issues which first arose in connection with the devising of an unemployment compensation system for the United States was that of plant reserves versus pooled funds. The Wisconsin law had established the principle of employer reserves, meaning that each employer had his own individual account in the state trust fund, from which account were paid the benefits to that employer's own workers who were laid off. Each employer under this system was required to maintain his own unemployment reserve account (in the state fund, of course), and was responsible for the payment of benefits to his own workers only. Two other states, Nebtaska and Kentucky, followed the example of Wisconsin and established employer reserves.

Even in these three states a pool was established to provide benefit payments to those workers whose employers might have exhausted their accounts. In Nebraska and Wisconsin the pooled fund is relatively small, being made up from interest earned by the trust fund as a whole, from penalties assessed on employers for delinquency in paying their contributions, and from a number of other minor sources. In Kentucky the pooled account is substantial because it is credited, also, with worker-contributions of 1 per cent of payrolls. Thus far, such pooled funds in these employer-reserve states have proved to be adequate.

In five states (Indiana, North Carolina, Oregon, South Dakota, and Vermont) a hybrid system was developed, with a fraction of each employer's regular contribution being deposited in a state-wide pool, while the remainder was deposited to the employer's own account. Each employer is then held responsible for benefit payments to his own workers until such time as his account is exhausted, after which payments are made from the state pool. The main differences between this group of states and the first three mentioned above are, first, that the pooled fund is proportionately very much larger and, second, that this type of partial pooling is supported by a fraction of the regular contributions paid by employers.

In the remaining 43 jurisdictions a system of state-wide pooling was adopted, with all contributions going into a common fund from which benefits were paid to all eligible unemployed workers in the state. It was out of this type of pooled fund that the system of employer merit rating or experience rating was developed.

Experience rating is a system designed to provide in pooled-fund states some of the incentives to stabilization which are an essential part of employer-reserve laws. The theory is that in the pooled-fund states it should be possible to provide (after a suitable period of experience) for a differentiation in contribution rates among various classes of employers, with reductions in taxes to those employers who succeed in stabilizing their labor force, and with higher penalty rates for those employers charged with a heavy volume of benefit payments. Because of the three-year provision in the Social Security Act, the earliest date at which experience rating can take effect in these states is January, 1941. Prior to that date all employers in all states have to pay at least the basic 2.7 per cent tax rate. In the meantime, however, many states have passed laws providing systems or methods of experience rating which will result in tax reductions (and some tax increases) to employers in 1941 and subsequent years. The Social Security Board is required to approve such provisions in state laws under certain standards established in the Social Security Act.

There has been strong opposition to experience rating on the part of some groups —employer, labor, and public. Some of the arguments advanced against it are that stabilization of employment by this means cannot be attained, that the tax rates will bear most heavily on small businesses which cannot stabilize, that experience rating will tend to prevent expansion of employment

and will "freeze out" of the labor market entirely many workers now attached to it, and will eventually jeopardize the payment of adequate unemployment compensation benefits to the workers. No attempts to evaluate these arguments can be made here.

The situation now is that a vast majority of the states (and perhaps eventually nearly all of them) will establish in 1941 some system of tax variation in accordance with either the experience rating or the employer-reserve principle. The significance of this development is as yet very little appreciated by students of unemployment compensation, by employers, by labor, or by the general public; yet it is of fundamental importance.

In the history of unemployment compensation the year 1940 marks the end of the first epoch; the next few years may mark the development of a new era. The basic significance of the change is this. Thus far, unemployment compensation in the states has been maintained through the device of a uniform equalizing federal tax. This has to date provided in every state adequate funds for the payment of the benefits set forth in the state law. In some states the benefit structure has recently been liberalized, the duration of benefits has been extended, and the size of the benefit payments has been markedly increased. In practically all states the status of the trust funds at present would warrant further extensions of benefits in the direction of greater adequacy. Were the present tax levels to be maintained, this would inevitably happen. It is this fact which explains the pressure of the labor groups for the upward revision of the benefit structure in every state.

On the other hand, with experience rating about to be inaugurated, the size of the trust funds in the great majority of states is such that widespread reductions in taxes are possible. The employing groups generally are interested in such tax reductions. However, the only method which now exists for the achievement of that tax reduction is by means of experience rating. No state could today establish any flat uniform reduction from the 2.7 per cent basic rate, even though it might wish to do so. Such a pooled reduction could not be recognized by the Social Security Board or the federal Treasury. However, if the state establishes a system of differential tax reduction based on the employment or benefit-paying experience of the different employers in the state, then the Board and the Treasury are required to recognize the changes in the basic tax rate. The effect of this circumstance is to push the states in the direction of experience rating, even though (as in a few at least) they might themselves prefer to maintain complete pooling. Hence, there is great likelihood that widespread reductions in employer taxes by means of experience rating will be inaugurated in 1941 and will be extended in succeeding years.

Minimum Benefit Standards

This development, when and if it occurs, will bring sharply into focus another basic issue of the early days of the Committee on Economic Security, namely, the establishment in the federal Act of required minimum benefit standards for the states. This issue will rise sharply in public consciousness as experience rating develops into full operation. The reason is this: experience rating will on the whole generally reduce individual employer contributions and, therefore, reduce the receipts available each year for the trust fund. Since there are no definable limits to this reduction specified in the federal Act, this situation may continue (at least in some states) until the receipts are scarcely more than the benefit payments. The question might then arise as to whether benefit payments themselves might not be further cut down, not perhaps directly through cuts in benefit payments but possibly indirectly through coverage, eligibility, or disqualification provisions of state laws. The adoption of seasonal regulations for employers (such as the provision that no benefits will be paid to workers unemployed during periods of the year outside the regular season) offers great possibilities

as a device for further restricting benefit payments in a number of states.

At its worst, the result of this whole trend might be the reintroduction of interstate competition, this time in the direction of reducing taxes, limiting benefits, obtaining further reduction in taxes, and so on in a downward spiral. This in turn would undermine the benefit structure in the more progressive states and establish for the first time in unemployment compensation the deplorable system of interstate competition which has so limited and weakened accident compensation in the states.

This prospect has served to re-emphasize the need for some minimum benefit standards to be established, so that there may be some limit to this backward movement. At various times, in proposed federal legislation, such minimum standards have been worked out. However, no set of such standards has yet been adopted by Congress. It seems likely that as experience rating goes into effect, the drive of the labor groups for minimum standards to put a limitation upon interstate competition may be greatly intensified. It is quite clear that in the absence of such standards diversity among the states with respect to unemployment compensation will increase, with possibly some downward tendency in benefits. The full operation of experience rating may intensify the pressure for the adoption of minimum benefit standards in the federal Act.

Establishment of Separate Systems

Another event of the past three years which may have an important bearing upon the future structure of unemployment compensation in the United States is the establishment of a separate railroad unemployment insurance system. When the Social Security Act was originally passed, it was definitely implied that the railroad industry of the country was covered under the various state laws. Nevertheless, certain complications arose. Two of the states definitely excluded interstate railroads from coverage in the states, even though the federal unemployment tax was imposed on those railroads. Even in other states the railroads sometimes had difficulty in persuading state agencies to accept railroad tax contributions and to provide coverage for their workers. Among the railroad workers themselves there arose some dissatisfaction with the benefit payment procedures of the states with respect to those workers who, in the normal course of their work, crossed state lines.

The result was that in 1938 the railroad unemployment insurance law was passed, establishing a special system for the railroad industry and removing the railroad companies and their workers from coverage under state laws. This railroad unemployment insurance system differs in many details from the state systems established under the Social Security Act. *See* RAILROAD WORKERS' INSURANCE.

It now appears likely that this development may turn out to be merely the first of a series. In the third session of the 75th Congress, efforts were begun for the passage of a special maritime unemployment insurance system covering certain types of seamen. It is possible that other nationwide industries may later bring pressure for such special legislation.

Merit System in Administration

An important development of 1939 was the amendment of the Social Security Act to provide for the establishment and maintenance of personnel merit systems in the state agencies administering unemployment compensation. *See* PERSONNEL PRACTICES IN PUBLIC WELFARE. Under the original Act, the Social Security Board was empowered to withhold administrative funds from state agencies unless the latter provided methods of administration "reasonably calculated to insure full payment of unemployment compensation when due." Included within this section, however, was a parenthetical clause specifying that the state methods of administration to be appraised by the Social Security Board should not include

"the selection, tenure of office, or compensation of personnel." The effect of this parenthetical clause was to limit the powers of the Board with respect to the establishment of merit or civil service systems in the state.

In the social security amendments of 1939 the above parenthetical clause was stricken from the Act and the following substituted: "(including after January 1, 1940, methods relating to the establishment and maintenance of personnel standards on a merit basis, except that the Board shall exercise no authority with respect to the selection, tenure of office, and compensation of any individual employed in accordance with such methods)." This new provision specifically requires the states in their legislation to include provision for the establishment and maintenance of personnel standards on a merit basis. The effect of this has been to bring under the merit system practically the entire staffs of all state agencies (the positions exempt under the Board regulations being very few). The significance of this development for the future administration of unemployment compensation can scarcely be exaggerated.

Relationships to Other Programs

The administration of the Social Security Act at the federal level was entrusted to the Social Security Board, established by the Act itself. This Board established a Bureau of Unemployment Compensation, which was charged with responsibility for the general supervision of the state systems which were created. The states in turn established unemployment compensation agencies to administer the law within the states.

The most significant organizational problem which developed in these early years was that of the employment service. As noted above, the Social Security Board was required to have the payments of benefits in the states made through public employment offices. Of necessity the unemployment compensation agencies and the public employment offices in the states were closely related. However, at the federal level the unemployment compensation program was being administered by the Social Security Board as an independent agency, while the United States Employment Service was located in the federal Department of Labor. So two state agencies, required by federal legislation to work closely together, found themselves reporting to two distinct federal agencies.

From the very beginning an earnest effort was made to coordinate the functioning of these federal agencies. In 1937 a joint agreement was signed by the Secretary of Labor and the Chairman of the Social Security Board, and a system of close collaboration between the Bureau of Unemployment Compensation and the United States Employment Service was established. But it eventually became evident that the two agencies at the federal level would have to be combined if there was to be effective integration of the state agencies. This was finally done in July, 1939, through the President's Reorganization Plan No. I, which shifted the United States Employment Service from the Department of Labor to the Social Security Board where it was merged with the Bureau of Unemployment Compensation to create a new Bureau of Employment Security performing both functions. This development served to hasten also the integration of these two services in the states, so that the general pattern in the latter has become that of a single state agency performing both unemployment compensation and employment service functions. *See* EMPLOYMENT SERVICES.

Another of the basic problems encountered in the administration of unemployment compensation has been the relationship to other insurance and welfare agencies. For purposes of this discussion, the most important of these are the state and local relief agencies and the Work Projects Administration (WPA). *See* PUBLIC ASSISTANCE and WORK RELIEF. In the first year of unemployment compensation benefit payments in each state, a difficult situation

arose because of the fact that these other agencies were already operating when unemployment compensation began. The result was that many of the unemployment compensation beneficiaries were unemployed and already on the general relief rolls in the locality, or working for the WPA, when their unemployment compensation benefit rights became due. The problem created by this situation was that the workers who were already provided for on relief or WPA were not eager to give up their existing status in order to exercise their unemployment compensation rights, particularly since a waiting period of three weeks was usually required, the benefit payments were frequently less than the wages earned on WPA or the relief payments received by the worker's family, and the duration of payments was limited.

Thus, unemployment compensation seemed not so much a first line of defense against unemployment as a special system inserted into the unemployment problem. This, however, was felt to be a passing phase, arising from the fact that these agencies were already in operation when the compensation system began. But as successive years of benefit payment passed by, this situation did not wholly right itself. The duration of unemployment compensation was ordinarily twelve, thirteen, or sixteen weeks at most. Unemployed workers soon exhausted their benefit rights for the year and were not eligible for further unemployment compensation until a new benefit year rolled around. In the meantime, many got on relief or obtained work with the WPA; and when the new benefit year came in, the original situation was repeated all over again. Furthermore, WPA wages on the whole continued to be somewhat higher than the benefit payments received by workers, although many of the states took actions which improved the level of benefit payments, particularly at the lower levels.

At the present time there are still a number of unsolved problems in the relationship of unemployment compensation to these other agencies dealing with unemployment. Although some improvements in unemployment compensation have been made, it is still a question whether the duration of benefits and the level of benefits are such as to provide a secure place for unemployment compensation in the security program of the nation. If unemployment compensation as a device for providing security for the unemployed is to survive, it must be of such scope as to demonstrate to the public, to workers, and to employers that it is the best method for dealing with short-term unemployment. It can never be the sole method of dealing with the problem of unemployment, for supplementary systems have always been necessary for the long term. The exact relationship between unemployment compensation and other programs remains still to be worked out in this country.

The emergence of the national defense program in the spring and summer of 1940 provided an important test of the employment security program, comprising unemployment compensation and the employment service. It has always been a cardinal point in the administration of unemployment compensation that the first effort of the agency on behalf of the unemployed worker should be directed toward obtaining a job for him; benefits are paid only when this first effort fails. Consequently, an unemployment compensation system must be implemented by an efficient employment service.

With the advent of the national defense program, there was a basic change in the labor market situation in the United States. Instead of the surplus of labor which existed in almost all the occupations required in private industry or government work, there came a time when shortages began to appear. The employment service, as the agency primarily responsible for the organization of the labor market, had its opportunity to demonstrate its capacity in the national emergency. The service was thus able for the first time since its establishment to perform its functions under pressure of

private industrial expansion. The nation-wide organization, consisting of 1,500 local offices and over 3,000 itinerant points, touched every industrial area of the entire country and was a mechanism capable not only of serving local employment needs as they arose, but also of transferring labor within states or between states, from north to south or from east to west, as required. The performance of the employment service in this emergency has constituted strong evidence of the vital significance of this joint program for job security, and has in all likelihood cemented its position as the key agency in the labor market for many years to come.

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EWAN CLAGUE

VETERANS.[1] The problem of public care for disabled soldiers and veterans has presented itself to this country since colonial days. The first national pension law for widows and children (of officers only) was passed in 1778. The legislation, first based on disabilities resulting from service, was liberalized in 1818 to require only service

[1] *See* STATE AGENCIES—PUBLIC in Part Two.

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

itself and the "need of assistance from the country for support." In 1832, full pay for life was given all who served during a certain period. Widows were pensioned in 1836 regardless of the cause of the soldier's death, the last widow pensioned under this law dying in 1906.

Except that establishment of need for assistance was rarely required, a similar pattern of legislation followed later wars. Disability resulting from military or naval service was at first required; later, only disability from some condition, regardless of cause; and, finally, only the attainment of a certain age, regardless of income or property.[1]

On June 30, 1940, 2,381 living Civil War veterans and dependents of 50,141 deceased veterans were receiving pension. During the fiscal year 1939–1940, $27,790,253 was paid in Civil War and $127,427,376 in Spanish War pensions. On June 30, 1940, 159,230 Spanish War veterans and the dependents of 57,720 deceased veterans were receiving pension. In 1940 one person was still receiving pension on account of service rendered by her father, a soldier in the War of 1812.

The Veterans Administration, a federal agency, administers two types of federal benefits: (a) monetary, consisting of compensation, pensions, emergency officers' retirement pay, and government insurance; and (b) medical and hospital treatment and domiciliary care. It has a central office in Washington, field stations in every state except Delaware (which is under the Philadelphia office), and insular offices in the Philippines, Puerto Rico, and Hawaii. The field stations consist of either a regional office or hospital, or some combination of regional office, hospital, and institution giving domiciliary care.

War Risk Insurance Act

On October 6, 1917, six months after declaration of war on Germany, the United States Congress amended the War Risk Insurance Act to incorporate a modern, rounded, well-balanced system of benefits for those who served in that war, and for their dependents. This program, based upon studies of advisory experts, included these new principles:

Government support allowances to supplement the allotment made by the enlisted man to his family.

Government insurance against death and permanent total disability, in policies up to a maximum of $10,000 each, at low rates. (Converted into other forms of government insurance and carried by both service men and veterans, 608,923 policies amounting to $2,564,984,223 were in force in June, 1940.)

Medical and hospital treatment for diseases and injuries that were incurred in or aggravated by military or naval service. Pensioners formerly could have procured such treatment only upon admission to a National Home for Disabled Volunteer Soldiers, the United States Soldiers' Home in Washington, or the United States Naval Home in Philadelphia.

Vocational rehabilitation of the disabled.

Payments of "disability compensation," to replace the unsound, antiquated "pension system." The experience of various states in administering their workmen's compensation acts was studied in devising this measure. In evaluating disability under this provision, the consideration is not so much the disease or injury *per se* as it is the relative disability resulting therefrom.

At nearly every session of Congress since the enactment of this historic Act, amendments have been made to it. Two particularly far-reaching changes in 1924 and 1930, respectively, were the following: (a) the presumption of service origin for disabilities from certain diseases, among them neuropsychiatric and tuberculous conditions, when found to have existed before January 1, 1925 (a date more than six years after the Armistice); and (b) the principle of paying benefits to World War veterans for disabilities not incurred in or aggravated by military or naval service. At present, under the Economy Act of March, 1933, such disabilities entitle veterans to payment of a

[1] *See* Glasson, *infra cit.*

pension ($30 a month) only if permanent and total.

Monetary Benefits

In general, veterans of wars or their dependents may receive monetary benefits for disability or death from service-connected conditions; and, under certain circumstances, for disability or death not due to service. The rates for living veterans range from $8 to $275 a month, a $30 minimum for widows being increased according to age. Veterans of the Regular Establishment (service other than wartime) or their dependents may receive a pension only when the disability or death was due to service, the rates being $7.50 to $187.50 a month, $22 being the minimum for widows. Additional amounts are also provided for children in death cases. The compensating of widows and children of World War veterans having some service-connected disability, even though not the cause of their death, was adopted in 1934 and liberalized in 1939.

Financial need is considered in only four connections: (a) with certain exceptions, the award of compensation, emergency officers' retirement pay, or pension for a hospitalized veteran without dependent parent, wife, or child, is reduced to $15 or $6, depending on whether or not the disability is service connected; (b) parents claiming compensation on account of the death of a veteran from a service-connected condition must prove their dependency; (c) pension for non-service-connected disability or compensation to widows and children of deceased World War veterans whose death is not service connected is payable only when the beneficiary's income is less than $1,000 a year in the case of a widow without a child, or of a child, or $2,500 a year in the case of a widow with one or more children; (d) eligibility for hospitalization or domiciliary care for diseases or injuries not attributable to military or naval service is contingent upon a determination as to whether the applicant therefor has "adequate means of support." The sworn statement of an applicant who had service in wartime that he is unable to defray the expense of such hospitalization or domiciliary care, is acceptable.

About 4,760,000 persons served in the World War. During the fiscal year 1939–1940, $254,846,261 was paid in compensation and pensions to veterans and to the dependents of deceased veterans of that war; on June 30, 1940, 410,244 living veterans and the dependents of 117,003 deceased veterans were receiving such payments.

Additional governmental benefits for World War veterans include adjusted compensation (the so-called "bonus"), which up to June 30, 1940, had been paid in the amount of over three and three-quarter billions of dollars; preference in civil service examinations and in Work Projects Administration placements; admission to Civilian Conservation Corps camps within a quota of 27,200 (1940); special assistance from the Bureau of Employment Security (formerly the United States Employment Service, now a Bureau in the Social Security Board) and its local offices; allowances toward funeral expenses; and burial in national cemeteries.

As for the Regular Establishment during the fiscal year 1939–1940, $15,811,766 was paid to veterans and the dependents of deceased veterans; on June 30, 1940, there were 36,051 living veterans and the dependents of 10,126 deceased veterans receiving such payments.

Medical Treatment and Domiciliary Care

Of the various types of benefits provided ex-members of the armed forces of the United States, one of the most valuable is medical treatment, both hospital and outpatient. Hospitalization was, until 1922, furnishable only for diseases or injuries the disability from which had been adjudicated as incurred or aggravated by military or naval service in the World War. At present, however, hospital treatment is provided for veterans of any war and for applicants discharged from peacetime service because

of disability in line of duty. These two classes of applicants may be provided hospital treatment (a) for diseases or injuries incurred or aggravated by military or naval service, in which case only an honorable discharge from the last enlistment is required; and (b) for conditions not attributable to such service, in which case there are various stipulations as to length of service, type of discharge, character of disease or injury, and particularly economic status as mentioned above. One important limitation is that out-patient treatment is authorized only for diseases or injuries incurred or aggravated by military or naval service.

In June, 1940, there were in operation 86 hospitals: 12 primarily for the tuberculous, 46 for the general medical and surgical patients, and 28 for the neuropsychiatric patients. There were about four times as many hospital beds for the general medical and surgical patients as for the tuberculous, and six times as many for the neuropsychiatric. The neuropsychiatric load is steadily increasing. Of the approximately 52,500 veterans in Veterans Administration hospitals, about 23 per cent had service-connected conditions. In beds allotted to the Veterans Administration in other federal, civil, and state hospitals, there were about 3,800 veterans.

The hospitals of the Veterans Administration have been approved by the American College of Surgeons. The average per capita per diem cost of their operation was $2.60 for the fiscal year 1939–1940. Practically all positions, from attendant to chief medical officer inclusive, are under civil service merit provisions.

The social workers, whatever the type of hospital to which they are assigned, must meet the same minimum qualifications, namely, one year of postgraduate education in a school of social work, including some psychiatric courses. *See* MEDICAL SOCIAL WORK and PSYCHIATRIC SOCIAL WORK. Their study of the social aspects of the individual's situation and their case work in helping him reach his health objective are utilized by physicians in diagnosis and treatment; and, to a less extent, by adjudication, insurance, and guardianship authorities for their purposes. As of June, 1940, guardianship authorities had responsibility for safeguarding the estates of approximately 39,015 mentally incompetent veterans, 4,477 incompetent dependents, and 40,284 minor wards. World War veterans, as a cross-section of our population, have personal and environmental problems similar to those faced by other persons of the same age, the present average being estimated as forty-seven years.

A companion benefit to hospital treatment is domiciliary care. This provides for disabled veterans a home where they have some duties and restrictions, but where in general they are allowed freedom of action, and are furnished with the necessities of life, provided with entertainment and amusements, and given such medical treatment as may be indicated. The eligibility requirements for domiciliary care are similar to those for hospital treatment. About 16,500 were receiving domiciliary care in June, 1940.

State Benefits and Other Provisions

State services include care in soldiers' homes, federally supported in part and sometimes admitting women; civil service preferences; relief administered through special state or county relief agencies; free copies of records; pensions and homes for Confederate veterans in many southern states; children's scholarships; and various tax exemptions. In the majority of states a state service officer or other official is appointed to help veterans in presenting pension claims.

Among many national veterans' organizations—some with women's auxiliaries—promoting legislation, protecting veterans' interests and welfare, or giving free assistance (sometimes only to members) in presenting claims, are: the American Legion, with over a million members, which through its National Child Welfare Division also fosters child welfare legislation, being par-

ticularly concerned with child health and the prevention of juvenile delinquency, and under some circumstances, when local resources are inadequate, provides assistance temporarily to any child of a World War veteran; Disabled American Veterans of the World War; Grand Army of the Republic; United Spanish War Veterans; Veterans of Foreign Wars; and the Women's Overseas Service League.

The American Red Cross has peacetime and wartime responsibilities for services to the armed forces of the United States. Its approximately 3,700 chapters have responsibility for family case work service to both veterans and men in active services, and also assist veterans in presenting pension claims. Chapters cooperate widely with the Veterans Administration's social work program by assistance in meeting the social problems in the community that retard patients' recovery; and with the guardianship program by making requested surveys and interpreting social needs to trust companies and other fiduciaries, helping them, for example, to reach decisions as to suitable budgetary allowances for their wards. To assist both veterans and service men who are patients in Army and Navy hospitals (not Veterans Administration facilities) and in St. Elizabeth's Hospital, Washington, D. C., the Red Cross maintains social service departments in these hospitals. Problems involving the men's families are handled cooperatively by these medical and psychiatric social workers and the chapter in the home community.

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IRENE GRANT

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE[1] is the process of helping an individual to choose, prepare for, enter upon, and progress in an occupation. Since vocational education and employment are treated elsewhere in this volume (*see* EMPLOYMENT SERVICES), this discussion will confine itself to vocational choice. Three steps are involved in the process: the study of individual differences, the study of occupations, and the articulation of these two kinds of information in counseling and follow-up.

The Study of Individual Differences

Varied techniques are employed in the study of the individual to measure or appraise his vocational aptitude and interest. Psychologists employ tests of intelligence, achievement, personality, aptitude, and interest, but the use of such tests by anyone other than a trained psychologist is generally discouraged. The comprehensive case study, as used by social workers, is employed frequently. Educational institutions often provide exploratory courses and keep cumulative records of student performance. Tryout experiences in various occupations are arranged by some progressive schools. Every counselor tries to get some information from interviews.

The practice of guidance has its imitators, many of whom are unqualified and unscru-

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

pulous. For a discussion of the menace of commercialized guidance, *see* Davis, *infra cit.* In general it is well to beware of any alleged professional counselor who advertises or charges fees. The services of reputable community vocational guidance agencies are generally free. Reputable psychologists will be listed in the *Yearbook* of the American Association for Applied Psychology. The Psychological Corporation, New York City, is organized to combat the quacks by providing professional service at reasonable professional fees. Inquiries regarding alleged psychologists in any community may be directed to the local superintendent of schools, the local office of the state employment service, or the department of psychology in a near-by university. One of these three is almost certain to know of any reputable psychologist in the community.

Sources of Vocational Information

The most realistic source of information about occupations is likely to be the local office of the state employment service, affiliated with the Bureau of Employment Security in the Federal Security Agency. A permanent or itinerant office of this agency is to be found in every county of the United States. The interviewers in these offices are in daily touch with applicants and with employers, and consequently have unequaled opportunity to observe employment conditions in all major occupations. The federal service has published recently a *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* (*infra cit.*) and several volumes of job descriptions in various industries. To supplement this kind of current research the Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor, recently has created the Occupational Outlook Service which will attempt to forecast employment in major industries.

Employers are the best source of information regarding the requirements for getting a job; but often they are so aware of their own difficulty in finding competent help that they tend to emphasize unduly the shortage of *superior* workmen which exists in virtually every field. Employes and practitioners are more aware of the competition for jobs or for business, and hence usually regard their own fields as overcrowded; they are, however, the best source of information regarding the reasons why workers like or dislike their jobs. City and state licensing boards and civil service commissions supply the most accurate information regarding minimum preparation requirements; meeting such minimum requirements, however, seldom assures employment. Schools and colleges which offer technical and professional training courses are the best source of information about such training, but are engaged so frequently in recruiting students that their statements regarding employment opportunities must always be discounted.

A considerable amount of occupational information is available in print. It includes reports of studies by vocational guidance departments of public schools and by the other groups mentioned above. Hundreds of new publications appear each year. Many of them are free and are listed monthly in the *Occupational Index* (*infra cit.*), which is available in most public libraries.

Counseling and Follow-up

Many schools and colleges have guidance officers called counselors, deans, or advisers, whose functions include vocational guidance. A few of the larger cities have adjustment services for adults. The local superintendent of schools or the local office of the state employment service usually will know if and where such services are provided.

The primary purpose of counseling is to apply common sense, the detached point of view, and the broad experience of the counselor to the problem of interpreting the available information regarding the aptitudes of the individual and the occupations that are open to him. Some of the best counselors are untrained, although training tends to make the counselor more familiar with sources of information that he will need

and to prevent some of the common errors made by untrained counselors. One common error is a tendency to assume personal responsibility for the decisions of the counselee, and thus to exert undue influence on his decision. Untrained counselors are sometimes naïve in their reliance upon tests and in their use of inaccurate occupational information.

The most effective counselors usually help the individual in every way they can to appreciate his own assets and liabilities, and to obtain accurate information regarding the opportunities that are open to him; the emphasis is placed on supplying information rather than upon recommending a specific course of action. There are, however, those who disagree with this point of view and strongly urge that the counselor assume a role comparable to that of the physician. The leading exponent of this position is E. G. Williamson whose most recent book, *How To Counsel Students,* discusses this subject.

Follow-up is imperative to help the individual to make further adjustments, and it is needed equally to evaluate the results of the counseling that has taken place.

Function of the Social Worker

Much of the organized vocational guidance work in the United States owes its beginning to social workers who recognized the urgency of the problem and induced various agencies to do something about it. Today the social worker, although frequently forced into the position of a counselor, is essentially a layman in the field. He usually can recognize a problem in vocational guidance, compile all the related information regarding the social background of the individual, obtain information regarding the more technical vocational guidance agencies of the community, refer the individual to such agencies, or call in specialists to give psychological examinations, to supply information regarding occupations, or to assist in placement. Sometimes it is wise for the social worker to retain major responsibility for counseling, since vocational guidance may be only part of a larger problem. In other cases it may be wise to refer the entire case to a vocational guidance agency. An excellent discussion of relations between such agencies and social workers may be found in Culbert and Smith's *Counseling Young Workers* (*infra cit.*).

Professional Organizations

The leading professional organization today is the Council of Guidance and Personnel Associations, consisting of the American College Personnel Association, National Association of Deans of Women, National Vocational Guidance Association, and several smaller organizations. Its principal function to date has been the coordination of the program for the annual meetings of its three largest constituent members. It has also undertaken to formulate statements of fundamental principles on which all of the constituents agree, and in various other ways to move in the direction of better coordination of activity.

Other large professional associations interested in vocational guidance but not members of the Council are the American Association of School Administrators, National Association of Secondary School Principals, American Council on Education, and the American Vocational Association.

Two new government agencies have entered the field recently. The United States Office of Education, formerly in the Department of the Interior but now in the Federal Security Agency, has started the Occupational Information and Guidance Service, which works through state directors of occupational information and guidance where these have been appointed, and issues publications for schools and others interested in guidance. The United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, in the United States Department of Labor, has established the Occupational Outlook Service, which will undertake to predict the trend of employment opportunity in various major fields.

Vocational Guidance

The National Youth Administration has published a number of occupational information bulletins, and has established junior employment services and vocational guidance bureaus in several cities. The junior employment services are gradually being absorbed by the Division of Employment Service of the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency. The Division continues its somewhat restricted program of worker analysis, looking toward the better guidance of both young and older workers at the point where they seek employment.

Professional Standards

There are no legal restrictions upon any person who undertakes vocational guidance work, except in the public schools of a few states which now require certification. The leader in such certification has been New York State which now issues both a provisional and a permanent certificate, requiring occupational experience in fields other than teaching as well as professional training equivalent to the master's degree. New Jersey and Connecticut certify students who hold the bachelor's degree if the undergraduate work has included sufficient training in psychology and guidance.

There has been some controversy, not always amiable, regarding desirable professional standards. Those who are more interested in educational and social guidance than in vocational guidance have protested the New York State requirement of occupational experience; while various associations of psychologists have urged that considerably more training in psychology be required of all counselors. There are the usual extremes, some insisting that a doctor of philosophy degree in psychology should be a prerequisite to any employment in vocational guidance, others insisting that good counselors are born and that their employment should not be restricted by training requirements. The middle-of-the-road majority appears to be moving in the direction of certification for public school guidance officers, with minimum training requirements to include educational theory, psychological techniques, and occupational information. Other than this, no marked trend is apparent.

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VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION[1] is a program of restoration of physically disabled persons to remunerative employment and comprises all activities necessary to preparation of such persons for suitable occupations and their placement therein. Each year many thousands of persons suffer physical disablement through accident, injury, disease, or congenital cause. Surveys taken in many parts of the country show that in each 1,000 of the general population there are from 12 to 15 persons who are permanently physically handicapped. Such disabled persons may be divided roughly into three groups: first, those who are dependent because wholly unable to work; second, those who are able to contribute in some measure to their own support; and third, those who despite their handicaps are economically independent because able to engage in normal employment.

In comparatively recent years state and federal governments have inaugurated vocational rehabilitation services to assist the physically disabled in restoring themselves to occupational competency. To some extent these services had been pioneered by private agencies which are still making important contributions to the program.

The Process of Rehabilitation

The first step in the process of rehabilitating an individual is to determine the type of occupation for which he may be best adapted in view of his physical, mental, and vocational capacities; the second step is to assist him in securing adequate preparation for the pre-determined objective; and the third, to assist him in securing employment in the selected occupation.

Owing to variations in training, experience, aptitudes, interests, personality, and other factors, disabled persons cannot be rehabilitated in groups. Each case presents an individual problem which requires its own specific solution. Rehabilitation service must, therefore, be carried on through the "case method."

Generally speaking, there are three ways by which disabled persons are rehabilitated. Through the first method a person is enabled to return to a former occupation or to enter a new one through physical restoration or prosthesis (supplying artificial parts for the body). An individual who is rehabilitated by the second method is prepared through vocational training for an occupation from which he is not barred by his disability. Such training is secured in public or private residence schools, in commercial or industrial establishments (employment training), or from tutors, sometimes supplemented by correspondence instruction. The third method is the adjustment to a suitable occupation of persons not adapted to formal training.

Under a policy recently established by the federal government, disabled persons who are employed but are in danger of dismissal because of a progressive disability or changing occupational requirements may be given rehabilitation service in the form of prosthesis or training to make possible their retention in employment.

The guiding principle in rehabilitation service is to fit disabled persons for occupations at which they can compete with normal persons and earn the same wages. Naturally, with certain cases this objective cannot be fully effected. None the less it is the desired goal.

Public vocational rehabilitation agencies do not establish surgical, prosthetic, or training facilities, their function being, first, to refer their clients to agencies organized to give the services needed, and second, to supervise the rendering of these services. Thus rehabilitation workers are "engineers" who lay plans for the vocational adjustment of disabled persons and see that the plans are carried out. They are, however, assisted by other agencies, public and private, such as hospitals and clinics, private social agencies, public welfare departments, workmen's compensation bureaus, employment offices,

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

vocational schools, institutions for the handicapped, and church, fraternal, and civic organizations. By law, cooperation is required between rehabilitation and state public employment offices which receive federal aid from the federal government through the Bureau of Employment Security of the Social Security Board, Federal Security Agency. *See* EMPLOYMENT SERVICES.

Vocational rehabilitation service for an individual is not considered as completed until he is placed in employment in the occupation for which he has been prepared or adjusted. In other words, placement in employment is by law a component part of the rehabilitation service. In practice it is also a policy of the rehabilitation department in a state or local community to carry on a "follow-up" service after the individual is placed in employment for the purpose of determining whether the preparation service has been successfully carried out.

The Federal-State Program

The federal-state program of vocational rehabilitation was established under an Act of Congress, approved June 2, 1920. A year or two prior to this time several states had initiated rehabilitation services. Programs are now in operation in all of the states, in the District of Columbia, and in the territories of Hawaii and Puerto Rico. They are supported by federal, state, and sometimes local funds. These departments derive their authority from state acts, which, in addition to providing for vocational rehabilitation service to citizens of the state, accept the benefits of the federal Act. This Act provides for cooperation by the federal government with the states through financial assistance, promotional service, and research activities, the states being charged with the responsibility of rehabilitating persons within their own jurisdiction.

The organic federal Act, as amended, authorized appropriations of $1,097,000 through the fiscal year ended June 30, 1937, to be allotted to the states on the basis of population and on condition that the amount expended from the federal grant is matched by expenditures from state funds. Title V, Part 4, of the Social Security Act of 1935, also administered by the Office of Education, provides for expansion and permanent extension of the program established in 1920. This legislation is in effect an amendment to the basic Act, and makes permanent the provisions of the Act without change.

The federal Act, which is administered by the United States Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, defines "rehabilitation" as meaning "the rendering of a person fit to engage in a remunerative occupation"; and "disabled person" as meaning "any person who by reason of a physical defect or infirmity, whether congenital or acquired by accident, injury, or disease, is, or may be expected to be, totally or partially incapacitated for remunerative occupation." All persons vocationally handicapped through physical disability of whatever origin, regardless of sex, age, race, or economic status, are eligible. The service is not feasible for all such persons, however. In addition, the federal Office interprets the Act as providing for a service which retains, re-establishes, or establishes the disabled person in normal competitive employment. That is to say, partial rehabilitation or welfare service as such is not construed as contemplated in the Act.

Amendments to the Social Security Act, approved August 10, 1939, amend the organic rehabilitation Act for the purpose of extending and expanding the rehabilitation service in the states. Authorization of appropriations to the states is increased to $3,500,000 annually. Under a legal interpretation of the purposes of this amendment the Office of Education was charged with initiating on July 1, 1940, an experimental research program in cooperation with a few selected states with the object of determining what could be done in rehabilitating persons with severe physical handicaps, ordinarily referred to as the "home-bound." Naturally, the majority of this group can be

trained to become only partially self-supporting in occupations in which they do not compete with physically normal workers or with the disabled who have been completely rehabilitated.

The service of rehabilitation in a state is conducted as a division of the state board for vocational education within the state department of education. Headquarters are located in the state capital, and in a number of states district offices are also maintained. The director or supervisor in charge is assisted by a staff of field agents (case workers). In some states local units are operated through cooperation with public or private agencies, such as educational departments, placement bureaus, and the like, which are financially aided through federal and state funds, their work being supervised by the state department under contractual agreements. These local units have a case worker or workers who operate within their particular jurisdictions.

Participation by Private Agencies

The federal-state program of rehabilitation is clearly a public service. However, if all phases of the work are included, it may be estimated that private agencies are bearing about 15 per cent of the total costs. In general, there are two types of private agencies for the handicapped: those which deal with specific types of the disabled—organizations for the hard of hearing, deaf, blind, tuberculous, and cardiac cases—and those which offer special methods of help. The latter include placement bureaus for the handicapped, curative workshops, and salvage agencies.

For many years certain religious and charitable organizations have been engaged in systematized collection and utilization of discarded household articles, furniture, and clothing for distribution to persons in need. Through such activities these agencies have provided training and employment for the aged, the handicapped, and temporarily unemployed persons. Such a systematic salvage program not only results in the separation of useful from worthless material and the discovery of the best markets for articles handled, but also develops the art of properly reconditioning suitable articles and of extending their usefulness.

The best-known agencies in this field are the Goodwill Industries, associated in two joint national associations—the Bureau of Goodwill Industries of the Methodist Church and the National Association of Goodwill Industries; the Salvage Bureaus of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul Councils; and the Men's Social Service Department of the Salvation Army. These organizations operate in many cities and provide employment for many thousands of disadvantaged persons. Naturally they do not operate for profit. Reconditioned articles are sold at reasonable prices to people of limited means; and waste materials are sold as salvage. Some of the bureaus cooperate with welfare agencies by supplying furniture and clothing to aid in the rehabilitation of families whose homes have been broken up. Again, some of the units of these agencies cooperate with the state rehabilitation departments in providing training for physically handicapped persons who can later be placed in normal employment.

An important type of rehabilitation facility for the physically handicapped is the sheltered workshop. In practically all of the larger cities of the country such workshops are being operated for the blind, the crippled, cardiacs, deaf-mutes, and the aged. The basic purpose of the sheltered workshop is to give employment to persons who are so seriously handicapped as to be unable to work in normal competitive employment, but are capable of productive effort if certain concessions are made or if certain favorable conditions prevail. Production schedules are carefully graded to the physical capacities of the workers, care being taken that no individual works at too tiring a pace. Some of the shops maintain facilities for vocational training in occupations suitable to the seriously physically handicapped.

The Sheltered Workshop Advisory Committee, appointed by the Wage and Hour Division of the United States Department of Labor, has recently compiled a list of 428 institutions classified as sheltered workshops. These institutions are of the following types: Goodwill Industries, 92; Salvation Army, 84; occupational therapy, 43; institutions for the blind, 110; Houses of Good Shepherd, 39; St. Vincent de Paul, 25; and miscellaneous, 35.

There are no figures for the numbet of clients served by workshops in the nation. However, 191 of the institutions, replying to a questionnaire from the Department of Labor, report a combined clientele of 9,903 persons. With an average turnover of approximately five times a year, these 191 institutions serve nearly 50,000 persons a year. It is not known whether the 191 reporting institutions are of average size, but a report made during National Recovery Administration days indicated that sheltered workshops serve 100,000 persons annually.

Considerable incentive has been given to workshops for the blind by the passage in June, 1938, of the Blind-Made Products Law, which authorizes the federal government to buy at specified prices certain products made by the blind. A central sales agency handles the distribution of products manufactured in the shops or elsewhere. Under present regulations these workshops may employ as much as 25 per cent non-blind labor, most of which consists of persons with orthopedic or other non-vision handicaps.

Physical Restoration and Subsistence

Medical and surgical treatment and the supplying of artificial parts to the body are important phases of the rehabilitation program. Obviously the extent of the physical impairment of an individual should be reduced, whenever possible, to a minimum before preparation for employment is undertaken. Although federal-state funds cannot be used for physical restoration treatment, state departments secure such service from clinics, state-aided hospitals, cooperating local surgeons and physicians, and crippled children's agencies. In many cases the costs of such service are met by cooperating agencies. In this connection it should be noted that in many states workmen's compensation laws provide for medical and surgical treatment of persons entitled to their benefits. *See* WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION. By law, cooperation is required between rehabilitation and state workmen's compensation commissions.

The United States Office of Education has ruled that federal-state funds may be expended for artificial appliances provided they are necessary to the vocational rehabilitation of individuals and are but one factor in the complete rehabilitation of the individual.

Subsistence costs for rehabilitation clients while in training present a serious problem. In a few of the states, workmen's compensation laws provide extra compensation for the purpose. Some states have special appropriations for subsistence for persons not eligible for compensation. Similar provision for both groups is needed in all states.

One of the policies recently adopted by the federal Office relating to the use of federal and state matching rehabilitation funds permits their use for subsistence expenses of needy rehabilitation clients while receiving vocational training under supervision by the state department. Obviously this liberalization of policy will greatly reduce the problem of rehabilitating certain groups of the disabled, but dependence upon private agencies for assistance will have to be continued.

Costs of Vocational Rehabilitation Service

The existing distribution of costs of rehabilitation is puzzling to persons unfamiliar with the field. This is due to the fact that the federal Act and the policies of the United States Office of Education, as the federal agency of administration, regarding the use of federal and state matching funds permit only specified phases of the rehabili-

tation process to be financed out of these funds. All costs for surgical and therapeutic treatment must be borne by local or state funds additional to those appropriated for matching the federal grants. At present the expenditures permitted are for the following: administration, tuition, training supplies and equipment, artificial appliances, travel of trainees, medical examinations, placement equipment, and subsistence during training. Thus, an important type of expenditure is prohibited (physical restoration) which is essential and greatly needed to make the rehabilitation service entirely a public program in so far as maintenance cost is concerned. It would seem eminently desirable that the federal Act be amended so as to permit the use of joint funds for all expenses necessary to effect the vocational rehabilitation of the disabled individual.

The average cost of vocational rehabilitation of the individual from joint funds is about $300, whereas the complete cost, including all phases of the process, is from $450 to $550. Frequently the increased earning capacity of the rehabilitated person during the first year after rehabilitation exceeds the cost of rehabilitation and in many cases the weekly wage—averaging about $18 a week—of the rehabilitated person exceeds his wage prior to rehabilitation. The average age of rehabilitated persons is twenty-seven years, and at this age the average work-life expectancy is twenty-five years. As the average cost of maintaining a dependent person at public expense is from $300 to $500 a year, the financial aspect alone would seem to more than justify the investment of public or private funds in the vocational rehabilitation of disabled persons who would otherwise remain a burden upon the community.

Special Groups

Vocational rehabilitation of the blind, deaf, cardiac cases, and the tuberculous requires specialized treatment for each group. In general these groups are inadequately served by state rehabilitation divisions, usually functioning in state departments of education. Rehabilitation of the blind is still limited largely to training for such traditional occupations as mop and broom-making, upholstering, basketry, and chair-caning. While a few blind persons are rehabilitated in the professions, in certain technical occupations, and in a scattered range of repetitive occupations, much more could be accomplished if funds were available for job analyses and demonstration of feasible occupations in industry.

The 74th Congress passed a bill (H.R. 4688) Public No. 732, approved June 20, 1936, which provides specifically for vocational rehabilitation services for the blind. Under the terms of this act provision is made: first, for establishment of blind persons in vending stands in public and other buildings; and, second, for surveys of occupations in commerce and industry suitable for the blind. Although the act does not carry an appropriation for aid to the states it does authorize appropriations for its administration. Under this act and the cooperative relationship set up with state commissions for the blind in 43 states, about 550 blind persons had been established in vending stands by June, 1940. The average net earnings to the vendors is $1,000 per year. Little has as yet been done under this act in reference to surveys of employment opportunities for the blind, and the program will not be materially expanded until provision is made for financial aid to the states in carrying on this important service. *See* BLINDNESS AND CONSERVATION OF SIGHT.

In a number of the states special projects for rehabilitation of the tuberculous and those with cardiac diseases have been initiated in cooperation with local agencies or sanatoria. Through the increased federal appropriations being made available to the states, such cooperative programs will receive greater emphasis during the next two or three years, and others will be added. *See* TUBERCULOSIS.

Service for crippled children is essentially

physical reconstruction and education. Logically much of the work is directed to removing the physical handicap, thereby eliminating in many cases the later need for vocational rehabilitation. Provision for academic training is made through hospital schools, special schools, or classes in the public school system, and for itinerant teachers for those who cannot be transported to public schools.

The Social Security Act makes provision for promotion of physical reconstruction of crippled children through financial aid and service to the states by the federal government. Naturally, under the stimulus of this legislation many crippled children who cannot be fully restored physically are being brought to the attention of the state vocational rehabilitation departments for vocational rehabilitation service. The national Act logically provides for cooperation between state rehabilitation and state crippled children's agencies. *See* CRIPPLED CHILDREN.

Obstacles

One of the major problems with which rehabilitation workers have to contend is the attitude of many employers. Without employer cooperation, rehabilitation is impossible. Employers generally, especially in the smaller industries, are willing to employ competent disabled persons. Large employers, however, usually require rigid physical examinations which frequently bar the handicapped, though many industries will re-employ workers disabled in their plants. Frequently opposition to employment of the handicapped is based upon a weakness in the compensation act which makes no provision for payment of compensation for total disability in the case of second injury. Group insurance is also a barrier, and civil service regulations or policies of appointing officers are often discriminatory against the handicapped. While some leaders in rehabilitation feel that the latter barrier should be removed by legislative act, others believe that the desired results can be better effected by education and demonstration. Certainly it is not generally believed that mandatory legislation should be attempted with regard to the private employer, as has been the case in one or two European countries.

Future Developments

Under the impetus of increased financial cooperation by the federal government, the states have been materially expanding their rehabilitation services during the past two or three years and will continue to do so. The number of persons rehabilitated in the United States in 1936 was a little over 10,000, whereas the number in 1940 is expected to be considerably over 12,000. The number receiving rehabilitation service in the states on June 1, 1940, was about 45,000. Furthermore, revised policies promulgated by the Office of Education on April 1, 1940, will enable the states to develop more extensive programs for serving such groups as the visually handicapped, the deaf and hard of hearing, the tuberculous, and those with cardiac diseases. Finally, the experimental projects for rehabilitating the homebound group, initiated on July 1, 1940, mark a significant advance in the attack upon the problem in the United States of restoring the physically handicapped to remunerative employment.

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VOLUNTEERS IN SOCIAL WORK[1] include those persons who serve without financial remuneration as administrative board members, advisory board or committee members, or as workers giving actual hours of service in the program of the agency. Most agencies today, recognizing the importance of community backing and support, feel that active board membership and a wide use of volunteer assistance in the work itself are essential to that end. The fact is emphasized that the beginnings of social work resulted from the vision and work of laymen and that the continued partnership of the lay person and the professional is of vital concern to every program. It is argued that well-informed laymen—informed through actual participation in the agency program —are needed to decide questions of policy, participate in administration, and interpret the agency's program and needs to the community. Where this point of view is accepted today, stress is placed on devising better methods of coordination of lay participation and on developing better educational programs for those giving volunteer service. It is not enough merely to have lay people volunteering their services; in addition, careful planning of their work by the agency is necessary.

Some volunteers come as individuals but the largest number are associated with lay organizations such as men's and women's civic and social groups. *See* CIVIC AND FRATERNAL ORGANIZATIONS. A number of these organizations have been doing excellent work in the training of their members for volunteer service in the welfare field. Outstanding is the Association of the Junior Leagues of America, which seeks to educate its members and stimulate in them an acceptance of responsibility for participation in community programs. With prerequisite courses for new members covering social problems and methods of treating them and with emphasis on well-considered placement, the Association has done much to raise the standard of volunteer service in their communities and also to prepare future board members. The National League of Women Voters, stressing the need of studying the local community and working for high standards in government service, has been active in preparing persons to serve as committee members in public agencies. The Extension Service of the United States Department of Agriculture, through its home demonstration agents, is educating rural people to be aware of community needs; and many a rural health committee has benefited by this educational program. Other lay organizations similarly are stressing participation by their members in community welfare activities.

Agencies Working with Volunteers

Many national social work organizations carry on extensive programs for the development of volunteer interest. The Family Welfare Association of America uses laymen actively on its national board and committees, and draws a large attendance of local board members to its regional conferences. In its new bulletin, *Highlights*, many of the articles are written for or prepared by laymen. Several national group work agencies, including the National Board of

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

the Young Women's Christian Associations, National Council of the Young Men's Christian Associations, Girl Scouts, and others, conduct extensive leadership training courses for their volunteer group leaders. The American Red Cross gives training courses to volunteers for hospital and other duties, which have been taken by many persons throughout the United States. The National Organization for Public Health Nursing has had since 1929 a non-nurse member on its staff who has worked with both the professional and the layman in furthering more active volunteer service in the program. A board members' manual has been written, study courses prepared, and institutes held. Recently assistance has been given in the organization of lay committees in the tax-supported public health agencies.

Councils of social agencies in many communities have developed volunteer bureaus with the following functions: (a) to create, through participation, a better understanding of social work on the part of the public; (b) to complement and supplement the services of paid workers; (c) to coordinate the work of volunteers by serving as sources of information on all volunteer opportunities, offering guidance to applying volunteers and placing them in jobs for which their individual interests and abilities qualify them; (d) to stimulate and advise agencies in the better use of volunteers; (e) to promote education of volunteers and board members; and (f) to improve the quality of volunteer work through requiring high standards of performance. In 1939, volunteer bureaus were in operation under councils of social agencies in the following cities: Ann Arbor, Mich.; Baltimore; Boston; Brooklyn; Buffalo; Chicago; Cleveland; Columbus, Ohio; Dallas, Tex.; Detroit; Evanston, Ill.; Grand Rapids, Mich.; Indianapolis; Kansas City, Mo.; Los Angeles; Louisville; Milwaukee; Minneapolis; Montreal, Canada; Providence, R. I.; Rochester, N. Y.; St. Louis; Syracuse, N. Y.; and Washington, D. C.

In communities where volunteer bureaus do not exist, discussion meetings are sometimes arranged in which board members receive instruction on the function of the board and agency. General orientation courses and programs of study for individual groups, such as ministers, a local women's club, and presidents of boards of social agencies, have been conducted in recent years in several communities.

Observing the recognition being given to lay participation in the private agency, an increasing number of public agencies are beginning to use the citizen in various ways. Administrative boards of public agencies often have lay people in their membership. Many health departments are organizing lay committees, primarily to assist in furthering the work of the department and to interpret the program to the community. Committees of this sort have been widely organized in the rural areas and in some urban communities.

Organizations using volunteers have several responsibilities: (a) to designate real jobs to be done; (b) to place the volunteer carefully in the work he is best fitted to do; (c) to educate and supervise the volunteer in his job; and (d) to integrate his work into the whole program. The volunteer on his part should accept his job as a definite responsibility, attend to his duties promptly and with regularity, and be willing to learn about the agency's program, methods, and objectives.

National Committee on Volunteers

The National Committee on Volunteers in Social Work is an informal committee which was organized in 1933 primarily to draw volunteers and board members into the National Conference of Social Work. Since its organization it has attempted to act as a clearing house for information on volunteer programs. It has no office of its own but makes its headquarters at the address of its chairman. Although the Committee has prepared some pamphlet material, its main objective has been to stimulate other agencies to take responsibility for

this sort of publication. For example, the Committee has urged national agencies to prepare material that will be of interest to volunteers in their particular fields and has itself prepared a bibliography[1] of that material. The Committee has made two studies of the status and functions of existing volunteer bureaus, the latest study being in 1937. This was followed by a study in 1939 of the job of the volunteer bureau executive.

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WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCES[1] on child welfare have been held in 1909, 1919, 1930, and 1939–1940, as described below.

Conference on the Care of Dependent Children, 1909

The first of the White House Conferences on child welfare met in Washington at the invitation of President Theodore Roosevelt on January 25–26, 1909. It was specifically a conference on the care of dependent children, and the men and women invited to participate were mainly persons actively engaged in child-caring work.

The call for the Conference suggested consideration of specific questions, including the following: establishment of a national children's bureau in one of the federal departments; state inspection of the work of child-caring agencies; incorporation of child-caring agencies; aid to parents "of worthy character but suffering from temporary misfortune," and to widows, to enable them to maintain suitable homes for the rearing of children; care of children in family homes whenever practicable; cottage plan institutions; supervision by state educational authorities over the educational work of children's institutions; cooperation among child-caring agencies and other social agencies for the purpose of removing the causes of orphanage, destitution, and delinquency; and the establishment of some

[1] Appended to *General Plan for a Volunteer Service Program* (*infra cit.*).

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

permanent committee or organization for the purpose of securing "better laws in relation to children, better organizations of child-caring agencies, and better methods of relief and aid to children."

The Conference resolutions included definite recommendations on all of these subjects, the most far-reaching of which is that relating to home care: "Home life is the highest and finest product of civilization. It is the great molding force of mind and character. Children should not be deprived of it except for urgent and compelling reasons." The recommendation that necessary aid should be given to maintain suitable homes, and that "the home should not be broken up for reasons of poverty, but only for considerations of inefficiency or immorality" served as the impetus for the "mothers' pension" movement which began in 1911. Methods of foster care have been greatly influenced by the emphasis placed by the Conference upon care in family homes and the cottage system of institutional care, and by recommendations concerning state inspection of child-caring agencies and incorporation of such organizations. The Conference recommended enactment of the bill then pending in Congress for the establishment of a federal children's bureau "to collect and disseminate information affecting the welfare of children." The United States Children's Bureau was established in 1912, and a few years later the Child Welfare League of America was organized as a national agency designed to carry out the Conference recommendation that a permanent voluntary agency be established in the field of care of dependent children.

Conferences on Child Welfare Standards, 1919

The Washington and Regional Conferences of 1919 were held under the auspices of the Children's Bureau as the conclusion of the program conducted by the Bureau during the second year of participation by the United States in the World War of 1914–1918, designated as "Children's Year." In the call for the Conference Julia C. Lathrop, Chief of the Children's Bureau, referred to the statement by President Wilson with reference to Children's Year: "I trust that the work may so successfully develop as to set up certain irreducible minimum standards for the health, education, and work of the American child." The Conference was financed from the President's emergency fund.

Sessions held in Washington on May 5–8, 1919, were followed by eight regional conferences. Attendance at the initial sessions included some 200 persons representing the various fields of child welfare. Eleven men and women from abroad, who had been engaged in the practical protection of children under war conditions in the allied countries, were guests of the Conference and took an active part in it.

The subjects discussed included (a) the economic and social basis for child welfare standards; (b) child labor: legislative prohibition of employment, legislative regulation of employment, vocational guidance, and placement; (c) the health of children and mothers: maternity and infancy, the preschool child, the school child; (d) children in need of special care: the function of the State, care of dependent children, care of juvenile delinquents, care of the mentally handicapped; and (e) standardization of child welfare laws.

The conclusions of the Conference were embodied in a series of standards formulated by committees representing the various fields of interest, as follows: minimum standards for children entering employment, minimum standards for the public protection of the health of children and mothers, and minimum standards for the protection of children in need of special care. These standards have greatly influenced activities in the fields of maternal and child health, child labor, and social protection and care of children, and have formed the basis of a large body of state child welfare legislation.

White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, 1930

The White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, called by President Hoover, assembled in Washington on November 19–22, 1930. The section on medical service, which had not completed its report at the time the main session was held, met in final session in February, 1931. Approximately 3,000 men and women, "leaders in the medical, educational, and social fields as they touch the life of the child," were in attendance at the November meetings. The call for the Conference, which went out in July, 1929, announced that the purpose was: "To study the present status of the health and well-being of the children of the United States and its possessions; to report what is being done; to recommend what ought to be done and how to do it."

Preliminary to the Conference sixteen months were devoted to study, research, and assembling of facts by 1,200 members of nearly 150 committees. Their findings were assembled under 17 main committees, divided into the following sections: Medical Service; Public Health Service and Administration; Education and Training; and The Handicapped: Prevention, Maintenance, Protection.

In addition to the Proceedings of the Conference, including addresses given at the opening session and abstracts of committee reports, some thirty volumes and a number of pamphlets and leaflets, classified under the five main headings, presented the findings of the various committees. The books dealing with social welfare include the following: *The Delinquent Child; The Handicapped Child: Physically and Mentally; Organization for the Care of Handicapped Children: National, State, and Local;* and *Dependent and Neglected Children.* The "Children's Charter" adopted by the Conference has been widely used as a goal for attainment of "the rights of the child as the first rights of citizenship." After the Conference sessions in Washington, follow-up activities were undertaken in many states and communities under the general guidance of the Conference staff.

White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, 1939–1940

The fourth White House Conference, on "Children in a Democracy," was organized at the suggestion of President Franklin D. Roosevelt under the chairmanship of Frances Perkins, Secretary of Labor, with Katharine F. Lenroot, Chief of the Children's Bureau, serving as executive secretary. Initial sessions were held April 26, 1939, for consideration of the scope and objectives of the Conference. The first meeting was held at the White House and was addressed by President Roosevelt as Honorary Chairman of the Conference. About 400 persons coming from most of the states and territories and representative of a wide range of organizations and interests directly or indirectly concerned with child welfare attended the initial sessions. The Conference membership, eventually comprising almost 700, included men and women engaged in various professions, particularly in the fields of health, education, and social service; economists; housing experts; persons representing the interests of church groups, recreational and leisure-time organizations, farm associations, labor, and industry; and groups concerned with child training, parent education, home making, and many other types of activity. About 150 voluntary national agencies and 30 federal agencies whose activities are in some way related to child welfare were represented in the membership.

The Conference was organized and guided by a planning committee comprised of some 70 persons. A small research staff headed by Philip Klein worked under the direction of a report committee representing the various fields of interest of the Conference, with Homer Folks as chairman. Many members of the Conference served as consultants on special subjects or participated in group discussions during the months intervening between the initial meetings and later sessions of the Conference, which were held Janu-

aty 18–20, 1940. The range of interests given special consideration by the Conference is indicated by the following topics which were the subject of special study and of group discussion at Conference sessions: (a) the family as the threshold of democracy, (b) economic resources of families and communities, (c) housing the family, (d) economic aid to families, (e) social services for children, (f) children in minority groups, (g) religion and children in a democracy, (h) health and medical care for children, (i) education through the school; libraries, (j) leisure-time services for children, and (k) child labor and youth employment.

More than 400 members of the Conference participated in the three-day sessions held in January, 1940, during which there were formal addresses, discussion by groups concerned with the topics of special study, and discussion of the general report submitted by the report committee. This report, a draft of which had been submitted to the entire membership in advance of the meetings, was adopted by the Conference as amended in the session on January 19, and was published in final form in May, 1940. The main topics dealt with in this report are: (a) the child in the family, (b) religion in the lives of children, (c) educational services in the community, (d) protection against child labor, (e) youth and their needs, (f) conserving the health of children, (g) children under special disadvantages, and (h) public administration and financing.

The last session of the January Conference was devoted to consideration of follow-up activities. The plan proposed included the creation of a non-governmental National Citizens Committee to which responsibility would be given for leadership in the follow-up program, and a Federal Inter-Agency Committee. The latter, composed of representatives of 30 federal agencies, was organized in March, 1940, for the purpose of coordinating the work of federal departments in cooperation with the National Citizens Committee and state and local organizations engaged in follow-up programs.

Organization of the National Citizens Committee, comprising 25 members, was completed June 17, 1940. Its by-laws state:

> The object of the committee shall be to give Nation-wide citizens' leadership in developing long-range and immediate programs for carrying into effect the recommendations of the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, including specifically the following:
>
> (a) Cooperation with the Federal Inter-Agency Committee of the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy.
>
> (b) Dissemination of information concerning the Conference and its recommendations and follow-up activities.
>
> (c) Stimulation and aid in the development of State follow-up programs.
>
> (d) Enlisting the cooperation of voluntary agencies interested in the well-being of children, for the purpose of carrying forward the objectives of the Conference.
>
> (e) Consideration of the special needs of children growing out of emergency conditions, and cooperation with other organizations engaged in conserving and advancing the health, education, home care, and social protection of children under such conditions.

Within a few months after the sessions of the Conference, follow-up activities had been begun in several states. Impetus and direction will be given to the development of state programs by the National Citizens Committee.

The National Citizens Committee at its first meeting adopted "Resolutions Relating to Follow-up Program" as follows:

> The National Citizens Committee on Children in a Democracy, appointed to develop and carry out a program for making effective the conclusions and recommendations of the White House Conference,
>
> 1. Calls upon every citizen and all organizations and professional associations concerned with human welfare to do their

share in helping our democracy serve the needs of every child and prepare our children and youth for service to democracy. To this end it urges:

(a) Study of the Report and Recommendations of the 1940 White House Conference on Children in a Democracy.

(b) Cooperation in the organization of State-wide activities for making effective in every community the goals of the nation for its children.

(c) Cooperation by public officials, churches, schools, clubs, and all National, State, and local associations and agencies interested in children in advancing toward the goals set by the Conference for the next ten years.

2. Calls upon the people of the country to maintain and extend essential services for maternal and child health, home conservation and family maintenance, education, child labor administration and youth guidance, and social protection and care of children to the end that such services may be available as needed to every child and especially to children whose welfare may be threatened by conditions growing out of the world crisis.

Because of the emergency situation then existing, the following declarations on "Child Conservation and National Defense" were issued by the National Citizens Committee, June 17, 1940:

The National Citizens Committee, created by the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy to give National leadership in making the Conference recommendations effective, is convinced that the program adopted by that Conference will make for the National unity so sorely needed at this time, and will strengthen the democratic institutions of our country. The Committee believes that child welfare and National security are inseparable and affirms that:

1. The defense of democracy calls for the appreciation of the dignity and worth of the individual and concern for the young, the helpless, the needy, and the aged. Support of public and private services for children should be sustained as an essential part of a National defense program.

2. National effectiveness requires further development of cooperation and self-discipline among our citizens. To destroy our liberties in an effort to protect them would be a tragic blunder. Denial of civil liberties, resort to mob action and other extra-legal procedures, and throttling of free discussion of public issues will not advance the cause of democracy at home or abroad.

3. To be strong a people must be well-nourished. Proper food for mothers and children depends upon such factors as agricultural production and distribution, maintenance of family income, and education in nutrition.

4. Health services and medical care for all, particularly for mothers, children, and youth, should be maintained and extended.

5. Educational opportunity adapted to present-day needs should be made available to all children, to youth until they secure employment, and to adults as required for vocational efficiency and for citizenship.

6. Standards now provided under Federal and State child labor laws should be preserved and similar safeguards should be extended to children needing but not now receiving such protection. The National strength does not need the labor of children.

7. Work opportunities should be made available for all youth who have completed their schooling, with necessary safeguards for their health, education, and welfare.

8. The gains under Federal and State legislation for the conservation of home life for children in need should be maintained and developed, with more active State and local participation.

9. We must consider ways in which we may help to safeguard the children of other lands from such misfortunes as hunger and homelessness. We cannot consider the needs of the children of this Nation and ignore the hardships visited upon children elsewhere.

10. The social gains of the past decade should be maintained in the present critical period. Standards of family living should have an important place in the program of the Advisory Commission to the Council of National Defense. The Advisory Commission should consider ways in which health, educational opportunity, and the social well-being of families and their children may be

conserved and advanced as essential elements in a National defense program.

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WORK RELIEF, a form of employment provided by either governmental or private agencies, may be distinguished from other public or private employment in four ways: (a) it is given primarily on the basis of economic need, and workers once employed are usually permitted to remain in employment only so long as they continue to be in need; (b) jobs undertaken, useful and necessary though they may be, are selected and prosecuted primarily because they are needed to give employment to needy workers; (c) earnings, whether paid in cash or in kind, are usually limited to an amount considered necessary to meet elemental needs of workers and their families, although hourly rates of pay may equal those prevailing in the same community for similar work; and (d) standards of performance frequently fall below those maintained in other employment largely because of maladaptation of jobs to workers, necessity of working under conditions which would cause discontinuance of normal employment, the relative unemployability of many workers, and desire on the part of authorities to get at least something in return for relief granted.

Especially when payment of work relief wages is made in kind, when conditions of work are relatively onerous, and when work is required as a sort of punishment for being poor, work relief programs are sometimes called "work-for-relief" or even "work-or-starve" programs.

It is frequently difficult to distinguish clearly between work relief and certain other types of work—sometimes termed relief work—put into operation in times of depression to mitigate the effects of unemployment. Public works that might be termed relief work, because launched primarily to offset the social and economic effects of widespread unemployment, have been greatly expanded since 1932 through loans by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation (RFC) and through loans and grants by the Public Works Administration (PWA).

Historically, work relief may be traced in the operation of the poor laws throughout the past three hundred years. These poor laws have authorized the setting to work of able-bodied "paupers" in workhouses, labor yards, on public roads, streets, and other projects. In the United States, work relief received its first support from the federal government in 1932, although it had been provided during earlier depressions by both

private and governmental agencies. The first federal funds for relief were made available to state and local governments by the RFC on a loan basis. Numbers employed on work relief projects financed at least in part from federal funds had, by March and April, 1933, reached an estimated total of approximately 2,000,000 persons. In May, 1933, with the organization of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration (FERA), outright federal grants (instead of loans, as previously) became available for work relief as well as direct relief. Numbers employed remained much as they had been before the organization of the FERA, although conditions of work were greatly improved by federal supervision.

Failure of the nation's public works program to expand as rapidly as expected led in November, 1933, to the establishment of the hybtid work and relief program of the Civil Works Administration (CWA) which in January, 1934, only two months after the program's inauguration, employed over 4,000,000 workers, half of whom were supposed to have been taken from relief rolls and half from among other unemployed workers. After reaching this peak, CWA employment was sharply curtailed and by May was practically discontinued, the agency having fulfilled its mission of helping to tide the nation over a hard and what would otherwise have been a harder winter. Upon conclusion of this program, work relief under supervision of the FERA—which had been continued throughout the CWA days —again assumed primary importance. By late 1934 and early 1935, when the administration's proposals for the federal Works Program were first announced, employment on work relief projects was well over 2,000,000 a month.

Work Projects Administration

The so-called Works Program, initiated in 1935, was a federally operated program designed to provide employment for 3,500,000 employable persons to be taken from relief rolls. Work undertaken varied from genuine public works (prosecuted by such agencies as the PWA and the Bureau of Public Roads, United States Department of Agriculture) to outright work relief. The latter was provided primarily by the Works Progress Administration (WPA). This agency, now the Work Projects Administration (WPA), has continued to be the agency primarily responsible for providing employment for needy employable workers.

Employment

In 1936, the first full year of the WPA program, an average of 2,544,000 workers were employed. The average number employed during 1939 was approximately the same as in 1936, while average employment in 1937 was lower and that for 1938 higher than the levels of 1936 and 1939. *See* Table I.

During the four years 1936 through 1939, WPA employment ranged from a low point of a little over 1,400,000 in September and October, 1937, to over 3,200,000 in November, 1938. Employment in sixteen of the forty-eight months of this period ranged from 2,000,000 to less than 2,500,000; in fourteen of the months, from 2,500,000 to less than 3,000,000; in ten of the months, from 1,500,000 to less than 2,000,000; in six of the months, from 3,000,000 to less than 3,500,000; and in two of the months, from under 1,500,000. During the first six months of 1940 it ranged from 2,235,000, in March, to 1,670,000, in June.

When compared with estimated unemployment, numbers employed by the WPA from time to time have ranged from 16 or 17 per 100 unemployed workers, as in the late fall and winter of 1937–1938, to more than 30 per 100 unemployed workers, as in the months of October and November in both 1936 and 1938—election months, critics of the administration like to point out. Despite apparently large numbers employed by the WPA, employment has on the whole been provided for only about one-fourth the

total number estimated as unemployed and only about one-half the number estimated from time to time to be unemployed, in need, and eligible for employment.

The average number employed throughout each of the years 1936 through 1939 in the United States as a whole and in the several states is presented in Table I. Employment in several of the larger states, notably Illinois, Michigan, New York, Ohio, and Pennsylvania, has exceeded that of some of the nation's largest industrial concerns.

TABLE I

Annual Average Number Employed by the WPA by States and by Years 1936 Through 1939

	Number employed			
State	*1936*	*1937*	*1938*	*1939*
United States	2,544,355	1,792,525	2,717,125	2,323,889
Alabama	35,637	23,693	47,159	48,964
Arizona	10,310	7,328	10,111	7,413
Arkansas	34,635	23,116	40,250	42,416
California	121,817	88,895	101,466	93,740
Colorado	31,848	19,957	28,774	22,449
Connecticut	23,576	16,413	25,651	21,602
Delaware	2,594	1,919	3,390	2,888
District of Columbia	7,875	6,173	10,049	9,715
Florida	29,112	23,840	40,674	41,381
Georgia	40,241	26,170	49,830	51,064
Idaho	8,568	5,762	10,111	9,180
Illinois	173,467	127,780	214,318	184,462
Indiana	73,273	52,507	88,463	70,008
Iowa	27,177	20,010	31,152	25,146
Kansas	42,427	31,220	35,215	26,545
Kentucky	55,218	42,309	60,467	50,507
Louisiana	40,143	27,107	39,312	40,189
Maine	8,475	4,583	8,586	7,612
Maryland	15,854	10,753	13,806	12,903
Massachusetts	108,481	76,089	111,186	97,044
Michigan	81,996	52,164	149,144	111,480
Minnesota	54,115	38,628	60,631	51,191
Mississippi	30,364	19,857	36,959	39,139
Missouri	83,139	64,291	96,486	82,824
Montana	16,241	10,957	19,780	13,781
Nebraska	21,692	19,434	28,295	24,613
Nevada	2,254	1,718	2,390	1,828
New Hampshire	8,893	6,092	9,356	7,985
New Jersey	84,696	66,128	92,146	75,591
New Mexico	9,846	7,326	10,956	10,826
New York	324,469	226,298	225,365	187,423
North Carolina	33,657	22,600	40,175	40,673
North Dakota	22,770	12,895	14,412	11,462
Ohio	158,544	104,077	231,234	187,045
Oklahoma	70,864	45,423	64,548	51,436
Oregon	16,521	12,794	16,822	14,749
Pennsylvania	250,434	181,969	244,919	179,209
Rhode Island	12,471	10,418	15,161	12,979
South Carolina	27,689	19,416	37,717	38,285
South Dakota	26,318	14,775	15,479	13,244
Tennessee	39,626	23,933	38,933	41,152
Texas	87,879	63,116	86,001	88,784
Utah	11,094	7,171	11,088	10,358
Vermont	4,720	2,993	6,058	4,663
Virginia	29,733	19,509	24,691	23,535
Washington	31,884	26,549	46,819	32,907
West Virginia	47,100	32,524	45,851	38,453
Wisconsin	60,393	41,518	71,621	59,754
Wyoming	4,225	2,326	4,178	3,309

Throughout the United States as a whole the number employed by the WPA per 10,000 estimated population averaged 198 in 1936, 139 in 1937, 210 in 1938, and 180 in 1939. Among the several states, however, these proportions varied widely. States which in one year or another since 1935 had an incidence of WPA jobs at least half again as high as the national average are: Colorado, Montana, North Dakota, Ohio, and South Dakota. States in which the incidence of WPA jobs in one year or another were only about half or less than half the national average are: Delaware, Iowa, Maine, Maryland, North Carolina, and Virginia.

Problems involved in determining the number to be employed in each state from month to month have been among the most difficult of the many complicated issues confronting the WPA. Critics have charged that political considerations frequently have dictated the allocation of jobs to states. They have therefore urged Congress to adopt some formula that would control this all-important aspect of the WPA program and end alleged abuses. In 1940 the Commissioner of Work Projects announced to a committee of the House of Representatives that he had voluntarily adopted a formula allocating 40 per cent of available jobs on the basis of state population, 40 per cent on the basis of estimated unemployment in the several states, and 20 per cent in the discretion of federal officials upon recommendation of regional directors.

The total number to be employed by the WPA from month to month and from year to year has never been determined in accordance with any consistent philosophy. Important effects of the utter lack of any predictable or defined policy have been that many needy unemployed people and their families have not been provided for at all, and that state and local governments have been compelled to assume unanticipated and unplanned-for responsibilities for their support. In sharp contrast with well-defined and predictable responsibilities assumed under the Social Security Act, the federal government's role in providing employment for needy employable workers has remained fortuitous, vacillating, and undefined. *See* PUBLIC ASSISTANCE.

Hope which any observers might once have held that unemployment compensation would materially reduce need for WPA employment was rudely dispelled as benefits became payable in one state and then another without appreciable diminution of need for WPA jobs. *See* UNEMPLOYMENT COMPENSATION.

Eligibility

To be given WPA employment, workers must be employable, at least eighteen years of age, citizens of the United States (or Indians owing allegiance to the United States), and, with but few exceptions, must be in need. The first prohibitions against employment of certain aliens have been broadened gradually each year since 1936—when Congress forbade employment only of those known to be illegally within the United States—until the employment of all non-citizens was prohibited early in 1939. The Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1939 prohibited employment of persons who advocated or belonged to organizations advocating the overthrow of the government of the United States by force or violence. This provision was of no importance in practice, however, as WPA officials were unable to discover any organizations to which it was applicable. In 1940 Congress went further, therefore, and denied employment to Communists, to members of "any Nazi Bund Organization," and to those who advocate or belong to organizations which advocate "the overthrow of the Government of the United States"—whether or not by force or violence.

All workers (except veterans, unmarried widows of veterans, and wives of unemployable veterans) continuously employed by the WPA for as long as eighteen months must be automatically discharged. After thirty days they may again be employed provided they are in need and provided jobs

are available. Surveys made by the WPA show that this automatic discontinuance of employment results in great hardship and distress.

Questions as to whether or not certain workers are employable are among the most difficult confronting the WPA, for they are relative and depend almost as much upon the nature of available jobs as upon the characteristics of workers. When the decision of the WPA in this regard differs from that of local relief agencies, extreme hardship has been found to result, particularly where relief is denied to supposedly employable workers.

An equally difficult problem is that of measuring the economic need of applicants and workers. When the WPA program was established in 1935, employment—with but few exceptions—was restricted to persons who had actually received relief. This requirement was modified by Congress in 1936 when a provision written into law declared that persons who were in need but not receiving relief should also be eligible for employment. Although this policy is still supposed to be in effect, it is vitiated in many important areas (such as California, Illinois, New York City, and Pennsylvania) where employment by the WPA is, for all practical purposes, limited to persons who have received relief. Although as many as 5 per cent of the jobs provided by the WPA may be given to workers who have not been found to be in need, the number of such persons actually employed has, according to WPA reports, consistently fallen below the allowable proportion.

Employment by the WPA is conditioned not only upon need but also upon relative need, applicants with no income being granted preference over those with some income. Within each of these two groups veterans, unmarried widows of veterans, and wives of unemployable veterans are given preference over others.

Length of residence in a given state or locality is not supposed to be a consideration for WPA employment. Nevertheless, since employment in many areas is dependent upon receipt of relief, and since residence and settlement continue to be considerations in the granting of relief, they automatically affect eligibility for WPA employment. In other areas where receipt of relief is not a necessary prelude to WPA employment, residence is an important consideration, federal rules and regulations notwithstanding.

Ascertainment of the economic need of applicants for WPA jobs is usually a function of state and local public welfare or relief agencies. *See* PUBLIC WELFARE. These, however, have sometimes proved so inadequate, uncooperative, or unreliable that the WPA itself has taken over the responsibility. During the fall of 1938, for example, the WPA was wholly or in large measure responsible for investigations of eligibility in a large proportion of the states, although by March, 1940, it was reported to be making its own investigations in fewer states than formerly. WPA officials in 1940 requested permission to expend not more than $5,000,000 to help state and local agencies meet the cost of investigating eligibility for WPA employment, provided these agencies met prescribed federal standards. This provision was not, however, incorporated in law. Responsibility for investigating the continued need of workers already employed on WPA jobs is normally that of the WPA, though it is sometimes assumed by state or local agencies.

Standards by which applicants are adjudged to be in need vary not only from place to place but, in a given area, are likely to become more stringent as WPA employment decreases, and to be relaxed as employment increases. Standards vary also according to whether or not an applicant is already employed by the WPA. Measures of need used in the periodic reviews of the eligibility of workers already employed are, as a rule, more liberal than those applied to applicants seeking jobs.

Federal law and rules and regulations impose severe penalties for discriminating

against WPA workers or applicants for WPA jobs because of their politics, race, religion, membership in a labor organization, or for any other cause.

Earnings

WPA workers are remunerated in accordance with a schedule of monthly earnings which prescribes the maximum amounts to be paid various types of workers. Earnings vary in accordance with the geographic area in which work is done and with the kind of work performed; but since 1939, wages for any one kind of work may not vary from one locality to another more than may be justified by differences in the cost of living. Geographically, the nation is divided into three wage regions[1] comprising roughly the northern and central states, those in the West and Southwest, and the southern states. Wage rates, as might be expected, are lowest in the southern states. Surprisingly enough, however, half the scheduled rates (those applicable in communities of less than 25,000 population) for the western and southwestern states, such as Arizona, Colorado, Nevada, and New Mexico, are higher than those for northern and central states, such as Illinois, Michigan, New York, and Pennsylvania. The theory behind this is that persons in small communities in the West and Southwest probably have less supplementary income and other resources than do persons living in the northern and central states. Within each wage region, rates vary in accordance with the population of the largest municipality in the county in which work is performed, wage rates being highest in counties in which the population of the largest municipality is at least 100,000, and lowest in counties in which the largest municipality is of less than 5,000 population. In metropolitan areas the wage rate for the largest city applies to the entire area.

Earnings are also graduated according to types of work, which are classified into four general groups: professional and technical, skilled, intermediate, and unskilled. The skilled group is divided into two subgroups, "A" and "B," the latter receiving the lowest wage rate and comprising such workers as elevator operators, seamstresses, flagmen, and messengers, who may be paid from $31.20 to $52.00 a month, depending upon where they work. By far the largest proportion of workers (62.7 per cent, as of December, 1939) are in Group A of the unskilled wage class. Monthly rates for this work range from $35.10 to $50.70 in Region III, to $49.40 to $57.20 in Region II. Second in importance, so far as numbers employed are concerned, is the intermediate wage class. Rates for this group range from $42.90 to $61.10 in Region III, to $59.80 to $68.90 in Region II. Workers in the highest wage class may receive from $55.90 to $81.90 per month in Region III, and from $78.00 to $94.90 in Region II.

Determined as they are by the kind of work done and by the place where it is done, WPA wages obviously are unrelated to individual or family needs. Although the emergency relief appropriation acts of 1939 and 1940 both authorized the WPA to adjust the hours of workers having no dependents so that they would earn a lower monthly wage than that paid other workers, the power has not yet been used.

Under normal circumstances, WPA employes are expected to work one hundred and thirty hours a month, a requirement first written into the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1939. Although monthly earnings ptior to this action were limited to the scheduled amounts, hourly rates of pay were those prevailing in each community

[1] Effective September 1, 1939, Region I consisted of Connecticut, Delaware, the District of Columbia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Vermont, West Virginia, and Wisconsin; Region II of Arizona, California, Colorado, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Oregon, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming; and Region III of Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia.

for the type of work done. Thus the number of hours any group of workers was employed was a resultant of their monthly and hourly rates of pay. New York City alone had approximately 125 different schedules of working hours. Hours for different groups of workers sometimes varied from as few as fifty to as many as one hundred and forty per month. The change requiring one hundred and thirty hours' work was requested by WPA officials to permit more efficient scheduling of work, to reduce competition for jobs which workers might otherwise perform while not engaged on their WPA jobs, and to reduce public criticism arising from the fact that some WPA employes could earn their month's wage in a week, leaving them unoccupied the remainder of the month.

Actual earnings of WPA workers throughout the United States averaged approximately $54 a month in July, 1940. Families relying upon this wage for support comprise, on the average, 3.76 petsons. Although WPA earnings are relatively high in comparison with benefits granted under other relief programs, they have been regarded as inadequate in certain areas and are supplemented from relief funds.

Organization and Administration

In 1939 the WPA, headed by a commissioner appointed by the President, was placed under the Federal Works Agency by Reorganization Plan No. I. It had previously been an independent agency. Some 1,500 administrative workers were employed in the headquarters office of the WPA in Washington in February, 1940. In the same month there were nine regional offices, each employing from 20 to 30 workers headed by a regional director.

In each state and in New York City there is a WPA set-up headed by an administrator responsible to the federal commissioner and appointed by him subject to Senate approval. Within each state the WPA is organized on a district basis. State and district offices early in 1940 employed a total of some 25,000 workers. Despite frequent requests from the administration, Congress repeatedly has thwarted efforts to place WPA administrative employes—federal, state, and district—under civil service.

The WPA program, as distinguished from the WPA as an administrative organization, is a peculiar hybrid: it is neither highly centralized nor yet decentralized. For example, although federally controlled state and district WPA offices are responsible for the execution of projects once they are put into operation, the WPA itself cannot undertake projects unless they are sponsored by some local, state, or federal governmental agency which is willing and able to initiate the project and meet part of the cost. Thus, if no agencies can be found to sponsor projects, or if they initiate only second-rate projects, the WPA program suffers and there is little the WPA officials can do about it. Similarly, local and state control over processes of referring workers to WPA jobs reduces materially the degree to which the WPA can control its own program. Nowhere is there formal provision for effective appeal to the WPA by applicants to whom local or state relief agencies deny consideration for WPA employment.

WPA officials boast that costs of administration comprise only about 5 per cent of their total expenditures. This is an understatement, however, for it fails to take into consideration expenditures made in connection with the administration of the WPA program by other federal agencies (such as the United States Treasury Department, which is responsible for certain functions such as auditing, writing checks, and purchasing supplies and equipment) and excludes also expenditures made by local and state relief agencies investigating the eligibility of applicants for employment.

Expenditures

Costs of the WPA program to February, 1940, totaled some 7.6 billion dollars from federal funds alone. In addition, substantial contributions were made by local and

and will "freeze out" of the labor market entirely many workers now attached to it, and will eventually jeopardize the payment of adequate unemployment compensation benefits to the workers. No attempts to evaluate these arguments can be made here.

The situation now is that a vast majority of the states (and perhaps eventually nearly all of them) will establish in 1941 some system of tax variation in accordance with either the experience rating or the employer-reserve principle. The significance of this development is as yet very little appreciated by students of unemployment compensation, by employers, by labor, or by the general public; yet it is of fundamental importance.

In the history of unemployment compensation the year 1940 marks the end of the first epoch; the next few years may mark the development of a new era. The basic significance of the change is this. Thus far, unemployment compensation in the states has been maintained through the device of a uniform equalizing federal tax. This has to date provided in every state adequate funds for the payment of the benefits set forth in the state law. In some states the benefit structure has recently been liberalized, the duration of benefits has been extended, and the size of the benefit payments has been markedly increased. In practically all states the status of the trust funds at present would warrant further extensions of benefits in the direction of greater adequacy. Were the present tax levels to be maintained, this would inevitably happen. It is this fact which explains the pressure of the labor groups for the upward revision of the benefit structure in every state.

On the other hand, with experience rating about to be inaugurated, the size of the trust funds in the great majority of states is such that widespread reductions in taxes are possible. The employing groups generally are interested in such tax reductions. However, the only method which now exists for the achievement of that tax reduction is by means of experience rating. No state could today establish any flat uniform reduction from the 2.7 per cent basic rate, even though it might wish to do so. Such a pooled reduction could not be recognized by the Social Security Board or the federal Treasury. However, if the state establishes a system of differential tax reduction based on the employment or benefit-paying experience of the different employers in the state, then the Board and the Treasury are required to recognize the changes in the basic tax rate. The effect of this circumstance is to push the states in the direction of experience rating, even though (as in a few at least) they might themselves prefer to maintain complete pooling. Hence, there is great likelihood that widespread reductions in employer taxes by means of experience rating will be inaugurated in 1941 and will be extended in succeeding years.

Minimum Benefit Standards

This development, when and if it occurs, will bring sharply into focus another basic issue of the early days of the Committee on Economic Security, namely, the establishment in the federal Act of required minimum benefit standards for the states. This issue will rise sharply in public consciousness as experience rating develops into full operation. The reason is this: experience rating will on the whole generally reduce individual employer contributions and, therefore, reduce the receipts available each year for the trust fund. Since there are no definable limits to this reduction specified in the federal Act, this situation may continue (at least in some states) until the receipts are scarcely more than the benefit payments. The question might then arise as to whether benefit payments themselves might not be further cut down, not perhaps directly through cuts in benefit payments but possibly indirectly through coverage, eligibility, or disqualification provisions of state laws. The adoption of seasonal regulations for employers (such as the provision that no benefits will be paid to workers unemployed during periods of the year outside the regular season) offers great possibilities

as a device for further restricting benefit payments in a number of states.

At its worst, the result of this whole trend might be the reintroduction of interstate competition, this time in the direction of reducing taxes, limiting benefits, obtaining further reduction in taxes, and so on in a downward spiral. This in turn would undermine the benefit structure in the more progressive states and establish for the first time in unemployment compensation the deplorable system of interstate competition which has so limited and weakened accident compensation in the states.

This prospect has served to re-emphasize the need for some minimum benefit standards to be established, so that there may be some limit to this backward movement. At various times, in proposed federal legislation, such minimum standards have been worked out. However, no set of such standards has yet been adopted by Congress. It seems likely that as experience rating goes into effect, the drive of the labor groups for minimum standards to put a limitation upon interstate competition may be greatly intensified. It is quite clear that in the absence of such standards diversity among the states with respect to unemployment compensation will increase, with possibly some downward tendency in benefits. The full operation of experience rating may intensify the pressure for the adoption of minimum benefit standards in the federal Act.

Establishment of Separate Systems

Another event of the past three years which may have an important bearing upon the future structure of unemployment compensation in the United States is the establishment of a separate railroad unemployment insurance system. When the Social Security Act was originally passed, it was definitely implied that the railroad industry of the country was covered under the various state laws. Nevertheless, certain complications arose. Two of the states definitely excluded interstate railroads from coverage in the states, even though the federal unemployment tax was imposed on those railroads. Even in other states the railroads sometimes had difficulty in persuading state agencies to accept railroad tax contributions and to provide coverage for their workers. Among the railroad workers themselves there arose some dissatisfaction with the benefit payment procedures of the states with respect to those workers who, in the normal course of their work, crossed state lines.

The result was that in 1938 the railroad unemployment insurance law was passed, establishing a special system for the railroad industry and removing the railroad companies and their workers from coverage under state laws. This railroad unemployment insurance system differs in many details from the state systems established under the Social Security Act. *See* RAILROAD WORKERS' INSURANCE.

It now appears likely that this development may turn out to be merely the first of a series. In the third session of the 75th Congress, efforts were begun for the passage of a special maritime unemployment insurance system covering certain types of seamen. It is possible that other nationwide industries may later bring pressure for such special legislation.

Merit System in Administration

An important development of 1939 was the amendment of the Social Security Act to provide for the establishment and maintenance of personnel merit systems in the state agencies administering unemployment compensation. *See* PERSONNEL PRACTICES IN PUBLIC WELFARE. Under the original Act, the Social Security Board was empowered to withhold administrative funds from state agencies unless the latter provided methods of administration "reasonably calculated to insure full payment of unemployment compensation when due." Included within this section, howevet, was a parenthetical clause specifying that the state methods of administration to be appraised by the Social Security Board should not include

"the selection, tenure of office, or compensation of personnel." The effect of this parenthetical clause was to limit the powers of the Board with respect to the establishment of merit or civil service systems in the state.

In the social security amendments of 1939 the above parenthetical clause was stricken from the Act and the following substituted: "(including after January 1, 1940, methods relating to the establishment and maintenance of personnel standards on a merit basis, except that the Board shall exercise no authority with respect to the selection, tenure of office, and compensation of any individual employed in accordance with such methods)." This new provision specifically requires the states in their legislation to include provision for the establishment and maintenance of personnel standards on a merit basis. The effect of this has been to bring under the merit system practically the entire staffs of all state agencies (the positions exempt under the Board regulations being very few). The significance of this development for the future administration of unemployment compensation can scarcely be exaggerated.

Relationships to Other Programs

The administration of the Social Security Act at the federal level was entrusted to the Social Security Board, established by the Act itself. This Board established a Bureau of Unemployment Compensation, which was charged with responsibility for the general supervision of the state systems which were created. The states in turn established unemployment compensation agencies to administer the law within the states.

The most significant organizational problem which developed in these early years was that of the employment service. As noted above, the Social Security Board was required to have the payments of benefits in the states made through public employment offices. Of necessity the unemployment compensation agencies and the public employment offices in the states were closely related. However, at the federal level the unemployment compensation program was being administered by the Social Security Board as an independent agency, while the United States Employment Service was located in the federal Department of Labor. So two state agencies, required by federal legislation to work closely together, found themselves reporting to two distinct federal agencies.

From the very beginning an earnest effort was made to coordinate the functioning of these federal agencies. In 1937 a joint agreement was signed by the Secretary of Labor and the Chairman of the Social Security Board, and a system of close collaboration between the Bureau of Unemployment Compensation and the United States Employment Setvice was established. But it eventually became evident that the two agencies at the federal level would have to be combined if there was to be effective integration of the state agencies. This was finally done in July, 1939, through the President's Reorganization Plan No. I, which shifted the United States Employment Service from the Department of Labor to the Social Security Board where it was merged with the Bureau of Unemployment Compensation to create a new Bureau of Employment Security performing both functions. This development served to hasten also the integration of these two services in the states, so that the general pattern in the latter has become that of a single state agency performing both unemployment compensation and employment service functions. *See* EMPLOYMENT SERVICES.

Another of the basic problems encountered in the administration of unemployment compensation has been the relationship to other insurance and welfare agencies. For purposes of this discussion, the most important of these are the state and local relief agencies and the Work Projects Administration (WPA). *See* PUBLIC ASSISTANCE and WORK RELIEF. In the first year of unemployment compensation benefit payments in each state, a difficult situation

arose because of the fact that these other agencies were already operating when unemployment compensation began. The result was that many of the unemployment compensation beneficiaries were unemployed and already on the general relief rolls in the locality, or working for the WPA, when their unemployment compensation benefit rights became due. The problem created by this situation was that the workers who were already provided for on relief or WPA were not eager to give up their existing status in order to exercise their unemployment compensation rights, particularly since a waiting period of three weeks was usually required, the benefit payments were frequently less than the wages earned on WPA or the relief payments received by the worker's family, and the duration of payments was limited.

Thus, unemployment compensation seemed not so much a first line of defense against unemployment as a special system inserted into the unemployment problem. This, however, was felt to be a passing phase, arising from the fact that these agencies were already in operation when the compensation system began. But as successive years of benefit payment passed by, this situation did not wholly right itself. The duration of unemployment compensation was ordinarily twelve, thirteen, or sixteen weeks at most. Unemployed workers soon exhausted their benefit rights for the year and were not eligible for further unemployment compensation until a new benefit year rolled around. In the meantime, many got on relief or obtained work with the WPA; and when the new benefit year came in, the original situation was repeated all over again. Furthermore, WPA wages on the whole continued to be somewhat higher than the benefit payments received by workers, although many of the states took actions which improved the level of benefit payments, particularly at the lower levels.

At the present time there are still a number of unsolved problems in the relationship of unemployment compensation to these other agencies dealing with unemployment. Although some improvements in unemployment compensation have been made, it is still a question whether the duration of benefits and the level of benefits are such as to provide a secure place for unemployment compensation in the security program of the nation. If unemployment compensation as a device for providing security for the unemployed is to survive, it must be of such scope as to demonstrate to the public, to workers, and to employers that it is the best method for dealing with short-term unemployment. It can never be the sole method of dealing with the problem of unemployment, for supplementary systems have always been necessary for the long term. The exact relationship between unemployment compensation and other programs remains still to be worked out in this country.

The emergence of the national defense program in the spring and summer of 1940 provided an important test of the employment security program, comprising unemployment compensation and the employment service. It has always been a cardinal point in the administration of unemployment compensation that the first effort of the agency on behalf of the unemployed worker should be directed toward obtaining a job for him; benefits are paid only when this first effort fails. Consequently, an unemployment compensation system must be implemented by an efficient employment service.

With the advent of the national defense program, there was a basic change in the labor market situation in the United States. Instead of the surplus of labor which existed in almost all the occupations required in private industry or government work, there came a time when shortages began to appear. The employment service, as the agency primarily responsible for the organization of the labor market, had its opportunity to demonstrate its capacity in the national emergency. The service was thus able for the first time since its establishment to perform its functions under pressure of

private industrial expansion. The nation-wide organization, consisting of 1,500 local offices and over 3,000 itinerant points, touched every industrial area of the entire country and was a mechanism capable not only of serving local employment needs as they arose, but also of transferring labor within states or between states, from north to south or from east to west, as required. The performance of the employment service in this emergency has constituted strong evidence of the viral significance of this joint program for job security, and has in all likelihood cemented its position as the key agency in the labor market for many years to come.

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EWAN CLAGUE

VETERANS.[1] The problem of public care for disabled soldiers and veterans has presented itself to this country since colonial days. The first national pension law for widows and children (of officers only) was passed in 1778. The legislation, first based on disabilities resulting from service, was liberalized in 1818 to require only service

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

itself and the "need of assistance from the country for support." In 1832, full pay for life was given all who served during a certain period. Widows were pensioned in 1836 regardless of the cause of the soldier's death, the last widow pensioned under this law dying in 1906.

Except that establishment of need for assistance was rarely required, a similar pattern of legislation followed later wars. Disability resulting from military or naval service was at first required; later, only disability from some condition, regardless of cause; and, finally, only the attainment of a certain age, regardless of income or property.[1]

On June 30, 1940, 2,381 living Civil War veterans and dependents of 50,141 deceased veterans were receiving pension. During the fiscal year 1939–1940, $27,790,253 was paid in Civil War and $127,427,376 in Spanish War pensions. On June 30, 1940, 159,230 Spanish War veterans and the dependents of 57,720 deceased veterans were receiving pension. In 1940 one person was still receiving pension on account of service rendered by her father, a soldier in the War of 1812.

The Veterans Administration, a federal agency, administers two types of federal benefits: (a) monetary, consisting of compensation, pensions, emergency officers' retirement pay, and government insurance; and (b) medical and hospital treatment and domiciliary care. It has a central office in Washington, field stations in every state except Delaware (which is under the Philadelphia office), and insular offices in the Philippines, Puerto Rico, and Hawaii. The field stations consist of either a regional office or hospital, or some combination of regional office, hospital, and institution giving domiciliary care.

War Risk Insurance Act

On October 6, 1917, six months after declaration of war on Germany, the United States Congress amended the War Risk Insurance Act to incorporate a modern, rounded, well-balanced system of benefits for those who served in that war, and for their dependents. This program, based upon studies of advisory experts, included these new principles:

Government support allowances to supplement the allotment made by the enlisted man to his family.

Government insurance against death and permanent total disability, in policies up to a maximum of $10,000 each, at low rates. (Converted into other forms of government insurance and carried by both service men and veterans, 608,923 policies amounting to $2,564,984,223 were in force in June, 1940.)

Medical and hospital treatment for diseases and injuries that were incurred in or aggravated by military or naval service. Pensioners formerly could have procured such treatment only upon admission to a National Home for Disabled Volunteer Soldiers, the United States Soldiers' Home in Washington, or the United States Naval Home in Philadelphia.

Vocational rehabilitation of the disabled.

Payments of "disability compensation," to replace the unsound, antiquated "pension system." The experience of various states in administering their workmen's compensation acts was studied in devising this measure. In evaluating disability under this provision, the consideration is not so much the disease or injury *per se* as it is the relative disability resulting therefrom.

At nearly every session of Congress since the enactment of this historic Act, amendments have been made to it. Two particularly far-reaching changes in 1924 and 1930, respectively, were the following: (a) the presumption of service origin for disabilities from certain diseases, among them neuropsychiatric and tuberculous conditions, when found to have existed before January 1, 1925 (a date more than six years after the Armistice); and (b) the principle of paying benefits to World War veterans for disabilities not incurred in or aggravated by military or naval service. At present, under the Economy Act of March, 1933, such disabilities entitle veterans to payment of a

[1] *See* Glasson, *infra cit.*

pension ($30 a month) only if permanent and total.

Monetary Benefits

In general, veterans of wars or their dependents may receive monetary benefits for disability or death from service-connected conditions; and, under certain circumstances, for disability or death not due to service. The rates for living veterans range from $8 to $275 a month, a $30 minimum for widows being increased according to age. Veterans of the Regular Establishment (service other than wartime) or their dependents may receive a pension only when the disability or death was due to service, the rates being $7.50 to $187.50 a month, $22 being the minimum for widows. Additional amounts are also provided for children in death cases. The compensating of widows and children of World War veterans having some service-connected disability, even though not the cause of their death, was adopted in 1934 and liberalized in 1939.

Financial need is considered in only four connections: (a) with certain exceptions, the award of compensation, emergency officers' retirement pay, or pension for a hospitalized vereran without dependent parent, wife, or child, is reduced to $15 or $6, depending on whether or not the disability is service connected; (b) parents claiming compensation on account of the death of a veteran from a service-connected condition must prove their dependency; (c) pension for non-service-connected disability or compensation to widows and children of deceased World War veterans whose death is not service connected is payable only when the beneficiary's income is less than $1,000 a year in the case of a widow without a child, or of a child, or $2,500 a year in the case of a widow with one or more children; (d) eligibility for hospitalization or domiciliary care for diseases or injuries not attributable to military or naval service is contingent upon a determination as to whether the applicant therefor has "adequate means of support." The sworn statement of an applicant who had service in wartime that he is unable to defray the expense of such hospitalization or domiciliary care, is acceptable.

About 4,760,000 persons served in the World War. During the fiscal year 1939–1940, $254,846,261 was paid in compensation and pensions to veterans and to the dependenrs of deceased veterans of that war; on June 30, 1940, 410,244 living veterans and the dependents of 117,003 deceased veterans were receiving such payments.

Additional governmental benefits for World War veterans include adjusted compensation (the so-called "bonus"), which up to June 30, 1940, had been paid in the amount of over three and three-quarter billions of dollars; preference in civil service examinations and in Work Projects Administration placements; admission to Civilian Conservation Corps camps within a quota of 27,200 (1940); special assistance from the Bureau of Employment Security (formerly the United States Employment Service, now a Bureau in the Social Security Board) and its local offices; allowances toward funeral expenses; and burial in national cemereries.

As for the Regular Establishment during the fiscal year 1939–1940, $15,811,766 was paid to vererans and the dependents of deceased veterans; on June 30, 1940, there were 36,051 living veterans and the dependents of 10,126 deceased veterans receiving such payments.

Medical Treatment and Domiciliary Care

Of the various types of benefits provided ex-members of the armed forces of the United States, one of the most valuable is medical treatment, both hospital and outpatient. Hospitalization was, until 1922, furnishable only for diseases or injuries the disability from which had been adjudicated as incurred or aggravated by military or naval service in the World War. At present, however, hospital treatment is provided for veterans of any war and for applicants discharged from peacetime service because

of disability in line of duty. These two classes of applicants may be provided hospital treatment (a) for diseases or injuries incurred or aggravated by military or naval service, in which case only an honorable discharge from the last enlistment is required; and (b) for conditions not attributable to such service, in which case there are various stipulations as to length of service, type of discharge, character of disease or injury, and particularly economic status as mentioned above. One important limitation is that out-patient treatment is authorized only for diseases or injuries incurred or aggravated by military or naval service.

In June, 1940, there were in operation 86 hospitals: 12 primarily for the tuberculous, 46 for the general medical and surgical patients, and 28 for the neuropsychiatric patients. There were about four times as many hospital beds for the general medical and surgical patients as for the tuberculous, and six times as many for the neuropsychiatric. The neuropsychiatric load is steadily increasing. Of the approximately 52,500 vetetans in Veterans Administration hospitals, about 23 per cent had service-connected conditions. In beds allotted to the Veterans Administration in other federal, civil, and state hospitals, there were about 3,800 veterans.

The hospitals of the Veterans Administration have been approved by the American College of Surgeons. The average per capita per diem cost of their operation was $2.60 for the fiscal year 1939–1940. Practically all positions, from attendant to chief medical officer inclusive, are under civil service merit provisions.

The social workers, whatever the type of hospital to which they are assigned, must meet the same minimum qualifications, namely, one year of postgraduate education in a school of social work, including some psychiatric courses. *See* MEDICAL SOCIAL WORK and PSYCHIATRIC SOCIAL WORK. Their study of the social aspects of the individual's situation and their case work in helping him reach his health objective are utilized by physicians in diagnosis and treatment; and, to a less extent, by adjudication, insurance, and guardianship authorities for their purposes. As of June, 1940, guardianship authorities had responsibility for safeguarding the estates of approximately 39,015 mentally incompetent veterans, 4,477 incompetent dependents, and 40,284 minor wards. World War veterans, as a cross-section of our population, have personal and environmental problems similar to those faced by other persons of the same age, the present average being estimated as forty-seven years.

A companion benefit to hospital treatment is domiciliary care. This provides for disabled veterans a home where they have some duties and restrictions, but where in general they are allowed freedom of action, and are furnished with the necessities of life, provided with entertainment and amusements, and given such medical treatment as may be indicated. The eligibility requirements for domiciliary care are similar to those for hospital treatment. About 16,500 were receiving domiciliary care in June, 1940.

State Benefits and Other Provisions

State services include care in soldiers' homes, federally supported in part and sometimes admitting women; civil service preferences; relief administered through special state or county relief agencies; free copies of records; pensions and homes for Confederate veterans in many southern states; children's scholarships; and various tax exemptions. In the majority of states a state service officer or other official is appointed to help veterans in presenting pension claims.

Among many national veterans' organizations—some with women's auxiliaries—promoting legislation, protecting veterans' interests and welfare, or giving free assistance (sometimes only to members) in presenting claims, are: the American Legion, with over a million members, which through its National Child Welfare Division also fosters child welfare legislation, being par-

ticularly concerned with child health and the prevention of juvenile delinquency, and under some circumstances, when local resources are inadequate, provides assistance temporarily to any child of a World War veteran; Disabled American Veterans of the World War; Grand Army of the Republic; United Spanish War Veterans; Veterans of Foreign Wars; and the Women's Overseas Service League.

The American Red Cross has peacetime and wartime responsibilities for services to the armed forces of the United States. Its approximately 3,700 chapters have responsibility for family case work service to both veterans and men in active services, and also assist veterans in presenting pension claims. Chapters cooperate widely with the Veterans Administration's social work program by assistance in meeting the social problems in the community that retard patients' recovery; and with the guardianship program by making requested surveys and interpreting social needs to trust companies and other fiduciaries, helping them, for example, to reach decisions as to suitable budgetary allowances for their wards. To assist both veterans and service men who are patients in Army and Navy hospitals (not Veterans Administration facilities) and in St. Elizabeth's Hospital, Washington, D. C., the Red Cross maintains social service departments in these hospitals. Problems involving the men's families are handled cooperatively by these medical and psychiatric social workers and the chapter in the home community.

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IRENE GRANT

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE[1] is the process of helping an individual to choose, prepare for, enter upon, and progress in an occupation. Since vocational education and employment are treated elsewhere in this volume (*see* EMPLOYMENT SERVICES), this discussion will confine itself to vocational choice. Three steps are involved in the process: the study of individual differences, the study of occupations, and the articulation of these two kinds of information in counseling and follow-up.

The Study of Individual Differences

Varied techniques are employed in the study of the individual to measure or appraise his vocational aptitude and interest. Psychologists employ tests of intelligence, achievement, personality, aptitude, and interest, but the use of such tests by anyone other than a trained psychologist is generally discouraged. The comprehensive case study, as used by social workers, is employed frequently. Educational institutions often provide exploratory courses and keep cumulative records of student performance. Tryout experiences in various occupations are arranged by some progressive schools. Every counselor tries to get some information from interviews.

The practice of guidance has its imitators, many of whom are unqualified and unscru-

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

pulous. For a discussion of the menace of commercialized guidance, *see* Davis, *infra cit.* In general it is well to beware of any alleged professional counselor who advertises or charges fees. The services of reputable community vocational guidance agencies are generally free. Reputable psychologists will be listed in the *Yearbook* of the American Association for Applied Psychology. The Psychological Corporation, New York City, is organized to combat the quacks by providing professional service at reasonable professional fees. Inquiries regarding alleged psychologists in any community may be directed to the local superintendent of schools, the local office of the state employment service, or the department of psychology in a near-by university. One of these three is almost certain to know of any reputable psychologist in the community.

Sources of Vocational Information

The most realistic source of information about occupations is likely to be the local office of the state employment service, affiliated with the Bureau of Employment Security in the Federal Security Agency. A permanent or itinerant office of this agency is to be found in every county of the United States. The interviewers in these offices are in daily touch with applicants and with employers, and consequently have unequaled opportunity to observe employment conditions in all major occupations. The federal service has published recently a *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* (*infra cit.*) and several volumes of job descriptions in various industries. To supplement this kind of current research the Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor, recently has created the Occupational Outlook Service which will attempt to forecast employment in major industries.

Employers are the best source of information regarding the requirements for getting a job; but often they are so aware of their own difficulty in finding competent help that they tend to emphasize unduly the shortage of *superior* workmen which exists in virtually every field. Employes and practitioners are more aware of the competition for jobs or for business, and hence usually regard their own fields as overcrowded; they are, however, the best source of information regarding the reasons why workers like or dislike their jobs. City and state licensing boards and civil service commissions supply the most accurate information regarding minimum preparation requirements; meeting such minimum requirements, however, seldom assures employment. Schools and colleges which offer technical and professional training courses are the best source of information about such training, but are engaged so frequently in recruiting students that their statements regarding employment opportunities must always be discounted.

A considerable amount of occupational information is available in print. It includes reports of studies by vocational guidance departments of public schools and by the other groups mentioned above. Hundreds of new publications appear each year. Many of them are free and are listed monthly in the *Occupational Index* (*infra cit.*), which is available in most public libraries.

Counseling and Follow-up

Many schools and colleges have guidance officers called counselors, deans, or advisers, whose functions include vocational guidance. A few of the larger cities have adjustment services for adults. The local superintendent of schools or the local office of the state employment service usually will know if and where such services are provided.

The primary purpose of counseling is to apply common sense, the detached point of view, and the broad experience of the counselor to the problem of interpreting the available information regarding the aptitudes of the individual and the occupations that are open to him. Some of the best counselors are untrained, although training tends to make the counselor more familiar with sources of information that he will need

and to prevent some of the common errors made by untrained counselors. One common error is a tendency to assume personal responsibility for the decisions of the counselee, and thus to exert undue influence on his decision. Untrained counselors are sometimes naïve in their reliance upon tests and in their use of inaccurate occupational information.

The most effective counselors usually help the individual in every way they can to appreciate his own assets and liabilities, and to obtain accurate information regarding the opportunities that are open to him; the emphasis is placed on supplying information rather than upon recommending a specific course of action. There are, however, those who disagree with this point of view and strongly urge that the counselor assume a role comparable to that of the physician. The leading exponent of this position is E. G. Williamson whose most recent book, *How To Counsel Students,* discusses this subject.

Follow-up is imperative to help the individual to make further adjustments, and it is needed equally to evaluate the results of the counseling that has taken place.

Function of the Social Worker

Much of the organized vocational guidance work in the United States owes its beginning to social workers who recognized the urgency of the problem and induced various agencies to do something about it. Today the social worker, although frequently forced into the position of a counselor, is essentially a layman in the field. He usually can recognize a problem in vocational guidance, compile all the related information regarding the social background of the individual, obtain information regarding the more technical vocational guidance agencies of the community, refer the individual to such agencies, or call in specialists to give psychological examinations, to supply information regarding occupations, or to assist in placement. Sometimes it is wise for the social worker to retain major responsibility for counseling, since vocational guidance may be only part of a larger problem. In other cases it may be wise to refer the entire case to a vocational guidance agency. An excellent discussion of relations between such agencies and social workers may be found in Culbert and Smith's *Counseling Young Workers* (*infra cit.*).

Professional Organizations

The leading professional organization today is the Council of Guidance and Personnel Associations, consisting of the American College Personnel Association, National Association of Deans of Women, National Vocational Guidance Association, and several smaller organizations. Its principal function to date has been the coordination of the program for the annual meetings of its three largest constituent members. It has also undertaken to formulate statements of fundamental principles on which all of the constituents agree, and in various other ways to move in the direction of better coordination of activity.

Other large professional associations interested in vocational guidance but not members of the Council are the American Association of School Administrators, National Association of Secondary School Principals, American Council on Education, and the American Vocational Association.

Two new government agencies have entered the field recently. The United States Office of Education, formerly in the Department of the Interior but now in the Federal Security Agency, has started the Occupational Information and Guidance Service, which works through state directors of occupational information and guidance where these have been appointed, and issues publications for schools and others interested in guidance. The United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, in the United States Department of Labor, has established the Occupational Outlook Service, which will undertake to predict the trend of employment opportunity in various major fields.

Vocational Guidance

The National Youth Administration has published a number of occupational information bulletins, and has established junior employment services and vocational guidance bureaus in several cities. The junior employment services are gradually being absorbed by the Division of Employment Service of the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency. The Division continues its somewhat restricted program of worker analysis, looking toward the better guidance of both young and older workers at the point where they seek employment.

Professional Standards

There are no legal restrictions upon any person who undertakes vocational guidance work, except in the public schools of a few states which now require certification. The leader in such certification has been New York State which now issues both a provisional and a permanent certificate, requiring occupational experience in fields other than teaching as well as professional training equivalent to the master's degree. New Jersey and Connecticut certify students who hold the bachelor's degree if the undergraduate work has included sufficient training in psychology and guidance.

There has been some controversy, not always amiable, regarding desirable professional standards. Those who are more interested in educational and social guidance than in vocational guidance have protested the New York State requirement of occupational experience; while various associations of psychologists have urged that considerably more training in psychology be required of all counselors. There are the usual extremes, some insisting that a doctor of philosophy degree in psychology should be a prerequisite to any employment in vocational guidance, others insisting that good counselors are born and that their employment should not be restricted by training requirements. The middle-of-the-road majority appears to be moving in the direction of certification for public school guidance officers, with minimum training requirements to include educational theory, psychological techniques, and occupational information. Other than this, no marked trend is apparent.

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VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION[1] is a program of restoration of physically disabled persons to remunerative employment and comprises all activities necessary to preparation of such persons for suitable occupations and their placement therein. Each year many thousands of persons suffer physical disablement through accident, injury, disease, or congenital cause. Surveys taken in many parts of the country show that in each 1,000 of the general population there are from 12 to 15 persons who are permanently physically handicapped. Such disabled persons may be divided roughly into three groups: first, those who are dependent because wholly unable to work; second, those who are able to contribute in some measure to their own support; and third, those who despite their handicaps are economically independent because able to engage in normal employment.

In comparatively recent years state and federal governments have inaugurated vocational rehabilitation services to assist the physically disabled in restoring themselves to occupational competency. To some extent these services had been pioneered by private agencies which are still making important contributions to the program.

The Process of Rehabilitation

The first step in the process of rehabilitating an individual is to determine the type of occupation for which he may be best adapted in view of his physical, mental, and vocational capacities; the second step is to assist him in securing adequate preparation for the pre-determined objective; and the third, to assist him in securing employment in the selected occupation.

Owing to variations in training, experience, aptitudes, interests, personality, and other factors, disabled persons cannot be rehabilitated in groups. Each case presents an individual problem which requires its own specific solution. Rehabilitation service must, therefore, be carried on through the "case method."

Generally speaking, there are three ways by which disabled persons are rehabilitated. Through the first method a person is enabled to return to a former occupation or to enter a new one through physical restoration or prosthesis (supplying artificial parts for the body). An individual who is rehabilitated by the second method is prepared through vocational training for an occupation from which he is not barred by his disability. Such training is secured in public or private residence schools, in commercial or industrial establishments (employment training), or from tutors, sometimes supplemented by correspondence instruction. The third method is the adjustment to a suitable occupation of persons not adapted to formal training.

Under a policy recently established by the federal government, disabled persons who are employed but are in danger of dismissal because of a progressive disability or changing occupational requirements may be given rehabilitation service in the form of prosthesis or training to make possible their retention in employment.

The guiding principle in rehabilitation service is to fit disabled persons for occupations at which they can compete with normal persons and earn the same wages. Naturally, with certain cases this objective cannot be fully effected. None the less it is the desired goal.

Public vocational rehabilitation agencies do not establish surgical, prosthetic, or training facilities, their function being, first, to refer their clients to agencies organized to give the services needed, and second, to supervise the rendering of these services. Thus rehabilitation workers are "engineers" who lay plans for the vocational adjustment of disabled persons and see that the plans are carried out. They are, however, assisted by other agencies, public and private, such as hospitals and clinics, private social agencies, public welfare departments, workmen's compensation bureaus, employment offices,

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

vocational schools, institutions for the handicapped, and church, fraternal, and civic organizations. By law, cooperation is required between rehabilitation and state public employment offices which receive federal aid from the federal government through the Bureau of Employment Security of the Social Security Board, Federal Security Agency. *See* EMPLOYMENT SERVICES.

Vocational rehabilitation service for an individual is not considered as completed until he is placed in employment in the occupation for which he has been prepared or adjusted. In other words, placement in employment is by law a component part of the rehabilitation service. In practice it is also a policy of the rehabilitation department in a state or local community to carry on a "follow-up" service after the individual is placed in employment for the purpose of determining whether the preparation service has been successfully carried out.

The Federal-State Program

The federal-state program of vocational rehabilitation was established under an Act of Congress, approved June 2, 1920. A year or two prior to this time several states had initiated rehabilitation services. Programs are now in operation in all of the states, in the District of Columbia, and in the territories of Hawaii and Puerto Rico. They are supported by federal, state, and sometimes local funds. These departments derive their authority from state acts, which, in addition to providing for vocational rehabilitation service to citizens of the state, accept the benefits of the federal Act. This Act provides for cooperation by the federal government with the states through financial assistance, promotional service, and research activities, the states being charged with the responsibility of rehabilitating persons within their own jurisdiction.

The organic federal Act, as amended, authorized appropriations of $1,097,000 through the fiscal year ended June 30, 1937, to be allotted to the states on the basis of population and on condition that the amount expended from the federal grant is matched by expenditures from state funds. Title V, Part 4, of the Social Security Act of 1935, also administered by the Office of Education, provides for expansion and permanent extension of the program established in 1920. This legislation is in effect an amendment to the basic Act, and makes permanent the provisions of the Act without change.

The federal Act, which is administered by the United States Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, defines "rehabilitation" as meaning "the rendering of a person fit to engage in a remunerative occupation"; and "disabled person" as meaning "any person who by reason of a physical defect or infirmity, whether congenital or acquired by accident, injury, or disease, is, or may be expected to be, totally or partially incapacitated for remunerative occupation." All persons vocationally handicapped through physical disability of whatever origin, regardless of sex, age, race, or economic status, are eligible. The service is not feasible for all such persons, however. In addition, the federal Office interprets the Act as providing for a service which retains, re-establishes, or establishes the disabled person in normal competitive employment. That is to say, partial rehabilitation or welfare service as such is not construed as contemplated in the Act.

Amendments to the Social Security Act, approved August 10, 1939, amend the organic rehabilitation Act for the purpose of extending and expanding the rehabilitation service in the states. Authorization of appropriations to the states is increased to $3,500,000 annually. Under a legal interpretation of the purposes of this amendment the Office of Education was charged with initiating on July 1, 1940, an experimental research program in cooperation with a few selected states with the object of determining what could be done in rehabilitating persons with severe physical handicaps, ordinarily referred to as the "home-bound." Naturally, the majority of this group can be

trained to become only partially self-supporting in occupations in which they do not compete with physically normal workers or with the disabled who have been completely rehabilitated.

The service of rehabilitation in a state is conducted as a division of the state board for vocational education within the state department of education. Headquarters are located in the state capital, and in a number of states district offices are also maintained. The director or supervisor in charge is assisted by a staff of field agents (case workers). In some states local units are operated through cooperation with public or private agencies, such as educational depattments, placement bureaus, and the like, which are financially aided through federal and state funds, their work being supervised by the state department under contractual agreements. These local units have a case worker or workers who operate within their particular jurisdictions.

Participation by Private Agencies

The federal-state program of rehabilitation is clearly a public service. However, if all phases of the work are included, it may be estimated that private agencies are bearing about 15 per cent of the total costs. In general, there are two types of private agencies for the handicapped: those which deal with specific types of the disabled—organizations for the hard of hearing, deaf, blind, tuberculous, and cardiac cases—and those which offer special methods of help. The latter include placement bureaus for the handicapped, curative workshops, and salvage agencies.

For many years certain religious and charitable organizations have been engaged in systematized collection and utilization of discarded household articles, furniture, and clothing for distribution to persons in need. Through such activities these agencies have provided training and employment for the aged, the handicapped, and temporarily unemployed persons. Such a systematic salvage program not only results in the separation of useful from worthless material and the discovery of the best markets for articles handled, but also develops the art of properly reconditioning suitable articles and of extending their usefulness.

The best-known agencies in this field are the Goodwill Industries, associated in two joint national associations—the Bureau of Goodwill Industries of the Methodist Church and the National Association of Goodwill Industries; the Salvage Bureaus of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul Councils; and the Men's Social Service Department of the Salvation Army. These organizations operate in many cities and provide employment for many thousands of disadvantaged persons. Naturally they do not operate for profit. Reconditioned articles are sold at reasonable prices to people of limited means; and waste materials are sold as salvage. Some of the bureaus cooperate with welfare agencies by supplying furniture and clothing to aid in the rehabilitation of families whose homes have been broken up. Again, some of the units of these agencies cooperate with the state rehabilitation departments in providing training for physically handicapped persons who can later be placed in normal employment.

An important type of rehabilitation facility for the physically handicapped is the sheltered workshop. In practically all of the larger cities of the country such workshops are being operated for the blind, the crippled, cardiacs, deaf-mutes, and the aged. The basic purpose of the sheltered workshop is to give employment to persons who are so seriously handicapped as to be unable to work in normal competitive employment, but are capable of productive effort if certain concessions are made or if certain favorable conditions prevail. Production schedules are carefully graded to the physical capacities of the workers, care being taken that no individual works at too tiring a pace. Some of the shops maintain facilities for vocational training in occupations suitable to the seriously physically handicapped.

Vocational Rehabilitation

The Sheltered Workshop Advisory Committee, appointed by the Wage and Hour Division of the United States Department of Labor, has recently compiled a list of 428 institutions classified as sheltered workshops. These institutions are of the following types: Goodwill Industries, 92; Salvation Army, 84; occupational therapy, 43; institutions for the blind, 110; Houses of Good Shepherd, 39; St. Vincent de Paul, 25; and miscellaneous, 35.

There are no figures for the number of clients served by workshops in the nation. However, 191 of the institutions, replying to a questionnaire from the Department of Labor, report a combined clientele of 9,903 persons. With an average turnover of approximately five times a year, these 191 institutions serve nearly 50,000 persons a year. It is not known whether the 191 reporting institutions are of average size, but a report made during National Recovery Administration days indicated that sheltered workshops serve 100,000 persons annually.

Considerable incentive has been given to workshops for the blind by the passage in June, 1938, of the Blind-Made Products Law, which authorizes the federal government to buy at specified prices certain products made by the blind. A central sales agency handles the distribution of products manufactured in the shops or elsewhere. Under present regulations these workshops may employ as much as 25 per cent non-blind labor, most of which consists of persons with orthopedic or other non-vision handicaps.

Physical Restoration and Subsistence

Medical and surgical treatment and the supplying of artificial parts to the body are important phases of the rehabilitation program. Obviously the extent of the physical impairment of an individual should be reduced, whenever possible, to a minimum before preparation for employment is undertaken. Although federal-state funds cannot be used for physical restoration treatment, state departments secure such service from clinics, state-aided hospitals, cooperating local surgeons and physicians, and crippled children's agencies. In many cases the costs of such service are met by cooperating agencies. In this connection it should be noted that in many states workmen's compensation laws provide for medical and surgical treatment of persons entitled to their benefits. *See* WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION. By law, cooperation is required between rehabilitation and state workmen's compensation commissions.

The United States Office of Education has ruled that federal-state funds may be expended for artificial appliances provided they are necessary to the vocational rehabilitation of individuals and are but one factor in the complete rehabilitation of the individual.

Subsistence costs for rehabilitation clients while in training present a serious problem. In a few of the states, workmen's compensation laws provide extra compensation for the purpose. Some states have special appropriations for subsistence for persons not eligible for compensation. Similar provision for both groups is needed in all states.

One of the policies recently adopted by the federal Office relating to the use of federal and state matching rehabilitation funds permits their use for subsistence expenses of needy rehabilitation clients while receiving vocational training under supervision by the state department. Obviously this liberalization of policy will greatly reduce the problem of rehabilitating certain groups of the disabled, but dependence upon private agencies for assistance will have to be continued.

Costs of Vocational Rehabilitation Service

The existing distribution of costs of rehabilitation is puzzling to persons unfamiliar with the field. This is due to the fact that the federal Act and the policies of the United States Office of Education, as the federal agency of administration, regarding the use of federal and state matching funds permit only specified phases of the rehabili-

tation process to be financed out of these funds. All costs for surgical and therapeutic treatment must be borne by local or state funds additional to those appropriated for matching the federal grants. At present the expenditures permitted are for the following: administration, tuition, training supplies and equipment, artificial appliances, travel of trainees, medical examinations, placement equipment, and subsistence during training. Thus, an important type of expenditure is prohibited (physical restoration) which is essential and greatly needed to make the rehabilitation service entirely a public program in so far as maintenance cost is concerned. It would seem eminently desirable that the federal Act be amended so as to permit the use of joint funds for all expenses necessary to effect the vocational rehabilitation of the disabled individual.

The average cost of vocational rehabilitation of the individual from joint funds is about $300, whereas the complete cost, including all phases of the process, is from $450 to $550. Frequently the increased earning capacity of the rehabilitated person during the first year after rehabilitation exceeds the cost of rehabilitation and in many cases the weekly wage—averaging about $18 a week—of the rehabilitated person exceeds his wage prior to rehabilitation. The average age of rehabilitated persons is twenty-seven years, and at this age the average work-life expectancy is twenty-five years. As the average cost of maintaining a dependent person at public expense is from $300 to $500 a year, the financial aspect alone would seem to more than justify the investment of public or private funds in the vocational rehabilitation of disabled persons who would otherwise remain a burden upon the community.

Special Groups

Vocational rehabilitation of the blind, deaf, cardiac cases, and the tuberculous requires specialized treatment for each group. In general these groups are inadequately served by state rehabilitation divisions, usually functioning in state departments of education. Rehabilitation of the blind is still limited largely to training for such traditional occupations as mop and broom-making, upholstering, basketry, and chair-caning. While a few blind persons are rehabilitated in the professions, in certain technical occupations, and in a scattered range of repetitive occupations, much more could be accomplished if funds were available for job analyses and demonstration of feasible occupations in industry.

The 74th Congress passed a bill (H.R. 4688) Public No. 732, approved June 20, 1936, which provides specifically for vocational rehabilitation services for the blind. Under the terms of this act provision is made: first, for establishment of blind persons in vending stands in public and other buildings; and, second, for surveys of occupations in commerce and industry suitable for the blind. Although the act does not carry an appropriation for aid to the states it does authorize appropriations for its administration. Under this act and the cooperative relationship set up with state commissions for the blind in 43 states, about 550 blind persons had been established in vending stands by June, 1940. The average net earnings to the vendors is $1,000 per year. Little has as yet been done under this act in reference to surveys of employment opportunities for the blind, and the program will not be materially expanded until provision is made for financial aid to the states in carrying on this important service. *See* BLINDNESS AND CONSERVATION OF SIGHT.

In a number of the states special projects for rehabilitation of the tuberculous and those with cardiac diseases have been initiated in cooperation with local agencies or sanatoria. Through the increased federal appropriations being made available to the states, such cooperative programs will receive greater emphasis during the next two or three years, and others will be added. *See* TUBERCULOSIS.

Service for crippled children is essentially

physical reconstruction and education. Logically much of the work is directed to removing the physical handicap, thereby eliminating in many cases the later need for vocational rehabilitation. Provision for academic training is made through hospital schools, special schools, or classes in the public school system, and for itinerant teachers for those who cannot be transported to public schools.

The Social Security Act makes provision for promotion of physical reconstruction of crippled children through financial aid and service to the states by the federal government. Naturally, under the stimulus of this legislation many crippled children who cannot be fully restored physically are being brought to the attention of the state vocational rehabilitation departments for vocational rehabilitation service. The national Act logically provides for cooperation between state rehabilitation and state crippled children's agencies. *See* CRIPPLED CHILDREN.

Obstacles

One of the major problems with which rehabilitation workers have to contend is the attitude of many employers. Without employer cooperation, rehabilitation is impossible. Employers generally, especially in the smaller industries, are willing to employ competent disabled persons. Large employers, however, usually require rigid physical examinations which frequently bar the handicapped, though many industries will re-employ workers disabled in their plants. Frequently opposition to employment of the handicapped is based upon a weakness in the compensation act which makes no provision for payment of compensation for total disability in the case of second injury. Group insurance is also a barriet, and civil service regulations or policies of appointing officers are often discriminatory against the handicapped. While some leaders in rehabilitation feel that the latter barrier should be removed by legislative act, others believe that the desired results can be better effected by education and demonstration. Certainly it is not generally believed that mandatory legislation should be attempted with regard to the private employer, as has been the case in one or two European countries.

Future Developments

Under the impetus of increased financial cooperation by the federal government, the states have been materially expanding their rehabilitation services during the past two or three years and will continue to do so. The number of persons rehabilitated in the United States in 1936 was a little over 10,000, whereas the number in 1940 is expected to be considerably over 12,000. The number receiving rehabilitation service in the states on June 1, 1940, was about 45,000. Furthermore, revised policies promulgated by the Office of Education on April 1, 1940, will enable the states to develop more extensive programs for serving such groups as the visually handicapped, the deaf and hard of hearing, the tuberculous, and those with cardiac diseases. Finally, the experimental projects for rehabilitating the homebound group, initiated on July 1, 1940, mark a significant advance in the attack upon the problem in the United States of restoring the physically handicapped to remunerative employment.

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VOLUNTEERS IN SOCIAL WORK[1] include those persons who serve without financial remuneration as administrative board members, advisory board or committee members, or as workers giving actual hours of service in the program of the agency. Most agencies today, recognizing the importance of community backing and support, feel that active board membership and a wide use of volunteer assistance in the work itself are essential to that end. The fact is emphasized that the beginnings of social work resulted from the vision and work of laymen and that the continued partnership of the lay person and the professional is of vital concern to every program. It is argued that well-informed laymen—informed through actual participation in the agency program—are needed to decide questions of policy, participate in administration, and interpret the agency's program and needs to the community. Where this point of view is accepted today, stress is placed on devising better methods of coordination of lay participation and on developing better educational programs for those giving volunteer service. It is not enough merely to have lay people volunteering their services; in addition, careful planning of their work by the agency is necessary.

Some volunteers come as individuals but the largest number are associated with lay organizations such as men's and women's civic and social groups. *See* CIVIC AND FRATERNAL ORGANIZATIONS. A number of these organizations have been doing excellent work in the training of their members for volunteer service in the welfare field. Outstanding is the Association of the Junior Leagues of America, which seeks to educate its members and stimulate in them an acceptance of responsibility for participation in community programs. With prerequisite courses for new members covering social problems and methods of treating them and with emphasis on well-considered placement, the Association has done much to raise the standard of volunteer service in their communities and also to prepare future board members. The National League of Women Voters, stressing the need of studying the local community and working for high standards in government service, has been active in preparing persons to serve as committee members in public agencies. The Extension Service of the United States Department of Agriculture, through its home demonstration agents, is educating rural people to be aware of community needs; and many a rural health committee has benefited by this educational program. Other lay organizations similarly are stressing participation by their members in community welfare activities.

Agencies Working with Volunteers

Many national social work organizations carry on extensive programs for the development of volunteer interest. The Family Welfare Association of America uses laymen actively on its national board and committees, and draws a large attendance of local board members to its regional conferences. In its new bulletin, *Highlights,* many of the articles are written for or prepared by laymen. Several national group work agencies, including the National Board of

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

the Young Women's Christian Associations, National Council of the Young Men's Christian Associations, Girl Scouts, and others, conduct extensive leadership training courses for their volunteer group leaders. The American Red Cross gives training courses to volunteers for hospital and other duties, which have been taken by many persons throughout the United States. The National Organization for Public Health Nursing has had since 1929 a non-nurse member on its staff who has worked with both the professional and the layman in furthering more active volunteer service in the program. A board members' manual has been written, study courses prepared, and institutes held. Recently assistance has been given in the organization of lay committees in the tax-supported public health agencies.

Councils of social agencies in many communities have developed volunteer bureaus with the following functions: (a) to create, through participation, a better understanding of social work on the part of the public; (b) to complement and supplement the services of paid workers; (c) to coordinate the work of volunteers by serving as sources of information on all volunteer opportunities, offering guidance to applying volunteers and placing them in jobs for which their individual interests and abilities qualify them; (d) to stimulate and advise agencies in the better use of volunteers; (e) to promote education of volunteers and board members; and (f) to improve the quality of volunteer work through requiring high standards of performance. In 1939, volunteer bureaus were in operation under councils of social agencies in the following cities: Ann Arbor, Mich.; Baltimore; Boston; Brooklyn; Buffalo; Chicago; Cleveland; Columbus, Ohio; Dallas, Tex.; Detroit; Evanston, Ill.; Grand Rapids, Mich.; Indianapolis; Kansas City, Mo.; Los Angeles; Louisville; Milwaukee; Minneapolis; Montreal, Canada; Providence, R. I.; Rochester, N. Y.; St. Louis; Syracuse, N. Y.; and Washington, D. C.

In communities where volunteer bureaus do not exist, discussion meetings are sometimes arranged in which board members receive instruction on the function of the board and agency. General orientation courses and programs of study for individual groups, such as ministers, a local women's club, and presidents of boards of social agencies, have been conducted in recent years in several communities.

Observing the recognition being given to lay participation in the private agency, an increasing number of public agencies are beginning to use the citizen in various ways. Administrative boards of public agencies often have lay people in their membership. Many health departments are organizing lay committees, primarily to assist in furthering the work of the department and to interpret the program to the community. Committees of this sort have been widely organized in the rural areas and in some urban communities.

Organizations using volunteers have several responsibilities: (a) to designate real jobs to be done; (b) to place the volunteer carefully in the work he is best fitted to do; (c) to educate and supervise the volunteer in his job; and (d) to integrate his work into the whole program. The volunteer on his part should accept his job as a definite responsibility, attend to his duties promptly and with regularity, and be willing to learn about the agency's program, methods, and objectives.

National Committee on Volunteers

The National Committee on Volunteers in Social Work is an informal committee which was organized in 1933 primarily to draw volunteers and board members into the National Conference of Social Work. Since its organization it has attempted to act as a clearing house for information on volunteer programs. It has no office of its own but makes its headquarters at the address of its chairman. Although the Committee has prepared some pamphlet material, its main objective has been to stimulate other agencies to take responsibility for

this sort of publication. For example, the Committee has urged national agencies to prepare material that will be of interest to volunteers in their particular fields and has itself prepared a bibliography[1] of that material. The Committee has made two studies of the status and functions of existing volunteer bureaus, the latest study being in 1937. This was followed by a study in 1939 of the job of the volunteer bureau executive.

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WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCES[1] on child welfare have been held in 1909, 1919, 1930, and 1939–1940, as described below.

Conference on the Care of Dependent Children, 1909

The first of the White House Conferences on child welfare met in Washington at the invitation of President Theodore Roosevelt on January 25–26, 1909. It was specifically a conference on the care of dependent children, and the men and women invited to participate were mainly persons actively engaged in child-caring work.

The call for the Conference suggested consideration of specific questions, including the following: establishment of a national children's bureau in one of the federal departments; state inspection of the work of child-caring agencies; incorporation of child-caring agencies; aid to parents "of worthy character but suffering from temporary misfortune," and to widows, to enable them to maintain suitable homes for the rearing of children; care of children in family homes whenever practicable; cottage plan institutions; supervision by state educational authorities over the educational work of children's institutions; cooperation among child-caring agencies and other social agencies for the purpose of removing the causes of orphanage, destitution, and delinquency; and the establishment of some

[1] Appended to *General Plan for a Volunteer Service Program* (*infra cit.*).

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

permanent committee or organization for the purpose of securing "better laws in relation to children, better organizations of child-caring agencies, and better methods of relief and aid to children."

The Conference resolutions included definite recommendations on all of these subjects, the most far-reaching of which is that relating to home care: "Home life is the highest and finest product of civilization. It is the great molding force of mind and character. Children should not be deprived of it except for urgent and compelling reasons." The recommendation that necessary aid should be given to maintain suitable homes, and that "the home should not be broken up for reasons of poverty, but only for considerations of inefficiency or immorality" served as the impetus for the "mothers' pension" movement which began in 1911. Methods of foster care have been greatly influenced by the emphasis placed by the Conference upon care in family homes and the cottage system of institutional care, and by recommendations concerning state inspection of child-caring agencies and incorporation of such organizations. The Conference recommended enactment of the bill then pending in Congress for the establishment of a federal children's bureau "to collect and disseminate information affecting the welfare of children." The United States Children's Bureau was established in 1912, and a few years later the Child Welfare League of America was organized as a national agency designed to carry out the Conference recommendation that a permanent voluntary agency be established in the field of care of dependent children.

Conferences on Child Welfare Standards, 1919

The Washington and Regional Conferences of 1919 were held under the auspices of the Children's Bureau as the conclusion of the program conducted by the Bureau during the second year of participation by the United States in the World War of 1914–1918, designated as "Children's Year." In the call for the Conference Julia C. Lathrop, Chief of the Children's Bureau, referred to the statement by President Wilson with reference to Children's Year: "I trust that the work may so successfully develop as to set up certain irreducible minimum standards for the health, education, and work of the American child." The Conference was financed from the President's emergency fund.

Sessions held in Washington on May 5–8, 1919, were followed by eight regional conferences. Attendance at the initial sessions included some 200 persons representing the various fields of child welfare. Eleven men and women from abroad, who had been engaged in the practical protection of children under war conditions in the allied countries, were guests of the Conference and took an active part in it.

The subjects discussed included (a) the economic and social basis for child welfare standards; (b) child labor: legislative prohibition of employment, legislative regulation of employment, vocational guidance, and placement; (c) the health of children and mothers: maternity and infancy, the preschool child, the school child; (d) children in need of special care: the function of the State, care of dependent children, care of juvenile delinquents, care of the mentally handicapped; and (e) standardization of child welfare laws.

The conclusions of the Conference were embodied in a series of standards formulated by committees representing the various fields of interest, as follows: minimum standards for children entering employment, minimum standards for the public protection of the health of children and mothers, and minimum standards for the protection of children in need of special care. These standards have greatly influenced activities in the fields of maternal and child health, child labor, and social protection and care of children, and have formed the basis of a large body of state child welfare legislation.

White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, 1930

The White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, called by President Hoover, assembled in Washington on November 19–22, 1930. The section on medical service, which had not completed its report at the time the main session was held, met in final session in February, 1931. Approximately 3,000 men and women, "leaders in the medical, educational, and social fields as they touch the life of the child," were in attendance at the November meetings. The call for the Conference, which went our in July, 1929, announced that the purpose was: "To study the present status of the health and well-being of the children of the United States and its possessions; to report what is being done; to recommend what ought to be done and how to do it."

Preliminary to the Conference sixteen months were devoted to study, research, and assembling of facts by 1,200 members of nearly 150 committees. Their findings were assembled under 17 main committees, divided into the following sections: Medical Service; Public Health Service and Administration; Education and Training; and The Handicapped: Prevention, Maintenance, Prorection.

In addition to the Proceedings of the Conference, including addresses given at the opening session and abstracts of committee reports, some thirty volumes and a number of pamphlets and leaflets, classified under the five main headings, presented the findings of the various committees. The books dealing with social welfare include the following: *The Delinquent Child; The Handicapped Child: Physically and Mentally; Organization for the Care of Handicapped Children: National, State, and Local;* and *Dependent and Neglected Children.* The "Children's Charter" adopted by the Conference has been widely used as a goal for attainment of "the rights of the child as the first rights of citizenship." After the Conference sessions in Washington, follow-up activities were undertaken in many states and communities under the general guidance of the Conference staff.

White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, 1939–1940

The fourth White House Conference, on "Children in a Democracy," was organized at the suggestion of President Franklin D. Roosevelt under the chairmanship of Frances Perkins, Secretary of Labor, with Katharine F. Lenroot, Chief of the Children's Bureau, serving as executive secretary. Initial sessions were held April 26, 1939, for consideration of the scope and objectives of the Conference. The first meeting was held at the White House and was addressed by President Roosevelt as Honorary Chairman of the Conference. About 400 persons coming from most of the states and territories and representative of a wide range of organizations and interests directly or indirectly concerned with child welfare attended the initial sessions. The Conference membership, eventually comprising almost 700, included men and women engaged in various professions, particularly in the fields of health, education, and social service; economists; housing experts; persons representing the interests of church groups, recreational and leisure-time organizations, farm associations, labor, and industry; and groups concerned with child training, parent education, home making, and many other types of activity. About 150 voluntary national agencies and 30 federal agencies whose activities are in some way related to child welfare were represented in the membership.

The Conference was organized and guided by a planning committee comprised of some 70 persons. A small research staff headed by Philip Klein worked under the direction of a report committee representing the various fields of interest of the Conference, with Homer Folks as chairman. Many members of the Conference served as consultants on special subjects or participated in group discussions during the months intervening between the initial meetings and later sessions of the Conference, which were held Janu-

ary 18–20, 1940. The range of interests given special consideration by the Conference is indicated by the following topics which were the subject of special study and of group discussion at Conference sessions: (a) the family as the threshold of democracy, (b) economic resources of families and communities, (c) housing the family, (d) economic aid to families, (e) social services for children, (f) children in minority groups, (g) religion and children in a democracy, (h) health and medical care for children, (i) education through the school; libraries, (j) leisure-time services for children, and (k) child labor and youth employment.

More than 400 members of the Conference participated in the three-day sessions held in January, 1940, during which there were formal addresses, discussion by groups concerned with the topics of special study, and discussion of the general report submitted by the report committee. This report, a draft of which had been submitted to the entire membership in advance of the meetings, was adopted by the Conference as amended in the session on January 19, and was published in final form in May, 1940. The main topics dealt with in this report are: (a) the child in the family, (b) religion in the lives of children, (c) educational services in the community, (d) protection against child labor, (e) youth and their needs, (f) conserving the health of children, (g) children under special disadvantages, and (h) public administration and financing.

The last session of the January Conference was devoted to consideration of follow-up activities. The plan proposed included the creation of a non-governmental National Citizens Committee to which responsibility would be given for leadership in the follow-up program, and a Federal Inter-Agency Committee. The latter, composed of representatives of 30 federal agencies, was organized in March, 1940, for the purpose of coordinating the work of federal departments in cooperation with the National Citizens Committee and state and local organizations engaged in follow-up programs.

Organization of the National Citizens Committee, comprising 25 members, was completed June 17, 1940. Its by-laws state:

> The object of the committee shall be to give Nation-wide citizens' leadership in developing long-range and immediate programs for carrying into effect the recommendations of the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, including specifically the following:
>
> (a) Cooperation with the Federal Inter-Agency Committee of the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy.
>
> (b) Dissemination of information concerning the Conference and its recommendations and follow-up activities.
>
> (c) Stimulation and aid in the development of State follow-up programs.
>
> (d) Enlisting the cooperation of voluntary agencies interested in the well-being of children, for the purpose of carrying forward the objectives of the Conference.
>
> (e) Consideration of the special needs of children growing out of emergency conditions, and cooperation with other organizations engaged in conserving and advancing the health, education, home care, and social protection of children under such conditions.

Within a few months after the sessions of the Conference, follow-up activities had been begun in several states. Impetus and direction will be given to the development of state programs by the National Citizens Committee.

The National Citizens Committee at its first meeting adopted "Resolutions Relating to Follow-up Program" as follows:

> The National Citizens Committee on Children in a Democracy, appointed to develop and carry out a program for making effective the conclusions and recommendations of the White House Conference,
>
> 1. Calls upon every citizen and all organizations and professional associations concerned with human welfare to do their

share in helping our democracy serve the needs of every child and prepare our children and youth for service to democracy. To this end it urges:

(a) Study of the Report and Recommendations of the 1940 White House Conference on Children in a Democracy.

(b) Cooperation in the organization of State-wide activities for making effective in every community the goals of the nation for its children.

(c) Cooperation by public officials, churches, schools, clubs, and all National, State, and local associations and agencies interested in children in advancing toward the goals set by the Conference for the next ten years.

2. Calls upon the people of the country to maintain and extend essential services for maternal and child health, home conservation and family maintenance, education, child labor administration and youth guidance, and social protection and care of children to the end that such services may be available as needed to every child and especially to children whose welfare may be threatened by conditions growing out of the world crisis.

Because of the emergency situation then existing, the following declarations on "Child Conservation and National Defense" were issued by the National Citizens Committee, June 17, 1940:

The National Citizens Committee, created by the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy to give National leadership in making the Conference recommendations effective, is convinced that the program adopted by that Conference will make for the National unity so sorely needed at this time, and will strengthen the democratic institutions of our country. The Committee believes that child welfare and National security are inseparable and affirms that:

1. The defense of democracy calls for the appreciation of the dignity and worth of the individual and concern for the young, the helpless, the needy, and the aged. Support of public and private services for children should be sustained as an essential part of a National defense program.

2. National effectiveness requires further development of cooperation and self-discipline among our citizens. To destroy our liberties in an effort to protect them would be a tragic blunder. Denial of civil liberties, resort to mob action and other extra-legal procedures, and throttling of free discussion of public issues will not advance the cause of democracy at home or abroad.

3. To be strong a people must be well-nourished. Proper food for mothers and children depends upon such factors as agricultural production and distribution, maintenance of family income, and education in nutrition.

4. Health services and medical care for all, particularly for mothers, children, and youth, should be maintained and extended.

5. Educational opportunity adapted to present-day needs should be made available to all children, to youth until they secure employment, and to adults as required for vocational efficiency and for citizenship.

6. Standards now provided under Federal and State child labor laws should be preserved and similar safeguards should be extended to children needing but not now receiving such protection. The National strength does not need the labor of children.

7. Work opportunities should be made available for all youth who have completed their schooling, with necessary safeguards for their health, education, and welfare.

8. The gains under Federal and State legislation for the conservation of home life for children in need should be maintained and developed, with more active State and local participation.

9. We must consider ways in which we may help to safeguard the children of other lands from such misfortunes as hunger and homelessness. We cannot consider the needs of the children of this Nation and ignore the hardships visited upon children elsewhere.

10. The social gains of the past decade should be maintained in the present critical period. Standards of family living should have an important place in the program of the Advisory Commission to the Council of National Defense. The Advisory Commission should consider ways in which health, educational opportunity, and the social well-being of families and their children may be

conserved and advanced as essential elements in a National defense program.

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WORK RELIEF, a form of employment provided by either governmental or private agencies, may be distinguished from other public or private employment in four ways: (a) it is given primarily on the basis of economic need, and workers once employed are usually permitted to remain in employment only so long as they continue to be in need; (b) jobs undertaken, useful and necessary though they may be, are selected and prosecuted primarily because they are needed to give employment to needy workers; (c) earnings, whether paid in cash or in kind, are usually limited to an amount considered necessary to meet elemental needs of workers and their families, although hourly rates of pay may equal those prevailing in the same community for similar work; and (d) standards of performance frequently fall below those maintained in other employment largely because of maladaptation of jobs to workers, necessity of working under conditions which would cause discontinuance of normal employment, the relative unemployability of many workers, and desire on the part of authorities to get at least something in return for relief granted.

Especially when payment of work relief wages is made in kind, when conditions of work are relatively onerous, and when work is required as a sort of punishment for being poor, work relief programs are sometimes called "work-for-relief" or even "work-or-starve" programs.

It is frequently difficult to distinguish clearly between work relief and certain other types of work—sometimes termed relief work—put into operation in times of depression to mitigate the effects of unemployment. Public works that might be termed relief work, because launched primarily to offset the social and economic effects of widespread unemployment, have been greatly expanded since 1932 through loans by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation (RFC) and through loans and grants by the Public Works Administration (PWA).

Historically, work relief may be traced in the operation of the poor laws throughout the past three hundred years. These poor laws have authorized the setting to work of able-bodied "paupers" in workhouses, labor yards, on public roads, streets, and other projects. In the United States, work relief received its first support from the federal government in 1932, although it had been provided during earlier depressions by both

private and governmental agencies. The first federal funds for relief were made available to state and local governments by the RFC on a loan basis. Numbers employed on work relief projects financed at least in part from federal funds had, by March and April, 1933, reached an estimated total of approximately 2,000,000 persons. In May, 1933, with the organization of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration (FERA), outright federal grants (instead of loans, as previously) became available for work relief as well as direct relief. Numbers employed remained much as they had been before the organization of the FERA, although conditions of work were greatly improved by federal supervision.

Failure of the nation's public works program to expand as rapidly as expected led in November, 1933, to the establishment of the hybrid work and relief program of the Civil Works Administration (CWA) which in January, 1934, only two months after the program's inauguration, employed over 4,000,000 workers, half of whom were supposed to have been taken from relief rolls and half from among other unemployed workers. After reaching this peak, CWA employment was sharply curtailed and by May was practically discontinued, the agency having fulfilled its mission of helping to tide the nation over a hard and what would otherwise have been a harder winter. Upon conclusion of this program, work relief under supervision of the FERA—which had been continued throughout the CWA days —again assumed primary importance. By late 1934 and early 1935, when the administration's proposals for the federal Works Program were first announced, employment on work relief projects was well over 2,000,000 a month.

Work Projects Administration

The so-called Works Program, initiated in 1935, was a federally operated program designed to provide employment for 3,500,000 employable persons to be taken from relief rolls. Work undertaken varied from genuine public works (prosecuted by such agencies as the PWA and the Bureau of Public Roads, United States Department of Agriculture) to outright work relief. The latter was provided primarily by the Works Progress Administration (WPA). This agency, now the Work Projects Administration (WPA), has continued to be the agency primarily responsible for providing employment for needy employable workers.

Employment

In 1936, the first full year of the WPA program, an average of 2,544,000 workers were employed. The average number employed during 1939 was approximately the same as in 1936, while average employment in 1937 was lower and that for 1938 higher than the levels of 1936 and 1939. *See* Table I.

During the four years 1936 through 1939, WPA employment ranged from a low point of a little over 1,400,000 in September and October, 1937, to over 3,200,000 in November, 1938. Employment in sixteen of the forty-eight months of this period ranged from 2,000,000 to less than 2,500,000; in fourteen of the months, from 2,500,000 to less than 3,000,000; in ten of the months, from 1,500,000 to less than 2,000,000; in six of the months, from 3,000,000 to less than 3,500,000; and in two of the months, from under 1,500,000. During the first six months of 1940 it ranged from 2,235,000, in March, to 1,670,000, in June.

When compared with estimated unemployment, numbers employed by the WPA from time to time have ranged from 16 or 17 per 100 unemployed workers, as in the late fall and winter of 1937–1938, to more than 30 per 100 unemployed workers, as in the months of October and November in both 1936 and 1938—election months, critics of the administration like to point out. Despite apparently large numbers employed by the WPA, employment has on the whole been provided for only about one-fourth the

total number estimated as unemployed and only about one-half the number estimated from time to time to be unemployed, in need, and eligible for employment.

The average number employed throughout each of the years 1936 through 1939 in the United States as a whole and in the several states is presented in Table I. Employment in several of the larger states, notably Illinois, Michigan, New York, Ohio, and Pennsylvania, has exceeded that of some of the nation's largest industrial concerns.

TABLE I

Annual Average Number Employed by the WPA by States and by Years 1936 Through 1939

	Number employed			
State	*1936*	*1937*	*1938*	*1939*
United States	2,544,355	1,792,525	2,717,125	2,323,889
Alabama	35,637	23,693	47,159	48,964
Arizona	10,310	7,328	10,111	7,413
Arkansas	34,635	23,116	40,250	42,416
California	121,817	88,895	101,466	93,740
Colorado	31,848	19,957	28,774	22,449
Connecticut	23,576	16,413	25,651	21,602
Delaware	2,594	1,919	3,390	2,888
District of Columbia	7,875	6,173	10,049	9,715
Florida	29,112	23,840	40,614	41,381
Georgia	40,241	26,170	49,830	51,064
Idaho	8,568	5,762	10,111	9,180
Illinois	173,467	127,780	214,318	184,462
Indiana	73,273	52,507	88,463	70,008
Iowa	27,177	20,010	31,152	25,146
Kansas	42,427	31,220	35,215	26,545
Kentucky	55,218	42,309	60,467	50,507
Louisiana	40,143	27,107	39,312	40,189
Maine	8,475	4,583	8,586	7,612
Maryland	15,854	10,753	13,806	12,903
Massachusetts	108,481	76,089	111,186	97,044
Michigan	81,996	52,164	149,144	111,480
Minnesota	54,115	38,628	60,631	51,191
Mississippi	30,364	19,857	36,959	39,139
Missouri	83,139	64,291	96,486	82,824
Montana	16,241	10,957	19,780	13,781
Nebraska	21,692	19,434	28,295	24,613
Nevada	2,254	1,718	2,390	1,828
New Hampshire	8,893	6,092	9,356	7,985
New Jersey	84,696	66,128	92,146	75,591
New Mexico	9,846	7,326	10,956	10,826
New York	324,469	226,298	225,365	187,423
North Carolina	33,657	22,600	40,175	40,673
North Dakota	22,770	12,895	14,412	11,462
Ohio	158,544	104,077	231,234	187,045
Oklahoma	70,864	45,423	64,548	51,436
Oregon	16,521	12,794	16,822	14,749
Pennsylvania	250,434	181,969	244,919	179,209
Rhode Island	12,471	10,418	15,161	12,979
South Carolina	27,689	19,416	37,717	38,285
South Dakota	26,318	14,775	15,479	13,244
Tennessee	39,626	23,935	38,933	41,152
Texas	87,879	63,116	86,001	88,784
Utah	11,094	7,171	11,088	10,358
Vermont	4,720	2,993	6,058	4,663
Virginia	29,733	19,509	24,691	23,535
Washington	31,884	26,549	46,819	32,907
West Virginia	47,100	32,524	45,851	38,453
Wisconsin	60,393	41,518	71,621	59,754
Wyoming	4,225	2,326	4,178	3,309

Throughout the United States as a whole the number employed by the WPA per 10,000 estimated population averaged 198 in 1936, 139 in 1937, 210 in 1938, and 180 in 1939. Among the several states, however, these proportions varied widely. States which in one year or another since 1935 had an incidence of WPA jobs at least half again as high as the national average are: Colorado, Montana, North Dakota, Ohio, and South Dakota. States in which the incidence of WPA jobs in one year or another were only about half or less than half the national average are: Delaware, Iowa, Maine, Maryland, North Carolina, and Virginia.

Problems involved in determining the number to be employed in each state from month to month have been among the most difficult of the many complicated issues confronting the WPA. Critics have charged that political considerations frequently have dictated the allocation of jobs to states. They have therefore urged Congress to adopt some formula that would control this all-important aspect of the WPA program and end alleged abuses. In 1940 the Commissioner of Work Projects announced to a committee of the House of Representatives that he had voluntarily adopted a formula allocating 40 per cent of available jobs on the basis of state population, 40 per cent on the basis of estimated unemployment in the several states, and 20 per cent in the discretion of federal officials upon recommendation of regional directors.

The total number to be employed by the WPA from month to month and from year to year has never been determined in accordance with any consistent philosophy. Important effects of the utter lack of any predictable or defined policy have been that many needy unemployed people and their families have not been provided for at all, and that state and local governments have been compelled to assume unanticipated and unplanned-for responsibilities for their support. In sharp contrast with well-defined and predictable responsibilities assumed under the Social Security Act, the federal government's role in providing employment for needy employable workers has remained fortuitous, vacillating, and undefined. *See* PUBLIC ASSISTANCE.

Hope which any observers might once have held that unemployment compensation would materially reduce need for WPA employment was rudely dispelled as benefits became payable in one state and then another without appreciable diminution of need for WPA jobs. *See* UNEMPLOYMENT COMPENSATION.

Eligibility

To be given WPA employment, workers must be employable, at least eighteen years of age, citizens of the United States (or Indians owing allegiance to the United States), and, with but few exceptions, must be in need. The first prohibitions against employment of certain aliens have been broadened gradually each year since 1936—when Congress forbade employment only of those known to be illegally within the United States—until the employment of all non-citizens was prohibited early in 1939. The Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1939 prohibited employment of persons who advocated or belonged to organizations advocating the overthrow of the government of the United States by force or violence. This provision was of no importance in practice, however, as WPA officials were unable to discover any organizations to which it was applicable. In 1940 Congress went further, therefore, and denied employment to Communists, to members of "any Nazi Bund Organization," and to those who advocate or belong to organizations which advocate "the overthrow of the Government of the United States"—whether or not by force or violence.

All workers (except veterans, unmarried widows of veterans, and wives of unemployable veterans) continuously employed by the WPA for as long as eighteen months must be automatically discharged. After thirty days they may again be employed provided they are in need and provided jobs

are available. Surveys made by the WPA show that this automatic discontinuance of employment results in great hardship and distress.

Questions as to whether or not certain workers are employable are among the most difficult confronting the WPA, for they are relative and depend almost as much upon the nature of available jobs as upon the characteristics of workers. When the decision of the WPA in this regard differs from that of local relief agencies, extreme hardship has been found to result, particularly where relief is denied to supposedly employable workers.

An equally difficult problem is that of measuring the economic need of applicants and workers. When the WPA program was established in 1935, employment—with but few exceptions—was restricted to persons who had actually received relief. This requirement was modified by Congress in 1936 when a provision written into law declared that persons who were in need but not receiving relief should also be eligible for employment. Although this policy is still supposed to be in effect, it is vitiated in many important areas (such as California, Illinois, New York City, and Pennsylvania) where employment by the WPA is, for all practical purposes, limited to persons who have received relief. Although as many as 5 per cent of the jobs provided by the WPA may be given to workers who have not been found to be in need, the number of such persons actually employed has, according to WPA reports, consistently fallen below the allowable proportion.

Employment by the WPA is conditioned not only upon need but also upon relative need, applicants with no income being granted preference over those with some income. Within each of these two groups veterans, unmarried widows of veterans, and wives of unemployable veterans are given preference over others.

Length of residence in a given state or locality is not supposed to be a consideration for WPA employment. Nevertheless, since employment in many areas is dependent upon receipt of relief, and since residence and settlement continue to be considerations in the granting of relief, they automatically affect eligibility for WPA employment. In other areas where receipt of relief is not a necessary prelude to WPA employment, residence is an important consideration, federal rules and regulations notwithstanding.

Ascertainment of the economic need of applicants for WPA jobs is usually a function of state and local public welfare or relief agencies. *See* PUBLIC WELFARE. These, however, have sometimes proved so inadequate, uncooperative, or unreliable that the WPA itself has taken over the responsibility. During the fall of 1938, for example, the WPA was wholly or in large measure responsible for investigations of eligibility in a large proportion of the states, although by March, 1940, it was reported to be making its own investigations in fewer states than formerly. WPA officials in 1940 requested permission to expend not more than $5,000,000 to help state and local agencies meet the cost of investigating eligibility for WPA employment, provided these agencies met prescribed federal standards. This provision was not, however, incorporated in law. Responsibility for investigating the continued need of workers already employed on WPA jobs is normally that of the WPA, though it is sometimes assumed by state or local agencies.

Standards by which applicants are adjudged to be in need vary not only from place to place but, in a given area, are likely to become more stringent as WPA employment decreases, and to be relaxed as employment increases. Standards vary also according to whether or not an applicant is already employed by the WPA. Measures of need used in the periodic reviews of the eligibility of workers already employed are, as a rule, more liberal than those applied to applicants seeking jobs.

Federal law and rules and regulations impose severe penalties for discriminating

against WPA workers or applicants for WPA jobs because of their politics, race, religion, membership in a labor organization, or for any other cause.

Earnings

WPA workers are remunerated in accordance with a schedule of monthly earnings which prescribes the maximum amounts to be paid various types of workers. Earnings vary in accordance with the geographic area in which work is done and with the kind of work performed; but since 1939, wages for any one kind of work may not vary from one locality to another more than may be justified by differences in the cost of living. Geographically, the nation is divided into three wage regions[1] comprising roughly the northern and central states, those in the West and Southwest, and the southern states. Wage rates, as might be expected, are lowest in the southern states. Surprisingly enough, however, half the scheduled rates (those applicable in communities of less than 25,000 population) for the western and southwestern states, such as Arizona, Colorado, Nevada, and New Mexico, are higher than those for northern and central states, such as Illinois, Michigan, New York, and Pennsylvania. The theory behind this is that persons in small communities in the West and Southwest probably have less supplementary income and other resources than do persons living in the northern and central states. Within each wage region, rates vary in accordance with the population of the largest municipality in the county in which work is performed, wage rates being highest in counties in which the population of the largest municipality is at least 100,000, and lowest in counties in which the largest municipality is of less than 5,000 population. In metropolitan areas the wage rate for the largest city applies to the entire area.

Earnings are also graduated according to types of work, which are classified into four general groups: professional and technical, skilled, intermediate, and unskilled. The skilled group is divided into two subgroups, "A" and "B," the latter receiving the lowest wage rate and comprising such workers as elevator operators, seamstresses, flagmen, and messengers, who may be paid from $31.20 to $52.00 a month, depending upon where they work. By far the largest proportion of workers (62.7 per cent, as of December, 1939) are in Group A of the unskilled wage class. Monthly rates for this work range from $35.10 to $50.70 in Region III, to $49.40 to $57.20 in Region II. Second in importance, so far as numbers employed are concerned, is the intermediate wage class. Rates for this group range from $42.90 to $61.10 in Region III, to $59.80 to $68.90 in Region II. Workers in the highest wage class may receive from $55.90 to $81.90 per month in Region III, and from $78.00 to $94.90 in Region II.

Determined as they are by the kind of work done and by the place where it is done, WPA wages obviously are unrelated to individual or family needs. Although the emergency relief appropriation acts of 1939 and 1940 both authorized the WPA to adjust the hours of workers having no dependents so that they would earn a lower monthly wage than that paid other workers, the power has not yet been used.

Under normal circumstances, WPA employes are expected to work one hundred and thirty hours a month, a requirement first written into the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1939. Although monthly earnings prior to this action were limited to the scheduled amounts, hourly rates of pay were those prevailing in each community

[1] Effective September 1, 1939, Region I consisted of Connecticut, Delaware, the District of Columbia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Vermont, West Virginia, and Wisconsin; Region II of Arizona, California, Colorado, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Oregon, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming; and Region III of Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia.

for the type of work done. Thus the number of hours any group of workers was employed was a resultant of their monthly and hourly rates of pay. New York City alone had approximately 125 different schedules of working hours. Hours for different groups of workers sometimes varied from as few as fifty to as many as one hundred and forty per month. The change requiring one hundred and thirty hours' work was requested by WPA officials to permit more efficient scheduling of work, to reduce competition for jobs which workers might otherwise perform while not engaged on their WPA jobs, and to reduce public criticism arising from the fact that some WPA employes could earn their month's wage in a week, leaving them unoccupied the remainder of the month.

Actual earnings of WPA workers throughout the United States averaged approximately $54 a month in July, 1940. Families relying upon this wage for support comprise, on the average, 3.76 persons. Although WPA earnings are relatively high in comparison with benefits granted under other relief programs, they have been regarded as inadequate in certain areas and are supplemented from relief funds.

Organization and Administration

In 1939 the WPA, headed by a commissioner appointed by the President, was placed under the Federal Works Agency by Reorganization Plan No. I. It had previously been an independent agency. Some 1,500 administrative workers were employed in the headquarters office of the WPA in Washington in February, 1940. In the same month there were nine regional offices, each employing from 20 to 30 workers headed by a regional director.

In each state and in New York City there is a WPA set-up headed by an administrator responsible to the federal commissioner and appointed by him subject to Senate approval. Within each state the WPA is organized on a district basis. State and district offices early in 1940 employed a total of some 25,000 workers. Despite frequent requests from the administration, Congress repeatedly has thwarted efforts to place WPA administrative employes—federal, state, and district—under civil service.

The WPA program, as distinguished from the WPA as an administrative organization, is a peculiar hybrid: it is neither highly centralized nor yet decentralized. For example, although federally controlled state and district WPA offices are responsible for the execution of projects once they are put into operation, the WPA itself cannot undertake projects unless they are sponsored by some local, state, or federal governmental agency which is willing and able to initiate the project and meet part of the cost. Thus, if no agencies can be found to sponsor projects, or if they initiate only second-rate projects, the WPA program suffers and there is little the WPA officials can do about it. Similarly, local and state control over processes of referring workers to WPA jobs reduces materially the degree to which the WPA can control its own program. Nowhere is there formal provision for effective appeal to the WPA by applicants to whom local or state relief agencies deny consideration for WPA employment.

WPA officials boast that costs of administration comprise only about 5 per cent of their total expenditures. This is an understatement, however, for it fails to take into consideration expenditures made in connection with the administration of the WPA program by other federal agencies (such as the United States Treasury Department, which is responsible for certain functions such as auditing, writing checks, and purchasing supplies and equipment) and excludes also expenditures made by local and state relief agencies investigating the eligibility of applicants for employment.

Expenditures

Costs of the WPA program to February, 1940, totaled some 7.6 billion dollars from federal funds alone. In addition, substantial contributions were made by local and

state agencies which sponsored projects. These contributions rose from approximately 10 per cent of project costs in the fiscal year 1935–1936 to approximately 26 per cent of these costs during the first eight months of the fiscal year 1939–1940.

Although by far the largest proportion of the non-federal funds are contributed by local as opposed to state agencies, the latter were reported in 1940 to be assuming increasing obligations under the program.

From federal funds, expenditures per worker are estimated at about $54 a month for wages, $6.00 for materials, and $2.00 for administration. To this must be added about $17 per worker per month for materials, supplies, or equipment paid for from state or local funds.

Projects

Among criteria established for WPA work are these: the work should be socially desirable and useful; it should be such as can be performed by the needy unemployed in the given area and, in so far as possible, should use their best skills and abilities; it should not involve maintenance work (such as garbage collection and snow removal) that would otherwise be done by regular employes; it should not inure to the benefit of private individuals or groups of individuals; and it should not compete with private enterprise.

Under pressure from the Associated General Contractors of America and from several American Federation of Labor unions representing crafts engaged in the construction industry, Congress in 1939 prohibited the WPA from erecting buildings involving more than $52,000 from federal funds. Pressure from the same sources was exerted on Congress in 1940 to restrict WPA construction still farther; but this time there was counter-pressure from the National Guard Association which was anxious to lessen restrictions on the erection of armories and other means of national defense. In response to this new influence Congress authorized the WPA to undertake construction of buildings involving not more than $100,000 in federal expenditures. Further indications of the times written into the 1940 Emergency Relief Appropriation Act were provisions exempting from established requirements projects which are important to the nation's defense program, and authorizations permitting the WPA to establish courses to train workers needed in furthering the rearmament program.

Work accomplished by the WPA prior to 1940 involved some 250,000 projects varying in size from New York City's famous $40,000,000 North Beach Airport to small projects involving only a few hundred dollars. To give a few examples: more than 450,000 miles of roads, streets, and highways have been constructed or improved; 23,000 new public buildings have been completed, and over 62,000 others improved; nearly 600,000 water or sewer connections have been established; 197 airports have been completed and 372 others improved; over 68,000,000 books have been renovated for libraries; on a single day in January, 1940, over 1,000,000 lunches were served to children in 11,000 schools.

Unsettled Questions

Controversial questions regarding the WPA program center for the most part on the degree of control that should be exercised over it by the federal government on the one hand, and by state and local governments on the other. Critics of the Roosevelt administration, among them spokesmen for the Republican Party, have demanded a larger measure of state and local control. Although there have been within the WPA itself those who would like to see increased federal control, especially with regard to the selection of workers, leaders in the Roosevelt administration appeared not only content but eager to leave in state and local hands responsibility for sponsoring projects and for investigating the eligibility of applicants for jobs.

A second unanswered question is whether the program should in the future lean more

definitely toward being a relief measure, or should swing more decidedly in the direction of a work program. The Congress of Industrial Organizations, the American Association of Social Workers, and other organizations have stoutly championed abolition of the means test and payment of regular wages. An opposed view—that the work progtam should be abandoned in favor of a less costly program of direct relief—is widely advocated, not only by leading Republicans but also by certain leaders in the Democratic Party and by a number of organizations including the United States Chamber of Commerce. The decision now appears likely to hinge upon the success of the rearmament program in reducing unemployment, and upon the extent to which the WPA participates in that program.

A third question for the future is whether federal responsibility for unemployed persons can be fulfilled through a work program alone—as has been attempted since 1935—or whether, in order to meet its responsibility more fully, the federal government may not again have to undertake a program of direct assistance to supplement its work program. This course has been widely advocated by both friends and critics of the administration and by social workers and public welfare administrators who see at first hand compelling evidence of its need. A recent proposal advanced by Dean Edith Abbott of the School of Social Service Administration, University of Chicago, calls for a single federally administered, federally operated, and federally financed program to provide either employment or financial assistance to needy unemployed workers and their families.

State and Local Work Relief

Although since 1935 by far the largest proportion of work relief has been provided by the WPA, state and local programs of work relief and work-for-relief have within recent years gradually increased in importance and have received widespread public support. Impetus was given to this development by the enactment of the Pierson Act in Pennsylvania in 1939, permitting the employment of relief recipients on local work projects. Early in 1940 the number of family heads in Pennsylvania who earned all or part of their relief grants was approximately 17,500. In Illinois, late in 1939, some 20,000 relief recipients were reported to have worked in return for their allowances. In New York State in 1940, Governor Lehman vetoed a measure passed by the legislature to permit local work relief programs.

In May, 1940, it was estimated that local and state work relief programs throughout the country were in operation in some 25 states and employed from 100,000 to 180,000 workers. Variance in estimates is due to the utter lack of reliable reports of the extent of these programs.

Work done in many areas was reported to be of the following types: maintenance work on roads and streets, office work in public agencies, and activities in connection with other services rendered by state and local authorities. The amount workers were permitted to earn was almost universally limited to the difference between their estimated needs and resources. Rates of pay, however, were frequently fixed at the prevailing hourly rates for comparable work in the community.

The growth of local and state work relief programs is commonly attributed to the inadequacy of WPA employment quotas; denial of WPA employment to aliens; difficulties in developing WPA jobs in rural areas where, without establishing special projects, relief recipients can be employed on regular road and other work crews; and finally, a desire on the part of governmental agencies to avoid the necessity of constructing new buildings and establishing new facilities and services which, upon completion by the WPA, would have to be maintained from state or local funds, thereby increasing operating budgets.

Opinions concerning the social justification of local and state work relief programs

range from bitter condemnation to unqualified praise. Critics attack them as being forced labor and "work-or-starve" measures which, in addition to other shortcomings, threaten the very existence of the WPA. At the opposite extreme are those who praise these programs as models of what ought to be and as examples of what would be established more widely if control over the WPA program were decentralized to give greater power to state and local governments. Viewed from either extreme, the future of state and local work relief seems inseparably bound up with that of the WPA.

Future Trends of Work Relief

For the long future the most important consideration regarding work relief is how to modify the nation's economic order so that employable workers may be absorbed in normal employment without recourse to relief jobs. For the immediate future, factors most likely to affect the development of work relief in the United States are the nation's rearmament and defense program and economic adjustments that may have to be made because of the titanic upheavals taking place in the economic order of Europe and the rest of the world. What these will mean to the nation in general and to work relief in particular cannot now be conjectured.

As for defense and rearmament, these may so reduce unemployment that work relief programs may be sharply curtailed without hardship. However, gains in certain types of employment will undoubtedly be offset to some degree at least by the displacement of labor in other industries and by losses in foreign trade. Despite any general increases that may be experienced in employment, the degree to which justifiable reductions in work relief programs can be realized will be affected by the extent to which workers now employed on these programs—as opposed to other unemployed workers who outnumber relief workers by three or four to one—get the new jobs.

Defense needs have resulted in widespread use of the WPA in construction and other work which it can perform. Increased emphasis upon the WPA's role in the nation's defense program is altogether likely to lead to greater pressure to employ workers because of what they can do rather than because of their economic need.

Whatever the immediate future may hold, sound national policy requires that decent and adequate relief must be quickly available to all needy persons who are not absorbed either by the rearmament program or the nation's normal economy. National policy also requires that, in the event work and other relief measures are reduced because of a rearmament boom, the nation must stand ready, when and if that boom ends, either to resort again to public employment and work relief for those who have no jobs, or to effect such modifications in the economic order as will provide, for all who lack it, socially useful employment.

Studies of Unemployment Relief

Since establishment of the WPA program in 1935 a number of attempts have been made to study its effectiveness in meeting the need it was designed to alleviate. Among these studies may be noted especially the work of the Senate Committee to Investigate Unemployment and Relief (the so-called Byrnes Committee) which held hearings, presented a bill (S. 1265, introduced in 1939) incorporating its major recommendations, then held further hearings on that bill. A second broad attempt to evaluate the WPA program was that made by the House Committee on Investigation and Study of the Works Progress Administration, the so-called Woodrum Committee. This Committee was given an appropriation of $100,000 and established a staff of investigators that probed into WPA operations in some 20 to 25 states. Extensive hearings were held by the Committee and many of its primary recommendations written into the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1939 and continued in the act of the following year. A third attempt to appraise

federal provision for the unemployed was made by a committee of congressmen who voluntarily banded together under the leadership of Representative Voorhis of California to study various aspects of the problem of unemployment and the federal government's relationship to it. A report of its findings was released in 1940.

More comprehensive than previous studies of national relief needs and measures was that undertaken in 1940 by the National Resources Planning Board with a view to framing recommendations for the new Congress when it assembled in 1941.

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WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION[1] is a form of social insurance by which a worker who is injured in the course of his employment receives benefits without having to prove that his employer was at fault in the cause of the accident. Under this plan—which by September, 1940, had superseded common law remedies and "employers' liability" statutes in all but one state[2]—compensation for a work injury is considered part of the cost of production. The workmen's compensation laws in the various states determine what workers are included in the plans, the benefits they receive in money and services when they are injured, how their claims are handled, and what measures if any are taken by the compensation authority to prevent industrial injuries. The details of these laws are so varied that any general statement about them is necessarily subject to qualifications, and it is impossible to make a fairly accurate tabulation of the features without appending a lengthy list of exceptions, modifications, and explanations.[1]

The primary differences in the framework of the compensation systems are found in (a) the use of the compulsory or the elective method of covering persons and employments and (b) the organization for securing the payment of compensation—whether by private insurance, private insurance with a competing state fund, or exclusive state fund. Under most of these plans permission is granted to an employer, upon his showing acceptable financial responsibility, to carry his own risk or to "self-insure."

The ends sought, as indicated by the workmen's compensation laws that have been fully developed, are:

1. The provision of immediate and suitable medical treatment when injuries occur.
2. The prompt and just payment of benefits, at a minimum of inconvenience to the worker.
3. The prevention of occupational injuries and diseases through a program in which employers, workers, and public authorities cooperate.
4. Participation in a plan for rehabilitating workers who, because of their injuries, are no longer able to follow their former occupations.

Historical Development

The mounting number of work injuries arising from the rapid mechanization of industry focused public attention, late in the nineteenth century, on the plight of disabled workers who were usually unable to recover damages and often became charges upon public support or private charity. The first modern compensation law was enacted in Germany in 1884. England followed with a compensation act in 1897. The German pattern embodied the compulsory insurance principle. The English plan was

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

[2] Mississippi. Operation of an act passed in Arkansas in 1939 has been deferred by referendum.

[1] For an analysis of the principal features of the workmen's compensation laws *see* Sharkey, *infra cit.*

elective and left to the employer the right to choose whether he would accept the compensation system or face the risk of damage suits.

The early American laws were necessarily based in part upon foreign experience, and the different patterns may be distinguished by the extent to which British or German models were adapted. The rapid growth of workmen's compensation laws in the United States came through independent action. The first of such laws was enacted in 1908 and covered employes of the federal government. After a brief period of experimental legislation, 20 laws were enacted in the years 1911–1913.

An outstanding feature of compensation law and practice in the United States has been the variety of the provisions in the states, both as to benefit payments and procedure.[1] For many years the need for standardization and uniformity has been discussed by workmen's compensation administrators at their annual conventions. But in the main, amendments of the laws have come through bargaining and compromise and have complicated the diversity of the original patterns. In some states the laws have become intricate, confused, and technical, and there has been an increasing participation of lawyers in the settlement of claims.

The Cost of Workmen's Compensation

The annual loss of life caused by industrial accidents in the United States is estimated to range from at least 15,000 for years when industry is slack to more than 25,000 for years of great industrial activity. The total of injuries involving loss of time varies with the ebb and flow of employment from 1,400,000 to 3,000,000. According to estimates of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, industrial accidents during 1938 resulted in the death of 16,400 persons. Permanent injuries affected a total of 98,900 persons, and temporarily disabling injuries another 1,260,300.[1]

Only approximate estimates of the total cost of workmen's compensation are available. On the basis of actual figures as to part of the coverage and conjecture as to the rest, it is probable that the total country-wide cost of workmen's compensation coverage in 1937 was not less than $400,000,000.[2]

It is impossible to make more than a broad estimate of the annual cost of medical aid to injured workers. The estimate of medical expense for the year 1938 made by the National Safety Council[3] is $75,000,000; while a recent estimate of the American Medical Association is "about $100,000,000."[4]

It is not possible to measure the effect of workmen's compensation legislation upon the incidence of industrial injuries, but where such laws have been linked with competent supervisory programs the evidence points to beneficial results. In Wisconsin, for example, it is said that while the liberality of workmen's compensation benefit has increased 100 per cent since the original compensation act was passed, the insurance rates have increased only 25 per cent. This could only come about through a decline in the injury rate. While the evidence points to a decline in the rate of industrial injuries, the improvement has been uneven. In most of the states the inspection services are deficient because of under-support and the failure to establish standards as to the qualifications and tenure of inspectors. In consequence not only accidents but disasters occur, caused by unsafe practices that are disclosed after instead of before such events.

Adequacy of Benefit Payments and Medical Aid

Since the first compensation acts were passed there has been a notable but uneven

[1] For an account of the varying methods *see* Dawson, "Claims Administration in Workmen's Compensation," *infra cit.*

[1] *See* Kossoris and Kjaer, *infra cit.*

[2] *See* Dawson, "Coverage Limitations of Workmen's Compensation Laws," *infra cit.*

[3] *See* National Safety Council, *infra cit.*

[4] *See* American Medical Association, *infra cit.*

development toward adequacy of benefit payments. The provision under the early legislation was usually meager. Where the calculation made use of a part-time wage as the basis of compensation, the injured worker sometimes received only a few cents a week. The depression following the year 1929 brought this situation into the foreground, and in consequence changes in the law or in administrative methods affecting adequacy of benefits have occurred in some jurisdictions.

The continuing lack of uniformity as to the amount of payment in the states is immediately apparent from an examination of tabulations.[1] For example, the maximum death benefit in South Dakota is $3,000; in North Dakota $15,000. As a rule the payments are based upon a percentage of wages. The scale ranges from 40 to 70 per cent for temporary total disability, and from 50 to 70 per cent for permanent total disability, limited by a weekly maximum varying from $10 in Puerto Rico to $25 under the most liberal state laws and $26.92 under the United States Civil Employees Act.

No cash benefit is paid for industrial injuries, as a rule, unless the disabling effect continues beyond a certain number of days known as the waiting period. The tendency to reduce the length of the waiting period has brought about one of the major improvements in compensation law. In 1916, 21 states required a waiting period of two weeks; by 1938 there were but two states with such a limitation and only four states with a waiting period of ten days or longer.

It has been estimated that because of the operation of waiting periods during which no compensation is paid and the application of limitations as to time and amount of payments, the injured worker scarcely recovers more than 40 per cent of his wage-loss, even in states with liberal compensation acts.

Since the injured worker usually needs money soon after his injury, one of the main purposes of the compensation laws has been to assure prompt and, if possible, almost automatic payment. The performance of the compensation agencies has been much better than the results of litigation in the courts. Some states, for example New York and Wisconsin, have maintained a close check upon the relative promptness of payment by the various insurance carriers, and in consequence the workers in such states have as a rule been spared the anxiety and distress caused by long delay in payment. The interval between the injury and the first payment ranges, in the main, from two weeks in some instances to almost two months or more in others. In some states there has been a retrograde legalistic tendency. The National Conference on Labor Legislation, which meets annually at the invitation of the Secretary of Labor, has recommended that appeals to the courts from the decisions of compensation commissions be restricted to questions of law.

In the judgment of some administrators the provision for medical aid to injured workers has been of even greater value than the money payments. While many of the state laws still limit expenditures for medical aid, an increasing number of insurance carriers and employers have recognized that it is not only good ethics but also "good business" to supply the best of medical attention for the period it is needed. However, instances of excessive charges and unsatisfactory end-results of surgical treatment indicate the need, in many jurisdictions, for more thorough public supervision under legal provision for full medical aid.

The injured worker not only needs to be restored to health but also to working capacity and opportunity. To further this end, federal legislation provides that state funds appropriated for rehabilitation activities be matched by federal appropriations. During the year 1938–1939, 1,977 injured workers were rehabilitated and placed in jobs under this joint arrangement, sometimes at wages larger than those they earned prior to the injury. This is one of the most distinctive developments of the compensation system in the United States, although the remedial

[1] *See* Sharkey, *infra cit.*

possibilities of the rehabilitation plan appear to be much greatet than have yet been utilized. *See* VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION.

Coverage of Persons and Employments

It is estimated that not more than 40 per cent of the gainfully employed workers in the United States are covered by existing workmen's compensation laws.[1] As a rule farmers, domestic servants, and casual employes are excluded from other than a voluntary basis of coverage, and sometimes are absolutely excluded. Many small employers are exempted by the so-called "numerical" exemptions, which range from employers with less than two employes to employers with less than sixteen. The range of coverage is sometimes narrowly restricted in states which have retained the early practice of limiting the operation of the law to the so-called "hazardous" or "extra-hazardous" employments. No state law covers all employments.

Under existing conditions those who most need workmen's compensation are often barred from such protection. At present, complete coverage can apparently only be reached by measures reinforcing the existing system: as, for example, by applying to the insurance rate structure the principle of the collective responsibility of industry for all workers, by public subsidies, or by a combination of these two methods.

Coverage of Injuries and Diseases

Workmen's compensation laws, if strictly interpreted, cover only injuries received in the course of the employment and as a natural consequence of it. With few exceptions the early acts provided compensation payments only for "accidental injuries," excluding occupational diseases by implication if not expressly. However, the distinction between an accidental injury and an occupational disease has been blurred by varying interpretations. As of January 1, 1940, some or all occupational diseases were covered by 30 state and federal acts.

In recent years considerable attention has been directed to the injuries caused by breathing harmful dusts. The best-known example is silicosis, a disease that results from breathing air containing silica. Silicosis is a slow-maturing disease which may eventually be totally disabling and for which, at present, there is no cure. Fears of excessive cost to insurance carriers, now believed because of Wisconsin experience to be unfounded, have hindered the extension of the coverage of silicosis. However, 10 states have made provision for silicosis as a compensable disease, while in Kentucky and West Virginia it may be covered by joint election of employer and employe. As a rule such coverage is more circumscribed by technicalities and limitations than is the coverage for accidental injuries; nevertheless, impetus has been given to the control or prevention of dust-hazards.

Problems of Administration

The workmen's compensation laws are administered by boards and commissions in all but a few states. *See* LABOR LEGISLATION AND ADMINISTRATION. Court administration is still found in Alabama, Alaska, Louisiana, New Hampshire, New Mexico, Tennessee, and Wyoming.

In many states the administrative performance has been seriously impaired by political turnover of personnel and also by deficient support. In the main there has been a lack of competent and forceful administrative guidance of changes in the law, which have usually been controlled by the bargaining of interested groups. In most of the states the basic problem is the restoration, under trained leadership, of the power of self-direction of the administrations. Under the Ontario plan the compensation boards are self-supporting, and the provincial boards usually have the power of final decision in settling claims.

The power of the chief executive to control appointments has carried with it a meas-

[1] *See* Dawson, "Coverage Limitations of Workmen's Compensation Laws," *infra cit.*

ure of control over the internal operations of the compensation commissions in many of the states. In the circumstances the development of a career service, essential to the success of this difficult type of administration, has in the main been prevented in the states. The nearest approaches to a career service are found in New York and Wisconsin.

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YOUTH PROGRAMS.[1] The term "youth" is here used to designate persons between the ages of sixteen and twenty-four inclusive. Activities in behalf of persons under the age of sixteen are discussed elsewhere. *See* BOYS' AND GIRLS' WORK ORGANIZATIONS. The term "programs" here includes only activities organized nationally by either governmental agencies or non-governmental associations.

Excluded are many professional organizations of adults in the fields of social service, education, health, recreation, and religion whose activities have important bearings upon youth welfare. Also excluded are associations whose primary aim is to promote some specific cause, such as world peace, temperance, racial harmony, or others; and many national patrioric, polirical, religious, fraternal, and labor organizations, all of which are concerned in part with persons under the age of twenty-five. With regard to governmental activities, this article is limited to the National Youth Administration and the Civilian Conservation Corps. Other federal agencies whose activities affect young persons are described elsewhere. *See* FEDERAL AGENCIES IN SOCIAL WORK.

[1] For the names of national agencies in this field see INDEX under the title of this article.

Youth Programs

National Youth Administration

The National Youth Administration (NYA), created by Executive Order No. 7086, June 26, 1935, and placed on July 1, 1939, in the Federal Security Agency, carries on the program of student aid begun earlier by the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, administers work projects for needy unemployed youth who are not in school, and assists young people to obtain jobs in private employment. Its objectives are stated as follows: (a) to provide funds for the part-time employment of needy school, college, and graduate students between sixteen and twenty-five years of age so that they can continue their education; (b) to provide funds for the part-time employment on work projects of young persons, chiefly from families certified as in need of public assistance, between eighteen and twenty-five years of age, the projects being designed not only to provide valuable work experience but to benefit youth generally and the communities in which they live; (c) to encourage the establishment of job training and counseling services for NYA workers and other young persons, and to prepare and distribute occupational information; and (d) to encourage the development and extension of constructive leisure-time activities. *See* ADULT EDUCATION and RECREATION.

A national administrator directs the general plan with the aid of a national executive committee, a national advisory committee, state advisory committees, and state as well as local directors. Special groups—such as agriculture, labor, business, education, youth, welfare agencies, women's clubs, and civic groups—are encouraged to participate in the program. More than 2,600 local committees have been formed, all serving without compensation. Local officials and others are asked to suggest and plan desirable projects and help carry them out. This is on the theory that they are best acquainted with local conditions and needs, and also best able to effect economy and efficiency in planning.

From its inception in June, 1935, to June 30, 1940, total allocations to the NYA were $335,000,000. For the part-time employment of needy students in high schools, colleges, and graduate schools the following amounts were allocated during the respective academic years: $24,099,710 in 1935–1936, $28,900,000 in 1936–1937, $19,091,039 in 1937–1938, $20,186,411 in 1938–1939, $28,080,342 in 1939–1940, and $26,240,281 for 1940–1941. The total number of students aided rose rapidly from 34,924 in September, 1935, to a peak of 404,749 in April, 1936; reached another peak of 443,986 in April, 1937; and still another peak of 473,485 in March, 1940, with 29,150 schools and colleges participating. In that month the average hourly earnings were 27.9 cents, and the average monthly earnings $6.91 per student.

For work projects for out-of-school youth, $15,257,101 was allocated for the first fiscal half-year ending June 30, 1936, $36,601,239 for the fiscal year 1936–1937, $33,300,000 for the fiscal year 1937–1938, $53,000,000 for the fiscal year 1938–1939, $75,000,000 for 1939–1940, and $67,884,000 for 1940–1941. The number of youth aged eighteen to twenty-four inclusive being assisted under this phase tose from 16,751 in January, 1936, to a peak of 184,256 in June of the same year; reached another peak of 189,866 in April, 1937; and reached a high of 336,282 in March, 1940. Average hourly earnings usually varied from 22 to 30 cents from month to month, and average monthly earnings were around $15.36 per youth. The type of projects varies widely. A recent classification lists highways, streets, public buildings; parks and other recreational facilities; conservation, educational service, recreational leadership; professional, technical, and clerical assistance; sewing and shop work; and miscellaneous.

A plan has been worked out in cooperation with the public employment services of a number of states, whereby junior employment counselors from the NYA are sta-

tioned in the state offices in carefully selected communities to interview and seek jobs for youth in private industry. Beginning in March, 1936, this arrangement was gradually expanded until, by January 1, 1940, it existed in 187 cities of 41 states, and the number of different registrants aged sixteen to twenty-four inclusive aggregated 641,056. Up to that date a total of 266,085 individual placements had been made, and personal visits had been made to 124,910 employers for purposes of solicitation.

Among other special projects of the NYA are the resident training projects under which, in August, 1938, the latest date for which figures are available, approximately 32,193 youth aged eighteen to twenty-four were being employed in nearly 600 centers in 45 states. A large number of these projects are operated in cooperation with agricultural and mechanical schools, teachers' colleges, vocational schools, and hospitals. The young men and women on these projects study and put into practice such things as scientific farming methods, home economics activities, and the use of machine tools and shop equipment. The length of these projects varies from six weeks to six months.

During the year 1938–1939 a special type of resident project was developed—the regional center. Young men of outstanding aptitudes and abilities from various projects in a region have been given the opportunity to attend these regional centers where added attention is given to the development of their abilities, especially in mechanical fields. The 2,000 young men in these centers are enabled to get a more technical and specialized work experience in machine shops and in such trades as auto mechanics, electrical wiring and lining, steam fitting, sheet metal, welding, plumbing, carpentry, and so forth. Regional projects are located in South Charleston, W. Va.; Algiers, La.; Cassidy Lake, Mich.; the Muskingum Conservancy District, Ohio; Shakopee, Minn.; Weiser, Idaho; Buchanan Dam, Tex.; and Quoddy Village, Maine.

According to statements made in July, 1940, the Administration planned increasingly to emphasize during the fiscal year 1940–1941 projects which would furnish work experience and fundamental training in mechanical occupations. It was felt that experience of this sort would facilitate the preparation of young persons for employment in industries which were expected to expand as an outcome of increased production for national defense. Later news reports indicated that substantial progress was being made along these lines.

Civilian Conservation Corps

The Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) was established in April, 1933, as part of a program then known as Emergency Conservation Work, to furnish work and training for unemployed young men and to advance the conservation and building up of the country's natural resources of timber, soil, and water. It was given status by Act of Congress in 1937; and its period of operation was then extended until July 1, 1940. This 1937 Act was amended August 7, 1939, providing for the continuation of the Corps through June 30, 1943. The Corps operated as an independent government agency from April, 1933, through June 30, 1939, when it became a part of the Federal Security Agency created by the President under the Reorganization Act of 1939.

The CCC program is headed by a director, appointed by the President by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. He is assisted by three cooperating government departments—War, Interior, and Agriculture—the Veterans Administration, and a large group of state welfare and conservation agencies.

In addition to directing and coordinating the CCC program, the office of the director handles the selection of junior enrollees. These enrollees, young men between the ages of seventeen and twenty-three, are selected through state public welfare agencies in each state. War veterans are selected by

the Veterans Administration through its regional offices. The functions of the War Department include enrolment of the men selected; construction and administration of the camps; supplying food, clothing, medical and dental care, and hospitalization for the enrollees; and direction of the camp educational program. The conservation work projects are under the technical supervision of the Departments of the Interior and Agriculture. Officials of the various bureaus of these Departments plan the work programs, with the assistance of state and local officials familiar with the conservation problems in their areas. Through their technical supervisors—trained conservationists—these Departments take charge of the actual work of the enrollees.

The Corps operates a chain of 1,500 barrack camps for young men and war veterans throughout the continental United States, and approximately 100 smaller camps on Indian reservations and in Alaska, the Virgin Islands, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico. The enrolled strength of the Corps is limited to a maximum of 270,000 junior enrollees, 30,000 war veterans, 10,000 Indians, and 5,000 territorial enrollees.

To be eligible to join the CCC a young man must be: a citizen of the United States; between the ages of seventeen and twenty-three; unmarried; unemployed and in need of employment; of good character, with stability of purpose and a desire for work experience and self-improvement; and in good physical condition. There are no age or marital restrictions for war veterans, Indians, or territorial enrollees.

From 1933 to 1937, junior enrollees were chosen from families on relief. From 1937 to June, 1940, enrollees were required to be unemployed and in need of employment but it was no longer requisite that their families be on relief rolls. Preference in selection, however, was still given to boys from such families. Since June, 1940, the requirement that a boy be unemployed and in need of employment has been interpreted to allow the enrolment of unemployed boys from families of moderate means who are unable to give their sons the job training and the educational and other opportunities available in the Corps.

As the Corps is both a work and welfare program the results of its operation fall into two general categories—benefits to the boys themselves, and benefits to the nation through the conservation work completed by these boys. Its enrollees have been youths who have required jobs, security, and training which would aid them in taking their places as responsible members of society after they left the camps. Their health has been improved through the regular regimen of camp life and the medical care received while in camp. They have had opportunity to improve their academic education and to receive vocational and job training of a type which has resulted in many thousands obtaining jobs before their term of enrolment was up and additional thousands finding employment in private industry after they had left the camps. The entire pattern of camp life is directed toward helping the boy find a useful place in society where he can earn his own living. The boys learn how to work with hand and brain and are inculcated with a sense of responsibility for doing a job well. The development of physical hardihood, habits of orderliness, discipline, personal hygiene, good citizenship, and love of country are stressed.

The Corps' diversified work program consists of some 150 different types of conservation projects. By planting trees over hundreds of thousands of acres of wastelands, by demonstrating proper measures for soil erosion control on farms, by strengthening the forest and park protection systems against forest fires and attacks of insects and tree diseases, by developing parks and forests for recreational use, by conserving wild life and carrying on flood control, range rehabilitation, drainage, reclamation, and other conservation projects, the CCC work program has added much to the nation's present and future natural wealth.

A brief summary of the major conserva-

tion and welfare accomplishments of the CCC during the seven-year period April 1, 1933—March 31, 1940, follows:

Employment has been furnished to an aggregate of 2,662,000 persons, including 2,440,000 enrolled men. Of the enrolled group, 2,209,000 have been young men, 141,000 war veterans, 60,000 Indians, and 30,000 territorials.

Young men and war veterans have been paid cash allowances which have enabled them to contribute $575,000,000 to needy dependents back home.

Education and practical work training have been given to more than 2,000,000 young men; more than 85,000 illiterates have been taught to read and write; and more than 545,000 enrollees have left the camps to accept private jobs prior to completing their terms of enrolment.

The national refotestation program has been advanced by the planting of 1,750,000,000 forest tree seedlings over 1,750,000 acres of unproductive land; by improving forest stands over 3,500,000 acres; and by conducting aggressive campaigns against tree diseases and tree-attacking insects over 21,440,000 acres.

Forest fire protection systems have been strengthened in public forests and parks and adjacent areas by construction of 114,000 miles of truck trails and minor roads, the laying of 75,000 miles of telephone lines, reduction of fire hazards along 75,000 miles of roads and trails, and erection of more than 4,000 fire look-out and observation towers.

The presence of the enrollees in the woods has furnished the nation with a first-class forest-fire-fighting patrol during fire seasons, with the result that millions of acres of forest and park lands have been saved from fire damage.

Since the spring of 1934 the Corps has constructed 5,450,000 check dams and planted 250,000,000 quick-growing-type trees on eroded farm areas as part of a nation-wide erosion control program.

Recreational opportunities in the nation's forests and parks have been opened up for millions by stimulating new state park development projects and by imptoving recreational facilities in national and state parks and other areas.

The Corps has roused national interest in wild life conservation by furnishing men and funds for the acquisition and development of a chain of wild life refuges, by improving conditions for fishing, and by stimulating federal and state agencies to greater wild life conservation activity. It has built 4,600 fish-rearing pools, expanded national and state fish hatchery facilities, improved more than 6,500 miles of streams, stocked lakes, ponds, and streams with 795,000,000 fingerlings and young fish, and conducted rodent control operations over 36,000 acres.

CCC men have constructed 47,000 bridges and 53,000 buildings of various types.

Catholic Youth Programs

The Catholic Church has always been interested in youth. Naturally, its leaders stress the spiritual aspect of the youth program. They constantly utilize human helpers and human agencies in order to safeguard youth's interests. These leaders cooperate with and place responsibility on lay leaders genuinely interested in the development of youth programs and youth groups. Youth activities vary in different localities. Since a program necessarily depends upon local conditions, youth's needs, and youth's interests, no attempt is made to conform to a nation-wide, uniform pattern. Ordinarily, youth programs and organizations are developed along parish lines. The parish hall is the commonly accepted center, and it is utilized for a wide variety of services: vacation schools, health clinics, boys' and girls' clubs, athletic activities, musical and dramatic entertainments, forums, discussion clubs, motion pictures, and libraries.

More recently, new forms of Catholic youth action have been developed in the specialized field known as Catholic Action. Through the Young Christian Workers Movement well-trained lay leaders under the supervision of the clergy work as lay apostles in their own social milieu: young workers among working youth; students among youth in high schools, colleges, and universities; young farmers in rural com-

munities. This movement is interested not only in the religious formation of the membership and the moral transformation of the workers' world, but it is also concerned with social services for young workers (health, employment, recreation, professional guidance). It has already taken root in certain parts of the country.

Definite steps have been taken in a number of dioceses to coordinate the Catholic youth programs. Existing programs are not destroyed but rather harmonized in order to avoid duplication of effort. In some instances the coordinating process is limited to the organization of a central office or agency. Its essential purpose is to develop programs of youth activities and to provide adult assistance in the maintenance of educational and recreational opportunities given to youth. Ordinarily each central office or agency is under the direction of trained adult leaders. The Catholic Youth Organization (CYO), which has been established in a number of dioceses, is an excellent example of method in program coordination. Over and above the question of program, provision is made in many dioceses for united activity on the part of all existing, approved Catholic youth organizations. To this end youth groups, regardless of label, immediate objectives, or age level, are federated through the medium of parish, deanery, and diocesan Youth Councils. These Councils, which are diocesan in control, function under the leadership of young people genuinely interested and carefully selected.

Although many dioceses have given special attention to the development of youth programs it does not necessarily follow that in every instance the youth program has diocesan coverage. Neither does it mean that youth organizations do not exist in those dioceses where no attempt has been made to unify them. Boston, Brooklyn, Chicago, Cleveland, Detroit, Fort Wayne, Hartford, La Crosse, Los Angeles, Milwaukee, New York, Providence, and San Francisco illustrate what can be done in the work of coordination of youth programs and the unification of youth's forces. In those dioceses where the youth program has been highly developed, diocesan youth directors have been appointed on a full-time basis. In others, clergy and lay leaders supervise the program on a part-time basis. Ordinarily the supervision and direction of the program of activities are taken care of by volunteer workers. Training programs intended primarily for the volunteer leader have been stressed.

Youth conferences and diocesan youth leaders' conferences have become a very important feature in the Catholic youth program in many sections of the country. In shaping the content of the program for the youth conferences, emphasis has been placed on a study of the Church's social teaching in its application to modern social problems.

Many youth groups working in a special field of interest are national in scope, and some of them are of long standing and well organized, such as the Holy Name Society, Sodality of Our Lady, and the Catholic Students' Mission Crusade. Some adult organizations have developed youth programs, such as the Knights of Columbus, the Catholic Central Verein of America, and so forth. In addition there are certain national Catholic organizations conducting activities which entirely or in part serve youth's needs: the Christ Child Society, National Council of Catholic Women, National Conference of Catholic Charities, National Catholic Educational Association, and others.

The coordination of all Catholic youth work on a national basis is accomplished through the medium of the National Catholic Welfare Conference (NCWC). In February, 1937, the NCWC established a Youth Bureau which functions as a fact-finding agency on the whole field of youth work, assists in the establishment and promotion of authorized youth organizations, facilitates the exchange of information and programs on youth activities, and keeps in touch with governmental agencies, so that Catholic youth associations may be informed con-

cerning them. One of the functions of the NCWC Youth Bureau is to develop the National Catholic Youth Council, authorized by the Administrative Board of the NCWC in April, 1937. This Council makes provision for a Diocesan Section which bands together, on a voluntary basis, Diocesan Youth Councils or their equivalent. The College and University Section of the NCWC makes provision for the affiliation of two nation-wide Catholic student organizations—the National Federation of Catholic College Students, and the Newman Club Federation. Thus the NCWC becomes the unifying agency for all Catholic youth in the United States, without interfering in any way with the necessary autonomy of the constituent units. *See* CATHOLIC SOCIAL WORK.

Jewish Agencies for Youth

The Jewish Welfare Board is the national agency under which are federated 323 constituent local societies in the United States and Canada having an aggregate membership of 400,000 individuals at the beginning of 1940. Of these members, 324,000 were below the age of twenty-six and 210,000 were of the ages thirteen to twenty-five inclusive. For the program for twelve years of age and under *see* Jewish Welfare Board in BOYS' AND GIRLS' WORK ORGANIZATIONS. Forty-seven of the local organizations are Young Men's Hebrew Associations, 15 are Young Women's Hebrew Associations, and 216 are Jewish Centers. Two hundred and thirty-eight of these organizations own buildings having an aggregate value of $37,000,000. In 1939, paid executive and professional staff members were employed by 212 organizations, to the number of 1,224. In addition 2,000 Works Progress Administration and National Youth Administration workers were assigned to Jewish Center activities. Forty-one outdoor camps and 64 home camps were conducted with an enrolment of 29,122 boys and girls.

The general purpose of the Jewish Welfare Board is to promote the religious, intellectual, physical, and social well-being and development of Jews, especially young men and women; to stimulate the organization of Jewish Centers, Young Men's Hebrew Associations, Young Women's Hebrew Associations, and kindred societies and to give general assistance to such societies and correlate their activities; to develop Judaism and good citizenship; and to render service to soldiers and sailors in the United States Army and Navy.

The major activities of the local Associations and Centers are: religious services—through cultural courses, holiday observance, drama, music, and art; educational activities—commercial, academic, vocational and adult education and discussion groups, and libraries; club work—for vocational guidance, employment service, and Big Brother and Big Sister work; cultural activities—Americanization, cooperation with patriotic and civic organizations, music, drama, art, forums, lectures, and concerts; social activities—games, dances, entertainments, and use of recreational and social rooms; physical and health activities—clubs, gymnasia, swimming, games, athletics, dancing (interpretative, aesthetic, and social), summer outdoor camps, home camps, and outings; and local youth conferences.

Among the more significant developments during the past three years has been an expansion in adult educational activities, particularly of the type conducted through forums, discussion groups, and institutes dealing with problems of current general and Jewish interest. There has also been emphasis upon the training of volunteer leaders of small voluntary groups and clubs. The Jewish Center generally has moved in the direction of extended usefulness as a Jewish community organization, endeavoring to meet the needs for improved organization in the conduct of Jewish communal affairs. This has been particularly true in the small and intermediate communities. There has been increased emphasis on vocational guidance and employment services

and on social and cultural adjustment of recent immigrants. In connection with the Army and Navy welfare activities of the Jewish Welfare Board an outstanding development has been the service extended to the young men in the Civilian Conservation Corps.

There are many other Jewish organizations and agencies concerned wholly or in part with youth programs of a fraternal, religious, or social service character. Among the associations for young men are Aleph Zadik Aleph of the B'nai B'rith, and Masada (the Youth Zionist Organization of America); for young women, Junior Hadassah and the National Council of Jewish Juniors; for students, Avukah (the American Student Zionist Federation) and the B'nai B'rith Hillel Foundations. The American Jewish Congress maintains a Youth Division, and the National Conference of Jewish Social Welfare and the Council of Jewish Federations and Welfare Funds devote their efforts in part to the study of youth problems and youth programs. *See* JEWISH SOCIAL WORK.

Young Men's Christian Associations

Founded in London in 1844 and introduced in America in 1851, the Young Men's Christian Association has for its purpose the improvement of the mental, moral, and physical conditions "of all young men of good moral character." The voting membership in the United States has long been chiefly restricted by national action to members of evangelical churches. In 1933, however, each local Association was permitted to determine the qualifications of voting members and members of boards of control. At present girls and women are admitted to membership and activities and can even qualify as YMCA secretaries. This development has arisen out of changing community relationships and pressures rather than organizational policy.

The greatest possible local initiative is encouraged, as against attempts to make plans and dictate fixed programs from the office of the National Council. In addition to its advisory relationship the National Council conducts conferences of young men and boys, administers its Army and Navy branches, and does publication, research, and survey work. For the program for boys under eighteen years of age see Young Men's Christian Associations in BOYS' AND GIRLS' WORK ORGANIZATIONS.

In 1940 there were 849 city Associations, 127 railroad Associations, 63 colored men's Associations, 37 Army and Navy Associations, 192 Associations in colleges and universities, and 83 town and country Associations. These Associations reported 1,316,573 members, of whom 105,745 were women and girls. Of the total membership, 61.7 per cent were over eighteen and the remaining 38.3 per cent were under eighteen years of age (24.0 per cent being young men from eighteen to twenty-four years of age). Current operating expenditures aggregated $48,988,200 in the 1939 fiscal year, and the contribution income was $10,361,200. These statistics and others are published annually in the Association's *Year Book* together with an interpretative summary of the organized life of the movement.

There are two affiliated colleges for the training of secretaries—one at Chicago and the other at Springfield, Mass. Workers are also supplied, or further training afforded, by non-affiliated institutions and through local centers and summer conferences. Minimum standards for a secretaryship include complete college training, while full professional certification requires two years of successful practice.

In smaller communities without regularly organized Associations, many state committees conduct Hi-Y clubs and camp activities for high school boys. Emphasis is placed on refinement and flexibility of service and upon long-range planning. In the larger cities formal educational work includes day and night courses in vocational and cultural subjects. Employment agencies as well as vocational and guidance service are often

maintained. Informal education on a wide range includes lectures, forums, clubs, and discussion groups. Health and physical education are emphasized and recreational activities are a major part of the program of service, featuring indoor and outdoor sports. Cafeterias, dramatic clubs, socials, motion picture shows, and orchestras are included in the many types of service offered. Dormitories are opetated for boys and young men away from home. *See* HOUSING FOR UNATTACHED PERSONS.

Summer camps, athletic and aquatic sports, and boys' conferences are featured. Increasing attention is given to leisure-time activities, to education for citizenship, and to the practical applications of democracy. Programs are focused on the needs and interests of young people. The group activities are used as opportunities for personal attention to individual problems, special attention being given to the needs of young persons who are unemployed. It is the policy to work in close cooperation with other youth agencies. While retaining its relationship to the Protestant churches, the Association is increasingly identified with the community as expressed through the schools, social agencies, and community chests.

Local Associations situated in communities adjacent to military training centers or near plants engaged in defense production had begun, in October, 1940, to feel the impact of the national defense program on their activities. It was anticipated that a considerable expansion of services would be required to meet the needs of the young men congregated in these communities. It was understood that while in general military authorities would undertake full responsibility for morale-building activities within training camps, existing Army and Navy branches in certain of the long-established camps had been asked to continue their service.

Young Women's Christian Associations

A membership organization of women and girls who come together in voluntary association for the common good of all and for building a better world, the Young Women's Christian Association is interested and concerned in social questions and social action affecting women and girls everywhere. Questions of international peace, race relations, and industrial conditions are regarded as within the field of its work. For the Girl Reserve program *see* Young Women's Christian Associations in BOYS' AND GIRLS' WORK ORGANIZATIONS.

In January, 1940, there were 1,012 local Associations in this country, of which 590 were student bodies in colleges and universities. There were 478 units known as Registered YWCA's in rural communities, 63 branches for Negro women and girls, 74 Indian groups, and 28 International Institutes and Foreign Community Departments doing work with foreign girls. The total membership was about 548,000. In 1939 approximately 3,000,000 women and girls took part in Association activities.

Although there is no attempt to dictate action from national headquarters, the National Board declares frankly that "when the desire for group action follows as a result of vigorous conviction, discussion should take into consideration the whole Association and action should be taken in the light of the whole."

Significant social and industrial changes in recent years have caused the Association to lay especial emphasis on the social implications of the Christian life, not only broadening the program of its own activities in local communities but developing a close and active relationship to other agencies and to the community as a whole. The National Convention in April, 1940, voted to continue work for the next three years on the three major aspects of Association life and work: religion, democracy, and building a world community, fields of endeavor which the Association is convinced are of basic importance in our day. It is recognized that their implications are so vast that no organization, however committed to the ideals they involve, can hope to make more

than a slow progress in relation to them, but the Association believes that any achievement by Christian women toward these ends will be a contribution of importance to society.

The National Board carries, as a part of its constitutional function, the responsibility for the development of local Associations. The task of organizing and distributing national resources in such a way that the world service program is substantial, and that the 1,012 Associations may be served to the best advantage, is one of great magnitude. The National Board endeavors to help local Associations to develop a program based upon the varying needs and interests of individual girls and young women and diverse groups within the constituency, to develop both locally and nationally such self-conscious groups as the needs of the time require, to interpret the various groups of the constituency to each other, and to make continuous progress toward the goal of integration of diverse elements into one fellowship.

The Association maintains a Leadership Division continually engaged in seeking leaders, both lay and professional, adequately prepared and sufficient in number to direct the local Associations in their various activities. This Division carries responsibility for the recruiting, training, and placement of professional secretaries for all types of positions within the Association. Minimum requirements for Association work are a B.A. degree from an accredited college and some experience in the group work field. *See* SOCIAL GROUP WORK.

Professional training for new secretaries is given by the Division through orientation courses held in different centers. For experienced secretaries emphasis is placed on continuous education and training. Seminars are held regularly in some geographical centers and close cooperation is maintained with a small number of universities and schools of social work, the Division conducting seminar hours during the university session for Association secretaries enrolled.

The American Youth Congress

First organized at New York University in 1934 under the name of Central Bureau for Young America, the American Youth Congress is a loose federation representing a great variety of national and local young people's associations, and claims to be an organ of cooperation "for the purpose of giving thought to and stimulating action on the major problems confronting American young people." Annual meetings of delegates from the affiliated groups have been held since 1935. A "Declaration of Rights of American Youth," issued in 1935, was revised and adopted as a brief "Creed of the American Youth Congress" in 1939 and is now the basic platform of the organization.

The diversity of the political views held by different members and factions in the organization has frequently made it difficult to conduct orderly deliberations, and has on occasion precipitated the formation of schismatic rival groups. For these reasons, and on account of recurring charges that it is dominated by numerically small "left-wing" elements, the organization has received much current attention in the press of the nation.

In 1936 a bill bearing the popular name of American Youth Act was drafted and introduced into the Congress of the United States. It has been redrafted and reintroduced in subsequent sessions, the 1940 version being under the names of Senator Murray and Representatives Geyer and Marcantonio. Briefly summarized, it would create a permanent National Youth Administration controlled by a representative national board, and would authorize an annual appropriation of $500,000,000 to provide work at prevailing wages on public works projects for unemployed youth, with part-time study, vocational guidance, and training. It would also provide academic works projects for students in institutions of higher learning, and a system of federal scholarships for needy young persons in high schools, other secondary schools, and vocational schools.

Recent meetings of the organization have included participation in the Second World Youth Congress at Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y., in August, 1938; the Congress of Youth at New York City, July 1–5, 1939; the American Youth Congress National Citizenship Institute at Washington, D. C., February 9–12, 1940; and the Sixth American Youth Congress at College Camp, Lake Geneva, Wis., July 3–7, 1940. Pamphlet publications reporting these activities have been issued from time to time.

The American Youth Commission

Appointed by the American Council on Education in 1935 to head a five-year investigation of the care and education of persons between the ages of twelve and twenty-five, the American Youth Commission is a body of 16 nationally known persons prominent in various walks of life. The enterprise received support from the General Education Board, and in 1939 provision was made for its continuation until July 1, 1941. At the same time it received a subvention from the same source for the purpose of inaugurating a limited number of demonstrations in selected rural communities, to be carried on until July 1, 1942.

Economic and social changes of recent years have created unusual difficulties for many young persons with regard to getting a start in vocational life, continuing their education, or establishing homes of their own at appropriate ages. The purpose of the Commission is threefold: (a) to consider all the needs of American youth and appraise the facilities and resources for serving those needs, (b) to recommend some procedures and programs which seem to be most effective in solving the problems of youth, and (c) to popularize and promote desirable plans of action through conferences, publications, and demonstrations.

After numerous preliminary investigations had been promptly initiated, the first three major projects of the Commission were inaugurated in 1936: first-hand surveys of the status, needs, and attitudes of young persons in different geographic areas. The first was in the state of Maryland, involving personal interviews with approximately 13,500 youth in the city of Baltimore and in 10 counties selected to represent the varied economic and social backgrounds in this typical state. The second was in Muncie, Ind., a typical small industrial city of the Middle West. The third was in Dallas, Tex., a middle-sized city which afforded an interesting opportunity to explore the condition of youth among certain minority races and nationalities. The three surveys involved contacts by trained interviewers with an aggregate of about 20,000 young persons, as well as many conferences with local adult leaders in education and social welfare. The results of the Maryland investigation were published in 1938 in a volume entitled *Youth Tell Their Story* (*infra cit.*).

A study of the Civilian Conservation Corps was also begun in 1936 and has been carried on with special reference to its educational aspects but not disregarding questions related to the efficacy of the entire enterprise as an instrument of social welfare. This embraced the administration of various tests to large numbers of enrollees at intervals, the collection of case studies, and other techniques. Its scope was eventually broadened to include study of other types of work camps for youth, and of the resident-training centers of the National Youth Administration. Forthcoming reports include a central volume on work camps in America, a volume of case studies, and a manual for educational advisers in work camps.

An observation and evaluation of the coordination of the several agencies concerned in the guidance and placement of youth as demonstrated in eight different localities, four being urban centers and four being selected rural areas, was executed in 1938 and 1939 in cooperation with the United States Employment Service (now the Division of Employment Service in the Bureau of Employment Security of the Social Security Board, Federal Security Agency). In each

locality different types of effective working relationships among the public employment service, the public schools, and the numerous other community agencies having a stake in the vocational adjustment of young persons were observed and encouraged. A volume entitled *Matching Youth and Jobs* will summarize this experience.

A study of Negro youth, with emphasis on the psychological phenomena which accompany the growth of the Negro adolescent's personality as he encounters and recognizes the limitations which he confronts as a member of a minority race, was completed in 1940. Executed chiefly by means of repeated interviews and case studies, this investigation included southern rural Negro youth in eight selected counties, southern urban Negro youth in two cities, northern urban Negro youth, and Negro youth in the border states. The report will consist of six volumes: one on each of the four major phases just mentioned, a general introductory volume, and a summary volume to be entitled *Color, Class, and Personality*. The introduction to the problems of Negro youth has already been published.[1] *See* NEGROES.

Among other studies completed by June, 1940, is a survey of the health of 5,000 students in 35 colleges, based on the records of medical and physical examinations. The same project embraced study of the health facilities and services offered in 562 institutions of higher education. A study of the geographic distribution of the entire youth population in relation to the ability to support social services out of local financial resources, showing the necessity of federal aid to the states for education and other services, has been published. Studies of education for family living, and of recreation for youth, have also been made. Pamphlets on community action in behalf of youth and on techniques of finding the facts have been published.[2]

In September, 1939, the Commission, taking into account the outbreak of war in Europe, adopted formally a series of statements warning the American people that a wise view of the national defense required the immediate correction of existing deficiencies in our provision for employment, health, and education for youth. The central recommendation was that all youth should be required and effectively enabled to continue in school up to the age of 16, and that for all youth above that age who are not in school and cannot find jobs in private enterprise, part-time employment in some form of useful service combined with instruction and guidance should be provided under public auspices. In May, 1940, and again in July, 1940, the Commission adopted further statements of a similar nature.[1]

The Commission has maintained an interest in the special problems of rural youth, and has promoted activity among local rural leaders by issuing pertinent mimeographed publications from time to time. A volume charting the future of rural youth is in preparation, and the program of local demonstrations inaugurated in 1940 is concerned exclusively with rural communities and with agencies at the state level touching the welfare of young people. *See* RURAL SOCIAL PROGRAMS.

A fresh study of employment and unemployment among youth is under way, seeking to learn what kinds of work now absorb, and may be expected to use, young workers. Historical trends in employment, problems of relative unemployability in individuals, and possibilities of remedial action to prevent permanent unemployability are all being studied.

During the ensuing months the Commission will probably issue further formal recommendations from time to time, and eventually adopt a complete final report embodying the fruit of its deliberations. Mean-

[1] *See* Reid, *infra cit.*

[2] *See* list of publications under American Youth Commission, *infra cit.*

[1] *See Community Responsibility for Youth, The Occupational Adjustment of Youth,* and *Youth, Defense, and the National Welfare* (*infra cit.*).

while, attention is being given to the implementation of the findings already available through radio broadcasts, motion-picture films, and other avenues of publicity through which the Commission will transmit its recommendations to the people of the United States. By these means it seeks to make the entire public aware of the problems of youth in our day, better informed concerning them, and keen to participate in their solution.

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M. M. CHAMBERS

PART TWO

DIRECTORIES OF AGENCIES

NATIONAL AGENCIES—PUBLIC

Note: The federal bureaus, divisions, or other agencies included in this list are those whose activities seem most significantly related to social work. The following classification indicates which agencies are set up under federal departments and which are independent. The latter group includes both permanent and temporary agencies.

AGENCIES FUNCTIONING UNDER FEDERAL DEPARTMENTS

Department of Agriculture
- Bureau of Home Economics
- Extension Service
- Farm Credit Administration
- Farm Security Administration
- Forest Service
- Surplus Marketing Administration

Bureau of Commerce
- Bureau of the Census

Department of Justice
- Board of Parole
- Bureau of Prisons
- Immigration and Naturalization Service

Department of Labor
- Bureau of Labor Statistics
- Children's Bureau
- Conciliation Service, United States
- Division of Labor Standards
- Wage and Hour Division
- Women's Bureau

Department of the Interior
- Bureau of Mines
- Indian Arts and Crafts Board
- National Park Service
- Office of Indian Affairs

Executive Office of the President
- Division of Statistical Standards, Bureau of the Budget
- Information Service, United States, Office of Government Reports
- National Resources Planning Board

Federal Loan Agency
- Disaster Loan Corporation
- Federal Home Loan Bank Board
- Federal Housing Administration

Federal Security Agency
- Civilian Conservation Corps
- National Youth Administration
- Office of Education
- Public Health Service
- Social Security Board

Federal Works Agency
- Housing Authority, United States
- Public Works Administration
- Work Projects Administration

War Department
- Morale Division, Adjutant General's Office

AGENCIES NOT FUNCTIONING UNDER FEDERAL DEPARTMENTS

- Civil Service Commission, United States
- Consumer Protection Division, Advisory Commission to the Council of National Defense
- Employees' Compensation Commission, United States
- Health and Medical Committee of Council of National Defense
- Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities
- National Labor Relations Board
- National Mediation Board
- Railroad Retirement Board
- Tennessee Valley Authority
- Veterans Administration

Board of Parole, United States Department of Justice (1930); Washington, D. C.

Purpose: To hold hearings under the provisions of the federal parole law in the cases of federal prisoners applying for parole, and to approve or disapprove of parole in such cases; to pass on alleged violations of parole; and to issue warrants for arrest. The three members of the Board are on a full-time basis and are appointed by the Attorney General of the United States. Their decisions are not subject to review.

Bureau of Home Economics, United States Department of Agriculture (1923); Washington, D. C.; Louise Stanley, Chief.

Activities: The Bureau conducts scientific studies of consumer problems, including problems in nu-

trition, use of food, economics, textiles and clothing, and housing and equipment; and makes available results of studies, in technical and popular bulletins, news releases, and over the radio. It works closely with other governmental and non-governmental agencies interested in consumer problems, and assists in the establishment of policies directed toward education and protection of consumers. The Bureau has no field service, but works very closely with the land grant colleges and the home demonstration agents under the Extension Service, and in this way keeps in close touch with the home-makers and professional home economics workers throughout the country.

Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor (1885); Washington, D. C.; Isador Lubin, Commissioner.

Purpose and Activities: To collect information as to the welfare of the wage-earners of the country. Among the subjects studied by the Bureau which are related to social work are the following: the aged, almshouses, employment agencies, industrial accidents, legal aid, minimum wage, migrants, Negroes in industry, organized labor, personnel administration in industry, prison labor, recreation, state labor agencies, unemployment, and wages and hours of labor.

Periodicals: Monthly Labor Review, $3.50 a year; Labor Information Bulletin, monthly, free.

Bureau of Mines, United States Department of the Interior (1910); Washington, D. C.; R. R. Sayers, M.D., Director.

Purpose: To study problems of safety and health in the mining industry with a view to reducing the death and accident rate and improving health conditions among employes; to conduct scientific and technologic investigations concerning mining, and the preparation, treatment, and utilization of mineral substances with a view to increasing efficiency and eliminating waste; to study economic problems of the mineral industries; and to compile and analyze statistics of production, consumption, exports, imports, stocks, and distribution of mineral commodities.

Periodicals: New Publications, monthly, free; Minerals Yearbook, annually, $2.00 a copy.

Bureau of Prisons, United States Department of Justice (1930); Washington, D. C.; James V. Bennett, Director.

Purpose and Activities: To supervise, under the Attorney General, the administration of the federal penal and correctional institutions, including a social service program; to oversee the development of a system of classification of prisoners and individualization of treatment; to make provisions for the care and custody of federal prisoners committed to jails and other local institutions; and to promote the efficient administration of the parole and probation system and the enforcement of probation laws in all United States courts. Under the Director's supervision the Federal Prison Industries, Inc., has jurisdiction over all employment and vocational activities in the penal institutions.

Periodicals: Federal Probation, monthly; Federal Offenders, annually.

Bureau of the Census, United States Department of Commerce (1902); Washington, D. C.; William L. Austin, Director.

Purpose and Activities: To take the decennial census of the United States, and to collect other statistics periodically on a variety of subjects, as authorized by law. Among subjects related to social work on which special statistics have been or are to be gathered (in addition to figures contained in the general censuses of population, agriculture, business, housing, and manufactures) are the following: statistics of children under institutional care; insane, feebleminded, epileptics; courts of general criminal jurisdiction; correctional institutions; births and deaths; religious bodies; and the finances of state and city governments. A non-statistical service is the searching of original population enumeration schedules to determine the age of applicants for old age pensions, life insurance policies, and for other legal and genealogical purposes. Annual reports are published on financial statistics of states and cities, vital statistics, mental patients in state hospitals, mental defectives and epileptics in state institutions, prisoners in state and federal prisons and reformatories, and judicial criminal statistics.

Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor (1912); Washington, D. C.; Katharine F. Lenroot, Chief.

Purpose and Activities: To investigate and report upon all matters pertaining to the welfare of children and child life among all classes of the people, especially on infant mortality, birth rates, orphanages, juvenile courts, desertion, accidents to and diseases of children, employment of children, dangerous occupations, and legislation affecting children; to administrer the federal grants to the states under the Social Security Act for maternal and child health services, services to crippled children, and child welfare services; and to administer the child labor provisions of the federal Fair Labor Standards Act. Activities include the following: collection and analysis of facts about children, gathered by first-hand inves-

tigation and by library research, and dissemination of these facts; cooperation with the states and with public and private organizations; consideration and approval of state plans submitted to secure federal grants for maternal and child health services, services to crippled children, and child welfare services; and advisory service to the states under such programs.

Periodicals: The Child, monthly, $1.00 a year; Social Statistics Supplement to The Child, quarterly.

Civil Service Commission, United States (1883)

; 8th and F Sts., NW., Washington, D. C.; L. A. Moyer, Executive Director and Chief Examiner.

Purpose and Activities: To act as the recruiting agency for the federal civil service, and to administer other provisions of the civil service laws and rules. Examinations are held for practically every occupation. Information concerning announced examinations may be obtained from the Board of United States Civil Service Examiners at the post office or custom house in any city. Announcements in the social work field are also sent to the American Association of Social Workers. The former Council of Personnel Administration is now part of the Commission.

Civilian Conservation Corps, Federal Security Agency (1937)

; 1530 New Post Office Bldg., Washington, D. C.; J. J. McEntee, Director.

Purpose and Activities: To provide employment as well as vocational training for youthful citizens of the United States who are unemployed and in need of employment, and to a limited extent for war veterans and Indians, through the performance of useful public work in connection with the conservation and development of the natural resources of the United States, its territories, and insular possessions. This work is being carried on by the Civilian Conservation Corps camps located in every one of the 48 states. The program includes: forest culture and forest protection, forest conservation, development of wild life refuges for game and birds, development of national and state parks, reclamation, drainage, and many other related activities. Junior enrollees are limited to unmarried, unemployed boys between the ages of 17 and 23. Veteran, Indian, and territorial enrollees are excluded from the marital and age limitation. All enrollees are required to be physically fit. The basic cash allowance is $30 a month; in addition to this, clothing, subsistence, housing, medical care, transportation, recreation, and education are provided. All enrollees, save territorials and Indians, are required to allot a substantial portion of their cash allowance to their dependents, or lacking dependents to deposit, in a special account, a substantial portion of their earnings which will then be paid upon discharge. Enrolment is for a term of six months, with the maximum service limited to two years save in the case of veterans, territorials, and Indians. Under the terms of Reorganization Plan No. I the Civilian Conservation Corps was placed within the Federal Security Agency, effective July 1, 1939.

Conciliation Service, United States, United States Department of Labor (1913)

; Washington, D. C.; John R. Steelman, Director.

Purpose and Activities: To promote and maintain industrial peace. The Secretary of Labor has delegated the conciliatory functions of the Department to the Conciliation Service. Commissioners of conciliation are located in strategic areas so that they may be available to employe and employer on short notice. Their efforts are devoted to bringing about adjustments of labor disputes that will prove mutually satisfactory to the parties concerned, to cooperate with employer and employe in the interpretation of agreements, to serve as consultant whenever called upon, and to help solve the problems which have become points of friction between management and men.

Consumer Protection Division, Advisory Commission to the Council of National Defense (1940)

; New Social Security Bldg., Washington, D. C.; Harriet Elliott, Commissioner in Charge.

Purpose and Activities: To study all aspects of the defense program as it affects consumers and to make recommendations for consumer protection; to coordinate the defense activities of the government in the welfare field and to promote a healthy and effective population; and to deal with public and civic organizations, disseminating information and encouraging activities designed to maintain the flow of goods and to promote civilian fitness and well-being. The Division is responsible for knowing the needs of consumers and is seeking to ensure adequate supplies of consumer goods and to prevent undue increases in the cost of living.

Disaster Loan Corporation, Federal Loan Agency (1937)

; Lafayette Bldg., Washington, D. C.; Charles B. Henderson, Managing Director.

Purpose: To make, upon such terms and conditions and in such manner as it may prescribe, such loans as it may determine to be necessary or appropriate because of floods or other catastrophes occurring in the years 1936–1940. Under the terms of Reorganization Plan No. I the

Corporation was placed within the Federal Loan Agency, effective July 1, 1939.

Division of Labor Standards, United States Department of Labor (1934); Washington, D. C.; V. A. Zimmer, Director.

Purpose and Activities: To assist individuals, organizations, state departments of labor, and federal agencies in improving working and living conditions of wage-earners. The Division holds regional and national conferences to secure agreement upon needed legislative and administrative labor standards; analyzes and distributes current state and federal labor legislation; drafts labor bills on specific request and prepares the forms of bills for general use incorporating standards recommended by joint committees; promotes industrial health and safety by preparation of safety and health codes, dissemination of information, and coordination of state and federal programs; cooperates with employer and employe organizations in the formulation and promotion of labor standards of apprenticeship; and assists states in developing and setting up systems for labor law enforcement. The Federal Committee on Apprenticeship functions under the Division.

Periodicals: Labor Standards, monthly except July and August, 75 cents a year; Digest of State Labor Legislation, annually, free.

Division of Statistical Standards, Bureau of the Budget, Executive Office of the President (1940); 430 State Bldg., Washington, D. C.; Stuart A. Rice, Assistant Director of the Budget in Charge of Statistical Standards.

Purpose and Activities: To plan and promote the improvement, development, and coordination of federal statistical services; and to eliminate duplication therein. The Division's general powers are advisory rather than mandatory, but it is authorized to make such investigations of existing or proposed statistical work as may be deemed necessary or advisable, and it has power to demand submittal to it of all materials bearing upon the statistical work of the several departments and agencies of the federal government. The Division has taken over the functions of the former Central Statistical Board.

Employees' Compensation Commission, United States (1916); 158 Old Land Office Bldg., Washington, D. C.; William McCauley, Secretary.

Purpose and Activities: To administer the several federal workmen's compensation laws applicable to employments within the jurisdiction of the federal government. In the discharge of this duty the Commission is responsible for the adjudication of claims within the purview of the several laws, the authorization of insurance carriers to write insurance under such laws, the investigation of causes of accidents reported and means for their prevention, the arrangements made to rehabilitate permanently disabled beneficiaries, and similar activities. Branch offices are maintained in 12 cities.

Periodical: Safety Bulletin, monthly, free.

Extension Service, United States Department of Agriculture (commonly known as the Cooperative Agricultural Extension Service) (1914); Washington, D. C.; M. L. Wilson, Director.

Purpose and Activities: To take to rural people the results of the research of the U. S. Department of Agriculture and the state experiment stations in agriculture and home economics, to aid farmers in obtaining better returns from their farms, and to make rural America a better and more satisfactory place in which to live. The Service is a cooperative enterprise conducted by the U. S. Department of Agriculture and the state colleges of agriculture in each of the states, Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico, and in the counties. Among its activities is the promotion of 4-H club work.

Periodical: Extension Service Review, monthly, 75 cents a year.

Farm Credit Administration, United States Department of Agriculture (1933); Washington, D. C.; Albert G. Black, Ph.D., Governor.

Purpose and Activities: To provide a complete and coordinated credit system for agriculture by making available to farmers both long-term and short-term credit, as well as credit for farmers' business cooperatives. For farm credit purposes the loaning activities are decentralized in 12 district offices which make loans to farmers through local associations. In each district office there is a federal land bank, a production credit corporation, a federal intermediate credit bank, and a bank for cooperatives. The funds loaned are secured through the sale of bonds and debentures in the investment market. The Farm Credit Administration charters and supervises the operations of federal credit unions which may be formed by urban as well as rural groups. The Cooperative Research and Service Division makes research studies of the activities of cooperative marketing, purchasing, and business service organizations. On the basis of these studies it makes available to managers, directors, and members of farmers' cooperative organizations the information that may help them to increase the ef-

fectiveness of their operations. Under the terms of Reorganization Plan No. I the Administration was transferred to the U. S. Department of Agriculture, effective July 1, 1939.

Periodicals: News for Farmer Cooperatives, monthly, $1.00 a year; Quarterly Report on Loans and Discounts, free; Farm Credit Quarterly, free.

Farm Security Administration, United States Department of Agriculture (1937); successor to the Resettlement Administration; Washington, D. C.; C. B. Baldwin, Administrator.

Purpose: To make loans to farm families for rehabilitation; to make loans to farm tenants, farm laborers, and sharecroppers to enable them to buy farms of their own; to carry on a program of farm debt adjustment; to make emergency grants to farm families in distress; to establish camps for migratory agricultural workers; and to complete and manage resettlement projects turned over to the Farm Security Administration by predecessor agencies.

Federal Home Loan Bank Board, Federal Loan Agency (1932); 765 Federal Home Loan Bank Board Bldg., Washington, D. C.; J. Francis Moore, Secretary.

Activities: The Board exercises direct supervision and control over three distinct governmental agencies created for the purpose of improving home-financing conditions. The five members of the Board constitute the board of directors of the Home Owners' Loan Corporation and the board of trustees of the Federal Savings and Loan Insurance Corporation. The Board, as such, governs the Federal Home Loan Bank System and through the Federal Savings and Loan System encourages the organization and development of federal savings and loan associations. Under the terms of Reorganization Plan No. I the Board was placed within the Federal Loan Agency, effective July 1, 1939.

Periodical: Federal Home Loan Bank Review, monthly, $1.00 a year.

Federal Housing Administration, Federal Loan Agency (1934); Vermont Ave. and K St., NW., Washington, D. C.; Stewart McDonald, Administrator.

Purpose and Activities: To insure lending institutions against losses incurred on two types of loans, as authorized by the amended National Housing Act. Title I covers the insurance of loans up to $2,500 for the repair, alteration, and improvement of existing structures or for the construction of new buildings and is limited to 10 per cent of the aggregate amount of such loans made by the insured institution. The maximum liability which may be outstanding at any time plus the total amount of claims paid under Title I is $100,000,000. Title II is designed to encourage home ownership and to improve housing standards and conditions by means of the Mutual Mortgage Insurance Fund and the Housing Insurance Fund. Under the Mutual Mortgage Insurance Fund insurance is available on mortgages up to $16,000 secured by properties designed for residential use by not more than four families. Under the Housing Insurance Fund insurance is available on mortgages up to $5,000,000 secured by newly-constructed, multifamily rental dwellings; or by newly-constructed housing for sale or rent; or by rehabilitated dwellings in slum or blighted areas. The Federal National Mortgage Association, a subsidiary of the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, has been organized under Title III of the Act for the purpose of maintaining a ready mortgage market. Under the terms of Reorganization Plan No. I the Administration was placed within the Federal Loan Agency, effective July 1, 1939.

Forest Service, United States Department of Agriculture (1905); Washington, D. C.; Earle H. Clapp, Acting Chief.

Purpose and Activities: To establish the conservation of the country's forests which occupy one-third of its total land area, and to maintain them as permanent assets not only to ensure future supplies of timber but also to preserve other economic and social benefits vital to national welfare, such as forest protection of watersheds and control of erosion, stability of forest industries and gainful employment in forest work, wild life and recreational values, and quality and abundance of forage on forest ranges; to cooperate with state and private owners in developing local forestry practice; and to protect and develop the 158 national forests (as of June 30, 1939) comprising 175,843,405 acres in 36 states, Alaska, and Puerto Rico, so as to secure the best use of their resources for the greatest permanent economic and social service to the nation. All forestry projects of the Civilian Conservation Corps which are carried out on national, state, or private forest lands, are supervised by the Forest Service.

Health and Medical Committee of Council of National Defense (1940); Public Health Service, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D. C.; Irvin Abell, M.D., Chairman.

Purpose: To advise the Council of National Defense regarding the health and medical aspects of national defense, and to coordinate health and medical activities affecting national defense.

Housing Authority, United States, Federal Works Agency (1937); 6319 North Interior Bldg., Washington, D. C.; Nathan Straus, Administrator.

Purpose and Activities: To assist local communities, through loans and subsidies, to remedy unsafe and insanitary housing conditions and the acute housing shortage of decent dwellings for families of low income. The Authority may make loans to public housing agencies to assist in the development, acquisition, or administration of low-rent housing or slum-elimination projects. Under the terms of Reorganization Plan No. I the Authority was placed within the Federal Works Agency, effective July 1, 1939.

Immigration and Naturalization Service, United States Department of Justice (1933); Washington, D. C.; Lemuel B. Schofield, Special Assistant to the Attorney General in Charge.

Activities: The Service is in charge of all matters concerning immigration, deportation, repatriation, and naturalization. On July 1, 1940, the Service was transferred from the Department of Labor to the Department of Justice.

Indian Arts and Crafts Board, United States Department of the Interior (1936); Washington, D. C.; René d'Harnoncourt, General Manager.

Purpose and Activities: To encourage the production and sale of Indian handicrafts through assistance in promotional work, technical and merchandizing research, and the creation of certificates, trademarks, and standards of quality and genuineness.

Information Service, United States, Office of Government Reports, Executive Office of the President (1934); 1405 G St., NW., Washington, D. C.; Harriet M. Root, Chief.

Activities: The Service is provided by the federal government as a central office to answer inquiries, either directly or by referral, on all phases of government activities. Under the terms of Reorganization Plan No. I it was transferred to the Office of Government Reports, Executive Office of the President, effective July 1, 1939.

Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities (1935); 1130 Department of Labor Bldg., Washington, D. C.; Josephine Roche, Chairman.

Activities: The Committee was appointed by the President following the passage of the Social Security Act, in order that the full benefits of the varied federal program under the Act's provisions might reach with minimum delay and maximum effectiveness the individual men, women, and children for whose aid and service the program was brought into existence. The Committee has four technical subcommittees: Health and Welfare Relations with State and Local Governments, Medical Care, Migratory Labor, and Nutrition.

Morale Division, Adjutant General's Office, War Department (1940); Washington, D. C.; Maj. Gen. E. S. Adams, Adjutant General.

Purpose and Activities: To coordinate all recreational and welfare activities within the military establishment. The work of the Division is divided into various sections among which are the Army Motion Picture Service, the Army Library Service, and the Recreational and Welfare Section. The activities of the last-named section include athletics, entertainments, and service clubs to which hostesses will be assigned. In addition this section cooperates with the American Red Cross and also promotes harmonious and cooperative relationships with civil communities in general and especially those communities nearby military establishments.

National Labor Relations Board (1935); 326 Shoreham Bldg., Washington, D. C.

Purpose and Activities: The Board, appointed by the President under the terms of the National Labor Relations Act, is authorized to investigate charges of the commission of alleged unfair labor practices set forth in the Act, and upon petition to certify representatives for purposes of collective bargaining in disputes affecting commerce. The Board considers evidence relating thereto and issues formal findings of fact and orders, directing employers to cease and desist from specified activities and to take steps providing relief from the effects of such activities, such as payment of back pay. The enforcement of the Board's orders rests with circuit courts of appeal through a specified machinery. There are 22 regional offices which handle charges, petitions, and disputes locally as the Board's agents.

National Mediation Board (1934); 2018 North Interior Bldg., Washington, D. C.; George A. Cook, Chairman.

Purpose and Activities: To facilitate, chiefly through the process of mediation, the making and maintenance of labor agreements between representatives of railroads or airlines and of their employes establishing the rates of pay, hours of work, and working rules of these employes. To the end that this purpose may effectively be accomplished, the Railway Labor Act establishing

the Board forbids any limitations by railroads or airlines upon freedom of association among their employes. The Board, when its services are invoked by such employes, may also investigate disputes as to who may represent these employes for the purpose of collective bargaining.

National Park Service, United States Department of the Interior (1916); Washington, D. C.; Newton B. Drury, Director.

Purpose and Activities: To conserve the scenery, the natural and historic objects, and the wild life of the national parks and national monuments; and to provide for the enjoyment of those areas in such manner and by such means as will leave them unimpaired for future generations. The Service has under its jurisdiction a national recreation area at Boulder Dam.

National Resources Planning Board, Executive Office of the President (1933); name changed in 1939 from National Resources Committee; 225 State Department Bldg., Washington, D. C.; Charles W. Eliot, Director.

Purpose and Activities: To survey, collect data on, and analyze problems pertaining to national resources, both natural and human, and to recommend to the President and the Congress long-time plans and programs for the wise use and fullest development of such resources; to consult with federal, regional, state, local, and private agencies in developing orderly programs of public works and to list for the President and Congress all proposed public works in the order of their relative importance with respect to the greatest good to the greatest number of people, the emergency necessities of the nation, and the social, economic, and cultural advancement of the people of the United States; to inform the President of the general trend of economic conditions and to recommend measures leading to their improvement and stabilization; and to act as a clearing house and means of coordination for planning activities, linking together various levels and fields of planning. In November, 1939, the Board announced the formation of a technical committee to study long-range relief problems and policies. This study is now under way. Under the terms of Reorganization Plan No. I the Board was transferred to the Executive Office of the President, effective July 1, 1939.

National Youth Administration, Federal Security Agency (1935); 2145 C St., NW., Washington, D. C.; Aubrey Williams, Administrator.

Activities: The Administration conducts two major programs for youth: the student work program which provides part-time employment for needy students between the ages of 16 and 24 inclusive in regular attendance at schools, colleges, and universities; and the out-of-school work program which provides both part-time employment on public projects of a socially useful character and related training to youth who have been certified as in need and who are no longer in regular attendance at schools, colleges, or universities. Vocational counseling and guidance, as well as the preparation and dissemination of occupational information, also form an important part of the work of the Administration. Under the terms of Reorganization Plan No. I it was placed within the Federal Security Agency, effective July 1, 1939.

Office of Education, Federal Security Agency (1867); 3153 Department of the Interior Bldg., Washington, D. C.; J. W. Studebaker, Commissioner.

Purpose and Activities: To collect statistics and facts to show the condition and progress of education in the several states and outlying parts, and in other countries; to diffuse such information; and otherwise to promote the cause of education throughout the country. The Office acts as a national clearing house of information in all fields of educational activity and cooperates with national organizations and with state departments of education. Recent special activities of the Office include the organization and direction of education in Civilian Conservation Corps camps, public forum demonstration centers, and an educational radio project. In 1933 the Federal Board for Vocational Education became the Vocational Division of the Office of Education. The Division's staff is organized in services dealing severally with the following lines of vocational work: agricultural education, business education, home economics education, occupational information and guidance, and trade and industrial education. The Office administers Part 4 of Title V of the Social Security Act, providing for an extension of vocational rehabilitation services, through a separate Division of Vocational Rehabilitation. Under the terms of Reorganization Plan No. I it was placed within the Federal Security Agency, effective July 1, 1939.

Periodical: School Life, monthly except July and August, $1.00 a year.

Office of Indian Affairs, United States Department of the Interior (1824); Washington, D. C.; John Collier, Commissioner.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the welfare of the Indians of the United States and the Indians and Eskimos of the Territory of Alaska through the extension of medical and educational

services, the rehabilitation of Indian lands with soil and water conservation, the purchase of new lands to consolidate the Indian's estate, the extension of credit and livestock to promote Indian economic enterprise, assistance with native arts and crafts, and help in the adaptation of surviving native institutions to modern Indian life.

Periodicals: Indian Education, fortnightly; Indians at Work, monthly; both free on request, limited quantity available.

Public Health Service, Federal Security Agency (1798); United States Public Health Service Bldg., Washington, D. C.; Thomas Parran, M.D., Surgeon General.

Activities: Protection of the United States from the introduction of disease from without; medical examination and inspection of arriving aliens and prospective immigrants; prevention of interstate spread of disease and the suppression of epidemics; cooperation with state and local health authorities in public health matters; administration, under Title VI of the Social Security Act of 1935, of the allotment of funds (amounting to $9,500,000 for the fiscal year 1940) to states for the purpose of establishing and extending adequate public health services, including the training of personnel for state and local health work; administration, under an act approved May 24, 1938, of the allotment of $5,000,000 to states for the control of venereal diseases; investigation of diseases of man; supervision and control of biologic and analogous products; dissemination of health information (particularly through the Office of Public Health Information, initiated in 1936); maintenance of marine hospitals and relief stations for beneficiaries prescribed by law; confinement and treatment of persons addicted to the use of habit-forming narcotic drugs who have committed offenses against the United States, and of addicts who voluntarily submit themselves for treatment; study of mental diseases and drug addiction and investigation of legitimate needs for narcotic drugs; and medical and psychiatric services in federal penal and correctional institutions. The National Institute of Health and the National Cancer Institute, the latter established by an act of Congress approved August 5, 1937, function under the Public Health Service. The Surgeon General calls an annual Conference of State and Territorial Health Officers with the Public Health Service, at which matters of mutual interest pertaining to the health of the nation, the coordination of health work throughout the country, problems arising in the administration of health work, and the control of communicable diseases are discussed. Negro health is promoted through the National Negro Health Movement, which functions under the Public Health Service. Under the terms of Reorganization Plan No. I the Service was placed within the Federal Security Agency, effective July 1, 1939.

Periodicals: Public Health Reports, weekly, $2.50 a year; Venereal Disease Information, monthly, 50 cents a year; National Negro Health News, quarterly, free.

Public Works Administration, Federal Works Agency (1933); name changed in 1939 from Federal Emergency Administration of Public Works; 6114 North Interior Bldg., Washington, D. C.; Col. E. W. Clark, Commissioner.

Purpose: To provide for the construction of certain useful public works and to encourage national industrial recovery. Under the terms of Reorganization Plan No. I the Administration was placed within the Federal Works Agency, effective July 1, 1939.

Railroad Retirement Board (1935); 10th and U Sts., NW., Washington, D. C.; Murray W. Latimer, Chairman.

Purpose: To enforce the Railroad Retirement Acts of 1935 and 1937 and the Railroad Unemployment Insurance Act and to make and certify awards and payments thereunder; to establish and promulgate rules and regulations and provide for adjustment of all controversial matters, and make necessary investigations in any matter involving annuities, pensions, unemployment benefits, or other payments; to collect contributions from employers under Unemployment Insurance Act; to maintain such personnel, offices, and facilities directly or by agreement with states or certain others, as may be necessary for the administration of the above-named Acts; to take appropriate steps to reduce and prevent unemployment and loss of earnings; to encourage and assist in the adoption of practical methods of vocational training, retraining, and vocational guidance; to promote the re-employment of unemployed employes; to study the rate of unemployment actually experienced and make recommendations for adjustments in the unemployment insurance system, if such are found to be desirable; and in connection with these duties to carry on and publish the results of investigations and research studies.

Social Security Board, Federal Security Agency (1935); 1712 G St., NW., Washington, D. C.; Oscar M. Powell, Executive Director.

Purpose and Activities: Under the Social Security Act: to administer the provisions of the Act which relate to old age assistance, aid to dependent children, aid to the blind, unemployment

compensation, and old age and survivors' benefits; to appoint and fix the compensation of officers and employes to carry out its functions under the Act; and to study and make recommendations as to the most effective methods of providing economic security through social insurance, and as to legislation and matters of administrative policy concerning old age and survivors' insurance, unemployment compensation, accident compensation, and related subjects. Under the Wagner-Peyser Act: to assist in establishing and maintaining within the states systems of public employment offices, and to maintain certain special employment services in connection therewith. The Board is composed of three members—not more than two of whom may be of one political party—appointed by the President by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. The President designates the chairman of the Board. Members of the Board devote their major attention to the formulation of policies, determination of organization and general procedure, promulgation of rules and regulations, certification of grants-in-aid to the states, and of old age and survivors insurance claims. Responsibility for administrative and executive action is assigned to the Executive Director. Among the Board's bureaus are the following: Informational Service; Bureau of Employment Security, combining the functions of the former Bureau of Unemployment Compensation and the former United States Employment Service; Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance; Bureau of Public Assistance, administering the provisions relating to old age assistance, aid to dependent children, and aid to the blind; and Bureau of Research and Statistics. Twelve regional and two territorial offices have been established. Each regional and territorial director is a representative of the Board in his region and, subject to the Executive Director, is responsible for the conduct of relationships between the Board and the states within his region. Under the direction of the regional directors and the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance, the field offices—of which there are 463 throughout the country—serve as administrative agents of the Board, particularly in the administration of old age and survivors' insurance. Under the terms of Reorganization Plan No. I the Board was placed within the Federal Security Agency, effective July 1, 1939.

Periodicals: Social Security Bulletin, monthly, $2.00 a year; the Benefit Series, monthly, $5.00 a year.

Surplus Marketing Administration, United States Department of Agriculture (1940); Washington, D. C.; Milo R. Perkins, Administrator.

Activities: The Administration was created by executive order, effective June 30, 1940, and combines the surplus removal function of the former Federal Surplus Commodities Corporation and the marketing function of the former Division of Marketing and Marketing Agreements of the Agricultural Adjustment Administration. The surplus removal programs seek to increase consumption of price-depressing farm surpluses by low-income families through the Food and Cotton Stamp Plans, the free school lunch program, and the direct purchase and distribution program. The marketing programs seek to bring about greater stability in marketing operations, thus benefiting both producers and consumers.

Tennessee Valley Authority (1933); Woodward Bldg., Washington, D. C.; Harcourt A. Morgan, Chairman, Board of Directors.

Purpose and Activities: To maintain, modernize, and operate government properties in the vicinity of Muscle Shoals, Ala., in the interest of the national defense, and for the development of new and improved plant-food products and processes for purposes of agricultural development; to provide for the unified development of the water resources of the Tennessee River system in the interest of navigation, flood control, and the development and disposition of hydro-electric power; and to conduct surveys and make plans for the conservation and development of the natural resources of the Tennessee Valley region and adjoining territory, comprising the basis for future legislation appropriate to such purpose for enactment by the federal Congress or by the legislatures of the several states. The Regional Planning Department fosters recreational developments in the Norris Dam area.

Veterans Administration (1930); 132 Arlington Bldg., Washington, D. C.; Brig. Gen. Frank T. Hines, Administrator.

Purpose and Activities: To administer all benefits authorized by federal law for veterans of all wars and veterans of the armed forces of the United States, including hospitalization, government life insurance, and compensation or pension; and to administer pension or compensation for dependents of such veterans. The central office is in Washington; field stations are located in every state except Delaware, which is under the Philadelphia office; and insular offices are operated in Hawaii, the Philippines, and Puerto Rico. In 1940, 230 facilities and hospitals were being utilized for veterans. The Administration operated 86 of these, other governmental agencies operated 33, and 111 were civil and state institutions. In April, 1940, 57,508 beneficiaries were receiving hospital treatment, 16,913 were receiving domiciliary care in national homes, and 607,-

285 veterans and 241,941 dependents of deceased veterans were receiving pensions or compensation.

Periodical: The Medical Bulletin of the Veterans Administration, quarterly, 50 cents a year.

Wage and Hour Division, United States Department of Labor (1938); Washington, D. C.; Col. Philip B. Fleming, Administrator.

Purpose and Activities: To administer and enforce the minimum wage and maximum hours provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 (sometimes popularly referred to as the Wage and Hour Law), other than the child labor provisions which are enforced by the Children's Bureau. Work of the following Branches is centered in Washington: Administrative, Hearings, Industry Committee, Information, Legal, and Research and Statistics. Inspection and enforcement work of the Division is decentralized with 15 regional offices, 14 branch offices, and a territorial office at San Juan, Puerto Rico. Each regional director has authority to close cases involving restitution of up to $50,000 to workers who have not been paid in accordance with the requirements of the Act. Through Industry Committee action wages higher than the statutory 30-cent minimum, which became effective October 24, 1939, have been set in the following industries: textile, hosiery, millinery, shoes, wool, apparel, hat, knitted underwear and commercial knitting, and knitted outerwear. Estimates indicate that 12,600,000 workers are entitled to the benefits of the Act. Bulletins and pamphlets are prepared by the Information Branch as certain needs make themselves felt and are distributed through appropriate channels without charge.

Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor (1918); Washington, D. C.; Mary Anderson, Director.

Activities: The Bureau advises the Secretary of Labor, makes investigations, analyzes data, publishes reports, and disseminates information concerning wage-earning women, including standards for their employment, hours, wages and earnings, working conditions, health and safety, economic problems, legal and economic status, industrial relations, employment fluctuation, employment in special industries or occupations, occupational opportunities and progress, workers' education, technological changes, labor legislation, and industrial home work.

Periodical: The Woman Worker, bimonthly, 25 cents a year.

Work Projects Administration, Federal Works Agency (1935); name changed in 1939 from Works Progress Administration; 616 Walker-Johnson Bldg., Washington, D. C.; Howard O. Hunter, Acting Commissioner.

Purpose and Activities: To provide useful work for the destitute unemployed. The Administration is financed from funds appropriated in the Emergency Relief Act of 1940. It operates a program of useful work projects, 98 per cent of which are planned and sponsored by state and local public agencies, and are approved by state and federal offices of the Administration and by the President. A small number of projects are initiated and operated on a nation-wide basis by various agencies of the federal government. Employment is distributed throughout the country in accordance with the number of employable persons in need in each state. State administrations have been set up in each state, charged with carrying out the program. A few of the many types of work carried out under the program are illustrated by the following partial list of work completed by January 1, 1940: projects sponsored by states and localities resulted in the construction or improvement of 457,734 miles of highways, roads, and streets; the construction of 23,000 new public buildings and the repair or improvement of 62,468 others; the construction of 931 swimming and wading pools and the repair of 344; the laying of 9,646 miles of new water main and distributing lines and the repair of 2,737 additional miles; the construction of 15,190 miles of sanitary and storm sewers and the repair of 3,050 miles; the renovation of 68,389,000 books; the production of 218,204,000 articles of clothing, blankets, and similar articles in sewing rooms throughout the country; and the serving of 386,197,000 school lunches. Frequent special reports are published. Under the terms of Reorganization Plan No. I the Administration was placed within the Federal Works Agency, effective July 1, 1939.

NATIONAL AGENCIES—PRIVATE

Note: The inclusion of an agency in this list is a recognition of the fact that its announced purpose and activities place it within the scope of the volume. Inclusion does not indicate endorsement of an agency's work by the Russell Sage Foundation, the Editor of the *Social Work Year Book,* or the Advisory Committee.

If readers desire to refer to the listing of an agency and do not know its exact name, use may be made of the INDEX. Agencies are there listed according to the subject with which each is chiefly concerned and are also grouped under the topics to which each is significantly related. For example the National Child Labor Committee, in addition to appearing alphabetically under that title in the INDEX, is also entered as "Child Labor Committee, National" and is listed under the topics "Labor Legislation and Administration" and "Social Action" as one of the agencies particularly active in these fields.

Since many incorporated organizations do not use the abbreviation "Inc." after their names, that abbreviation has been omitted in all cases except where its use seems essential to identify an agency.

A few international associations, most of which function nationally in the United States in addition to operating in foreign countries, are included in this list. In these instances the association's United States address is usually given rather than that of the international headquarters in Europe.

Alliance for Guidance of Rural Youth (1914); name changed in 1937 from Southern Woman's Educational Alliance; 401 Grace American Bldg., Richmond; O. Latham Hatcher, Ph.D., President.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 400; branches, 4.

Purpose and Activities: To act as a research and service center concerned with the guidance of rural young people in their education, and in their occupational choices and preparation. The organization endeavors to help rural young people both directly and through the county, state, and federal school system, and other agencies. As the only national agency centering on rural guidance, it acts as coordinator and technician for a variety of other agencies. It also makes rural case studies, and directs experimental guidance programs and demonstrations.

Amateur Athletic Union of the United States (1888); 233 Broadway, New York; Daniel J. Ferris, Secretary-Treasurer.

Membership: Individuals, 62,925 (athletes of championship caliber); organizations, 41 district associations covering the United States and Hawaii.

Purpose and Activities: To encourage systematic physical exercise in the United States; to improve and promote athletic sports among amateurs; to promote the civic interests of the nation by the country-wide education of all classes of individuals in the benefits to be derived by participation in athletics and wholesome recreational sports; and to promote national, state, and local legislation in the interest of the institution of public playgrounds, gymnasia, swimming pools, and fields for amateur sport.

Periodical: The Amateur Athlete, monthly, $1.00 a year.

American Academy of Political and Social Science, The (1889); 3457 Walnut St., Philadelphia; Ernest Minor Patterson, Ph.D., President.

Membership: Individuals, libraries, business companies, etc., approximately 9,000.

Purpose and Activities: To provide a national forum for the discussion of political and social questions. The principal means to that end are publications and meetings.

Periodical: The Annals, bimonthly, $5.00 a year in paper, $7.50 in cloth.

American Arbitration Association (1926); 8 West 40th St., New York; Frances Kellor, First Vice President.

Membership: Individuals and corporations, 402; trade associations, 35.

Purpose and Activities: To develop the use of arbitration in the United States, as a means of advancing commercial and industrial peace. The Association is a private non-profit organization which maintains facilities for the conduct of arbitration of commercial and industrial disputes, under standard rules, before members of its national panel of arbitrators. Over 7,000 men are included in this panel, representing the leading industries and professions and located in 1,600 cities. The Association also promotes the knowledge of arbitration through special studies and through the mainte-

nance of an educational service which furthers information on arbitration law and practice.

Periodical: Arbitration Journal, quarterly, $2.00 a year.

American Association for Adult Education (1926); Room 2812, 60 East 42d St., New York; Morse A. Cartwright, Director.

Membership: Individuals, 1,131; organizations, 275.

Purpose and Activities: To serve as a clearing house for information in the field of adult education; to assist enterprises already in operation; to help organizations and groups to initiate adult education activities; and to aid and advise individuals who, although occupied with some primary vocation or interest, desire to continue learning by themselves. The Association is currently engaged upon a five-year study and appraisal of the entire field of American adult education, the results of which have been published in 21 volumes (other volumes are in preparation) in the series on the Social Significance of Adult Education in the United States.

Periodical: Journal of Adult Education (American), 4 issues yearly, $3.00 a year.

American Association for Applied Psychology (1937); 250 Alpha Hall, Indiana University, Bloomington; C. M. Louttit, Ph.D., Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 560; organizations, 9 state.

Purpose and Activities: To conduct meetings for the presentation of papers dealing with the applications of scientific psychology, to issue publications relating to such applications, to define and promote high ethical and professional standards in the application of psychology, to advocate and support adequate training for applied psychologists, and to transact such other business as is consistent with its primary purpose. The Association has four sections: Clinical, Consulting, Educational, and Business and Industrial. State associations of applied psychologists may affiliate with it. It has a Committee on Relations with the Social Work Profession which meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodical: Journal of Consulting Psychology, bimonthly, $3.00 a year.

American Association for Labor Legislation (1906); 131 East 23d St., New York; John B. Andrews, Ph.D., Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 2,000.

Activities: The Association works from the general welfare viewpoint through scientific studies toward the development and maintenance of improved standards of health, safety, efficiency, and economic security, particularly to provide for the following: adequate compensation for industrial accidents and occupational diseases, prevention of unemployment and mitigation of its effects, old age pensions, health insurance, rock dusting to prevent coal mine catastrophes, rehabilitation of industrial cripples, regulation of fee-charging employment agencies, and one day of rest in seven. The Association investigates the administration of labor laws periodically. A specialized reference library is maintained and an information service provided for members. Reports on current labor problems are made through its periodical and through special leaflets, issued frequently. Annual and mid-year conferences provide opportunity for public discussion.

Periodical: American Labor Legislation Review, quarterly, $3.00 a year.

American Association for Social Security (1927); Room 1335, 22 East 17th St., New York; A. Epstein, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 4,000.

Purpose and Activities: To promote social security and social insurance in the United States. The Association has devoted its energies largely to the promotion of non-contributory old age pensions, extending its program in 1933 to embrace the entire program of social insurance including unemployment, health, old age, and invalidity insurance. Although the Association was the first to demand a comprehensive program of social security, it led the criticism of the social security program adopted by Congress in 1935 and is largely responsible for the changes brought about in the old age insurance program in 1939. The Association continues its fight for basic changes in the present federal-state unemployment insurance system and is leading the struggle for health insurance. The Association's model bill for health insurance is before many state legislatures and Congress.

Periodicals: Social Security, monthly, $2.00 a year; Annual Proceedings of National Conference, $2.00 a copy.

American Association for the Study of Group Work (1936); name changed in 1939 from National Association for the Study of Group Work; 670 Lexington Ave., New York; Charles E. Hendry, Chairman.

Membership: Individuals, 933.

Purpose and Activities: To provide for voluntary association of professional group workers and oth-

ers interested in the study of group work, particularly with a view to clarifying and refining philosophy and practice. The program of the Association consists of stimulating the establishment of local study groups, preparing and distributing outlines for the use of these groups, arranging for the publication of literature on group work, assisting in organizing meetings and institutes on group work at state conferences of social work, aiding in locating resource people for such conferences, and collaborating in the development of programs of professional schools engaged in group work training. Annual meetings are held in conjunction with the National Conference of Social Work, of which it is an associate group. Special meetings have been held with the Progressive Education Association. Special committees function on several aspects of group work. The Association has published New Trends in Group Work; Group Work, 1939; Leisure—A National Issue; Group Education for a Democracy; Suggestions for the Study of Group Work in the Field of Camping; and Let's Discuss Our Problems Together.

Periodicals: The Group: In Education, Recreation, Social Work, bimonthly; Proceedings, annually.

American Association of Instructors of the Blind (1853); State School for the Blind, Lansing; Josef G. Cauffman, Secretary-Treasurer.

Membership: 5 delegates from each residential school for the blind: 3 from each public school system having an enrolment of 25 or more blind pupils; 1 from each library for the blind; and associate, honorary, or corresponding members as elected.

Purpose: To provide a means for consultation concerning problems relating to the education of the blind, and to foster and promote movements having as their aim the improvement of such education.

American Association of Medical Social Workers (1918); 844 Rush St., Chicago; Mary M. Maxwell, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Active members, 1,700; associate, 168; corporate, 74; junior, 110; and district organizations, 13.

Purpose and Activities: To serve as an organ of intercommunication between medical social workers; to maintain and improve standards of social work in hospitals, dispensaries, special clinics, or other distinctly medical or psychiatric institutions; and to stimulate its intensive and extensive development. The central office provides for field visits, correspondence, and representation through scientific exhibits at official meetings of the medical, hospital, health, and social work organizations. Study committees, through similar local committees, examine and report special projects. Particular emphasis is placed on education for practice in this field. The Association meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodical: The Bulletin, 8 issues yearly, $1.00 a year.

American Association of Personal Finance Companies (1916); 315 Bowen Bldg., Washington, D. C.; Edgar F. Fowler, Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 1,657; affiliated organizations, 28 state associations of personal finance companies.

Activities: The Association is an organization of companies and individuals who are engaged in the business of making small loans under state supervision. It unites the licensed lenders in a program of ethical conduct toward borrowers, support of state regulatory bodies, and opposition to unsocial practices and high rate lending. The Association has a Committee on Social Relations which meets as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work. Five state associations of personal finance companies, which are affiliated with the Association, employ qualified social workers as full-time directors of social relations.

Periodical: Personal Finance News, monthly, $2.00 a year.

American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers (1926); 1790 Broadway, New York; Leona Hambrecht, President.

Membership: Individuals, 517.

Purpose and Activities: To promote association among psychiatric social workers; to promote adequate standards for professional preparation and training; to formulate, maintain, and improve standards of psychiatric social work; and to encourage research and study in the field of psychiatric social work. The Association meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodical: News-Letter, quarterly, $1.00 a year.

American Association of Schools of Social Work (1919); University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh; Marion Hathway, Ph.D., Executive Secretary.

Membership: 41 schools of social work, either organized separately from, affiliated with, or constituting part of, a larger educational institution. For a list of these schools or departments *see* EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK in Part One.

Purpose and Activities: To develop and maintain standards of professional education for the field of social work; to provide advice and consultation to educational institutions interested in establishing schools of social work in accordance with membership standards of the Association; to initiate and further curriculum revisions in the light of changing needs in the field of practice; and to promote, through conferences, a discussion and clarification of problems of professional education. Under a special grant from the Rockefeller Foundation, the Association has undertaken research to determine training needs in the expanding public social services and to evaluate existing professional curricula in relation to meeting these needs. In addition to annual meetings, regional conferences are scheduled at intervals. The Association meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

American Association of Social Work Students (1937); 40 East Ferry St., Detroit; Edward Dalton, President.

Membership: Individuals, 3,000; organizations, 22 associations of students in schools of social work throughout the country.

Activities: The Association is interested in working for the establishment and successful functioning of a vocational service; aiding in the establishment of scholarships, student loan funds, and other methods of meeting the cost of social work education; and fostering a closer understanding between faculty and students. The membership is divided into three regions—East, West, and Central—and each has its own secretary and chairman. Regional meetings are held during the year, the number varying; and a national meeting is held at the time of the National Conference of Social Work, of which it is an associate group.

American Association of Social Workers (1921); 130 East 22d St., New York; Walter West, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 11,500; urban, state, or regional chapters and councils, 90.

Purpose and Activities: To provide the national working channel and local machinery for the cooperative activities of professional social workers; to encourage through its membership requirements proper and adequate basic preparation and training and to foster a homogeneous group which can develop competent social work opinion; to promote a high quality of professional service through a wide recognition of the importance of qualified personnel selection for the entire field; to formulate and seek to establish satisfactory conditions of employment and retirement of personnel, to attract competent personnel, and to enable them to work effectively; to influence social planning and legislation for modernized welfare services and improved living standards; and through its general activities to disseminate information concerning social work as a profession, to encourage and conduct appropriate investigation, and to publish material related to experience of social work practitioners and therefore of special value to the advancement of professional social work. The Association meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodical: The Compass, monthly except September, $1.00 a year.

American Association of University Women (1882); 1634 I St., NW., Washington, D. C.; Kathryn McHale, Ph.D., General Director.

Membership: Individuals, 65,000; divisions and branches, 9 sectional, 43 state, and 882 local.

Activities: The Association develops adult education programs; promotes high standards in institutions of higher learning; provides guidance in program preparation; and issues pamphlets, bibliographies, study outlines, and other materials to assist local branches in carrying on projects and studies in child development and education for family life, educational standards and trends, international relations, social studies, economic and legal status of women, and the arts. The program in the social studies field has emphasized consumer problems, social welfare, and labor standards, stressing a know-your-own-community approach. As an outgrowth of the Association's broad study program, local groups carry on a variety of constructive community activities (including legislation), and state-wide projects are often undertaken. The Association supports graduate fellowships for women, maintains a research information service in secondary and higher education, promotes international understanding through its affiliation with the International Federation of University Women, and carries on research within the fields of its interest. A biennial national convention and biennial sectional meetings are held; state conventions are usually held annually.

Periodical: Journal of the American Association of University Women, quarterly, $1.00 a year.

American Association of Visiting Teachers (1919); Madison Public Schools, Madison, N. J.; Marion N. Echols, President.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 200.

Purpose and Activities: To unite the visiting teachers of the United States in matters of common professional interest; to consider the specific functions, relationships, and objectives of case workers

operating in a school setting; to raise standards of their work with the personality and behavior problems of children; to educate communities to the mental hygiene significance of early constructive work with individual maladjustments; and to interpret visiting teacher work to educators through national and state educational conferences, and to social workers through programs at the National Conference of Social Work (of which it is an associate group) and other professional meetings. A study of visiting teacher work in the United States, Visiting Teacher Service Today, was published by the Association in May, 1940.

Periodical: Visiting Teacher Bulletin, 3 issues yearly.

American Association of Workers for the Blind (1905); Winnetka, Ill.; Alfred Allen, Secretary General.

Membership: Individuals, 313.

Purpose: To consider and promote the education, employment, advancement, and general welfare of the blind of North America and the American dependencies through such measures and agencies as may be deemed best adapted to their needs.

Periodical: Proceedings, biennially, $3.00 a copy.

American Association on Indian Affairs (1937); successor to American Indian Defense Association and National Association on Indian Affairs; 381 Fourth Ave., New York; Oliver La Farge, President.

Membership: Individuals, 270; organizations, 6 state branches and affiliates and 1 local.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the welfare of the American Indian in the United States by creating an enlightened public opinion; assisting and protecting him against encroachment on his constitutional rights; promoting suitable legislation and the enforcement of law; improving hygienic conditions through a study of health situations and by the supply of nurses and professional services where needed; aiding in preserving and fostering his native arts and crafts; and forming, wherever it may be desirable, auxiliary associations for the purpose of accomplishing these ends.

Periodical: News-Letter, about 8 issues yearly, $2.00 a year.

American Association on Mental Deficiency (1876); Elwyn, Pa.; E. A. Whitney, M.D., Secretary-Treasurer.

Membership: Individuals, 720.

Purpose and Activities: To study the causes and prevention of mental deficiency and subjects pertaining to the instruction and welfare of the mentally deficient. The following are among the specific aims: a complete census and registration of all mentally deficient children of school age, extra-institutional supervision of all defectives in the community, parole for all suitable institutionally trained mentally defective persons, and special provision for defective delinquents. The Association meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodical: American Journal of Mental Deficiency, quarterly, $4.00 a year.

American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf (1890); 1537 35th St., NW., Washington, D. C.; Josephine B. Timberlake, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 2,200.

Purpose and Activities: To assist schools for the deaf in their efforts to teach speech and lip reading, to provide information for parents of deaf children, and to maintain a reference library on deafness and those handicapped by deafness of any degree. The Association controls the Volta Bureau, for the increase and diffusion of knowledge relating to the deaf.

Periodicals: Volta Review, monthly, $2.00 a year; Biennial Proceedings, $1.00 a copy.

American Bar Association (1878); 1140 North Dearborn St., Chicago; Olive G. Ricker, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 32,000.

Purpose and Activities: To advance the science of jurisprudence, to promote the administration of justice and uniformity of legislation and of judicial decision throughout the nation, to uphold the honor of the profession of the law, to encourage cordial intercourse among the members of the American Bar, and to correlate the activities of the bar organizations of the respective states on a representative basis in the interest of the legal profession and of the public throughout the United States. Activities related to the field of social work include those represented by the following sections or committees: American Citizenship; Bill of Rights; Criminal Law; Economic Condition of the Bar; Labor, Employment, and Social Security; Legal Aid Work; and Legal Service Bureaus.

Periodicals: American Bar Association Journal, monthly, $3.00 a year; The Bill of Rights Review, quarterly, $1.00 a year.

American Camping Association (1910); 330 South State St., Ann Arbor, Mich.; Ross L. Allen, Managing Executive.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 1,500. Membership is effected through 24 local and re-

gional organizations called sections, including 2 in Canada and 1 in Hawaii.

Purpose and Activities: To further the interests and welfare of children and adults through camping as an educative, recreative, and character-developing experience, by the following means: promotion of camping generally and stimulation of its expansion; lending of administrative attention to needs and problems common to all camps; formulation and effecting of standards to permit camping to function adequately as an educational, health-developing, and joyous experience; instigation, promotion, and coordination of studies and research in all areas of camping; promotion and guiding of training courses, institutes, and conferences for the training of leadership; and publication of a periodical and permanent literature for the stimulation, enlightenment, and growth of camp leaders generally.

Periodical: The Camping Magazine, monthly except July, August, and September, $2.00 a year.

American Civil Liberties Union (1920); 31 Union Sq., West, New York; Roger N. Baldwin, Director.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 6,000; state or local organizations, 31.

Purpose and Activities: To protect freedom of speech, press, and assemblage by combating repressive legislation and the acts of officials in violation of civil liberties; to aid in defense of cases in courts; and to carry test cases to the higher courts. Among activities sponsored by the Union are the following: Committee on Academic Freedom, Committee on Alien Civil Rights, Committee on Education for Civil Liberties, Committee on Indian Civil Rights, Committee on Labor's Rights, Committee on Religious Liberties, and National Council on Freedom from Censorship.

Periodicals: Mimeographed weekly bulletins, $1.50 a year; Civil Liberties Quarterly; Yearly Review; $1.00 a year for both; subscription to pamphlet service, $2.00 a year.

American Committee for Christian Refugees (1935); name changed in 1940 from American Committee for Christian German Refugees; 287 Fourth Ave., New York; K. Brent Woodruff, Executive Director.

Membership: Organizations, 1 national and 2 district (Midwest and New England), also numerous local autonomous organizations.

Activities: The Committee accepts as its responsibility for advice and service all racial, religious, political, and war refugees with the exception of those accepted by the Jewish and Roman Catholic refugee organizations. The Committee functions through five departments. The Migration Department establishes and maintains contacts with refugees still abroad; handles cases within the United States involving special immigration problems; and provides technical service and advice regarding immigration, affidavits, passports, visas, and transportation. The Local Case Work Department helps refugees arriving in this country with their immediate problems, gives temporary relief on the basis of need, establishes contacts with affiants, and provides counsel and advice. The Vocational Department provides vocational analysis and advice, arranges for retraining opportunities when needed, and gives help in job placement. The Resettlement Department arranges to resettle refugees in communities throughout the United States, which is done largely through contacts with local volunteer committees, social agencies, or church groups. The Promotion and Finance Department carries on the publicity and information activities of the Committee and has the responsibility for raising the necessary funds to maintain the service program.

American Committee for Protection of Foreign Born (1931); 79 Fifth Ave., New York; Carey McWilliams, Chairman.

Membership: Individuals, 400; organizations, 20 national and 250 local.

Activities: The Committee combats discrimination against foreign-born residents of this country, seeks to prevent destruction of families by deportation, works to encourage and facilitate the naturalization of non-citizens, opposes discriminatory anti-alien legislation, and mobilizes public support and provides legal defense to prevent deportation for political opinion and to preserve the American tradition of asylum for political and religious refugees.

Periodicals: These United States, biweekly news service; Monthly Bulletins; $3.00 a year for all publications.

American Committee on Maternal Welfare (1919); 650 Rush St., Chicago; Fred L. Adair, M.D., Chairman.

Membership: Individuals, 23 representing the American Association of Obstetricians, Gynecologists and Abdominal Surgeons; American College of Surgeons; American Gynecological Society; American Hospital Association; American Medical Association, Section of Obstetrics and Gynecology; American Medical Women's Association; American Nurses Association; American Protestant Hospital Association; American Public Health Association; Catholic Hospital Association of the United States and Canada; Central Association of Obstetricians and Gynecologists; Chicago

Maternity Center; Maternity Center Association of New York; National League of Nursing Education; National Medical Association; National Organization for Public Health Nursing; New England Obstetrical and Gynecological Society; Pacific Coast Society of Obstetrics and Gynecology; South Atlantic Association of Obstetricians and Gynecologists; Southern Medical Association; U. S. Bureau of the Census; U. S. Children's Bureau; and U. S. Public Health Service.

Purpose and Activities: To improve maternal welfare by stimulating the interest of the medical profession so that they will lead in their own communities in providing maternal care; to promote the formation of state and local committees of medical practitioners whose function shall be the development of maternal care; to educate physicians, nurses, and the laity to the need for better obstetric care both in the home and in institutions by means of printed material, movies, and other available methods; to establish and raise the standards of maternal care; and to promote the study of problems, the solution of which will lessen morbidity and mortality associated with childbearing, alleviate suffering, and improve the quality of the human race.

American Council on Community Self-Help Exchanges (1938); 5 East 57th St., New York; Winslow Carlton, Acting Secretary-Treasurer.

Membership: Individuals, 28.

Purpose and Activities: To collect accurate information about existing community self-help exchanges (community centers where needy persons may work to provide goods and services for their own use); to foster nation-wide interest in self-help by disseminating information to the general public and to those who control the use of private and public funds; to foster the estsblishment of new exchanges by offering and, upon request, arranging for the services of qualified field consultants; and to organize such training as may be helpful in developing leaders and administrators of community self-help exchanges. The Council meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

American Country Life Association (1919); 297 Fourth Ave., New York; Benson Y. Landis, Ph.D., Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 600.

Purpose: To promote discussion of the problems and objectives in country life and to facilitate the means of their solution and attainment, to further the efforts and increase the efficiency of persons and agencies engaged in this field, to disseminate information calculated to promote a better understanding of country life, and to aid in rural improvement.

Periodical: Rural America, monthly except June, July, and August, $2.00 a year.

American Dental Association (1860); 212 East Superior St., Chicago; Harry B. Pinney, D.D.S., General Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 46,000; organizations, 57.

Purpose: To cultivate and promote the art and science of dentistry; to elevate and sustain the professional character and education of dentists; and to enlighten and direct public opinion in relation to oral hygiene, dental prophylaxis, and advanced scientific dental service.

Periodical: Journal of the American Dental Association, monthly, $5.00 a year.

American Federation of Housing Authorities (1937); Tower Bldg., Washington, D. C.; James A. Urich, Executive Director.

Membership: Limited to state boards of housing and municipal housing authorities.

Purpose: To aid local housing authorities and state boards in their dealings with the U. S. Housing Authority and other federal agencies; to cooperate with the U. S. Housing Authority as to its policies, procedure, and standards; to expedite the successful working of the housing law; to exchange information among its members and coordinate local and national policy; and to protect the United States Housing Act of 1937 against adverse amendment.

American Federation of Labor (1881); American Federation of Labor Bldg., Washington, D. C.; William Green, President.

Membership: Individuals, 4,006,354; affiliated national and international unions, 105 (comprised of 33,744 local unions); departments, 4 (comprised of 942 local department councils); directly affiliated local unions, 1,568; state branches, 49; city central bodies, 806.

Purpose and Activities: To provide a coordinating agency through which trade unions may determine labor policies and practices, promote the general interests of all workers, and secure mutual support for their special problems. Among its affiliated unions are the following: American Federation of Government Employees; and American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees of America.

Periodicals: Weekly News Letter, furnished to labor papers; American Federationist, monthly, $2.00 a year; Monthly Survey of Business.

American Folk Dance Society (1916); 670 Fifth Ave., New York; Elizabeth Burchenal, President.

Membership: Individuals, 250.

Purpose and Activities: To maintain a national study and reference service for the field of folk dancing and music of the United States and of various nationalities. Its activities include: research in and collection and publication of folk dances, especially those best suited for general use by both adults and children; folk dance institutes for leaders, lectures, demonstrations, programs, and festivals; assembling of an archive of American folk dance and other reference materials; and maintenance of a national and international information and consultation bureau. The Society has joint headquarters with the Folk Arts Center and members automatically acquire membership in the Center.

American Foundation (1925); 1122 Lincoln-Liberty Bldg., Philadelphia; Clarence Gardner, Secretary.

Purpose and Activities: To engage exclusively in charitable, scientific, literary, and educational activities; and to promote the welfare of mankind. The American Foundation Studies in Government has defined 10 fields of study and is pursuing active investigation in four of them. The first report of this research, published in April, 1937, is American Medicine, Expert Testimony out of Court. The Foundation maintains the Mountain Lake Sanctuary, Lake Wales, Fla., and has developed this tract for its educational and recreational opportunities.

American Foundation for Mental Hygiene (1928); 1790 Broadway, New York; Clifford W. Beers, Secretary.

Activities: The Foundation seeks gifts and bequests in order to give financial aid, in so far as its resources permit, to research and other work which will help conserve mental health, reduce and prevent nervous and mental disorders and mental defect, and improve the care and treatment of persons suffering from such disorders.

American Foundation for the Blind (1921); 15 West 16th St., New York; Robert B. Irwin, Executive Director.

Activities: The Foundation is a nation-wide organization for the promotion of those interests of the blind which cannot be advantageously handled by local agencies. Its activities include: research in education, statistics, legislation, vocational opportunities, mechanical appliances, and publishing methods for the blind, including the manufacture of talking book records and reading machines; consultation service; assistance to state and community agencies in the organization and reorganization of their activities, and in the promotion of legislation; special services to blind individuals; scholarships for a limited number of promising students with satisfactory vocational objectives; and a special lending library on the welfare of the blind. A mimeographed bulletin giving legislative news on work for the blind is issued occasionally during odd-numbered years when most state legislatures are in session. The Committee on Statistics of the Blind, appointed in 1929 to study problems of statistics of blindness and the blind and to make recommendations for improvement of such data, is sponsored jointly by the Foundation and the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness. The Foundation meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodicals: Outlook for the Blind, 5 issues yearly, inkprint edition $2.00 a year, Braille edition 40 cents a year; Teachers Forum (for instructors of blind children), in inkprint and Braille, 5 issues yearly, $1.00 a year; Talking Book Topics, quarterly, inkprint edition, free to talking book readers, edition on phonograph records $1.00 a year.

American Heart Association (1924); 1790 Broadway, New York; Gertrude P. Wood, Office Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 2,075; organizations, 49.

Purpose and Activities: To gather facts relating to heart disease and disseminate information as to its prevention and care; to develop and apply measures which will prevent heart disease; to encourage and assist in the development of new centers for cardiac work; to coordinate the work of centers for the prevention and care of heart disease; and to arouse the public, through publicity, to its responsibility and opportunity to combat heart disease.

Periodicals: American Heart Journal, monthly, $8.50 a year; Modern Concepts of Cardiovascular Disease, monthly; Bulletin, quarterly.

American Home Economics Association (1908); 620 Mills Bldg., Washington, D. C.; Edna Van Horn, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 14,800 received through 51 state and territorial associations; affiliated student home economics clubs, 2,275.

Purpose and Activities: To develop and promote standards of home and family life that will best further individual and social welfare, especially by the following means: the study of problems con-

nected with the family and the institutional household, improving and extending home economics instruction in schools and colleges and in adult education programs, improving professional education for all home economists, encouraging and aiding investigation and research in problems of home economics, issuing publications and holding meetings through which there may be wider and better understanding of the value of home economics, and endeavoring to secure legislation for the advancement of home economics interests. Home Economists in Social Welfare and Public Health Work, a department of the Association, meets as an associate group with the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodicals: Journal of Home Economics, monthly except July and August, $2.50 a year; Association Bulletin, quarterly, free to members, subscription to libraries, $1.00; Consumer Education Service, series of mimeographed newsletters and miscellaneous publications, issued September through May, $1.00 a year; Family Life Education Service, series of mimeographed releases, issued September through May, $1.00 a year.

American Hospital Association (1899); 18 East Division St., Chicago; Bert W. Caldwell, M.D., Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 2,272; institutions, 2,653; organizations, 20.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the welfare of the people, so far as it may be done, by the institution, care, and management of hospitals and dispensaries with efficiency and economy; to aid in procuring the cooperation of all organizations with similar aims and objects; and, in general, to do all things which may best promote hospital efficiency. Sections, standing committees, and special committees of the Association most closely related to social work include those dealing with the following subjects: out-patient departments, medical social service, tuberculosis, public health relations, workmen's compensation, and costs of medical care. Since 1929 the Association has operated the Hospital Library Service Bureau, a clearing house for the dissemination of information relating to problems in the hospital field.

Periodicals: Hospitals, monthly, $3.00 a year, $2.00 to members; Transactions, annually.

American Humane Association (1877); 135 Washington Ave., Albany; Eric H. Hansen, General Manager.

Membership: Individuals, 6,610; organizations, 190.

Purpose and Activities: To promote work for the protection of children and animals throughout the United States. The Association is the national mouthpiece of the humane cause, undertaking work of a national character, coordinating existing local units, developing additional ones, promoting needful legislation, and publishing a magazine and other literature. At its annual convention in 1939 the Association adopted standards in the field of child protection consistent with those of the most progressive societies working in this field, including the principle that animal protection and child protection are two distinct functions and should be performed by separate staffs of competent personnel.

Periodical: National Humane Review, monthly, $1.00 a year.

American Industrial Hygiene Association (1939); Industrial Hygiene Laboratories, Chrysler Corp., 7900 Joseph Campau Ave., Detroit; Gordon C. Harrold, Ph.D., Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 250; organizations, 6 local.

Activities: These include the advancement and application of industrial hygiene and sanitation, through interchange and dissemination of technical knowledge on these subjects; the furthering of study and control of industrial health hazards, through determination and elimination of excessive exposures; the correlation of such activities as conducted by divers individuals and agencies throughout industry and educational and governmental groups; and the uniting of persons with these interests. Most of the papers given at the annual meeting are published in The Journal of Industrial Hygiene and Toxicology.

Periodical: Industrial Medicine, monthly, $5.00 a year. An Industrial Hygiene Section is included in the January, April, July, and October issues of this journal.

American Institute for the Deaf-Blind (1933); 2332 Bryant Ave., Evanston, Ill.; Robert H. Gault, Ph.D., Director General.

Purpose: To provide training and education for a small number of deaf-blind children; to conduct psycho-educational research with reference to the specified group, and with further reference to the education of the deaf and of the blind; and to conduct research relating to the protection of vision and hearing in the schools generally.

American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology (1909); 357 East Chicago Ave., Chicago; Henry Barrett Chamberlin, President.

Membership: Individuals, 250.

Purpose: To further the scientific study of crime, criminal law, and procedure; to formulate and promote measures for solving the problems connected therewith; and to coordinate the efforts of individuals and of organizations interested in the administration of certain, speedy justice.

Periodical: Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology, bimonthly, $3.50 a year.

American Institute of Park Executives (1898); P. O. Box 422, Tulsa, Okla.; Will O. Doolittle, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 500 executives of public parks and recreation systems.

Purpose and Activities: To disseminate information in regard to public parks and recreation activities, and to promote larger facilities for use of leisure time. The American Park Society is one of its branch societies.

Periodical: Parks and Recreation, monthly, $3.00 a year.

American Institute of Planners (1917); name changed in 1939 from American City Planning Institute; 99 Warren St., Brookline, Mass.; Harold W. Lautner, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 170.

Purpose: To study and advance the science and art of city and regional planning; to facilitate the exchange of experience among members; to encourage original research; and to make more general the application of planning principles in city, regional, state, and national development.

Periodical: The Planners' Journal, quarterly, $2.00 a year.

American Jewish Joint Distribution Committee (1914); 100 East 42d St., New York; Moses A. Leavitt, Secretary.

Activities: The Committee is primarily a disbursing agency, expending funds in 52 countries throughout the world and working through centrally representative local committees. The funds are received from organized Jewish communities throughout America. Overseas relief is provided in behalf of needy Jewish populations in central and eastern Europe and for refugees from those countries in western Europe, Central and South America, Philippines, Shanghai, etc. The Committee's overseas activities include relief through feeding, clothing, sheltering, medical aid, child care, cultural assistance, emigration, vocational retraining, economic help, and many other forms of assistance. Information bulletins and special reports of activities are issued periodically.

American Labor Education Service, Inc. (1926); name changed in 1940 from Affiliated Schools for Workers, Inc.; 437 West 59th St., New York; Eleanor G. Coit, Director.

Membership: Individuals interested in workers' education, local labor colleges, unions, resident schools, workers' education committees, community organizations, and other workers' groups and classes concerned in the problem of workers' education.

Purpose and Activities: To conduct labor education services giving assistance to workers' education projects throughout the country, and to act as a clearing house for its member groups. An annual conference of teachers and leaders is held under its auspices each year. The organization conducts an active advisory service giving suggestions on bibliographies, study outlines, and methods of teaching; organizes conferences and classes and conducts seminars for teachers of workers' groups; maintains an information service on workers' education for use by other organizations and students of this movement; and by means of its publications, in the shape of pamphlets, lists, and its magazine, supplies fresh information ro the field in a form particularly useful to workers. The organization is a central agency in the field of workers' education.

American League Against Epilepsy (1936); Bosron City Hospital, Boston; F. A. Gibbs, M.D., Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 142; organization, 1 national.

Purpose: To coordinate the activities of those doctors who are interested in the better care and treatment of epileptics, and to stimulate interest in the social and scientific aspects of the disease.

Periodical: Epilepsia, annually, $1.00 a copy.

American Legion, National Child Welfare Division (1925); 777 North Meridian St., Indianapolis; Emma C. Puschner, Director.

Purpose and Activities: To assure care, training, and protection primarily to the children of veterans of the World War and, in general, to assure a square deal for every child. The Division informs the membership within the Legion and its subsidiary organizations, and also the citizens at large, of the conditions and needs of children; secures the enactment of legislation to bring improved care and protection for all children; and provides assistance ro any child of a veteran of the World War who may need the services afforded by the Division when local welfare resources are nor available or are inadequate. The entire child welfare program of the Legion has been built upon

cooperation with existing child-caring and protective agencies. Emphasis is placed on the care of children in their own homes with their parents; concern is for the "whole child," and his needs. There are some 20,000 volunteers serving as child welfare chairmen or child welfare workers in the many American Legion Posts and Auxiliary Units throughout the country. The Division meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

American Library Association (1876); 520 North Michigan Ave., Chicago; Carl H. Milam, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals and institutions, approximately 15,000; organizations, 58.

Purpose: To assist in making books a vital, working, educational force in American life; to make libraries easily accessible to all the people; to raise professional standards; and to publish books, periodicals, and pamphlets which will aid trustees and librarians in rendering library service.

Periodicals: Booklist, semimonthly, $3.00 a year; A.L.A. Bulletin, monthly; Subscription Books Bulletin, quarterly, $2.00 a year; Journal of Documentary Reproduction, quarterly, $3.00 a year; College and Research Libraries, quarterly, $3.00 a year.

American Management Association (1923); 330 West 42d St., New York; Alvin E. Dodd, President.

Membership: Individuals, 3,723.

Purpose and Activities: To promote better industrial management practices through the interchange of experience between executives sharing common company responsibilities. The Association is a non-profit organization. The Personnel Division, one of its six divisions, annually holds an industrial relations conference of personnel managers. The proceedings of this meeting and all other meetings of the Association are published.

Periodicals: The Management Review, monthly; Business Conditions and Forecasts, monthly; Personnel, quarterly. Publications may only be obtained through membership.

American Medical Association (1847); 535 North Dearborn St., Chicago; Olin West, M.D., Secretary and General Manager.

Membership: Individuals, 117,183; organizations, 54.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the science and art of medicine, and to aid in the betterment of public health. Activities related to social work include those represented by the Association's Bureau of Health Education, Bureau of Investigation (dealing especially with fraud and quackery in medicine), Bureau of Legal Medicine and Legislation, Bureau of Medical Economics, Council on Foods, Council on Medical Education and Hospitals, Section on Preventive and Industrial Medicine and Public Health, and Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education (with National Education Association).

Periodicals: Journal of the American Medical Association, weekly, $7.00 a year; Hygeia (a lay journal), monthly, $2.50 a year; Quarterly Cumulative Index Medicus, $12.00 a year.

American Museum of Health (1937); Flushing Meadow Park, New York; Homer N. Calver, Secretary.

Purpose and Activities: To maintain a museum of health in the City of New York; to encourage the establishment of similar museums throughout the nation; and to provide an educational force for the dissemination of present day scientific knowledge relating to the prevention of disease, the promotion of health, and the conservation of life. The Museum's principal activities in 1939 and 1940 have been the operation of the medical and public health exhibits at the New York World's Fair and studies of the level of popular health knowledge and public reaction to health exhibits.

American National Red Cross (1881); Washington, D. C.; James L. Fieser, Vice Chairman in charge of Domestic Operations.

Membership: Individuals, 7,125,000 adults and 7,500,306 juniors; chapters, 3,715.

Purpose and Activities: To furnish volunteer aid to the sick and wounded of armies in time of war; to act in matters of voluntary relief and in accord with the military and naval authorities as a medium of communication between the people of the United States of America and their Army and Navy; to act in such matters between similar national societies of other governments and the government and the people and the Army and Navy of the United States of America; to continue and carry on a system of national and international relief in time of peace; and to mitigate the sufferings caused by pestilence, famine, fire, floods, and other national calamities, and to devise and carry on measures for preventing their recurrence. The services of the Red Cross are: Civilian Relief, Disaster Relief, First Aid and Life Saving, Home and Farm Accident Prevention, Home Hygiene and Care of the Sick, Junior Red Cross, Nursing, Nutrition, Public Health Nursing, Volunteer, and War. The Red Cross meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodicals: Red Cross Courier, monthly, $1.00 a year; Junior Red Cross News, monthly, 50 cents a year; Junior Red Cross Journal, monthly, $1.00 a year, supplied to schools.

American Nurses' Association (1896); 1790 Broadway, New York; Mrs. Alma H. Scott, R.N., Director of Headquarters.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 157,000; organizations, 52, including 48 state associations.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the professional and educational advancement of nurses in every proper way; to elevate the standard of nursing education; to establish and maintain a code of ethics among nurses; to distribute relief among such nurses as may become ill, disabled, or destitute; to disseminate information on the subject of nursing by publications in official periodicals or otherwise; and to bring into communication with each other various nurses and associations and federations of nurses throughout the United States. The Association's Department of Education is the National League of Nursing Education.

Periodicals: American Journal of Nursing, monthly, $3.00 a year; Bulletin, monthly, free; Biennial Proceedings, price varies.

American Occupational Therapy Association (1917); 175 Fifth Ave., New York; Mrs. Meta R. Cobb, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 1,200.

Purpose and Activities: To maintain the standards of education and training of occupational therapists, to maintain a national register of qualified therapists, to diffuse authoritative information relative to the aims and methods employed in occupational treatment, to further its use with the sick and disabled, and to stimulate scientific research in the field. Activities include: information regarding training centers; advice relative to hospitals willing to receive students for specialized practice training; advice in connection with organization or other problems; surveys and recommendations in particular fields, on request; and the maintenance of a placement service for trained therapists to protect hospitals from employing persons not trained or qualified as professional therapists.

Periodical: Occupational Therapy and Rehabilitation, bimonthly, $5.00 a year.

American Orthopsychiatric Association (1924); 149 East 73d St., New York; Norvelle C. LaMar, M.D., Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 370.

Purpose: To unite and provide a common meeting ground for those engaged in the study and treatment of problems of human behavior; and to foster research and spread information concerning scientific work in the field of human behavior, including all forms of abnormal behavior.

Periodical: American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, quarterly, $6.00 a year.

American Parole Association (1931); 5714 Kenwood Ave., Chicago; John Landesco, President.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 1,000. Voting membership restricted to membership in American Prison Association.

Purpose: To improve parole service and legislation referring to it.

American Planning and Civic Association (1935); 901 Union Trust Bldg., Washington, D. C.; Harlean James, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 1,500.

Purpose: To educate the American people to an understanding and appreciation of local, state, regional, and national planning for the best use of urban and rural land, and of water and other natural resources; the safeguarding and planned use of local and national parks; the conservation of natural scenery; the advancement of higher ideals of civic life and beauty in America; and the improvement of living conditions and the fostering of wider educational facilities in schools and colleges along these lines.

Periodicals: Planning and Civic Comment, quarterly; American Planning and Civic Annual.

American Printing House for the Blind (1858); 1839 Frankfort Ave., Louisville, Ky.; A. C. Ellis, Superintendent.

Purpose and Activities: To provide literature and appliances for the blind on a non-profit basis. Embossed books, talking book records, and tangible apparatus for educational purposes are provided through a federal appropriation and are distributed on a per capita basis to all of the free public educational institutions for the blind throughout the United States and its territories. Books and periodicals—both Braille and talking book—are manufactured at cost for organizations which provide free literature for the blind. Inquiry and research in the specific problems relating to the selection and preparation of literature and appliances for the blind and near-blind are conducted. Departments are maintained for the embossing and printing of Braille books and magazines, the recording and pressing of talking book records, and

the manufacture of special appliances for the use of the blind.

Periodicals: Current Events, Braille edition, weekly during the school year, $4.75 a year; My Weekly Reader No. 5, Braille edition, weekly during the school year, $3.00 a year; Reader's Digest, monthly, Braille edition $10.00 a year, talking book edition sent to libraries for the blind only.

American Prison Association (1870); 135 East 15th St., New York; E. R. Cass, General Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 650.

Purpose and Activities: To study the causes and treatment of crime; and to promote the improvement of laws in relation to public offenses and offenders, the improvement of penal, correctional, and reformatory institutions, and the development and improvement of methods relating to probation, parole, and the after-care of released prisoners. The Association has the following committees: Classification and Case Work, Criminal Statistics, Education, Institution Libraries, Jails, Personnel Standards and Training, Prevention, Prison Labor, and Women's Institutions, and a Medical Section. The following are allied groups: American Parole Association, Chaplains' Association, National Conference of Juvenile Agencies, National Jail Association, National Prisoners' Aid Association, National Probation Association, and Wardens' Association.

Periodicals: The Prison World, bimonthly, $2.00 a year (published in cooperation with the National Jail Association); Newsletter, 2 issues yearly, free; Annual Proceedings, $3.00 a copy.

American Protestant Hospital Association (1920); Station A—P. O. Box 3, Evansville, Ind.; Albert G. Hahn, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 250; institutions, 150; organizations, 90.

Purpose: To associate all hospitals affiliated with Protestant churches for the sake of reaching the highest standards and securing adequate (but not duplicate) covering of the field of hospital endeavor, to study the entire field occupied by Protestant hospitals, to recruit student nurses for schools of proper standards, to encourage schools of nursing to train their students in strong Christian spirit, to secure church and public assistance for Protestant hospitals, and to bring hospital aid to the neglected poor and to those living in remote places.

Periodicals: Association Bulletin, bimonthly, 50 cents a year; Convention Program, annually, 50 cents a copy.

American Psychiatric Association (1844); 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York; Austin M. Davies, Executive Assistant.

Membership: Individuals, 2,442.

Purpose: To further the study of subjects pertaining to the nature, treatment, and prevention of mental disorders; to further the interests, maintenance, and advancement of standards of hospitals for mental disorders, of out-patient clinics, and of all other agencies concerned with the social and legal aspects of these disorders; and to further psychiatric education and research.

Periodical: American Journal of Psychiatry, bimonthly, $6.00 a year.

American Public Health Association (1872); 1790 Broadway, New York; Reginald M. Atwater, M.D., Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 7,000; organizations, 21; regional branches, 2.

Purpose and Activities: To protect and promote public health by the following means: a monthly journal; an annual meeting; the conduct of surveys and an information service; and studies and reports of over 50 volunteer technical committees which are concerned with problems of public health administration, research, education, and standardization. The Association has the following sections: Engineering, Epidemiology, Food and Nutrition, Health Officers, Industrial Hygiene, Laboratory, Maternal and Child Health, Public Health Education, Public Health Nursing, and Vital Statistics.

Periodicals: American Journal of Public Health, monthly, $5.00 a year; Annual Year Book, sold at cost.

American Public Welfare Association (1930); 1313 East 60th St., Chicago; Fred K. Hoehler, Director.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 2,500; organizations, 63.

Purpose and Activities: To provide consultant, administrative, and technical service in public welfare to the federal, state, and local governments; to serve as a clearing house of information for those actively engaged in the field of public welfare; to make surveys of present welfare administration and on the basis of this information recommend changes; to bring about a better integration of public welfare services; to develop and maintain high standards of public welfare administration; to promote better training for public welfare personnel; and to educate public opinion regarding welfare as a function of government. The Association meets annually as one of the associate groups of

the National Conference of Social Work. The National Council of State Public Assistance and Welfare Administrators is organized within the Association. Membership in the group is open only to members of the American Public Welfare Association who are eligible because of their administrative responsibility for welfare or assistance programs in a state. The group takes no separate action and refers resolutions, etc., through the Executive Committee of the American Public Welfare Association.

Periodicals: Public Welfare News, monthly; News Letter of National Council of State Welfare Administrators, monthly.

American School Health Association

(1927); name changed in 1937 from American Association of School Physicians; Kent, Ohio; A. O. DeWeese, Secretary-Treasurer.

Membership: School physicians, dentists, nurses, nutritionists, and health educators, approximately 1,500.

Purpose: To promote comprehensive and constructive school health programs, including the teaching of health, health services, and healthful school living.

Periodical: Journal of School Health, monthly except July and August, $1.75 a year.

American Seamen's Friend Society

(1828); 550 West 20th St., New York; R. H. Lee Martin, Executive Director.

Purpose and Activities: To improve the social and moral condition of seamen, by uniting the efforts of the wise and good in their behalf. Activities include the promoting in every port of boarding houses of good character, savings banks, register offices, libraries, museums, reading rooms, and schools; also the ministration of the gospel and other religious blessings. The Society maintains a library for seamen at the above address and puts Libraries for Modern American Mariners on board ships in the Port of New York. It cooperates in work for seamen both locally and on a national basis.

American Social Hygiene Association

(1914); 1790 Broadway, New York; Walter Clarke, M.D., Executive Director.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 10,000; organizations, 147.

Purpose and Activities: To inform the public about the national program and needed community action; to combat syphilis and gonorrhea as dangerous communicable diseases; to fight prostitution as an organized business, and to improve other unwholesome conditions, particularly community conditions which lead to sex delinquency among young people; to promote, from childhood on, sound sex education and training for marriage and parenthood; and by all these means to protect and improve the American family as the basic social institution. The Association undertakes to promote an eight-point program on the 48 state fronts in line with these purposes, working through the membership, the National Education Committee, the National Anti-Syphilis Committee, state and local branches of these committees, state and community social hygiene societies, and other national voluntary agencies which include social hygiene in their state and community program; and cooperating with federal, state, and city governmental agencies. The Association also works through the educational facilities of home, church, school, press, radio, stage, and motion pictures; and through direct contact with the public by letter and personal interview. Association services include personnel for advice, consultation, and field work including state and community surveys; and distribution of books, pamphlets, exhibits, films, periodicals, and other materials. Important continuing projects are National Social Hygiene Day and special services to youth. Divisional offices function in Chicago, New Orleans, San Francisco, and Washington, D. C.

Periodicals: Journal of Social Hygiene, monthly except July, August, and September, $3.00 a year; Social Hygiene News, monthly.

American Society for the Control of Cancer

(1913); 350 Madison Ave., New York; C. C. Little, Sc.D., Manager Director.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 700 (through election by Executive Committee); contributing members, approximately 400 (exclusive of Women's Field Army members); affiliated state and local branches, 52.

Purpose: To collect, collate, and disseminate information concerning the symptoms, diagnosis, treatment, and prevention of cancer; to investigate the conditions under which cancer is found and to compile statistics in regard thereto; to organize and administer the Women's Field Army; to aid voluntarily, in cooperation with accredited physicians, indigent cancer patients in securing adequate diagnosis or treatment; to assist voluntarily in the establishment, development, equipment, or maintenance of hospitals, clinics, laboratories, or other facilities for the care of cancer patients; and generally to carry on other activities which may contribute toward the control of cancer, except the actual treatment of cancer patients or the actual operation of hospitals, clinics, laboratories, or other facilities for such treatment.

American Society for the Hard of Hearing (1919); 1537 35th St., NW., Washington, D. C.; Berry C. Wright, Executive Director.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 7,000; chapters, 123.

Activities: The Society serves as an information center on problems of defective hearing; works for improvement of the educational, economic, and social conditions among both adults and children whose hearing is impaired; stimulates scientific efforts in prevention of deafness and conservation of hearing; maintains departments of vocational advice and exhibits; conducts the Everywhere League, a correspondence club for the isolated hard of hearing; and promotes the organization of local societies.

Periodical: Hearing News, monthly, $2.00 a year.

American Society of Planning Officials (1934); 1313 East 60th St., Chicago; Walter H. Blucher, Executive Director.

Membership: Individuals, 729.

Purpose and Activities: To promote efficiency of public administration in land and community planning through the association of officials engaged in the making or administration of national, state, regional, or local plans, by exchanging information, improving administrative standards and practices, engaging in research, publishing the results of studies, cooperating and collaborating with other public and private agencies and associations, and in all proper ways furthering the usefulness of public agencies in the field. The Society serves as a clearing house for planning information; publishes and distributes bulletins on special matters as events occur; arranges regional or sectional planning meetings; aids in perfecting legislation for state planning, regional planning, local planning, rural and local zoning, etc.; and assists in the establishment of official planning agencies.

Periodicals: News Letter, monthly; Proceedings of National Conference on Planning, $2.00 a copy.

American Sociological Society (1905); University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh; Harold A. Phelps, Ph.D., Secretary-Treasurer.

Membership: Individuals, 1,003.

Purpose and Activities: To promote a basic, scientific, sociological study of society and its problems. An annual census of sociological research in progress is conducted, and an annual meeting held for the presentation and discussion of research methods and findings. Sections are entitled: The Community, Criminology, Educational Sociology, The Family, Human Ecology, Political Sociology, Social Biology and Population, Social Psychology, Social Research, Social Statistics, Sociology and Psychiatry, Sociology and Social Work, and Sociology of Religion.

Periodical: The American Sociological Review, bimonthly.

American Speech Correction Association (1925); 419 Boylston St., Boston; Samuel D. Robbins, Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 250.

Purpose and Activities: To stimulate more intelligent interest in problems of speech correction; to raise standards among workers in speech correction; to secure public recognition of the practice of speech correction as an organized profession; to furnish the profession with responsible and authoritative leadership; to make leadership respected by means of scholarly research, publicity, and administrative skill; and to make membership a coveted honor and recognition of merit.

Periodicals: The Journal of Speech Disorders, quarterly, $3.00 a year; Annual Proceedings, $2.00 to $3.00 a set.

American Statistical Association (1839); 210 Normandy Bldg., Washington, D. C.; Richard L. Funkhouser, Secretary-Treasurer.

Membership: Individuals, 2,700; state or urban chapters, 17.

Purpose and Activities: An organization of statisticians and other persons interested in statistics which aims to promote the development of statistical science and the improvement of statistical data. The Association has committees on Census Enumeration Areas, Labor Statistics, Occupational Classification, Relief Statistics, Statistics of Delinquents and Criminals, Statistics of Institutions for Mental and Physical Disorders, and an Advisory Committee on the Census. The annual meeting is held during the last week of December.

Periodicals: Journal of the American Statistical Association, quarterly, $6.00 a year; American Statistical Association Bulletin, quarterly, 25 cents a year.

American Student Health Association (1920); University of Kansas, Lawrence; Ralph I. Canuteson, M.D., Secretary-Treasurer.

Membership: 181 colleges and universities, each represented by its institutional physician or health officer.

Purpose and Activities: To act as a clearing house for the promotion of student health services, and to increase physical and mental health among students. The Association has a Committee on Tuberculosis.

Periodicals: Journal-Lancet, monthly; Proceedings, annually.

American Vocational Association (1925); 1010 Vermont Ave., Washington, D. C.; L. H. Dennis, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 23,500; organizations, 52.

Purpose: To assume and maintain active national leadership in the promotion of vocational and practical arts and educational and vocational guidance, to render service to state or local communities in the field promoting vocational education, to provide a national forum for the discussion of all questions involved, and to unite vocational education interests through a membership representative of the entire country.

Periodical: AVA Journal and News Bulletin, quarterly.

American Youth Commission (1935); 744 Jackson Pl., Washington, D. C.; Floyd W. Reeves, Ph.D., Director.

Purpose and Activities: To make an extensive inquiry into and formulate comprehensive plans for the care and education of American youth. Temporary studies have been set up in various localities under the supervision of the Washington office, and a research study of the social and educational aspects of the Civilian Conservation Corps is being conducted. In 1939, the Commission worked out recommendations for a program in the three great areas of youth action—employment, health, and education. The Commission functions under the auspices of the American Council on Education.

American Youth Congress (1934); 8 West 40th St., New York; Joseph Cadden, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 5,000,000; organizations, 54 national and 1,500 local.

Activities: The Congress is a permanent federation of youth organizations and youth-serving agencies, regardless of creed, color, nationality, or political opinion. The federated organizations, retaining their complete identity, cooperate on a program jointly drafted to secure peace, freedom, and progress. Its program stands for the passage of the American Youth Act to provide work and educational opportunity for unemployed and out-of-school youth, the enactment of an unemployment relief program which will secure decent standards of living for the unemployed and their families, the strengthening of the rights of labor, the preservation of our democratic liberties, the adoption by state and local governments of a program to meet the health needs of a nation, and the passage of the Harrison-Thomas Fletcher bill to provide federal aid for education.

Periodical: American Youth Congress Bulletin, biweekly, $1.00 a year.

American Youth Hostels, Inc. (1935); 87 Main St., Northfield, Mass.; Isabel and Monroe Smith, National Directors.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 11,000; organizations, 227 local.

Purpose and Activities: To help all, especially young people, to a greater knowledge, understanding, and love of the world by providing for them youth hostels (inexpensive overnight accommodations), bicycle trails, and footpaths in America, and by assisting them in their travels both here and abroad. Youth Hostels have been developed in the following regions: New England, New York–New Jersey–Pennsylvania, North Carolina–Tennessee-Georgia, Michigan-Ohio-Indiana-Illinois-Wisconsin, Missouri-Iowa, Colorado, Washington-Oregon, and northern and southern California.

Periodicals: AYH Knapsack, quarterly, 60 cents a year; AYH Handbook, annually, 50 cents.

Army Relief Society (1900); 165 East 65th St., New York; Mrs. Arthur W. Page, President.

Membership: Organizations, 20 branches in different parts of the country.

Purpose: To collect funds and provide relief in case of emergency for dependent widows and orphans of officers and enlisted men of the regular Army of the United States.

Association of Church Social Workers (1934); 1441 Cleveland Ave., Chicago; Ralph Cummins, D.D., President.

Membership: Individuals, 730.

Purpose and Activities: To establish and uphold professional standards of social work under church auspices, and to certify accredited church social workers. The Association is organized under the Church Conference of Social Work, but is autonomous. Its annual meeting is held at the time of the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodical: The Church Social Worker, quarterly, free.

Association of Juvenile Court Judges of America (1937); Juvenile Court, 2163 East 22d St., Cleveland; M. S. Laird, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 350 juvenile court judges; affiliated state associations, 7.

Purpose: To promote, organize, and develop juvenile courts throughout North America; to interpret the philosophy of the juvenile court and to secure uniform legislation in the various states, enabling the courts to function efficiently and effectively; to foster studies and surveys in juvenile and related fields; to cooperate with public and private agencies in developing and coordinating child welfare services; and to engage in such other activities as may be necessary for the improvement of juvenile courts, the welfare of their wards, and the services they perform in their communities.

Periodicals: Quarterly Bulletin; Annual Proceedings.

Association of Leisure Time Educators

(1930); 981 Montford Rd., Cleveland, Ohio; Hollace G. Roberts, Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 300.

Purpose: To creare and maintain high standards of ethics and skills in the practice of social group work, recreational leadership, and informal education; to promote fellowship, efficiency, and cooperation among leisure-time educators; to share experiences; to develop wider professional knowledge; to promote better mutual understanding; and to promore common interests.

Periodical: The Seminar, monthly, $1.00 a year.

Association of State Conference Secretaries

(1924); 82 North High St., Columbus; Jane Chandler, Secretary.

Purpose and Activities: To discuss the general methodology of conferences—their functions, relationship to other organizations, objectives, and programs. There is an exchange of printed material such as programs, working forms, etc. The Association is informal and each stare conference secretary is considered a member. A meeting is held at the time of the National Conference of Social Work and one or more regional meetings are held during the year.

Periodical: Bulletin, occasional issues.

Association of the Junior Leagues of America

(1921); Waldorf Astoria, 305 Park Ave., New York; Mrs. DeForest Van Slyck, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 35,000; organizations, 150.

Purpose and Activities: To unite in one body all Junior Leagues and to promote their individual purposes, namely, to foster interest among their members in the social, economic, educational, cultural, and civic conditions of their own communities; and to make efficient their volunteer service. The Association maintains four services—Arts, Children's Theatre, Ways and Means, and Welfare —which act in advisory capacities to local Leagues. The emphasis of the constituent Leagues' programs is centered on volunteer service to community agencies and education for lay participation in social work. Constituent Leagues raise funds for the whole or partial support of welfare projects. The Association meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodical: Junior League Magazine, monthly except July and August, $2.50 a year.

Baptist Convention, Northern, Social Service Committee

(1915); 2430 Dana St., Berkeley, Calif.; Rev. U. S. Mitchell, Th.D., Chairman.

Purpose and Activities: To coordinate within the denomination a consciousness of social issues, and to assist the churches in carrying out their responsibility thereto. The Committee has effected a reorganization within the Convention, starting May, 1941, to be known as the Council for Christian Social Progress of the Northern Baptist Convention, which will represent 17 organizations of the Convention and will unify the social educarion and action program for the 7,500 churches.

Birth Control Federation of America

(1939); a merger of the American Birth Control League and Birth Control Clinical Research Bureau; 501 Madison Ave., New York; D. Kenneth Rose, Executive Vice President.

Membership: Organizations, 2 national, 30 state, and 438 local.

Purpose and Activities: To foster planned parenthood by making birth control information available under medical auspices to those who desire and need it. The Federation seeks the inclusion of contraception in public health services, and promotes the establishment of state leagues and medically directed birth control clinics. It advances education in contraceptive technique through medical colleges and societies, conducts research, and distributes literature, films, and exhibits for both medical and lay education. Its field consultant staff provides birth control service to indigent families where clinics are not available, and advises member leagues and local committees on problems of organization, education, and clinic administration. The Federation meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodicals: Human Fertility, bimonthly, $2.00 a year; Information Service, bimonthly, free for professional distribution; Bulletin, monthly; Newsletter, quarterly.

B'nai B'rith (1843); 1003 K St., NW., Washington, D. C.; Bernard Postal, Publicity Director.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 140,000; organizations, 7 District Grand Lodges, 6 Women's Grand Lodges, and 600 local Lodges. The junior order (Aleph Zadik Aleph) has 400 chapters and the Women's Auxiliaries have 335 senior and junior units.

Activities: The organization maintains the Hillel Foundations at universities and colleges as religious, cultural, recreational, and philanthropic centers for Jewish students; sponsors the Aleph Zadik Aleph (junior B'nai B'rith), whose scope of leisure-time activity for adolescent boys between 15 and 21 embraces a five-fold program of religion, social service, culture, patriotism, and athletics organized through chapters in more than 250 communities; defends the good name of the Jew, combats un-American propaganda, and promotes good will activities through a systematic campaign of fact dissemination and a widespread educational effort carried on by the Anti-Defamation League; promotes patriotism through an extensive Americanism program, which includes the organized observance of national holidays and wide participation in historic celebrations, community betterment projects, and good citizenship movements; and conducts an extensive program of group vocational guidance for American Jewish youth through the Vocational Service Bureau, which seeks to aid Jewish young people to make a more intelligent choice of careers.

Periodicals: A.Z.A. Shofer, biweekly, free; National Jewish Monthly, $1.50 a year; B'nai B'rith News Service, monthly, 60 cents a year.

Boy Rangers of America (1913); 630 Fifth Ave., New York; Edward W. France, President.

Membership: 1,039 chartered lodges.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the establishment of Boy Ranger lodges throughout the United States, and so contribute materially toward the betterment of American boyhood between the ages of 8 and 12. Lodges have been established in 47 states, with an official program which includes organized ritual, play, and handicraft under competent leadership and contributes materially to the systematic development of fine character in the growing boy.

Boy Scouts of America (1910); 2 Park Ave., New York; James E. West, Chief Scout Executive.

Membership: Individuals, 1,392,320; first class councils, 541.

Purpose and Activities: To promote character building and citizenship training by developing, training, and making available leadership which capitalizes boys' desire to be scouts and makes it possible for them to engage in scouting activities as a game. The essential elements in the Boy Scout program are the Scout Oath and Law and the ideals of service resulting in the practice of the daily good turn and organized service for others.

Periodicals: Boys' Life, monthly, $1.00 a year; Scouting, monthly, $1.00 a year; Cub Leaders' Round Table, monthly except August, 25 cents a year.

Boys' Clubs of America (1906); 381 Fourth Ave., New York; J. Brackin Kirkland, Associate Director.

Membership: Organizations, 348; Canadian affiliates, 21.

Purpose and Activities: To serve as the medium through which the Boys' Clubs of the country may work effectively and unitedly, to promote the organization of Boys' Clubs, and to carry on educational work in that field. Studies are made of community problems with respect to boy life; also advisory surveys as to progress and function of local Clubs. Speakers, organizers, and literature are provided; and a personnel register is maintained. No control is exercised over local Clubs and no responsibilities are assumed for them.

Periodical: Boys' Clubs, monthly, free.

Brookings Institution (1927); 722 Jackson Pl., Washington, D. C.; Harold G. Moulton, President.

Purpose and Activities: To promote research and training in the social sciences. The Institution conducts research on important national and international economic and government problems. It also provides opportunities for research training at the supergraduate level, and maintains a center for visiting scholars in Washington. The Institute of Economics division conducts many surveys which have an important bearing on social work, as for example, the Distribution of Wealth and Income in Relation to Economic Progress. Some of the studies of the Institute for Government Research division also relate directly to social work, such as that recently published under the title Public Welfare Organization. The Institution is conductiog a study of the social, economic, and administrative aspects of relief on the national, state, and local levels.

Brush Foundation (1929); 2109 Adelbert Road, Cleveland; Virginia R. Wing, Executive Secretary.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the betterment

of population as fundamental to the well-being of humanity. At present the largest part of the work is research on optimal efficiency in physical and mental growth and social adjustment of the child.

Buffalo Foundation (1919); 361 Delaware Ave., Buffalo; Sara Kerr, Executive Secretary.

Purpose and Activities: To encourage endowments for the improvement of living and working conditions and the alleviation of human suffering, and for research into causes and methods of preventing or ameliorating unfavorable conditions. Research in the fields of health, recreation, delinquency, and family and child welfare, as related to local problems and needs has been a constant activity. Financial support has been given particularly in the fields of education, mental hygiene, child welfare, and social research.

Periodicals: Foundation Social Statistics News Letter, monthly; Foundation Forum; Foundation Bulletin; both issued at irregular intervals; all free.

Buhl Foundation (1927); 2215 Farmers Bank Bldg., Pittsburgh; Charles F. Lewis, Director.

Purpose and Activities: To stimulate in selected fields the advancement of human welfare by experiment, demonstration, and research. Principal grants have been to existing agencies or especially established agencies for promotion of nationally significant programs in the Pittsburgh district in regional economic, social, and historical research, higher education (including social work training at the graduate level), public health, and mental hygiene. The Foundation has built Chatham Village at a cost of $1,600,000, seeking to show the commercial practicability of building for long-term investment management of large-scale garden homes communities, and to promote new and higher standards in urban "white collar" housing.

Bureau of Cooperative Medicine (1936); 1790 Broadway, New York; Kingsley Roberts, M.D., Medical Director.

Purpose and Activities: To study developments in the field of medical economics, particularly cooperative health associations and other periodic prepayment plans for medical care, and make available the results of its investigation; and to provide a better understanding of medical economic problems through the publication of material on the subject in magazines, newspapers, pamphlets, and through radio, lecture halls, and schools. The Bureau serves as a clearing house for those interested in organizing group health associations and advises such persons or groups in order that the organizations when established may be sound medically and financially. It is particularly interested in studying methods for distribution of low-cost health care.

Periodical: Weekly News Bulletin, $2.00 a year.

Bureau of Personnel Administration (1918); 420 Lexington Ave., New York; Henry C. Metcalf, Director.

Purpose and Activities: Through research, conference, counsel, training, and publication to help develop—for the common benefit of employers, managers, workers, and the public—integrated thinking and constructive direction of the basic policies, principles, and operating techniques of business administration and management. The Bureau's activities include, among others, counseling service rendered chiefly to corporations on personnel administration, education and training of executives, management-audit and all human relations problems, and research varying from analysis on short-time limited problems to extended studies, such as trade union collective bargaining agreements, and methods of building industrial self-government and effecting sound income distribution.

Camp Fire Girls, Inc. (1911); 88 Lexington Ave., New York; Lester F. Scott, National Executive.

Membership: Camp Fire Girls and Blue Birds, 250,358; groups of such girls, 10,952.

Purpose and Activities: To provide education for living through the development of emotional control, self-reliance, and resourcefulness as an important supplement to the school and home, and as a valuable experience in social and cooperative relations in leisure-time work and play. To this end a program is offered of recreational activities such as camping, nature lore, sports, handicraft, dramatics, and music.

Periodical: The Guardian (a bulletin of news and suggestions for Camp Fire leaders with a supplement for Camp Fire Girls), monthly except July and August, 75 cents a year.

Carnegie Corporation of New York (1911); 522 Fifth Ave., New York; F. P. Keppel, President.

Activities: During recent years the Corporation program has included grants chiefly in library service, adult education, the arts, and educational and scientific research. The agencies through which such work has been carried on are colleges, universities, national organizations, and professional and learned societies and associations.

Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (1906); 522 Fifth Ave., New York; Howard J. Savage, Ph.D., Secretary.

Activities: In addition to the payment of retiring allowances for teachers in colleges, universities, and technical schools, the Foundation has a Division of Educational Enquiry, the functions of which include study and report on problems which touch upon educational and social progress. Among the studies relating to social work is The Social Philosophy of Pensions, published in 1930.

Catholic Boys' Brigade of the United States (1916); 10 West 76th St., New York; Michael J. Nolan, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Branches in 25 dioceses.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the spiritual, moral, mental, physical, social, and civic welfare of all boys, for purposes of good citizenship and common service; and to accomplish the foregoing by giving voluntary aid and instruction to units doing recreational, educational, and preventive work among boys and training their minds and bodies by means of military drill, physical exercises, signaling, first-aid, civics, music, athletics, instruction, recreation, sports, outings, camping, parades, and other congenial activities.

Catholic Daughters of America (1903); 10 West 71st St., New York; Katharine M. Rosney, National Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 200,000.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the material, moral, and intellectual development of Catholic womanhood and the protection and well-being of Catholic girls through junior groups. Among its activities are dispensing of charity, assisting Catholic charitable projects, and participating in civic and community activities.

Periodical: Woman's Voice, monthly, to members only.

Catholic Hospital Association of the United States and Canada (1915); 1402 South Grand Blvd., St. Louis; Alphonse M. Schwitalla, Ph.D., President.

Membership: Active members, hospitals; associate members, related institutions and individuals.

Purpose: To promote the realization of progressively higher ideals in the religious, moral, medical, nursing, educational, social, and all other phases of hospital and nursing endeavor, with special reference to Catholic hospitals and schools of nursing in the United States and Canada.

Periodical: Hospital Progress.

Central Howard Association, The (1901); 608 South Dearborn St., Chicago; F. Emory Lyon, Superintendent.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 1,500.

Activities: These include prevention of delinquency by adoption of social legislation, such as juvenile courts, adult probation, etc.; protection by eliminating political administration of prisons, adequate employment for prisoners, classification, and individual study and treatment of prisoners; and after-care service in behalf of released prisoners, employment, parole supervision, and character building.

Chicago Community Trust (1915); Room 1340, 10 South La Salle St., Chicago; Frank D. Loomis, Secretary.

Purpose and Activities: To receive and administer gifts of a permanent character for charitable uses. The income from trust funds is distributed for the most part through existing local agencies for relief and welfare purposes including education and research. Surveys of national significance have been published, among which are the Cook County Jail Survey and a Study of Crippled Children in Chicago.

Child Education Foundation (1916); 535 East 84th St., New York; Anna Eva McLin, Director.

Purpose and Activities: To make contributions through its Training School, Advisory and Parents' Consultation Service, and Nursery, Preschool, and Primary Units to self-instructive and cooperative plans of education as a basis of cooperative living, so that independence of thought and action will be encouraged and initiative stimulated in community interest. The Foundation maintains a constant and constructive receptivity to outside contributions as well as its own findings, both in method and curriculum, for childhood and parental education and the preparation of teachers. It is a source of educational service for children of all classes and nationalities, regardless of race or creed.

Child Study Association of America (1888); 221 West 57th St., New York; Mrs. Sidonie M. Gruenberg, Director.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 1,000.

Purpose and Activities: To promote a better understanding between parents and child through a program of continuous parental education. Activities relate to the following matters: study groups, lectures and conferences, family guidance and con-

sultation service, library, speakers' bureau, training of leaders, and publications.

Periodical: Child Study, quarterly, $1.00 a year.

Child Welfare League of America (1920); 130 East 22d St., New York; Howard W. Hopkirk, Executive Director.

Membership: Organizations, 400 affiliated agencies and accredited agencies in child care and protection. Participation is open to clubs, committees, etc., not operating above programs, and to individual member contributors.

Purpose and Activities: To develop standards of service for child protection and care in children's agencies and institutions and in community programs through the following means: cooperation with public departments of child care, publications, information exchange service, loan library and record forms, general information and education in the field, field service consultation, and regional conferences. The League meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodical: Monthly Bulletin, $1.00 a year.

Children's Fund of Michigan (1929); 660 Frederick St., Detroit; William J. Norton, Executive Vice President.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the health, welfare, happiness, and development of the children of Michigan and elsewhere in the world. The activities, confined at present to Michigan, include child dependency, child guidance, child health, recreation, and medical research.

Christ Child Society (1896); 608 Massachusetts Ave., NE., Washington, D. C.; Mary V. Merrick, President.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 10,000; organizations, 35 units in 18 states.

Purpose and Activities: To aid and instruct poor children and uplift and brighten their lives, and to interest youth in the service of the children of the poor. The enterprises of the Washington unit are typical: it provides layettes for new-born infants; maintains a fresh-air farm for convalescent children and summer camps for boys and girls, colored and white; supports a free dental clinic at its headquarters; conducts settlement classes and recreational activities in poorer sections of the city; visits children in their homes; pays particular attention to Christmas wants; and instructs children in religion. The aggregate number of children annually reached by all the 35 member units approximates 30,000.

Christian Church, National Benevolent Association (1886); 1602 Landreth Bldg., St. Louis; J. Eric Carlson, General Secretary.

Purpose and Activities: To provide for the physical, moral, intellectual, and spiritual wants of those who may seek or need the Association's protection and aid by establishing and maintaining homes, hospitals, training schools, and such other institutions as may be conducive to these ends, and by undertaking such other work as may from time to time be expedient. The Association is the administrative body for six homes for children and six homes for aged people.

Periodical: N.B.A. Family Talk, monthly, 25 cents a year.

Church Conference of Social Work (1930); 297 Fourth Ave., New York; L. Foster Wood, Ph.D., Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 183; organizations, 3 national and 3 local.

Purpose and Activities: To bring church social workers together for acquaintance and discussion of common problems, to bring to church social workers the value of the discussions and associations of the National Conference of Social Work; to develop interest in the whole field of cooperation between churches and social agencies; to gain wider recognition of the indispensable resources of religion in the rehabilitation of individuals and groups; to study current problems within the scope of church social work and to make constructive recommendations looking toward their solution; and to further the use of approved methods in the social work field, and to give leadership in the development of a Protestant strategy in church social work. The Conference is administered by the Department of the Church and Social Service of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, with the aid of elected officers and committees. The Conference meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Church League for Industrial Democracy (1919); 155 Washington St., New York; W. B. Spofford, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 2,976; organizations, 18 local.

Purpose: To unite, for intercession and labor, those within the Episcopal Church who believe that it is an essential part of the Church's function to make justice and love the controlling motives in all social change, and who wish, as Christians, to promote all sound movements looking toward the

democratization of industry and the socialization of life.

Periodical: News Notes, quarterly, free.

Church Mission of Help, National Council (1919); 281 Fourth Ave., New York; Edith F. Balmford, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Organizations, 75 diocesan societies and 1 affiliated case work organization.

Purpose and Activities: To aid the diocesan societies in maintaining high standards of case work, and to help them meet their problems more effectively; to assist in organizing Church Mission of Help societies in dioceses where the need is felt; to join with other social work and church agencies in bettering social conditions; and to study methods by which a closer cooperation can be brought about between the forces of religion and those of social work. The Church Mission of Help is a case work agency of the Episcopal Church working with young people, especially girls, between the ages of 16 and 25 years. Clients may be of any Protestant denomination.

Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada (1906); 1313 East 60th St., Chicago; G. Lyle Belsley, Director.

Membership: Individuals, 477; organizations, 221.

Purpose and Activities: To promote scientific research and administration in the public personnel field, to encourage the collection and distribution of information as to methods used, to formulate the fundamental principles of public personnel administration, and to promote the coordination of personnel research activities and furnish a forum for the interchange of thought and information. The organization serves as a clearing house for information on all phases of public personnel administration; provides consulting service on public personnel practices for civil service commissions, public officials, and civic groups interested in the merit system; furnishes technical advice in installing or improving personnel systems; assists in the preparation of civil service laws, ordinances, rules, and regulations; prepares personnel record forms; conducts and encourages research in all phases of personnel administration; and holds an annual meeting and annual regional conferences.

Periodicals: News Letter, monthly, $5.00 a year; Public Personnel Review, quarterly, $5.00 a year.

Cleveland Foundation (1914); 638 Terminal Tower Bldg., Cleveland; Leyton E. Carter, Director.

Purpose and Activities: To assist charitable and educational institutions, whether supported by private donations or public taxation; to promote educational and scientific research, and care for the sick, aged, or helpless; to improve living conditions; to provide recreation for all classes; and to further such other charitable purposes as will best make for the mental, moral, and physical improvement of the inhabitants of the city of Cleveland, regardless of race, color, or creed. In 1931 the scope of the Foundation's activities was broadened to include the state of Ohio. Appropriations are made in the field of child welfare, education, medical research, and student aid.

Commission on Interracial Cooperation (1919); 710 Standard Bldg., Atlanta; Will W. Alexander, Executive Director.

Membership: Individuals, 125 (white and colored) from 13 southern states; organizations, state and local committees similarly constituted.

Purpose and Activities: To correct interracial neglect and injustice, to better conditions affecting Negroes, and to improve those interracial attitudes out of which unfavorable conditions grow. The Commission cooperates with state and local committees in seeking for Negroes more adequate provisions for public education, health, and general welfare; supplies legal aid in significant cases; makes surveys and publishes reports; conducts extensive press service; carries on educational work through colleges, public schools, and religious organizations; and combats lynching by appeals to officials and public opinion, by promoting anti-lynching legislation, and by enlisting women in anti-lynching organizations. The Phelps-Stokes Fund has sponsored the Commission.

Committee for Catholic Refugees from Germany (1937); 265 West 14th St., New York; Rev. Joseph D. Ostermann, Executive Director.

Activities: These include assistance to bona fide Catholic refugees from Greater Germany; sponsoring emigration to foreign countries; assisting in rehabilitation, employment, and resettlement in this country; procuring scholarships and providing for retraining; giving financial aid temporarily until self-support is possible; placing children temporarily during the summer; and assisting in spiritual and social readjustment.

Committee on Research in Medical Economics (1936); Room 1226, 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York; Michael M. Davis, Ph.D., Chairman.

Purpose: To conduct studies of medical services and particularly of their economic and social aspects, under the auspices of this organization, and through the cooperation of other agencies; to issue or to assist publications concerning these subjects;

to train personnel for work in this field; to furnish consultation services for studies or projects under other auspices; to receive, hold, and disburse funds for the purposes of the organization; and to pursue such other activities, other than carrying on propaganda or otherwise attempting to influence legislation, as will assist in the extension of better and more accessible medical care.

Common Council for American Unity (1918); name changed in 1939 from Foreign Language Information Service; 222 Fourth Ave., New York; Read Lewis, Executive Director.

Purpose and Activities: To help create unity and mutual understanding among the American people; to overcome intolerance and discrimination because of foreign birth or descent, race, or nationality; and to help the foreign born and their children solve their special problems of adjustment. The Council sends articles interpreting American life and institutions to the foreign language press, assists foreign language organizations to develop adult education activities and contacts with other American agencies, advises individual immigrants, supplies local agencies with information on immigration and naturalization questions, serves as a clearing house of information on the foreign born and on ethnic and interracial problems, uses press and platform to interpret the foreign born and their contributions, seeks to encourage and preserve the folk arts, interprets the problems of the second generation to older Americans, and urges legislation to promote assimilation and prevent discrimination.

Periodicals: Common Ground, quarterly, $2.00 a year; Interpreter Releases, a series of 50 to 60 mimeographed articles and reports, $10.00 a year.

Commonwealth Fund (1918); 41 East 57th St., New York; Barry C. Smith, General Director.

Activities: These include the Division of Education, administering fellowships awarded to British students for study in American universities; a research and statistical department, known as the Division of Health Studies; the Division of Public Health, concerned with the development of rural health work in several selected states; Division of Publications; the Division of Rural Hospitals, concerned in the erection of hospitals serving rural communities, and in the establishment of first class standards in such hospitals; a Legal Research Committee; and a Program in Mental Hygiene. In addition, the Fund reserves each year a portion of its income for special grants for various social, scientific, and educational purposes.

Periodical: News Letter, quarterly.

Community Chests and Councils, Inc. (1918); 155 East 44th St., New York; Allen T. Burns, Executive Vice President.

Membership: Organizations, 342 local community chests and councils.

Purpose and Activities: To assist in the improvement of joint finance, joint planning, and interpretation of social work through committee activities, research, correspondence, field visits, local studies of chests and councils, regional and national conferences, and publications. The organization conducts the annual Mobilization for Human Needs on behalf of 36 national social agencies, as a means of reinforcing local campaigns. Two annual institutes are sponsored—Great Lakes Institute for Social Work Executives, held at College Camp, Wis., and Southern Institute for Social Work Executives, held at Blue Ridge, N. C.—with an average attendance of 85 at each. Special Bulletins are published on budgeting trends in giving, councils of social agencies, etc. The Social Service Exchange Committee (formerly the National Social Service Exchange Committee) functions as a department of Community Chests and Councils, Inc. The Committee meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodicals: Community Chests and Councils, monthly except July and August, $2.00 a year; Proceedings of Great Lakes Institute; Proceedings of Southern Institute; both annually.

Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf (1900); Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C.; Ignatius Bjorlee, Chairman, Executive Committee.

Purpose: To promote the management and operation of schools for the deaf along the broadest and most efficient lines, and to further and promote the general welfare of the deaf.

Periodical: American Annals of the Deaf, 5 issues yearly, $2.00 a year (published in cooperation with Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf).

Conference of Psychiatrists and Psychologists of Juvenile Training Schools (1931); U. S. Penitentiary, Leavenworth, Kan.; M. B. Root, M.D., Secretary.

Activities: The Conference is an informal group of scientific workers in juvenile training schools, meeting yearly for the two days preceding the annual meeting of the American Orthopsychiatric Association, for the purpose of pooling knowledge and ideas as to the place and duties of psychiatrists in juvenile training schools.

Conference of Southern Mountain Workers (1913); Berea College, Berea, Ky.; Helen H. Dingman, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 268; church boards, organizations, and institutions, 28.

Purpose and Activities: To promote acquaintance and understanding among persons engaged in work in the Southern Highland region, to face common problems together, and through exchange of ideas to further the best methods of work. An annual conference is held in Knoxville and a regional conference under local leadership is sponsored. The Conference organizes and directs study tours in the southern mountains, provides service and information for mountain workers, and furnishes the services of two recreation leaders for the area.

Periodical: Mountain Life and Work, quarterly, $1.00 a year.

Conference of State and Provincial Health Authorities of North America (1884); Minnesota Department of Health, St. Paul; A. J. Chesley, M.D., Secretary.

Membership: State, territorial, and provincial health officers, 65.

Purpose and Activities: To discuss scientific problems in preventive medicine, to formulate uniform projects in health work, and to act as a clearing house of useful information relating to preventive medicine and public health. The work is conducted through standing committees.

Periodical: Proceedings, annually, not sold.

Conference of Superintendents of Correctional Institutions for Girls and Women (1930); Lock Box 38, East Lake Station, Birmingham, Ala.; Mrs. Mary H. Fowler, Secretary.

Membership: Active and retired superintendents of institutions.

Purpose: To bring together superintendents of institutions for delinquent women and girls for the exchange of ideas and discussion of their problems.

Conference on Immigration Policy (1921); 200 West 16th St., New York; Mary E. Dennis, Chairman.

Membership: Individuals, 60.

Activities: The Conference is composed of persons in direct contact with the foreign born in the fields of education and social work. Through discussion and public meetings they seek to share experience with laymen, official bodies, and community agencies with a view to developing an awareness of the effect of laws controlling and restricting aliens, creating an informed public opinion which may facilitate improvement in law and procedure, and dissolving anti-alien prejudices by increasing understanding of the process of "acculturization" and of the need to give it conscious constructive direction. The Conference meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Congregational and Christian Churches, Council for Social Action (1934); 289 Fourth Ave., New York; Dwight J. Bradley, Executive Director.

Purpose: To serve the churches by devising ways and means through which they can express their highest social aspirations and associate themselves for concerted study and action in the fields of international relations, industrial progress, race relations, and rural life.

Periodical: Social Action, monthly except July and August, $1.00 a year.

Congress of Industrial Organizations (1935); name changed in 1938 from Committee for Industrial Organization; 1106 Connecticut Ave., NW., Washington, D. C.; John Brophy, Director of Local Industrial Unions.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 4,000,000; organizations, 39 national unions, 29 state industrial union councils, 455 local industrial unions (not affiliated with a national affiliate), and 191 county, city, and district councils.

Purpose and Activities: To improve the living and working conditions of American wage-earners by organizing trade unions along industrial lines for purposes of securing collective bargaining. Supplementary activities related to the field of social work are conducted by the following committees within the CIO: Housing, Legislative, Social Security, and Unemployment. Among its affiliated unions are the following: State, County, and Municipal Workers of America; and United Office and Professional Workers of America (usually called the Social Service Employees Union).

Periodical: The CIO News, weekly, $1.00 a year.

Consumers National Federation (1936); 265 Henry St., New York; Helen Hall, Chairman.

Membership: Individuals, 27; organizations, 5 national and 14 local.

Purpose and Activities: To exchange and disseminate information among its members relating to their respective consumer programs and plan of ac-

tion, to conduct a general educational and information service on consumer problems, to promote a common understanding of these problems among consumer organizations in order to achieve effective protection for consumers, and to establish criteria by which bona fide consumer organizations may be identified. The Federation issues bulletins on current problems of special interest.

Periodical: The Consumer, irregularly.

Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf (1897); Idaho School for the Deaf and the Blind, Gooding; Burton W. Driggs, Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 500.

Purpose: To promote the education of the deaf on broad, modern, and practical lines.

Periodicals: American Annals of the Deaf, 5 issues yearly, $2.00 a year (published in cooperation with Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf); Biennial Report of Convention.

Cooperative League of the United States of America (1916); 608 South Dearborn St., Chicago; E. R. Bowen, General Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 965,000; organizations, 18 regional and 1,770 local.

Activities: The League is the national educational federation of consumer cooperative purchasing associations in the United States. It acts as a clearing house for information on cooperatives and coordinates programs of general publicity; promotes member, employe, and youth education; and publishes and distributes books and pamphlets on the cooperative movement.

Periodical: Consumers' Cooperation, monthly, $1.00 a year.

Cooperative Recreation Service (1936); P. O. Box 333, Delaware, Ohio; Lynn Rohrbough, Director.

Membership: Individuals and associated clubs, approximately 400.

Purpose: To supply cooperatively to members and others articles, services, and education in connection with recreation; to manufacture and distribute on a non-profit basis materials and equipment for games, crafts, folk music and dancing, and other leisure pursuits; and to cooperate with progressive agencies in teaching recreational skills and appreciation.

Periodical: Recreation Kit, quarterly, $1.00 a year.

Coordinating Councils, Inc. (1938); 145 West 12th St., Los Angeles; Kenneth S. Beam, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 189; organizations, 12 local.

Purpose and Activities: To conduct studies, surveys, and conferences in order to assemble as much information as possible regarding the problems met and successful methods used by various types of coordinating, neighborhood, and community councils; to disseminate the foregoing information through periodicals, reports, and proceedings of conferences; to maintain at the organization headquarters a reference bureau and clearing house for the interchange of ideas, information, and data having to do with the general field of community coordination; and to provide consultant service for communities desiring to organize, or to improve the services of, various types of councils, and for communities endeavoring to prevent delinquency and crime through the elimination or control of the basic conditioning factors.

Periodical: Community Coordination, bimonthly, 50 cents a year.

Council of Guidance and Personnel Associations (1934); name changed in 1940 from American Council of Guidance and Personnel Associations; 100 Central Ave., Kearny, N. J.; F. B. Shannon, Secretary-Treasurer.

Membership: 12 national organizations: Alliance for Guidance of Rural Youth, American Association of Collegiate Registrars, American College Personnel Association, Eastern College Personnel Officers, Institute of Women's Professional Relations, National Association of Altrusa Clubs, National Association of Deans of Women, National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs, National Vocational Guidance Association, Personnel Research Federation, Teachers College Personnel Association, and Western Personnel Service.

Purpose and Activities: To effect cooperation among the member associations to the end that mutual acquaintance may be cultivated, and principles, practices, and professional standards in this field may be advanced; and to foster the aims that these organizations have in common, without in any way minimizing their activities in carrying out the special aims of each association in its own field. The Council arranges a series of joint meetings at the annual convention of a number of the constituent groups.

Periodical: Annual Proceedings appear in one of the monthly issues of Occupations: The Vocational Guidance Magazine, published by the National Vocational Guidance Association.

Council of Jewish Federations and Welfare Funds (1932); 165 West 46th St., New York; Harry L. Lurie, Executive Director.

Membership: Organizations, 188 local federations, welfare funds, and community councils in 154 cities.

Purpose and Activities: To help organize community resources to meet effectively local, regional, national, and overseas Jewish needs. The Council is a cooperative association of, and central clearing house for, Jewish communal agencies in the United States and Canada. Its Research Department gathers facts and interprets trends in Jewish social work, community organization, and public welfare, and keeps local agencies abreast of current progress in these fields. Its field representatives help unorganized Jewish communities to take the first steps toward organization, and provide assistance and guidance to established federations, welfare funds, and community councils in their organizational, functional, and financial problems. The Council's publications and confidential reports advise local communities on the best methods of raising and allocating funds for local and non-local needs, on the work of national and overseas agencies and local relationships with them, and on all developments in related fields as they occur. The annual general assembly and regional conferences of the Council bring together national and local lay and professional Jewish leaders to exchange experiences, discuss common problems, and coordinate their planning and activities in welfare work and Jewish group organization.

Periodical: Notes and News, monthly, $1.00 a year.

Council of State Governments (1933); 1313 East 60th St., Chicago; Frank Bane, Executive Director.

Purpose and Activities: To promote cooperation between states in the solution of problems of mutual concern. The Council maintains a clearing house of information on problems of state government available to legislators, public officials, legislative reference bureaus, and other agencies; and sponsors and arranges conferences to consider such specific interstate problems as flood control, pollution, highway safety, interstate truck regulations, conflicting taxation, interstate trade barriers, liquor control, relief, crime control, social security, and transiency. The staff serves as the secretariat for the Governors' Conference, the National Association of Attorney-Generals, and the National Association of Secretaries of State, and provides a research service for these organizations.

Periodicals: State Government, monthly, $2.50 a year; The Book of the States, biennially, $3.50 a copy; weekly bulletins on recent publications.

Council of Women for Home Missions (1908); 297 Fourth Ave., New York; Edith E. Lowry, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Organizations, 22 national home missions boards in the United States and Canada.

Purpose and Activities: To unify the efforts of national women's home mission boards, societies, and committees, by consultation and cooperation in action; and to represent Protestant Church women in such national movements as they desire to promote interdenominationally. Activities include religious social work in migrant labor camps and United States Indian schools; a legislative program of study and action pertaining to welfare of women and children; and leadership training in institutes, conferences, and schools of missions. Among the Council's committees are Joint Committees on Migrant Work, Indian Work, and Sharecroppers (with the Home Missions Council). The Council meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Credit Union National Association (1934); Raiffeisen House, Madison, Wis.; Roy F. Bergengren, Managing Director.

Membership: Organizations, 45 state leagues of credit unions and 2 affiliated organizations.

Purpose and Activities: To continue the work of the Credit Union National Extension Bureau—which went out of existence in 1934—by the organization of additional credit unions, chapters of credit unions, and state leagues of credit unions; to carry on educational work incidental to the credit union program; to handle common legal problems; and to perform for credit unions common services of value.

Periodical: The Bridge, monthly, $1.00 a year.

Daughters of Isabella, National Circle (1897); 375 Whitney Ave., New Haven; Mary F. Riley, Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 60,000; 28 state circles in United States and Canada, 432 subordinate circles.

Purpose and Activities: To unite all Catholic women of proper age and standing in order to widen their circle of friendship, combine their resources and energies, and to be of mutual assistance in times of need; and to promote the religious and social status of their sex and aid their intellectual growth. As a means to these ends the subordinate circles sponsor community projects, such as homes, camps, or study clubs for girls, and fellowships in the National Catholic School of Social Service.

Periodical: News Sheet, monthly.

Disciples of Christ, Department of Social Education and Social Action (1919); Missions Bldg., Indianapolis; James A. Crain, D.D., Executive Secretary.

Activities: The Department is a constituent part of the Division of Christian Education of the religious body known as the Disciples of Christ and carries primary responsibility for temperance education, education for economic justice, interracial understanding, international justice, world peace, marriage and the home, and all other forms of social education among the 7,000 churches and 1,500,000 communicants of that communion.

Periodicals: Front Rank, weekly, $1.25 a year; World Call, monthly, $1.50 a year; Social Action Newsletter, monthly, $1.00 a year.

Duke Endowment, Hospital and Orphan Sections (1924); Power Bldg., Charlotte, N. C.; W. S. Rankin, M.D., Director.

Purpose and Activities: To bring about an equalization of opportunity for the practice of modern medicine in the states of North Carolina and South Carolina, through assistance to community hospitals on the basis of their charity patients—such assistance being designed as a means for raising professional standards in medical service—and by aiding in the construction and equipment of new hospital buildings and in the construction of additions to old hospital buildings, contributing not more than half of the cost of such construction; and to assist "properly operated" public or private agencies or institutions, of the states named, which care for orphans or half orphans. In order to carry out these purposes the Endowment has made and published annual reports as to costs, methods, and practices in the hospitals and child-caring institutions of the states named.

Episcopal Social Work Conference (1921); 281 Fourth Ave., New York; Rev. Almon R. Pepper, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 350; organizations, 2 national and 90 diocesan.

Purpose and Activities: To bring together representatives of the various social service departments, boards, and commissions of the dioceses and provinces of the Episcopal Church, and representatives of its national social agencies and its local social institutions, for fellowship and interchange of views, methods, and experience. Particular attention is paid to cooperation between parishes and the social agencies of their communities. The Conference meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work, and is supervised by the National Council of the Protestant Episcopal Church, Department of Christian Social Relations.

Evangelical and Reformed Church, Commission on Christian Social Action (1914); 1505 Race St., Philadelphia; Charles E. Schaeffer, D.D., Chairman.

Activities: The Commission assists local churches in the study of social conditions.

Periodical: Outlook of Missions, monthly, $1.00 a year.

Falk Foundation (Maurice and Laura Falk Foundation) (1929); 1911 Farmers Bank Bldg., Pittsburgh; J. Steele Gow, Executive Director.

Purpose and Activities: To make appropriations to economic research organizations for the study of specific, basic economic problems and to help finance the dissemination of the findings of such studies. Grants have been made to the Brookings Institution for studies of the distribution of wealth and income in relation to economic progress; readjustments required for recovery; industrial price policies and economic progress; government and economic life; productivity, wages, and national income; dynamic pricing in practice; bases of national prosperity; war-time price, wage, and fiscal policies; and public relief in the United States. Other grants have been to the University of Pittsburgh's Bureau of Business Research for a study of the economics of the iron and steel industry, and three grants to the National Bureau of Economic Research: one, for a study of agricultural production in relation to business cycles; the second, for a study of the volume of production and productivity in manufacturing industries in the United States, 1899–1937; and the third, for a study of the volume of production and productivity in non-manufacturing industries in the United States, 1899–1937. Grants for the dissemination of the findings of economic studies have been made to the Public Affairs Committee. The Maurice Falk Professorship of Social Relations has been endowed at the Carnegie Institute of Technology.

Family Welfare Association of America (1911); 122 East 22d St., New York; Linton B. Swift, General Director.

Membership: Individuals, lay and professional, 716; organizations, 222 local private and public family welfare agencies.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the development of family social work and of wholesome family life in the United States and Canada through the following means: field work with public and private family welfare agencies, assistance in development of qualified personnel in family case work, information service on family social work problems, public interpretation of the family welfare movement, and publications for professional

social case workers and the layman. The Association meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodicals: The Family: Journal of Social Case Work, monthly except August and September, $1.50 a year; Highlights, monthly except August and September, $1.00 a year.

Farm Foundation (1933); 600 South Michigan Ave., Chicago; Henry C. Taylor, Ph.D., Director.

Purpose: To encourage and develop cooperative effort and community organization and consciousness as means for improving the economic, social, educational, and cultural conditions of rural life; to stimulate and conduct research and experimental work for the study of any economic, social, educational, or scientific problem of importance to any substantial portion of the rural population of the country; to encourage, aid, or finance the conduct of any such research or experimental work; to disseminate educational and useful information in such manner as to be of practical value to the farming population; and to promote and enlarge the intellectual and cultural interests and opportunities of the rural population through community action.

Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America (1908); 297 Fourth Ave., New York; Samuel McCrea Cavert, D.D., General Secretary.

Membership: National organizations, 22 denominations and communions.

Purpose and Activities: To secure effective cooperation among the Protestant churches in local, state, and national areas; to develop a spirit of larger unity; and to serve as a center through which the churches can deal unitedly with the social, interracial, and international problems of common concern. Among the Council's departments are the following: the Church and Social Service, Race Relations, and Research and Education. The first named department administers the Church Conference of Social Work. The secretary of this department's Industrial Division is also secretary of the Emergency Relief Committee, an unofficial group that has collected funds from church people for certain tenant and sharecropper families in distress.

Periodicals: Information Service, weekly, $2.00 a year; Federal Council Bulletin, monthly, $1.00 a year.

Fels Fund (Samuel S. Fels Fund) (1935); 73d St. and Woodland Ave., Philadelphia; A. Roy Robson, Vice President and Secretary.

Activities: These include the initiation or furtherance of such scientific, educational, or charitable projects as have for their purpose an enlarged understanding of behaviorism by means of prenatal and postnatal studies, the prevention and cure of feeblemindedness and mental disorders, and the prevention of crime.

Folk Arts Center (1928); 670 Fifth Ave., New York; Ruth Burchenal, Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 300; also individual representatives of organizations and informal groups interested in folk arts.

Activities: The Center provides a service for folk arts in the United States, including folk dancing, music, and related folk lore. Its activities include visual education through loan exhibitions assembled and held at the Center, research in the field of American folk arts, folk dancing and music, lectures and demonstrations, a national information bureau and reference service, a reference library and archive, and a reference museum. Thirty-six regional representatives supply the Center with data regarding folk arts in various sections of the country. The Center serves as joint headquarters of the National Committee on Folk Arts of the United States, under whose guidance it functions, and the American Folk Dance Society.

Foundation for Positive Health (1919); 1790 Broadway, New York; Lenna L. Meanes, M.D., Medical Director.

Purpose and Activities: To create a desire for positive health and to further ways and means for obtaining and maintaining it. Lecture courses are arranged for organizations, health educational literature distributed, and cooperation maintained with national volunteer health organizations through membership in the National Health Council.

Friends General Conference, Social Service Committee (1900); 1515 Cherry St., Philadelphia; Esther Holmes Jones, Chairman.

Membership: Organizations, 142 local.

Activities: The Committee promotes educational activities among the local Friends Meetings of the General Conference in peace, race relations, child welfare, temperance, and other issues of social significance.

Friends Service Committee, American (1917); 20 South 12th St., Philadelphia; Clarence E. Pickett, Secretary.

Activities: These are carried on through a Social-Industrial Section, which conducts rehabilitation projects in bituminous coal fields, operates a series of "work camps" for young men and women, and places young people in volunteer service jobs in

settlements and settlement camps; a Refugee Section, which besides carrying on relief and assisting with emigration problems through its European staff, performs a variety of services for refugees in this country; and through a Foreign Service Section, a Peace Section, and a Fellowship Council for Religious Extension.

General Education Board (1902); 49 West 49th St., New York; W. W. Brierley, Secretary.

Purpose and Activities: To promote education within the United States without distinction of race, sex, or creed. The program of the Board is restricted, in the main, to education in the southern states. The Board has undertaken a large scale research project dealing with the economic and social problems of rural areas of the South.

General Federation of Women's Clubs (1890); 1734 N St., NW., Washington, D. C.; Mrs. Saidie Orr Dunbar, President.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 2,000,000; clubs and organizations (junior and senior), approximately 15,000 in the 48 states, District of Columbia, Alaska, other United States possessions, and 27 foreign countries.

Activities: Among the departments, divisions, and committees of the General Federation are those which deal with the following subjects: American citizenship, American home, child welfare, conservation, consumer information, crime control and prevention, education, the fine arts, international relations, legislation, public health, public safety, public welfare, scholarships, and urban-rural cooperation.

Periodical: The Clubwoman GFWC, monthly, $1.00 a year.

Girl Scouts, Inc. (1912); 14 West 49th St., New York; Mrs. Paul Rittenhouse, National Director.

Membership: Individuals, 617,202; organizations, 989 local councils.

Purpose and Activities: To provide for the girls of this country a kind of group experience (as opposed to individual) which can grow, change, and evolve as the needs and desires of its members do, and which is democratic and pervaded by the ideals of womanhood and citizenship. The program is planned to give girls a practical knowledge in various fields, such as home-making, the arts, outdoor life, nature, and citizenship. The organization provides field service and training for both volunteers and professionals, the training courses covering community organization, group work methods, and the special techniques of Girl Scouting.

Periodicals: American Girl Magazine, monthly, $1.50 a year; Girl Scout Leader, monthly except July, August, and September, 50 cents a year.

Girls' Friendly Society of the United States of America (1877); 386 Fourth Ave., New York; Harriett A. Dunn, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 26,000; organizations, 900 branches in 44 states.

Purpose and Activities: To develop character and provide friendship for girls of every age, race, and creed, through a flexible program of recreation, service, work, and worship adapted to community and group needs. The organization is sponsored by the Episcopal Church.

Periodical: The Record, 5 issues yearly, 50 cents a year.

Girls Service League of America (1908); 138 East 19th St., New York; Stella A. Miner, Secretary and Executive Director.

Membership: Individuals, 1,050.

Purpose: To provide personal and vocational guidance, residence, recreation, camp, and educational opportunities for girls of any religion or nationality, aged 16 to 21.

Periodical: Girls Service League Bulletin, quarterly, free.

Governmental Research Association (1914); 5135 Cass Ave., Detroit; Lent D. Upson, Secretary-Treasurer.

Membership: Individuals, 400 persons professionally engaged in governmental research work, representing approximately 150 bureaus of municipal research and other governmental research agencies.

Purpose and Activities: To provide for persons engaged in governmental research a means of exchanging ideas and experiences. The Association holds an annual meeting, distributes a monthly news letter, and prepares annually a directory of governmental research agencies in the United States. Each year the Association conducts a competition to select the most noteworthy piece of research completed by a member during the previous 12 months. Other activities include the facilitation of the exchange of research bureau publications among members, the answering of inquiries from governmental research workers, and assistance to citizen committees and other organizations which are interested in the establishment of permanent bureaus of municipal or governmental research in cities or states where no such work is carried on at present.

Periodical: Governmental Research Bulletin, monthly.

Group Health Federation of America (1940); 5 East 57th St., New York; Martin W. Brown, Assistant Secretary.

Membership: Organizations, 10 local.

Purpose: To promote health plans providing good medical care to people of moderate means at a cost which they can afford and on a basis allowing them to pay their own way without resort to charity, to establish and maintain among its members high standards of personal medical care, and to unify and coordinate the activities of member groups including the exchange of experience and information so that each may benefit from the knowledge gained by others.

Periodical: Annual Proceedings.

Harmon Foundation (1922); 140 Nassau St., New York; Mary Beattie Brady, Director.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the well-being of mankind, through stimulating self-help. The Foundation engages in speculative humanitarian enterprises which give promise of rendering a constructive contribution to public well-being, studies student aid procedure, and experiments with socially useful motion pictures and other visual aids. A film rental and lease service is maintained and training in visual production research and filming procedures is available by arrangement. The Foundation is concerned with Negro achievement with particular reference to art. It has assisted in establishing approximately 125 play areas in the United States, and maintains an information and advisory service regarding the problems incident to the establishment of permanent recreation space.

Harrison Foundation (Thomas Skelton Harrison Foundation) (1921); 311 South Juniper St., Philadelphia; Clarence G. Shenton, Secretary.

Purpose and Activities: To promote good government in Philadelphia. Activities are confined to financing research and dissemination of information on various municipal problems. Publications include reports on juvenile and domestic relations divisions and other social work of the municipal court of Philadelphia.

Hayden Foundation (Charles Hayden Foundation) (1937); 75 Federal St., Boston; J. Willard Hayden, President.

Purpose and Activities: To assist needy boys and young men; to aid clubs, gymnasia, and recreation centers in this country for the training and development of boys and young men; and to place within the reach of boys and young men the privilege of education, mental recreation, wholesome educational entertainment, and coordinated physical training.

Hebrew Sheltering and Immigrant Aid Society (1911); 425 Lafayette St., New York; Isaac L. Asofsky, General Manager.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 75,000.

Purpose: To facilitate lawful entry of Jewish immigrants in the United States and in other immigration countries; to provide them with temporary shelter, food, and other aid as may be found necessary; to guide them to their destinations; to help them obtain employment; and to maintain offices abroad for the protection of those desiring to emigrate.

Hofheimer Foundation (Nathan Hofheimer Foundation) (1919); Room 3508, 41 East 57th St., New York; David Sher, Secretary.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the improvement of living conditions of unfortunate persons by research and through publications as well as by the establishment of benevolent activities and agencies. Research activities have been carried on in the fields of education and social work in New York City through agencies to which grants have been made for research purposes.

Home Missions Council (1908); 297 Fourth Ave., New York; Mark A. Dawber, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Organizations, 32 home mission and church extension boards of 24 denominations.

Purpose and Activities: To provide a clearing house for Protestant home missions and church extension boards and societies; and to promote fellowship, conference, and cooperation among constituent groups. Among the Council's committees are Joint Committees on Migrant Work, Indian Work, and Sharecroppers (with the Council of Women for Home Missions).

Hospites (1933); 130 East 22d St., New York; Joanna C. Colcord, Secretary.

Activities: Facilitates visits by social workers wishing to visit the United States and assists social workers who have been politically displaced in other countries. The organization is sometimes called by its subtitle, American Social Workers' Hospitality Group.

Indian Affairs Forum (1936); name changed in 1939 from Forum on the American Indian; 301 South 17th St., Philadelphia; Lawrence E. Lindley, Chairman.

Purpose and Activities: To promote free discussion of Indian affairs. The Forum's meetings are held at the time of the National Conference of Social Work, of which it is an associate group. It is non-political and non-sectarian.

Indian Rights Association (1882); 301 South 17th St., Philadelphia; Lawrence E. Lindley, General Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 1,200.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the spiritual, moral, and material welfare of the Indians of the United States, and the protection of their legal rights, particularly the rights already guaranteed to them by treaty and statutes of the United States; and to secure such further rights as circumstances may justify. The Association makes frequent visits to Indian reservations as a basis for developing public sentiment, informing Congress on legislative needs, and establishing a better understanding between the Indians and the Office of Indian Affairs concerning existing conditions and administrative action required.

Periodical: Indian Truth.

Industrial Health Conservancy Laboratories (1920); 10 Peterboro St., Detroit; Carey P. McCord, M.D., Medical Director.

Purpose and Activities: To carry on research in the field of industrial medicine and industrial hygiene, particularly in relation to occupational diseases. Services such as field investigations, laboratory research, and consultations are rendered on a fee basis to industry and other organizations concerned with the problems of industrial hygiene, including trades associations, medical societies, compensation boards, and others.

Industrial Relations Counselors, Inc. (1926); Room 2015, 1270 Sixth Ave., New York; T. H. A. Tiedemann, Director.

Purpose and Activities: To advance the knowledge and practice of human relationships in industry, commerce, education, and government. The organization conducts research and offers consulting service in this field, the latter mainly for industrial corporations, and also maintains a specialized industrial relations library and an information service concerning activities in industrial relations and personnel administration. Fifteen volumes and four monographs were published by the close of 1939, covering such subjects as vacations with pay for industrial workers, industrial pensions, retirement systems for railroad employes, trade union pensions, unemployment compensation and public employment service in the United States and other countries, experience rating, profit sharing, and job analysis. The organization operates on a non-profit basis.

Institute for Consumer Education (1937); Stephens College, Columbia, Mo.; John M. Cassels, Ph.D., Director.

Activities: The Institute conducts economic and educational research on consumer problems, promotes coordination services in the consumer field, and publishes educational materials on consumer problems.

Periodicals: Newsletter, monthly, 25 cents a year; Proceedings of Conference, $1.00 a copy.

Institute for the Crippled and Disabled (1917); 400 First Ave., New York; Col. John N. Smith, Jr., Director.

Purpose and Activities: To study the economic consequences of physical disability and the methods and ways of alleviating them by discovering means of enabling the crippled and disabled to earn their own living and live a normal life, and to afford advice to organizations and individuals seeking help for handicapped persons. Its facilities in New York City, including a technical library of some 30,000 pamphlets and volumes dealing with this field of work, have been used on many occasions by authors writing on the subject of the crippled.

Periodical: Thumbs Up, occasional issues, free.

Institute of Public Administration and Bureau of Municipal Research (1907); 261 Broadway, New York; Luther H. Gulick, Ph.D., Director.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the improvement of public administration through special studies and surveys of national, state, and local administration of government and related activities, and postgraduate training of students for positions in public service. For the latter purpose the Institute is affiliated with Columbia University. A specialized library is maintained.

International Association of Chiefs of Police (1893); 1313 East 60th St., Chicago; Edward J. Kelly, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 1,100 executive police officials in command of municipal, county, state, and federal law enforcement agencies in the United States, Canada, and other countries.

Purpose and Activities: To professionalize and advance standards in the police service. The Association encourages close cooperation of police officers throughout the world; develops and promotes the use of improved methods of communication, identification, investigation, crime prevention, and other police procedures; and conducts an annual conference. Its State and Provincial Police Section, organized in 1938, carries on a similar program in the field of state police and highway patrol units. Its Safety Division, located in Evanston, Ill., installs accident prevention bureaus in municipal and state departments, conducts traffic

officers' training schools, and serves as a national clearing house for information on traffic safety and accident prevention. Among standing committees of the Association are the following: Police Professionalization, Handling of Public Assemblies, Juvenile Delinquency and Crime Prevention, Police Education and Training, and Police Communications. The Association issues from time to time technical bulletins on police administration.

Periodicals: Police Chiefs' News Letter, monthly, $1.75 a year; The Police Yearbook, annually, $2.50 a copy; The Police Blue Book (a directory of law enforcement officials), annually, $5.00 a copy.

International Association of Governmental Labor Officials (1914); Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.; Isador Lubin, Secretary-Treasurer.

Membership: Organizations, 26 state labor departments, 8 federal agencies, and 4 Canadian labor departments.

Purpose: To act as a medium for the exchange of information for and by the members of the organization; to secure better legislation for the welfare of women and children in industry and for labor in general; to promote greater uniformity in labor law enforcement; to promote greater safety to life and property; and to correlate more closely the statistical and other activities of the federal, state, and provincial departments of labor.

International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions (1914); Division of Labor Standards, United States Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.; Verne A. Zimmer, Secretary-Treasurer.

Membership: Active members, 42; associate, 26. Of these 4 are federal agencies, 40 are state and provincial agencies, 11 are companies, and 13 are individuals.

Purpose and Activities: To bring together officials who administer workmen's compensation laws to consider the following: standardized methods for preventing accidents; medical, surgical, and hospital treatment for injured workers; means for reeducation of injured workmen and their restoration to industry; methods of computing industrial accident and sickness insurance costs; practices in administering compensation laws; exrensions and improvements in workmen's compensation legislation; and reports and tabulations of industrial accidents and illness.

Periodical: Proceedings, published annually by the U. S. Department of Labor.

International Association of Public Employment Services (1913); 1242 West 3d St., Cleveland; B. C. Seiple, Secretary-Treasurer.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 5,300.

Purpose and Activities: To advance the ideals, progress, and policies of the public employment service through cooperation and discussion.

Periodical: Annual Report of Convention Proceedings, to members only.

International Conference on Social Work (1926); Le Play House, 35 Gordon Sq., London, W. C. 1, England; A. Farquharson, Secretary General. Committee on the Conference of the National Conference of Social Work, 82 North High St., Columbus; Howard R. Knight, Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 1,500.

Purpose and Activities: To bring social workers together from all countries in order to cooperate in improvement of the methods of social work and its development throughout the world. The Conference operates through constituent national committees organized for each conference and varying in number. Conferences have been held in Paris, 1928, in Frankfort, 1932, and in London, 1936. The meeting scheduled for 1940 in Brussels was indefinitely postponed because of war conditions.

Periodical: Proceedings, in English, French, and German, quadrennially.

International Council for Exceptional Children (1923); Girls Handicraft School, Hamilton, Ont., Canada; Ida M. Robb, Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 4,000.

Purpose: To promote the welfare and education of exceptional children—the handicapped and the gifted.

Periodical: Journal of Exceptional Children, 8 issues yearly, $1.50 a year.

International Council of Religious Education (1922); 203 North Wabash Ave., Chicago; Roy G. Ross, General Secretary.

Membership: Organizations, 42 Protestant evangelical denominations, 30 state councils of churches or religious education.

Activities: These include the administration of leadership education schools, the preparation of lesson outlines and of basic documents in curriculum, and the holding of summer camps and conferences. The annual meeting of the Council and its

16 professional advisory sections affords an opportunity for professional workers from all parts of the United States and Canada to exchange experiences and make plans for cooperation. The United Christian Youth Movement and the United Christian Adult Movement are administered by the Council. Part of their programs are devoted to social education and social action.

Periodicals: International Journal of Religious Education, monthly except August, $1.25 a year; International Council Yearbook, $1.00 a copy.

International Federation of Catholic Alumnæ (1914); 22 East 38th St., New York; Mrs. George H. Bradford, President.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 100,000; state chapters, 40.

Purpose: To bring together the members of the alumnæ associations of Catholic high schools, colleges, and universities for the purpose of upholding the ideals of Catholic womanhood; and to extend Catholic education, literature, motion pictures, and social service.

Periodical: Quarterly Bulletin, $1.00 a year.

International Industrial Relations Institute (1925); Haringkade 171, The Hague, Holland; 130 East 22d St., New York; Mary van Kleeck, Associate Director for the United States.

Membership: Individuals whose industrial experience and study qualify them to share in the Institute's activities; associate members, individuals who, though lacking technical industrial experience, nevertheless seek to share in understanding society's basic economic problems.

Purpose and Activities: To study and promote satisfactory human relations and working conditions in all industry. "Industrial relations" refers to the association of groups and individuals whose functioning together constitutes economic life. These relations may be regarded as satisfactory when they permit all groups concerned to function effectively toward a socially desirable end. The Institute provides possibilities for study and for interchange of thought and working experience through the holding of congresses, conferences, summer schools, and discussion meetings, and the appointment of study commissions; and creates an informed and responsible public opinion by means of publications.

International Labor Defense (1925); 112 East 19th St., New York; Hon. Vito Marcantonio, President.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 300,000.

Activities: These include defense and relief to labor prisoners and their families for the duration of the sentence of the breadwinner of the family regardless of race, color, nationality, and religious or political convictions; defense of democratic and civil rights; defense of the Negro people and all national minorities against lynching and discrimination; and defense of the foreign born against deportation and discrimination.

Periodicals: Weekly News Releases, free; Weekly Legislative Letter (released simultaneously from Chicago, Los Angeles, New York, San Francisco, and Washington, D. C.), $1.00 for congressional session; Equal Justice, monthly, 50 cents a year.

International Labor Organization, Washington Office (1920); 734 Jackson Pl., Washington, D. C.; Ethel M. Johnson, Acting Director.

Purpose and Activities: To represent the International Labor Organization in the United States. The Branch Office supplies the Central Office in Geneva, Switzerland, with information and material; interprets the labor and industrial situation in the United States to the Geneva Office; supplies information regarding the International Labor Organization and its work to persons in this country and serves in a liaison capacity between individuals and agencies in the United States having interests and relations with the International Labor Organization, including the distribution and sale of its publications.

Periodicals: Industrial and Labour Information, weekly, $7.50 a year; International Labour Review, monthly, $6.00 a year; Industrial Safety Survey, bimonthly, $1.50 a year; I.L.O. Yearbook, annually, $3.00 a copy; Yearbook of Labour Statistics, annually, $3.00 a copy.

International Migration Service, American Branch (1921); 122 East 22d St., New York; George L. Warren, International Director; Patrick Murphy Malin, American Director.

Membership: Individuals, 405, of whom 151 are in the United States, and 254 in Europe.

Purpose and Activities: To render service through cooperative effort to individuals whose problems have arisen as a consequence of migration and the solution of which involves action in more than one country; and to study from an international standpoint the conditions and consequences of migration in their effect on individual, family, and social life. The Service cooperates in its international social case work service with agencies in fields which include family welfare, transients and homeless, child welfare and protection, legal aid, public health, delinquency, and protection to aliens. Co-

operation is also established with courts, federal departments, American Red Cross chapters, agencies under religious auspices, and foreign consulates.

International Order of The King's Daughters and Sons (1886); 144 East 37th St., New York; Mrs. Charles A. Menet, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 60,000; organizations, approximately 2,500 circles, with 7 countries represented.

Purpose and Activities: To develop spiritual life and stimulate Christian activities. The Order maintains homes for the aged, homes for children, summer camps, hospitals, and other welfare institutions.

Periodical: Silver Cross, monthly except July and August, $1.00 a year.

International Union of Gospel Missions (1913); 309 West 46th St., New York; Rev. Clemme Ellis White, Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 530; organizations, 189 local.

Purpose and Activities: To further the interests and increase the effectiveness of rescue missions. These missions furnish food, clothing, and shelter to the needy. The shelter facilities in their buildings vary from a few beds to 1,000. Other activities include reading rooms, farms, summer camps for women and children, and hospital and home visitation. Many missions have industrial departments. Missions are interested in meeting the spiritual as well as the physical needs of the individual and so carry on a number of religious activities.

Periodicals: Our Missions, quarterly; Year Book, annually.

Interstate Commission on Crime (1935); Essex County Court House, Newark, N. J.; Judge Richard Hartshorne, President.

Membership: Individuals, 180.

Purpose and Activities: To obtain better cooperation between the states and with the federal government in the field of crime control, both through the interaction of such governments themselves and of such governments with the citizenry. The Commission is an official body representing every state government and the federal government. Its work is not only legislative but administrative and judicial as well, and it has already obtained the adoption of a series of model statutes and administrative measures by various states.

Interstate Conference of Employment Security Agencies (1937); name changed in 1939 from Interstate Conference of Unemployment Compensation Agencies; 1712 G St., NW., Washington, D. C.; Kathryn Fenn, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Organizations, 48 state, 2 territorial, and District of Columbia.

Purpose: To improve the effectiveness of unemployment compensation laws and to promote employment security through the placement of unemployed workers, stabilization of employment, and the payment of unemployment benefits; to promote the study, development, and use of proper and efficient methods of administration; to encourage the cooperation of the several state unemployment compensation agencies in the conduct of fundamental research into the basic causes of unemployment in the various industries and trades of the United States; and through study and research to propose new legislation, both state and federal, in the basic field of employment security.

Periodicals: Proceedings of national and regional meetings.

Italian Welfare League (1922); 345 Lexington Ave., New York; Angela M. Carlozzi, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 300.

Activities: The League is a non-sectarian, nonpolitical organization for service to Italians in the United States. It does general family case work; secures employment, legal aid, and medical assistance; and offers supplementary financial assistance to Italians who have been in this country less than five years. It maintains a Naturalization Department, and has a representative for immigrant aid work at Ellis Island, New York Harbor.

Jewish Agricultural Society (1900); 301 East 14th St., New York; Gabriel Davidson, General Manager.

Membership: Individuals, 40.

Purpose and Activities: To encourage farming among Jews. The Society advises on purchase of farms, grants farm loans, maintains an advice bureau on agricultural and kindred matters, sends out itinerant farm instructors, maintains a purchasing service bureau, awards scholarships and grants student loans, publishes an agricultural magazine in Yiddish, conducts agricultural classes, and maintains a rural sanitation service and a farm employment agency.

Periodical: Jewish Farmer, monthly, 75 cents a year.

Jewish Occupational Council (1939); 1819 Broadway, New York; Morris R. Cohen, Ph.D., Chairman, Board of Directors.

Membership: Organizations, 11 national.

Purpose and Activities: To act as a clearing house for all Jewish organizations engaged in occupational guidance, placement, and training; to provide these agencies with occupational information and to cooperate with them in research projects; and to guide Jewish communities or organizations that may request assistance in establishing or improving occupational services. From time to time the Council issues reports which are distributed to interested agencies and individuals.

Jewish Welfare Board (1917); 220 Fifth Ave., New York; Louis Kraft, Executive Director.

Membership: Individuals, 400,000; organizations, 323 local.

Purpose: To promote the religious, intellectual, physical, and social well-being and development of Jews; to stimulate the organization of Jewish Centers, Young Men's Hebrew Associations, Young Women's Hebrew Associations, and kindred societies; to assist, advise, and encourage such societies, correlate their activities, and promote the interchange of advantages afforded; to cooperate with other organizations for the development of Judaism and good citizenship; and to promote the social welfare of soldiers, sailors, and marines in the Army and Navy of the United States, and to provide adequate opportunity for their education, religious worship, devotion, solace, and improvement.

Periodical: The Jewish Center, quarterly, $2.00 a year.

Joint Committee on Relief Statistics (1936); 130 East 22d St., New York; Ralph G. Hurlin, Ph.D., Chairman.

Purpose and Activities: To study developments in relief statistics, and to aid in their improvement. The Committee is a joint committee of the American Public Welfare Association and the American Statistical Association. It acts through committee meetings, conferences of relief statisticians, and negotiations with governmental agencies. In 1938 it began publication of a series of Papers on Relief Statistics, dealing with methods in this field. Since its organization it has served as the official advisory committee on public assistance statistics of the Social Security Board.

Periodical: Bulletin of Information for Relief Statisticians, occasional issues.

Judge Baker Guidance Center (1917); 38½ Beacon St., Boston; William Healy, M.D., and Augusta F. Bronner, Ph.D., Directors.

Activities: The Center conducts scientific investigation and treatment of personality, conduct, and educational problems of childhood and youth. Cooperative therapeutic work is carried on with agencies, and also direct therapeutic work with individuals and families.

Junior Achievement (1919); 33 Pearl St., Springfield, Mass.; Mrs. Laura H. Dixon, National Director.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 3,500; organized clubs, approximately 350.

Purpose: To furnish program leadership and direction for leisure time to young people associated in small groups or clubs, who are engaged in simple hand processes by which objects useful and artistic are manufactured, and through which they gain experience in business procedure, buying and selling, principles of cooperation, marketing, management, wages, and costs. The organization works with social and educational agencies in the community, in furnishing a business-craft program.

Kellogg Foundation (W. K. Kellogg Foundation) (1930); Battle Creek, Mich.; Stuart Pritchard, M.D., General Director.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the health, happiness, and well-being of children without restriction as to race, creed, or geographical boundary. The largest present activity is the seven-county, quarter-million population Michigan Community Health Project which serves the child by improving the human and physical environment through a community plan for education, health, and social services involving the active participation of the various professional groups. Grants have been made for medical research, public health administration, epidemiology, health conservation contests, camping programs, adult education, libraries, schools, and hospitals. Postgraduate fellowships are offered for school personnel, physicians, dentists, engineers, and others working directly or indirectly with the child.

Knights of Columbus (1882); 45 Wall St., New Haven; Joseph F. Lamb, Supreme Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 413,607; organizations in the United States, Canada, and other countries, 60 state, 3 territorial, and 2,465 local.

Purpose and Activities: To render pecuniary aid to members and their dependents, and assistance to sick and disabled members; to promote social and intellectual intercourse among members; and to promote and conduct educational, charitable, reli-

gious, social welfare, war relief welfare, and public welfare work. Among major activities, the organization operates as a fraternal benefit society, conducts correspondence schools for members, and is engaged in boys' work, sponsoring the Columbian Squires.

Periodicals: Weekly News Sheet; Columbia, monthly, 50 cents a year; Columbian Squires Herald, monthly, 25 cents a year.

Labor Research Association (1927); 80 East 11th St., New York; Robert W. Dunn, Secretary.

Purpose and Activities: To conduct investigations and studies of social, economic, and political questions in the interest of the labor movement; to publish its findings in articles, leaflets, pamphlets, and books; and to conduct an information and fact-finding service for various labor papers and organizations. Activities include a series of studies of conditions in specific industries, such as mining, lumber, clothing, automobiles, steel, leather, agriculture, and textiles; direction of such economic studies as Rulers of America, Why Farmers Are Poor, and The South in Progress; and the editing of the biennial Labor Fact Books (the latest being Labor Fact Book V, issued in 1940), and the pocket-sized Arsenal of Facts (1938), Youth Arsenal of Facts (1939), and Trade Union Facts (1940).

Periodicals: Economic Notes, monthly, 65 cents a year; Labor Notes, monthly, 65 cents a year; Railroad Notes, monthly, 50 cents a year.

Laymen's League Against Epilepsy (1939); 25 Shattuck St., Boston; Mrs. N. Bond Fleming, Secretary-Treasurer.

Membership: Individuals, 600; affiliated organizations, 3 local.

Purpose and Activities: To spread up-to-date and authoritative information about epilepsy, and to encourage more substantial public support of research investigations in this field. A series of leaflets, written by a physician and answering questions about epilepsy, is distributed to members. The League is a national organization with non-medical leadership, working in close collaboration with medical scientists.

Periodical: Laymen's League Bulletin, bimonthly, $1.00 a year.

League for Industrial Democracy (1921); 112 East 19th St., New York; Harry W. Laidler, Ph.D., Executive Director.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 3,000, including members in city chapters in Boston, Detroit, New York, Washington, and other cities and college chapters in many American universities.

Purpose and Activities: To promote education for a new social order, based upon production for use and not for profit. The League sends lecturers to colleges, universities, and city groups throughout the country; organizes lecture courses and college and city branches for the discussion of social problems; conducts research work; arranges radio broadcasts and summer and winter conferences; operates a summer school for students; publishes a pamphlet literature; and in other ways endeavors to stimulate thinking and constructive activity on problems of industrial democracy.

Periodical: L.I.D. Bulletin, quarterly.

Leisure League of America (1933); 1309 West Main St., Richmond; James S. Stanley, President.

Purpose and Activities: To suggest interesting and profitable things to do in leisure time and to give information on how to do them. The following projects have been undertaken: publication of a series of paper-bound books, of which 35 have been published to date, written by authorities on the subjects covered; and consultation and correspondence with individuals who request guidance in acquiring avocational interests. The League is a non-profit organization.

Life Insurance Adjustment Bureau (1931); 450 Seventh Ave., New York; Edwin G. Eklund, Manager.

Activities: The Bureau functions as a national advisory agency regarding life insurance problems of the clients of public and private social agencies in so far as the policies held by the clients were written by the Metropolitan, the Prudential, and the John Hancock life insurance companies, which maintain the Bureau. Recommended insurance adjustments are made to social agencies upon request. These usually call for reducing premium payments, obtaining cash, and changing to most economical types of life insurance. The Bureau is managed by a social worker under the direction of a managing committee from the companies, and functions under an Advisory Committee of the Family Welfare Association of America. It has published Life Insurance: A Handbook for Social Workers, which is available to social workers on request. The Bureau meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Lutheran Charities, Associated (1901); 1737 North 52d St., Milwaukee; Rev. Enno Duemling, President.

Membership: 73 missionary and charitable agencies within the Evangelical Lutheran Synodical Conference.

Activities: The organization functions in an annual convention. It seeks to foster city mission and social work within the Synodical Conference and to raise the standards of work performed by the individual agencies. Through its Committee on Child Care the organization offers its services in the making of surveys, and through its Committee on Hospitals performs similar services for hospitals.

Periodical: Associated Lutheran Charities Review, quarterly, 50 cents a year.

Lutheran Church in America, United, Board of Social Missions (1918); name changed in 1938 from Lutheran Church in America, United, Inner Mission Board; 39 East 35th St., New York; C. Franklin Koch, D.D., Executive Secretary.

Purpose and Activities: To stimulate in all congregations of the United Lutheran Church active interest and participation in personal evangelism and in Christian service, both in the areas of prevention and cure; and to arouse the Christian consciences of members as to the perplexing social problems which hamper society to the end that they may seek the Christian way out. The Board encourages the organization of Inner Mission societies, establishes institutions of mercy and coordinates their work, trains Christian workers in both the fields of evangelism and merciful service, publishes literature, and conducts institutes to inform and advise the Church regarding its social obligarions. Special activities are carried on for the deaf and the blind, immigrants, and seamen.

Periodical: Social Missions Quarterly, free.

Lutheran Conference, American, Commission on Social Relations (1934); Lutheran Theological Seminary, St. Paul; G. M. Bruce, Ph.D., D.D., Chairman.

Membership: National organizations, 5 general church bodies.

Purpose: To make studies and investigations of social trends and problems, to report to the biennial convention of the American Lutheran Conference thereon, and to make recommendarions as to the posirion and action of the church in relation to these trends and problems.

Periodical: Proceedings of Biennial Convention, in Journal of Theology.

Lutheran Council, National, Department of Welfare (1938); 39 East 35th St., New York; C. E. Krumbholz, D.D., Secretary.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the organization of Lutheran welfare agencies according to states or regions; to serve as the representative of national Lutheran welfare work before general and governmental agencies; to coordinate Lutheran efforts in meeting common needs in times of general disaster; to assist in the establishment of standards and improvements of Lutheran welfare work in all parts of the church; and to organize a general conference of Lutheran charities, coordinating various groups now organized and organizing new groups. The Council represents eight Lutheran church bodies.

Lutheran Welfare Conference in America (1920); name changed in 1940 from National Lutheran Inner Mission Conference; 39 Easr 35th St., New York; C. E. Krumbholz, D.D., Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 140; organizations, 4 national, 11 state, and 46 local.

Activities: These include discussion, mutual consultation, and setting of standards for Lutheran social work. The Conference works toward the employment of professionally trained workers in the various fields of service. The Conference is affiliated with the National Lutheran Council.

Periodicals: Quarterly Bulletin; Annual Proceeding of the Conference, 25 cents a copy.

McCormick Memorial Fund (Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund) (1908); 848 North Dearborn St., Chicago; Mary E. Murphy, Director.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the betterment of conditions of child life in the United States. Activities include research relating to mental and physical growth, continuous health supervision of children in family groups, nutrition service in connection with relief agencies, health education in schools, medical and nutrition supervision of nursery schools, advisory service and in-service training of personnel in connection with preschool play groups and children's institutions and agencies, and leadership and training in parent education. A child welfare library, reference and loan, is maintained; also a speakers' bureau.

Maternity Center Association (1918); 654 Madison Ave., New York; Hazel Corbin, Director.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 2,500.

Purpose and Activities: To improve maternity care by teaching the public what adequate maternity care is and why it is necessary; by training graduate nurses in midwifery to prepare them to supervise the work of the present practicing untrained midwives; by providing units in advanced maternity nursing for public health nurses and conduct-

ing refresher institutes in obstetrics for them; by publishing handbooks on maternity care for nurses and expectant fathers and mothers; by publishing educational charts and posters for use with groups and for exhibit purposes; by stimulating communities to make such care available to every mother at a price she can afford; by helping to develop standards for each phase of maternity care through studying and revising the techniques and procedures used in the supervision, care, and instruction of mothers; and by making these standards easily available to lay and professional workers.

Periodical: Briefs, 6 issues yearly, $1.00 a year.

Methodist Church, Board of Missions and Church Extension (1940); a consolidation of 7 organizations of the old denominations; 150 Fifth Ave., New York; E. D. Kohlstedt, D.D., Executive Secretary, Division of Home Missions and Church Extension; Ralph E. Diffendorfer, D.D., Executive Secretary, Division of Foreign Missions.

Purpose and Activities: To diffuse more generally the blessings of Christianity in every part of the world, by the promotion and support of all phases of missionary and church extension activity in the United States and other countries; to promote missionary intelligence, interest, and zeal through the Methodist Church; and to aid in Christianizing personal life and the social order in all lands and among all peoples. Its objectives are religious, philanthropic, and educational. The Board has the following divisions: Division of Foreign Missions; Division of Home Missions and Church Extension, including the Department of Goodwill Industries and the Department of Negro Work; Joint Division of Education and Cultivation; and Woman's Division of Christian Service. There is no central executive head to the organization; instead, the divisions are largely autonomous, each having its own executive officers. The former Board of Home Missions and Church Extension and the Woman's Home Missionary Society, both of the Methodist Episcopal Church, were among the organizations consolidating to form the new Board.

Periodicals: World Outlook, monthly, $1.00 a year; The Methodist Woman, monthly, 50 cents a year; $1.25 a year for both.

Methodist Federation for Social Service (Unofficial) (1907); 150 Fifth Ave., New York; Harry F. Ward, Secretary.

Activities: The Federation rejects the method of the struggle for profit as the economic base for society, and seeks to replace it with social-economic planning in order to develop a society without class distinctions and privileges.

Periodical: Social Questions Bulletin, monthly except July and August, $1.00 a year.

Milbank Memorial Fund (1905); 40 Wall St., New York; Frank G. Boudreau, M.D., Executive Director.

Purpose and Activities: To improve the physical, mental, and moral condition of humanity, and generally to advance charitable and benevolent objects. The Fund assists official and private agencies and institutions in the field of public health and medicine, education, social welfare, and research. Emphasis is given to activities which are preventive rather than palliative, and to the improvement of administrative procedures in public health.

Periodicals: Quarterly, $1.00 a year; News Digest, quarterly, free.

Motion Picture Research Council (1927); 111 Sutter St., San Francisco; Ray Lyman Wilbur, M.D., President.

Activities: The Council answers questions concerning the influence of motion pictures on children; stimulates community interest in the film as a constructive social influence through adult education, teaching of motion picture discrimination in schools, and organizational activity; and carries on the campaign in support of the Neely Bill designed to abolish compulsory block-booking and blind-selling of motion pictures to the end that community freedom in film selection may be established. Its studies have been published under the title Motion Pictures and Youth, The Payne Fund Studies, in nine volumes, and Our Movie Made Children, a popular summarizing volume. Further research on motion pictures in relation to the child and adolescent is planned. The Council has chapters in Boston and San Francisco.

National Alliance of Agencies for Care of Aged (1933); 1648 South Albany Ave., Chicago; Julius Savit, President.

Purpose: To encourage interest in the general aspects of the problem of the aged in the United States, to foster coordination of the voluntary efforts dedicated to the welfare of elderly people, and to provide a forum for an interchange of ideas and experiences in this field.

National Amateur Athletic Federation (1922); Hotel Sherman, Chicago; John L. Griffith, Executive Vice President.

Membership: Organizations, 18.

Purpose: To coordinate the activities of the various groups that are promoting amateur athletics to the end that these groups may the better serve the

social needs of the boys and girls and the young men and young women who are engaged in various amateur play activities.

National Association for Aid to Dependent Children (1922); name changed in 1937 from Mothers' Aid Association; 1208 State Office Bldg., Columbus; Esther McClain, Chairman.

Membership: Individuals, 150.

Purpose and Activities: To promote an understanding of the goals and objectives of the aid to dependent children program of the Social Security Act; to set forth principles; to study and promote satisfactory legislation; to prepare and distribute educational material; to hold meetings at the National Conference of Social Work, of which it is an associate group; to provide for an exchange of ideas among agencies and agency members through a quarterly bulletin; and to make qualitative social studies from time to time to show the adaptation of the program to human needs.

Periodical: Bulletin, quarterly.

National Association for Nursery Education (1926); 829 North Union St., St. Louis; Christine Glass, Secretary-Treasurer.

Membership: Individuals, 497.

Purpose: To provide a medium through which those who are interested in nursery education can exchange ideas, and through which they can cooperate as a group with other agencies concerned with the education and developmental welfare of early childhood.

National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (1909); 69 Fifth Ave., New York; Walter White, Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 100,000; organizations, 450.

Purpose: To combat the spirit of persecution which confronts colored people and other minority groups in the United States; and to safeguard their civil, legal, economic, and political rights, and secure for them equality of opportunity with all other citizens.

Periodical: The Crisis, monthly, $1.50 a year.

National Association for the Advancement of Colored People Legal Defense and Educational Fund, Inc. (1939); 69 Fifth Ave., New York; Walter White, Secretary.

Purpose: To render legal aid gratuitously to such Negroes as are suffering legal injustices by reason of race or color and are unable to employ and engage legal aid and assistance on account of poverty; to seek and promote the educational facilities for Negroes who are denied the same by reason of race or color; and to conduct research, and collect, compile, and publish facts, information, and statistics concerning educational facilities and opportunities for Negroes and the inequality in such facilities provided for Negroes out of public funds.

National Association of Colored Women (1896); Capahosic, Va.; Jennie B. Moton, President.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 30,000; organizations, 42 state and 5 sectional divisions.

Purpose: To promote the education of colored women and girls; to raise the standard of the home; to work for the social, moral, economic, and religious welfare of women and children, and to protect their rights; to obtain for colored women the opportunity of reaching the highest standards in all fields of human endeavor; and to promote interracial understanding so that justice and good will may prevail among all people.

National Association of Day Nurseries (1938); a consolidation of the Association of Day Nurseries of New York City and the National Federation of Day Nurseries; 122 East 22d St., New York; Elizabeth Woodruff Clark, Executive Director.

Membership: Individuals, 43; organizations, 125 day nurseries.

Activities: The Association is a coordinating body for day nurseries throughout the United States, providing a medium for an exchange of information about practices and policies of day nursery care, and for raising standards of care among nurseries. The Association meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodical: The Day Nursery, monthly except June, July, and August, $1.00 a year.

National Association of Goodwill Industries (1910); 2102 West Pierce St., Milwaukee; Oliver A. Friedman, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Organizations, 76 local.

Purpose and Activities: To encourage the establishment and development in various centers of Goodwill Industries for the religious, cultural, educational, social, industrial, and economic welfare of the handicapped. The Association develops and assists in maintaining standards in the operation of industrial, social service, religious, and other activities of Goodwill Industries; conducts

research in the interest of providing increased service for the handicapped and increasing the usefulness of discarded materials; conducts a regular exchange service of information and reports; seeks to prevent duplication, encouraging cooperation and mutual understanding among Goodwill Industries and similar organizations; and develops public opinion in the interest of helping handicapped people help themselves. The Association is interdenominational and non-sectarian and works in close cooperation with the Department of Goodwill Industries with which many of its members are affiliated. The Department functions under the Board of Missions and Church Extension of the Methodist Church. The Association meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

National Association of Housing Officials (1933); 1313 East 60th St., Chicago; Coleman Woodbury, Director.

Purpose and Activities: To better administrative standards and practices in all public activity in housing for families of low and moderate income, by assisting housing officials in all levels of government and other interested persons. Activities include a clearing house for exchange of information, publication and distribution of the most useful current literature, field consultation service to official and semi-official housing agencies, and research on selected subjects by standing and special committees. The Management Division offers special membership and services to persons engaged in management functions in large-scale housing.

National Association of Jewish Center Workers (1918); 12 South Broadway, Yonkers, N. Y.; Isidore Beierfeld, President.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 200.

Purpose: To foster and develop interest in Jewish Centers, Young Men's Hebrew Associations, and Young Women's Hebrew Associations; to consider problems relating to Jewish Center work; and to promote personnel standards among Jewish Center workers.

National Association of Legal Aid Organizations (1923); 25 Exchange St., Rochester, N. Y.; Emery A. Brownell, Secretary.

Membership: Organizations, 44.

Purpose and Activities: To promote and develop legal aid work; to encourage the formation of new legal aid organizations wherever they may be needed; to provide a central body with defined duties and powers for the guidance of legal aid work; and to cooperate with the judiciary, the bar, and all organizations interested in the administration of justice. The Legal Aid Group, which meets as an associate group with the National Conference of Social Work, is the Association's Committee on Relations with Social Agencies.

Periodical: Legal Aid News Letter, occasional issues, free.

National Association of State Directors of Vocational Education (1921); State Department of Education, Charleston, W. Va.; W. W. Trent, Secretary-Treasurer.

Membership: Individuals, 50, representing the states, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico, each of which is entitled to one membership in the Association.

Purpose: To consider and discuss all questions pertaining to the successful progress and administration of vocational education throughout the states, to assemble and disseminate such information as will be helpful in securing mutual cooperation toward this accomplishment, and to study the economic and social trends and work with public agencies and other national agencies interested in adjusting training programs to meet these changes as they develop.

National Association of the Deaf (1880); 19 West 21st St., New York; Marcus L. Kenner, President.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 5,000; organizations, state associations of the deaf.

Purpose and Activities: To improve, develop, and extend schools for the deaf throughout the world, and especially in the United States; to eliminate unjust liability, compensation, and traffic laws; to establish state and national labor bureaus for the deaf; to remove barriers against the deaf in civil service and other employment; and to further the intellectual, professional, and industrial status and social enjoyment of members through correspondence, consultation, and the forming of branch societies and national conventions.

Periodicals: N.A.D. Bulletin, monthly; Convention reports; both free.

National Association of Training Schools (1937); Meriden, Conn.; Roy McLaughlin, President.

Membership: Individuals, 94; organizations, 25.

Purpose and Activities: To make the schools for socially maladjusted children better able to give individual treatment to the maladjusted child through vocational, social, and formal schooling in order to fit him for an active and happy participation in the life of the community; to establish training school work more firmly as a professional occupation; and to eliminate any or all conditions which might stigmatize a child because of his at-

tending a training school. The Association affiliates and meets with the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodical: Proceedings, periodically; bound copies of complete proceedings obtainable annually, $1.50 a copy.

National Boys and Girls Week Committee for the United States (1924); Room 950, 35 East Wacker Drive, Chicago; S. Kendrick Guernsey, Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 177.

Purpose and Activities: To encourage the observance of an annual Boys and Girls Week (usually in April or May) in communities throughout the United States for the purpose of focusing attention upon boys and girls, and of furthering every activity tending to develop boys and girls into useful citizens. Among specific results are the creation of permanent commissions on boy and girl life, and the establishment of playgrounds, boys' clubs, girls' clubs, summer camps, community centers, scout troops, etc.

Periodicals: Boys and Girls Week Advance Herald; Manual of Suggestions; both annually, free.

National Bureau for the Advancement of Music (1916); 45 West 45th St., New York; C. M. Tremaine, Director.

Purpose and Activities: To advance the cause of music in relation to appreciation and participation, through cooperation with other organizations and individuals; to extend recognition of music in the schools and colleges; to promote musical interest and activity in adult groups; and to furnish information and guidance upon request. The Bureau is philanthropically supported.

National Bureau of Economic Research (1920); 1819 Broadway, New York; William J. Carson, Executive Director.

Activities: The National Bureau conducts impartial research, largely statistical, in the social sciences, particularly on such subjects as business cycles, national income, production, prices, capital formation, banking, credit, employment, wages, and profits. Its reports are published after review by a board of directors representative of various organizations and opinion.

Periodical: Bulletin, 5 issues yearly, $1.00 a year.

National Catholic Welfare Conference (1919); 1312 Massachusetts Ave., NW., Washington, D. C.; Rt. Rev. Msgr. Michael J. Ready, General Secretary.

Membership: All Catholic archbishops and bishops of the United States and its dependencies; lay groups through the Department of Lay Organizations.

Purpose and Activities: To unify, coordinate, and organize Catholic people of the United States in works of education, social welfare, immigrant aid, and other activities. The Conference maintains the following departments: Department of Catholic Action Study, devoted to research and reports as to pronouncements, methods, programs, and achievements in the work of Catholic Action at home and abroad; Department of Education, a clearing house for Catholic educational agencies; Department of Lay Organizations, seeking through coordinate branches—National Council of Catholic Men and National Council of Catholic Women—to unite groups of the laity and to vitalize corporate Catholic life, and maintaining through these branches, the Catholic Evidence Bureau and the National Catholic School of Social Service; Department of Social Action, covering the fields of industrial relations, international affairs, civic education, social welfare, family life, and rural life; Executive Department, including Bureaus of Immigration, Youth, and National Center Confraternity of Christian Doctrine; Legal Department, serving as a clearing house of information on federal, state, and local legislation; and the Press Department, furnishing material to Catholic newspapers.

Periodical: Catholic Action, monthly, $2.00 a year.

National Child Labor Committee (1904); 419 Fourth Ave., New York; Courtenay Dinwiddie, General Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 16,000.

Purpose and Activities: To promote, through investigation, legislation, and public education, the protection of children from employment under conditions that are prejudicial to their health, education, or welfare; and to increase opportunities for vocational guidance, training, and placement of youth. The Committee meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodicals: American Child, monthly except July, August, and September, $2.00 a year; Annual Summaries of Legislation, free.

National Child Welfare Association (1912); 70 Fifth Ave., New York; Charles F. Powlison, General Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 500.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the building of character qualities in children in cooperation with the public schools and other organizations. The Association originates and disseminates educational material; and conducts a Parents' Consultation Bureau, available without cost, where par-

ents may discuss questions regarding the proper physical, mental, and moral development of their children.

National Citizens Committee (1940); 105 East 22d St., New York; H. Ida Curry, Acting Director.

Purpose and Activities: To give nation-wide citizens' leadership in developing long-range and immediate programs for carrying into effect the recommendations of the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, including specifically the following: cooperation with the Federal Inter-Agency Committee of the Conference; dissemination of information concerning the Conference and its recommendations and follow-up activities; stimulation and aid in the development of state follow-up programs; enlisting the cooperation of voluntary agencies interested in the well-being of children, for the purpose of carrying forward the objectives of the Conference; and consideration of the special needs of children growing out of emergency conditions, and cooperation with other organizations engaged in conserving and advancing the health, education, home care, and special protection of children under such conditions.

National Civil Service Reform League (1881); 521 Fifth Ave., New York; H. Eliot Kaplan, Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 2,500; organizations, 14.

Purpose: To advance the merit system and to improve the administration of the civil service throughout the United States.

Periodicals: Good Government, quarterly, $1.00 a year; Annual Proceedings, 25 cents a copy.

National Committee for Mental Hygiene (1909); 1790 Broadway, New York; George S. Stevenson, M.D., Medical Director.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 800 (through election by Executive Committee); contributing associate members, approximately 300 (open to the public); associated state and local mental hygiene societies, 63.

Activities: The Committee works for the conservation of mental health; reduction and prevention of mental and nervous disorders and defects; improved care and treatment of persons suffering from mental diseases; special training and supervision of the feebleminded; and the acquisition and dissemination of reliable information on these subjects and on mental factors involved in the problems of education, industry, delinquency, dependency, and others related to the broad field of human behavior. The Committee meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodicals: Mental Hygiene, quarterly, $3.00 a year; Understanding the Child, quarterly, $1.00 for three years.

National Committee for Religion and Welfare Recovery (1929); 60 West 42d St., New York; Charles V. Vickrey, Executive Chairman.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 500.

Purpose and Activities: To strengthen the service and augment the income of all religious, educational, cultural, and welfare agencies by means of a cooperative educational program. The Committee, which is non-sectarian, is a department of the Golden Rule Foundation. The Committee promotes the annual observance of Loyalty Days and International Golden Rule Week, and conducts an educational program for the standards of stewardship. The Pan American Christmas Gift, sent from the children and adults of the 21 American republics to the orphans and refugees of war-torn Europe and China, is under the auspices of the Committee.

National Committee of Health Council Executives (1926); Room 204, 312 West 9th St., Cincinnati; Bleecker Marquette, Chairman.

Membership: Approved health councils, 10; potential health councils, 14; members-at-large, 9.

Purpose and Activities: To improve the work undertaken by health councils by providing for the exchange of experiences, considering mutual problems, and discussing suitable activities for health councils; and to stimulate the extension of the health council idea. The health council is essentially a coordinating body, organized to promote the efficient administration of public health work, foster community planning, eliminate duplication of effort, and stimulate new services.

National Committee on Boys and Girls Club Work (1921); 56 East Congress St., Chicago; G. L. Noble, Managing Director.

Membership: Individuals, 30.

Purpose: To extend the program, membership, and influence of the 4-H clubs.

Periodical: National 4-H Club News, monthly.

National Committee on Maternal Health (1923); 2 East 103d St., New York; Raymond Squier, M.D., Executive Secretary.

Purpose and Activities: To promote scientific research in human sex biology, especially medical as-

pects of human fertility, including contraception, sterility, sterilization, sexual practice, and marriage counseling. The Committee refrains from propaganda and service to lay persons or groups. Its publications include books and papers in standard medical journals.

National Committee on Prisons and Prison Labor (1909); 1860 Broadway, New York; E. Stagg Whitin, Chairman, Executive Council.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 2,000.

Purpose: To unite and concentrate the efforts of all persons interested in the bettering of penal and/or correctional systems; to conduct investigations and make recommendations respecting the construction, equipment, and conduct of penal and /or correctional institutions; to formulate and make effective a system for penalizing crime which will be just to the state, the prisoner, the prisoner's family, industry, and the free working-man; and to study the whole problem of labor in prisons and /or correctional institutions to the end that all prisoners may be so employed as to promote their welfare and at the same time to reimburse the institution for the expense of maintenance, while preventing unfair competition between prison-made goods and products of free labor and securing to their dependent families a fair proportion of the earnings of prisoners.

National Committee on Volunteers in Social Work (1933); 900 Equitable Bldg., St. Louis; Mrs. D. K. Rose, Chairman.

Purpose: To draw volunteers and board members into the National Conference of Social Work, to help volunteers understand their relationship to professional social work, to create an awareness among the professional group of the importance of the volunteers' contribution to social work, to assist the professional group in fostering a closer relationship with volunteers, and to help coordinate the efforts of other national agencies in the development of volunteer service programs. The Committee meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

National Conference of Catholic Charities (1910); 1317 F St., NW., Washington, D. C.; Rt. Rev. Msgr. John O'Grady, Ph.D., Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 3,500; organizations, 150.

Purpose and Activities: To evaluate and offer constructive criticism of present-day social welfare problems and programs; and to assist Catholic groups to standardize, coordinate, and interpret their existing programs and formulate necessary new ones. Its activities include an annual meeting, institutes, surveys, studies, research, literature, field visits, and representation on national committees.

Periodicals: Catholic Charities Review, monthly, $1.00 a year; Annual Proceedings, $2.00 a copy.

National Conference of Commissioners on Uniform State Laws (1892); First National Bank Bldg., Omaha; Barton H. Kuhns, Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, as a rule 3 from each state.

Purpose and Activities: To promote uniformity in state laws on all subjects where uniformity is deemed desirable and practicable. Laws drafted in fields of social work include child labor, desertion and non-support, illegitimacy, marriage licenses, marriage evasions, and vital statistics.

Periodical: Handbook, annually, $3.00 a copy.

National Conference of Directors of Local Health Work (1939); Iowa State Department of Health, Des Moines; Marvin F. Haygood, M.D., Chairman.

Membership: Individuals, 52.

Purpose: To exchange ideas governing administrative principles of public health in the many geographically different political subdivisions in the United States and territories.

National Conference of Jewish Social Welfare (1899); 67 West 47th St., New York; Marcel Kovarsky, Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 600; organizations, 229.

Purpose: To provide a forum for the consideration and discussion of problems and principles of Jewish welfare and of programs of Jewish social agencies, and to formulate principles and programs for the enrichment of Jewish life and of social and economic welfare.

Periodicals: Jewish Social Service Quarterly, $2.00 a year; Proceedings, annually, $2.00 a copy.

National Conference of Juvenile Agencies (1903); Woodbine, N. J.; E. L. Johnstone, Secretary-Treasurer.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 350 executives of institutions for juvenile delinquents, probation and parole officers, juvenile court workers, special-class teachers, social workers, psychologists, psychiatrists, and others in the field of training, rehabilitation, and correction of the youthful offender.

Activities: The Conference conducts special studies in the field of correctional work and rehabilitative programs among juveniles. Annual conventions are held for discussion and dissemination of information. The Conference is affiliated with the American Prison Association.

Periodical: The Proceedings, quarterly, $1.50 a year.

National Conference of Social Work (1873); 82 North High St., Columbus; Howard R. Knight, General Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 7,500; organizations, approximately 450.

Purpose and Activities: To facilitate discussion of problems and methods of human improvement, to increase the efficiency of agencies and institutions devoted to this cause, and to disseminate information. Platforms are not formulated. The Conference is now organized in five continuous sections: Social Case Work, Social Group Work, Community Organization, Social Action, and Public Welfare Administration.

Periodicals: Conference Bulletin, quarterly, 50 cents a year; Proceedings, annually, free to members paying $5.00 or more; extra copies obtainable from the Columbia University Press at $3.00 plus postage.

National Conference of State Small Loan Supervisors (1935); Room 511, 130 East 22d St., New York; Eleanor Nissley, Assistant Secretary-Treasurer.

Activities: The Conference is an informal organization for interchange of information and mutual contact for the purpose of improving public supervision of the small loan business. The Conference holds an annual meeting, and supplies standard forms for the use of state banking departments.

National Conference of Superintendents of Juvenile Training Schools and Reformatories (1923); State School, Orange Co. (near Warwick), N. Y.; Herbert D. Williams, Secretary.

Membership: Training school and reformatory superintendents, elected by existing members.

Purpose: To provide an opportunity for informal discussion of professional problems. Meetings are not open to the public.

National Conference of Tuberculosis Secretaries (1923); 122 East 7th St., Los Angeles; James G. Stone, President.

Membership: Professional workers of national, state, county, city, and town anti-tuberculosis associations affiliated with the National Tuberculosis Association.

Purpose: To bring about a closer relation between its members, to work in close cooperation with and to extend the work of the National Tuberculosis Association, and to initiate methods by which secretaries of anti-tuberculosis associations in the United States may become more efficient in their work.

National Conference on Family Relations (1938); 1126 East 59th St., Chicago; E. W. Burgess, Ph.D., Secretary-Treasurer.

Membership: Individuals, 935; organizations, 4 regional and 17 state.

Purpose and Activities: To advance the cultural values that are now principally secured through family relations for the advantage of the individual and the strength of the nation. The Conference seeks to unite in this common objective persons now working in the different fields of family research and welfare: biology, child study, education, eugenics, family economics, family social work, family and marriage counseling, home economics, law, maternal health, medical care, parent education, parent-teacher work, psychiatry, psychology, religion, school and home visiting, social security, and sociology. The Conference has the following committees: Economic Basis of the Family, Education for Marriage and the Family, Eugenics and the Family, Marriage and Family Counseling, Marriage and Family Law, Marriage and Family Research, and Problems of Youth.

Periodical: Living, 4 issues yearly, $1.50 a year.

National Conference on State Parks (1921); 901 Union Trust Bldg., Washington, D. C.; Harlean James, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 756.

Purpose and Activities: To inform the public through a central clearing house of information and by publications, conferences, courses of training in schools and colleges, and other educational means of the value of state parks, historic sites, forests, and preserves for recreation, for study of natural history and science, and for preservation of wild life and conservation of natural scenery, by development within the states of well-balanced state park systems, to the end that every citizen of the United States shall have easy access to state recreation areas and appreciate their value as a recognized form of land-use.

Periodicals: Planning and Civic Comment, quarterly; Planning and Civic Annual (section on State Parks).

National Congress of Colored Parents and Teachers (1926); State Teachers College, Bowie, Md.; Leonidas S. James, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 30,000; organizations, 21 state and approximately 3,000 local.

Purpose and Activities: To promote child welfare in home, school, church, and community; to raise the standards of home life; to secure more adequate laws for the care and protection of women and children; to bring into closer relation rhe home and the school, that parents and teachers may cooperate intelligenrly in the training of the child; and to develop between educators and the general public such united efforts as will secure for every child the highest advantages in physical, mental, moral, and spiritual education. Activities include, among others, the following interests: child hygiene, home economics, eradication of illiteracy, juvenile protection, motion pictures, parent education study classes, preschool study clubs, recreation, social hygiene, summer round-up of children, and vocational education.

Periodical: Our National Family, quarterly, free.

National Congress of Parents and Teachers (1897); 600 South Michigan Blvd., Chicago; Mrs. William Kletzer, President.

Membership: Individuals, 2,379,599; organizations, 47 state branches, Alaska, the District of Columbia, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico, and approximately 28,000 local associations.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the welfare of children and youth in home, school, church, and community; to raise the standards of home life; to secure adequate laws for the care and protection of children and youth; to bring into closer relation the home and the school, that parents and teachers may cooperate intelligently in the training of the child; and to develop between educators and the general public such united efforts as will secure for every child the highest advantages in physical, mental, social, and spiritual education. The program of the Congress is built around home and family life, home-school cooperation, and community development. Among its committees are those which deal with the following subjects: art, character and spiritual education, child health and summer round-up of the children, citizenship, Congress publications, education for home and family life, exceptional child, high school service, international relations, juvenile protection, legislation, mental hygiene, motion pictures and visual education, music, parent education, radio, reading and library service, recreation, rural service, safety, school education, social hygiene, and study of the effects of alcohol and narcotics.

Periodicals: National Parent-Teacher Magazine, monthly except July and August, $1.00 a year; Convention Proceedings, annually, $1.50 a copy.

National Consumers League (1899); 114 East 32d St., New York; Mary Dublin, General Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 3,000; organizations, 18 in 16 states, each with its own membership.

Purpose: To awaken consumers' interest in their responsibility for conditions under which goods are made and distributed; to promote the enactment of minimum wage and maximum hour laws, the elimination of child labor and industrial home work, the regulation of night work, the extension of labor law coverage, and the enactment of health insurance legislation; to promote the acceptance of the principle of collective bargaining; and to further the effective enforcement of labor laws.

Periodical: Bulletin, quarterly, 50 cents a year.

National Council for Mothers and Babies (1938); 1710 Eye St., NW., Washington, D. C.; Mrs. Gordon Wagenet, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Organizations, 60 national.

Purpose and Activities: To bring to the national problem of providing better care for mothers and babies the combined strength, knowledge, and understanding of diversified national organizations. The Council offers consultation service and assistance with programs to state groups sponsoring programs of community cooperation in maternal care, formulates special discussion questions on the social and medical aspects of maternal and infant care, assists in providing leaders capable of stimulating cross-currents of discussion in this field to organizations for use in their own national conferences, and provides teaching materials from its member organizations and other sources to classes and discussion groups which may serve as teaching channels for better maternal health and environment. Meetings are held at intervals for the exchange of philosophies and practical procedures basic to the provision of better care for mothers and babies.

Periodical: Clearing House Notes, semimonthly, free, limited circulation.

National Council for the Physically Handicapped (1934); 2102 West Pierce St., Milwaukee; Oliver A. Friedman, President.

Membership: 8 national organizations: American Occupational Therapy Association, American So-

ciety for the Hard of Hearing, Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, National Association of Goodwill Industries, National Association of the Deaf, National Rehabilitation Association, National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, and National Tuberculosis Association.

Purpose: To serve as a clearing house and coordinating bureau for all member agencies; to provide a forum for discussion of problems affecting the physically handicapped; to conduct joint efforts in connection with reduction of incidence and causes of handicaps, publicity, legislation, and policies to secure wider social and economic opportunities for physically handicapped, as the member agencies shall agree upon; and to carry on research relating to the physically handicapped. The Council meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

National Council of Catholic Men

(1920); 1312 Massachusetts Ave., NW., Washington, D. C.; Edward J. Heffron, Executive Secretary.

Membership: National affiliated bodies, 12; constituent local bodies, 389 parish councils, 418 Knights of Columbus councils, 225 Holy Name Societies, and 167 other local Catholic societies.

Purpose and Activities: To represent under the guidance of the hierarchy the united voice of the Catholic laymen of the country in all matters of Catholic concern and matters affecting the general public welfare. The Council aims to organize a diocesan council in every diocese of the country, such councils federating but not supplanting any established organizations. It carries on adult education through its Catholic Evidence Bureau, and conducts the nation-wide weekly radio program known as the Catholic Hour. The Council is the Men's Branch of the Lay Organizations Department of the National Catholic Welfare Conference.

National Council of Catholic Women

(1920); 1312 Massachusetts Ave., NW., Washington, D. C.; Mrs. J. W. McCollum, President.

Membership: Organizations, approximately 3,500, of which 16 are national, 6 are state, and the others local.

Purpose and Activities: To serve as the medium through which Catholic women may speak and act as a unit on matters of public interest, to stimulate the efficiency and usefulness of existing organizations of Catholic women, to render assistance to the work of all local Catholic women's organizations, and to act as a lay organization for the National Catholic Welfare Conference. Among the Council's national committees are the following: Family and Parent Education, Immigration, Industrial Problems, Legislation, National Catholic School of Social Service, Parent-Teacher Associations, Study Clubs, and Youth Activities.

Periodical: Monthly Message, $1.00 a year.

National Council of Church Women

(1928); name changed in 1938 from National Council of Federated Church Women; 203 North Wabash Ave., Chicago; Mary C. Smith, President.

Activities: The Council is an interdenominational organization representing the Protestant church women of America. Its work is carried on through seven areas of study and action: the Bible in life, personal faith and experience, Christian family life, church life and outreach, community issues, major social problems, and world relations. These areas are developed in local councils of church women through departments and committees which seek to relate their work to the social and educational agencies of the communities.

National Council of Jewish Women

(1893); 1819 Broadway, New York; Mrs. Sophia M. Robison, Ph.D., Executive Director.

Membership: Individuals, 55,886; sections, 202; regional conferences, 10.

Purpose and Activities: To promote a program covering the following activities: international relations and peace, contemporary Jewish affairs, service to foreign born, and social legislation and social welfare.

Periodical: The Council Woman, quarterly, 35 cents a copy, $1.00 a year to members.

National Council of Parent Education

(1926); Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.; Joseph K. Folsom, Chairman and Agent of the Governing Board.

Membership: Individuals, 500; organizations and institutions, 35.

Activities: The Council is an association for the advancement of family life and functions as a service agency for workers and organizations in the field. Its activities include: furnishing a clearing house of information on problems of parent education and family life; giving professional stimulation and development by diffusing the results of research, providing opportunities for sharing experiences through conferences, assisting organizations and communities in the development of programs of family life education, and preparing bulletins and other activities; and stimulating and

guiding public interest in the field of family life through such activities as regional and state conferences. It secures representation of the movement for family life education through active service by board and staff members on committees, boards, and conferences of other organizations and professional groups.

Periodical: Bulletin of Family Research and Education, bimonthly, $1.50 a year.

National Council of Women of the United States (1888); 501 Madison Ave., New York; Charlotte Payne, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Organizations, 20 national.

Purpose and Activities: To unite member organizations in a national council affiliated with the International Council of Women, to serve as a clearing house for the dissemination of information concerning the activities and methods of organized womanhood, and to initiate and promote national projects which are in harmony with the general purposes and programs of member organizations. Among the Council's committees are the following: Citizenship, Consumer Interests, Economic Status of Women, Fine Arts, Human Relations, International Affairs, Letters, Music, Public Health, Radio, and Social Hygiene.

Periodical: Quarterly Bulletin.

National Council on Household Employment (1928); name changed in 1939 from National Committee on Household Employment; Haverford, Pa.; Amey E. Watson, Ph.D., Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 60; organizations, 3.

Purpose and Activities: To improve the relations between employer and employe in household employment, to develop and promote standards in the field of household employment, and to cooperate with organizations in their efforts to effect these objectives. The Council acts as a clearing house of information regarding household employment; seeks to educate the public as to the proper position of household employment in our occupational set-up; attempts to improve working conditions in this field, and to make them comparable to those in other occupations; seeks to attract desirable recruits; stimulares coordinated rraining program for workers and housewives; improves placement techniques; stimulares conference groups of employers and employes to work out standards of work and relationships in their communities; evaluates existing and proposed legislation affecting household employment; and stimulares research in this field.

National Council on Naturalization and Citizenship (1930); 29 Washington Sq., West, New York; Ruth Z. Bernstein, Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 175; organizations, 30.

Activities: The Council is a central agency which makes and publishes studies and assembles information about citizenship and naturalization laws, procedure, organized naturalization aid, and related matters. The Council meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

National Crime Commission (1925); 328 Tremont Bldg., Boston; J. Weston Allen, Chairman.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 120; organizations, affiliated state and local crime commissions.

Purpose: To study problems in relation to the reduction and punishment of crime from a national standpoint, and make practical and definite recommendations which can be used as a basis for legislation in the different states; to promote the creation of separate state and municipal crime commissions, and furnish them with general information; to coordinate the work of all agencies in the fields of crime prevention, the apprehension and prosecution of the criminal, and the treatment of the criminal afrer conviction; and to serve as a clearing house for the dissemination of information to officials, institutions, commissions, and all agencies concerned with the crime problem.

National Crime Prevention Institute (1936); New York University, New York; Frederic Thrasher, Acting Director.

Membership: Individuals, 206.

Purpose and Activities: To act as a clearing house of crime prevention information; to provide machinery for conference and voluntary cooperation looking toward the coordination of crime prevention activities in city, state, and nation; to develop and carry on crime prevention programs in areas of this field not now occupied by other agencies until such time as other agencies are ready to carry on such functions; and to promote public education for crime control through use of recognized channels of publicity, such as press, radio, motion picture, public meeting, and other available media.

National Desertion Bureau (1911); 71 West 47th St., New York; Charles Zunser, Secretary.

Membership: Organizations, 55 local Jewish federations and family welfare agencies.

Purpose: To locate Jewish family deserters; to induce them to reunite with or support their fami-

lies, or failing this to prosecute them according to law; to act in a general legal advisory capacity in matters of domestic relations; and to institute and contest matrimonial actions at the request of constituent agencies.

National Economic and Social Planning Association (1934); 1721 Eye St., NW., Washington, D. C.; E. J. Coil, Director.

Membership: Individuals, 650.

Activities: The Association studies techniques and methods of economic planning by national governments, promotes the study of specific economic and social problems requiring the formulation of coherent national policy and coordinated administrative action for the effective utilization of productive resources, and maintains contacts between persons interested in social and economic planning.

Periodicals: Plan Age, monthly, $2.50 a year; The NESPA Guide, monthly, $2.00 a year, $1.50 a year to members.

National Education Association of the United States (1857); 1201 16th St., NW., Washington, D. C.; W. E. Givens, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 203,429; affiliated organizations, 52 state and 1,040 local.

Purpose and Activities: To elevate the character and advance the interests of teaching and to promote the cause of education in the United States. The activities of the Association related to the field of social work are indicated by its departments of Adult Education, Garden Education (formerly School Garden Association of America), Home Economics, Lip Reading, Physical Education and Recreation (American Association of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation), Social Studies, and Vocational Guidance. Committees in this field include: Credit Unions, Cooperatives, Equal Opportunity, and Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education (with American Medical Association). The Women's Division, National Amateur Athletic Federation has merged with the American Association of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation.

Periodicals: Journal of the National Education Association, monthly except July, August, and September, $2.00 a year; Research Bulletins, 5 issues yearly, $1.00 a year; Proceedings, annually, $3.00 a copy.

National Education-Recreation Council (1933); Room 2000, 315 Fourth Ave., New York; E. C. Worman, Secretary.

Activities: The Council is an informal conference body of 19 national agencies, associated to exchange information and study common problems in the leisure-time field.

National Federation for Constitutional Liberties (1940); Room 100, 1410 H St., NW., Washington, D. C.; Rev. Owen A. Knox, Chairman.

Membership: 20 organizations devoted to defense of civil liberties and representative of a large number of local groups.

Purpose and Activities: To coordinate activities of all organizations concerned with the preservation and further realization of democratic rights guaranteed by the Constitution and the laws of the United States. The Federation's program includes maintenance of free speech, free press, free assembly, free worship, and freedom to petition the government; government protection for the alien and foreign born; preservation of labor's right to organize, bargain collectively, picket, and strike; no government orders for employers who fail to meet fair labor standards; halting the persecution of trade unions on the pretext that they are monopolies; abolition of the poll tax in the eight states in which it disfranchises American citizens; and passage of the federal anti-lynching law. Action letter and bulletins are published occasionally.

National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs (1919); 1819 Broadway, New York; Louise Franklin Bache, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 72,500; organizations, 1,650 local clubs in 48 state federations, the District of Columbia, Alaska, and Hawaii.

Activities: The Federation offers the alert business and professional woman opportunity to keep informed and to have a part in the solution of economic and social problems of vital importance to her. Through study, cooperation, and legislation it works for the advancement of women and helps young women toward better preparation for suitable occupations. The Federation takes the professional advancement of women as its special responsibility, exploring opportunities for women in fields of work, studying their progress in vocations, endeavoring to elevate standards in requirements and rewards, and trying to solve the problems attendant upon age.

Periodical: Independent Woman, monthly, $1.50 a year.

National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations (1909); 308 Midland Bldg., St. Paul; D. S. Coffey, Chairman.

Membership: Organizations, 19 local.

Purpose: To encourage and assist in the formation and management of remedial loan organizations throughout the country, and to give information and advice concerning legislation and problems of administration.

National Federation of Settlements (1911); 147 Avenue B, New York; Lillie M. Peck, Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 174; organizations, 155.

Purpose and Activities: To reinforce all phases of federated activity among neighborhood agencies, to bring together the results of settlement experience throughout the country, to secure capable recruits, to urge measures of state and national legislation suggested by settlement experience, and to promote the better organization of neighborhood life generally. Active departments include: Adults, Boys' and Girls' Work, Camp, Housing, Liquor Control and Lotteries, Music, Peace Education, Race Relations, Social Security, Visual Arts, and Young People's Work.

Periodicals: Monthly Bulletin; Round Table of Boys' and Girls' Work Division, 8 issues yearly.

National Florence Crittenton Mission (1883); 408 Duke St., Alexandria, Va.; Robert S. Barrett, D.C.L., President.

Membership: Organizations, 65.

Purpose: To promote the care of unmarried mothers and their children in its affiliated maternity homes and hospitals, and in general to promote preventive and protective work for young girls.

Periodical: Bulletin, quarterly, 50 cents a year.

National Forum on Deafness and Speech Pathology (1918); name changed in 1939 from Society of Progressive Oral Advocates; 818 South Kingshighway, St. Louis; Max A. Goldstein, M.D., President.

Membership: Individuals, 100.

Purpose and Activities: To investigate recent scientific trends in the education of the deaf, to demonstrate new speech methods, and to diffuse knowledge relating to oral and acoustic training. The organization is interested in the preschool deaf child and spastic children with speech defects; and in preventive measures, rehabilitation, education, and all phases of deafness and speech pathology.

National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis (1938); 120 Broadway, New York; Peter J. A. Cusack, Executive Secretary.

Purpose and Activities: To lead, direct, and unify the fight on every phase of infantile paralysis. The Foundation supports laboratory and clinical research in infantile paralysis, establishes standards for after-care, conducts educational programs, and supports public health authorities in efforts to control outbreaks of the disease. Local chapters are organized in various counties throughout the United States.

National Girls' Work Council (1925); 610 Lexington Ave., New York; Elizabeth Nye, Chairman.

Membership: Individuals and organizations, approximately 125.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the formulation and interchange of progressive methods in girls' work, to raise standards, and to strengthen and increase the effectiveness of protective and kindred organizations in social group work and social case work with girls. The Council meetings are held at the time of the National Conference of Social Work, of which it is an associate group.

Periodical: News Letter, quarterly.

National Group of Seamen's Agencies (1932); Room 1008, 72 Wall St., New York; Reginald L. McAll, Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 108; organizations, 4 national and 104 local.

Activities: Seamen's agencies in the United States and Canada are brought together in an annual meeting to discuss and act upon problems relating to the industrial, health, and social conditions of seamen. The Group exerts its influence in behalf of all measures that will improve these conditions, promotes special studies, and issues bulletins for its members. Its annual meetings are usually held at the time of the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodical: Proceedings of the Annual Meeting.

National Health Council (1921); 1790 Broadway, New York; Thomas C. Edwards, Business Manager.

Membership: 13 national organizations: American Heart Association, American National Red Cross, American Public Health Association, American Social Hygiene Association, American Society for the Control of Cancer, American Society for the Hard of Hearing, Conference of State and Provincial Health Authorities of North America, Maternity Center Association, National Committee for Mental Hygiene, National Committee of Health Council Executives, National Organization for Public Health Nursing, National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, and National Tuberculosis Association; 2 advisory members: U. S. Children's Bureau and U. S. Public Health Serv-

ice; 2 associate members: American Nurses' Association and Foundation for Positive Health.

Purpose and Activities: To coordinate the activities of its member organizations; to carry on joint projects in the field of public health, such as those engaged in by its several committees and its cooperative program on the prevention of congenital syphilis; and to provide a service department for carrying on office and field activities, publications, etc. The Council maintains the National Health Library. The National Health Series, consisting of 20 volumes, has been prepared under the auspices of the Council.

National Hospital Association (1923); 4666 South State St., Chicago; S. W. Smith, M.D., Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 60 physicians and nurses; hospitals, 40.

Purpose: To promote the general improvement of hospital conditions for Negroes, training of Negro nurses, adequate internships for young Negro doctors, and hospital facilities for Negro practitioners.

National Indian Association (1879); Room 1112, 156 Fifth Ave., New York; Mrs. Burlock E. Rabell, President.

Purpose and Activities: To teach industry, to give undenominational religious instruction to the Indians of the country, and to aid in their civilization. A mission is operated among the Paiutes and Shoshones at Yerington, Nev.

Periodical: Indian's Friend, bimonthly, 50 cents a year.

National Industries for the Blind (1938); 15 West 16th St., New York; C. C. Kleber, General Manager.

Purpose: To standardize and promote the sale of blind-made products on a non-profit basis, and to act as the allocating agency for orders for blind-made products received from the federal government. The organization was founded by the American Foundation for the Blind.

National Information Bureau (1917); 330 West 42d St., New York; Leonard J. Cushing, Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, firms, and organizations such as banks, chambers of commerce, churches, community chests, merchants' associations, newspapers, welfare departments, etc.

Activities: A cooperative effort for the standardization of social, civic, and philanthropic agencies in the national, international, and interstate field, and for the protection of the contributing public. After thorough investigation reports on such agencies are furnished to members. Free advisory service to organizations is maintained, including constructive help toward achieving acceptable standards of administration and financial control.

Periodical: Givers' Guide to National Philanthropies, annually, to members only.

National Institute of Immigrant Welfare (1935); 2 West 45th St., New York; Edith Terry Bremer, Executive Director.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 500; cooperating and affiliating organizations, 55, a majority of which are known as "International Institutes."

Purpose and Activities: To develop permanent work in local communities for the protection, education, social adjustment, and civic advancement of foreign-born men and women with their American-born sons and daughters; to maintain a national clearing center on standards and methods of foreign communities work; to prepare a national conference annually; and to advise on personnel and training for this field. Activities include organizing local foreign community agencies; maintaining a case consultation service for member agencies on technical immigration, deportation, and naturalization problems; aiding local communities in the development of an adequate immigrant welfare program and non-citizens' guidance service; furthering the exchange of experience on tested methods of foreign community work including the organization of folk festivals, folk art exhibits, and adult education programs; maintaining a nation-wide system in connection with immigration stations leading to the follow-up of new arrivals in local communities; sponsoring studies of social conditions in immigrant communities; conducting research regarding the treatment of aliens; and working for wider recognition of the contributions of foreign-born citizens and better understanding between native and foreign born. The National Institute Conference of International Institutes, Local Councils and Leagues for the Foreign Born (formerly the National Conference of International Institutes) functions under the National Institute of Immigrant Welfare, and meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

National Jail Association (1938); 135 East 15th St., New York; Roberts J. Wright, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 800.

Purpose and Activities: To band together all those concerned with or interested in the custody and care of persons awaiting trial, serving sentence, or

otherwise confined in jails, with a view to improving the conditions and systems under which such persons are treated. The Association is an affiliate of the American Prison Association, and with that Association is the sponsor of The Prison World, a publication devoted to the progressive administration of jails, prisons, reformatories, and other penal and correctional institutions.

Periodical: The Prison World, bimonthly, $2.00 a year (published in cooperation with the American Prison Association).

National Kindergarten Association (1909); 8 West 40th St., New York; Bessie Locke, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 2,250.

Purpose and Activities: To have kindergartens provided for all of the nation's children; therefore to get more public kindergartens opened and better kindergarten laws enacted. Field secretaries are employed in every state. Weekly articles dealing with child behavior problems, prepared by experts, are issued free to 679 home demonstration agents through whom they benefit 437,000 homes, and to 1,039 newspapers and magazines in the United States through which they reach a circulation of over 32,000,000.

National League for American Citizenship (1913); 405 Lexington Ave., New York; Sarah Fishman, Office Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 6,000; organizations, 125.

Activities: The League is the oldest naturalization organization in the country. It interests immigrants in ideals of citizenship, assists in plans for adult education, helps those who wish to become citizens, seeks to bring about an active public interest in the Americanization of immigrants, assists other organizations not equipped to handle naturalization work, and renders general aid to the foreign born.

National League of Nursing Education (1893); 1790 Broadway, New York; Claribel A. Wheeler, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 6,171; organizations, 40.

Purpose and Activities: To consider all questions relating to nursing education and standards for schools of nursing, and to cooperate with health and educational agencies in the promotion of health teaching. Activities include research and study, accrediting of schools of nursing, preparation of books and pamphlets, and organization of an annual convention for the discussion of the organization's objectives. The League functions as the Department of Education of the American Nurses' Association.

National League of Women Voters (1920); 726 Jackson Pl., Washington, D. C.; Marguerite M. Wells, President.

Membership: Affiliated state leagues, with local branches in 30 states and the District of Columbia.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the responsible participation of women in government. Activities of state and local leagues in the field of social work include study of standards of public responsibility for child welfare, legal and industrial standards for women, state and local organization for public health and public welfare, relief, housing, federal-state employment service, old age assistance, unemployment insurance, and support of necessary governmental policies or legislation.

Periodical: News Letter, 20 issues yearly as news develops, $1.00 a year.

National League to Promote School Attendance (1911); name changed in 1938 from National League of Compulsory Education Officials; 3 East 25th St., Chicago; Martin M. Hihn, Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 400.

Purpose: To promote the educational welfare of children.

Periodical: Proceedings, annually, $2.00 a copy.

National Medical Association (1895); 1108 Church St., Norfolk, Va.; J. T. Givens, M.D., General Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 4,500; organizations, 8 national, 40 state, and 78 local.

Purpose: To further the many and varied interests of the Negro doctor, dentist, pharmacist, nurse, intern, technician, medical student, and patient which are consistent with standard medical practice in the various states; and to keep members informed regarding health statistics and disease control.

Periodical: National Medical Association Journal, bimonthly, $3.00 a year.

National Medical Council on Birth Control (1936); Room 1704, 501 Madison Ave., New York; Woodbridge E. Morris, M.D., Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 76 physicians.

Purpose: To establish and control all medical policies of the Birth Control Federation of America; to advance education in the techniques of contra-

ception through medical schools, postgraduate seminars, and institutes on public health administration; to formulate standards for contraceptive practice and materials; and to initiate and correlate applied research in the clinical application of birth control.

National Music Week Committee (1924); 45 West 45th St., New York; C. M. Tremaine, Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, representatives of 33 national agencies.

Purpose: To promote the observance of National Music Week annually, beginning with the first Sunday in May, with the local cooperation of schools, churches, clubs, stores, musical societies, music teachers, music dealers, and municipal authorities.

National Negro Congress (1935); 717 Florida Ave., NW., Washington, D. C.; John P. Davis, National Secretary.

Membership: Affiliated national and local organizations, 3,345.

Purpose and Activities: To coordinate and unify the efforts of Negro organizations and friends of Negro freedom in their attempt to win full social and economic rights for the Negro. Affiliated local councils in more than 72 cities plan and act cooperatively on measures advancing Negro welfare. The Congress supports and initiates campaigns to organize Negro workers, to defend the civil liberties of Negroes and workers, and to improve the status of Negro women and youth; and works for effective and adequate local, state, and national programs for meeting the educational, health, and housing needs of Negroes without discrimination with respect to geographical areas, and for security against old age, unemployment, and want. It has a working agreement with Labor's Non-Partisan League under which Negro and white workers are brought into closer cooperation.

Periodical: National Bulletin, monthly.

National Organization for Public Health Nursing (1912); 1790 Broadway, New York; Dorothy Deming, R.N., General Director.

Membership: Individuals, 10,359; agencies, 351.

Purpose and Activities: To promote and make more effective all types of public health nursing services throughout the country: through the development of standards in policies, practices, and qualifications; through contact with local, state, and national agencies administering public health services; and through cooperative relationships with other national health and social agencies. Activities include advisory and consultation service, the approving of university programs of study in public health nursing, field studies, special statistical studies, and the development of lay interest and participation in this field of community service.

Periodicals: Public Health Nursing, monthly, $3.00 a year, $2.00 to members; Listening In, quarterly, 10 cents a copy.

National Parks Association (1919); 1624 H St., NW., Washington, D. C.; Edward B. Ballard, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 600.

Purpose and Activities: To give the entire nation a voice in maintaining the standards of America's national primeval parks; in protecting these parks against harmful interference; and in supporting the preservation, development, and use of all federal reservations under administration of the National Park Service for the continuing refreshment, education, and inspiration of the American people. The Association is a private membership organization, nation-wide and non-political, which carries on its work through the cooperation of a large number of other associations, federations, leagues, societies, councils, and clubs throughout the country, which are interested in the preservation of natural and related resources.

Periodicals: National Parks Bulletin, quarterly; National Parks News Service, occasional issues.

National Physicians' Committee for the Extension of Medical Service (1939); Room 1931, 55 East Washington St., Chicago; John M. Pratt, Executive Administrator.

Purpose and Activities: To make possible the providing of medical service to the indigent and those in the low-income groups; to secure the most widespread distribution of the most effective methods and equipment in medicine and surgery; and to counter destructive propaganda by familiarizing the public with the facts in connection with the methods and the achievements of American medicine. The organization's Central Committee is made up of 452 members, including representatives of all 48 states.

National Prisoners' Aid Association (1910); 412 Youngerman Bldg., Des Moines; Charles Parsons, Secretary-Treasurer.

Membership: Individuals, 60; organizations, 3 national, 20 state, and 5 local.

Purpose and Activities: To develop and extend work for prisoners including prison visitation, inspection of correctional institutions, assistance to prisoners, probation, parole, legislation, research,

and public education on the problems of penology and criminology.

National Probation Association (1907); 1790 Broadway, New York; Charles L. Chute, Executive Director.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 16,000.

Purpose and Activities: To study and standardize methods of probation and parole work, both juvenile and adult, by conferences, field investigations, and research; to extend and develop the probation system by legislation, the publication and distribution of literature, and in other ways; to promote the establishment and development of juvenile courts, domestic relations or family courts, and other specialized courts using probation; and to cooperate with local, state, and national organizations to bring about rational treatment and prevention of delinquency and crime. The Association meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodicals: Probation, bimonthly, $1.00 a year; The Yearbook (Proceedings of the Annual Conference), $1.25 a copy (paper), $1.75 (boards).

National Public Housing Conference (1931); 122 East 22d St., New York; Helen Alfred, Executive Director.

Membership: Individuals and organizations, approximately 1,000.

Purpose: To stimulate a wider interest in securing homes of modern standards of health, sanitation, and safety at rents within the means of low-income wage workers, through the development of a nation-wide program of slum clearance and low-rent public housing.

Periodical: Public Housing Progress, monthly.

National Recreation Association (1906); 315 Fourth Ave., New York; Howard Braucher, General Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 8,800.

Purpose and Activities: To promote a program whose purpose is that every child in America may have a chance to play, and that all persons, young and old, may have an opportunity to find the best and most satisfactory manner of using leisure time. To this end urban and rural localities are assisted to obtain or develop more and better facilities or activities of the following kinds: children's playgrounds, neighborhood playfields, and other recreation areas; family play in the home; music, drama, arts and crafts, and gardening; recreation buildings and wider use of school buildings for recreation; opportunities for hiking and nature study; volunteer and paid leadership; organization and administration of local recreation work; state and local legislation for recreation; city planning for play and recreation; year-round recreation programs serving all community groups; and trained and competent recreation executives to give full time to planning and administering local recreation work.

Periodicals: Recreation Bulletin Service, biweekly except August, $2.50 a year; Recreation, monthly, $2.00 a year.

National Refugee Service, Inc. (1934); name changed in 1939 from National Coordinating Committee for Aid to Refugees and Emigrants Coming from Germany; 165 West 46th St., New York; William Haber, Ph.D., Executive Director.

Membership: Individuals, 94; organizations, 41 state and 700 local.

Activities: The service offers, through the cooperation of 700 local committees, a program of planned resettlement to refugees from Central Europe; provides advice on immigration problems; grants temporary cash assistance; and offers employment, vocational retraining, and social and cultural adjustment opportunities to refugees. Specialized service is made available to refugee children, physicians, ministers, musicians, scholars, and business men. The Service is non-sectarian in scope, although parts of its program deal mainly with Jewish refugees.

Periodical: Quarterly Reports, free.

National Rehabilitation Association (1925); State Capitol, Frankfort, Ky.; Homer W. Nichols, Secretary-Treasurer.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 50,000, including associate and organization members.

Activities: The Association provides a forum in which rehabilitation for disabled citizens may be discussed, plans programs and develops them from a national as well as a state viewpoint, conducts a campaign of education to bring the general public to an adequate understanding of the rehabilitation movement, and promotes comity between agents interested in social welfare work and the physically handicapped person.

Periodical: National Rehabilitation News, bimonthly, $1.00 a year.

National Religion and Labor Foundation (1932); 106 Carmel St., New Haven; Willard Uphaus, Ph.D., Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 750; organizations, 1 national, 2 regional, and 12 local.

Purpose and Activities: To develop and express a ministry of interpretation and understanding between the religious and labor movements in the United States; and to unite them in fellowship and action for the common objectives of brotherhood, justice, and peace. The Foundation is an interfaith fellowship including Catholics, Jews, and Protestants in which organized labor plays a bona fide role. The activities include: setting up traveling economic seminars to help teachers and ministers make first hand studies of social and economic problems, exchanging fraternal delegates between church and labor bodies, defending workers whose rights have been violated, setting up conferences, holding hearings, working for progressive labor legislation, and publishing special reports.

Periodical: Economic Justice, monthly October to May inclusive, 25 cents a year.

National Research Council (1916); 2101 Constitution Ave., Washington, D. C.; Ross G. Harrison, Ph.D., Chairman.

Membership: Individuals, 220 (appointive), including representatives from 83 scientific and technical societies in cooperative but not constituent relationship, and a limited number of members-at-large.

Purpose and Activities: To encourage and support research in the natural sciences, in cooperation with government agencies, educational institutions, scientific societies, industrial corporations, and individual scientists. Among committees of the Council having a bearing upon social problems are those dealing with: biological processes of aging, child development, drug addiction, human heredity, land classification, problems of deafness, problems of neurotic behavior, the psychology of the highway, research in problems of sex and endocrinology, statistics, and wild life and nature reserves.

National Safety Council (1913); 20 North Wacker Dr., Chicago; W. H. Cameron, Managing Director.

Membership: Approximately 5,000, representing the following types of organizations: industrial, commercial, public utility, transportation, and insurance companies; municipal and state departments of public safety; local safety councils; chambers of commerce; automobile clubs; schools; libraries; and civic organizations.

Purpose and Activities: To prevent accidental injury at work, at home, on the highways, and in other public places; and to prevent occupational disease. Among the Council's principal service divisions are Child Safety, Industrial Safety, and Public Safety.

Periodicals: National Safety News (official organ), Public Safety, Safety Education, Industrial Supervisor, Safe Worker, Safe Driver, all monthly.

National Social Work Council (1922); 1790 Broadway, New York; David H. Holbrook, Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, representing 28 national organizations and 1 council of national organizations.

Purpose and Activities: To provide a means through which those responsible for nationally organized social work, either as volunteers or as professional social workers, may more readily exchange information; to provide for regular conference between leaders; and through committees of the Council to provide for the investigation and study of common problems. Included in the Council are national agencies and groups of such agencies, either formally or informally organized.

National Social Workers' Club Committee (1939); 1526 Broadway Ave., Indianapolis; Arthur W. Potts, Secretary.

Purpose: To encourage the organization of social work clubs; to analyze the number of social workers engaged in the practice of social work and the relative number in the various phases of social work, such as group work, statistics and research, community organization, administrative social work, and case work; to analyze the education, experience, and qualifications of sample groups of the practicing social work population; to determine the geographical distribution of persons practicing social work; to determine the general location of possible social work clubs; to prepare a statement of membership requirements; and to analyze the cost of program operation on a national, state, and local basis. The Committee is composed of 20 members.

National Society for Crippled Children of the United States of America (1939); successor in the United States to the International Society for Crippled Children; 314 Masonic Temple, Elyria, Ohio; E. Jay Howenstine, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Organizations, 40 state.

Purpose and Activities: To organize and develop state societies for the welfare of crippled children and the physically handicapped, to establish necessary state and federal legislation for the care, education, and rehabilitation of the physically handicapped; to coordinate the program in all its phases for the best interest of the physically handicapped; to conduct an institute for training administrators in this field of work; to maintain a Bureau of Information; and to issue periodical literature and

other bulletins. The Society meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodical: The Crippled Child, bimonthly, $1.00 a year.

National Society for the Friendless (1900); formerly Society for the Friendless; 360 Cypress St., Garden Grove, Calif.; Rev. James Parsons, National Superintendent.

Membership: Organizations, 14 state.

Activities: These include supervision and friendly guidance of paroled and discharged prisoners, employment finding, prison visitation and friendly contact with men in prison, prevention of disintegration of the family and home of the prisoner while he is incarcerated, relief to the prisoner and his family, crime prevention, and character building. The Society also coordinates and supervises the work of the constituent state organizations and serves as a clearing house for the same.

Periodicals: First Friend, quarterly, 25 cents a year; Institutional First Friend, quarterly, free.

National Society for the Prevention of Blindness (1915); 1790 Broadway, New York; Mrs. Eleanor Brown Merrill, Executive Director.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 17,000.

Purpose and Activities: To ascertain causes of blindness or impaired vision, to advocate measures leading to the elimination of such causes, to bring the knowledge of eye hygiene in popular form to children and adults, and to act as a clearing house and stimulating agent for others engaged directly or indirectly in the prevention of blindness. Among the services carried on by the Society are: combating prenatal syphilis, preventing eye infections of new-born babies and eye accidents in child play, promoting eye examination for preschool children and eye health in the school program, promoting the integration of eye health programs in teacher education, establishing sight-saving classes and training special teachers, developing medical social service in eye clinics, eliminating eye hazards in industry, stimulating and sponsoring research in relation to the causes of blindness and impaired vision, providing the public with information concerning the care and use of the eyes, and serving as a clearing house on all matters pertaining to the prevention of blindness and the conservation of vision. The Committee on Statistics of the Blind, appointed in 1929 to study problems of statistics of blindness and the blind and to make recommendations for improvement of such data, is sponsored jointly by the Society and the American Foundation for the Blind. The Society meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodicals: Sight-Saving Review, quarterly, $2.00 a year; News Letter, occasional issues; Sight-Saving Class Exchange, 4 issues yearly; Medical Social Workers in Eye Services News, 2 issues yearly; free.

National Society for the Study of Education (1895); Clifton, Mass.; Guy M. Whipple, Secretary-Treasurer.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 1,500.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the investigation and discussion of educational questions. The Society holds annual meetings in February at the same time as the American Association of School Administrators, a department of the National Education Association. It has published yearbooks on Health and Education, The City School as a Community Center, Vocational Guidance and Vocational Education for Industries, Preschool and Parent Education, Educational Guidance, and other similar topics of interest to social workers.

National Travelers Aid Association (1917); name changed in 1938 from National Association for Travelers Aid and Transient Service; 425 Fourth Ave., New York; Bertha McCall, General Director.

Membership: Cooperating representatives, 1,044 covering 1,374 cities; organizations, 97 covering 509 cities.

Purpose and Activities: To provide an essential correlation of the service and development of the travelers aid organizations and transient service of the United States through the work of field representatives, the collection and distribution of information, the arrangement of district meetings and institutes, and the securing of cooperating representatives. The Association meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodical: The Transient, quarterly, 50 cents a year.

National Tuberculosis Association (1904); 1790 Broadway, New York; Kendall Emerson, M.D., Managing Director.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 1,600; organizations, 1,679 associations and 842 committees.

Purpose and Activities: To study tuberculosis in all its forms and relations; to disseminate knowledge concerning the causes, treatment, and prevention of tuberculosis; to stimulate, unify, and standardize the work of the various anti-tuberculosis agencies throughout the country, especially the

state and local associations; to cooperate with all other health organizations in the coordination of health activities; and to promote international relations in connection with health activities in the study and control of tuberculosis. The Association serves as a clearing house for research, information, advice, and literature dealing with tuberculosis work. It meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodicals: American Review of Tuberculosis, monthly, $8.00 a year; Bulletin, monthly, free; Tuberculosis Abstracts, monthly, 50 cents a year; Transactions, annually, $3.00 a copy.

National Urban League (1910); 1133 Broadway, New York; Eugene Kinckle Jones, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 25,000; organizations, 44.

Purpose: To make investigations among Negroes in cities, to promote social work among Negroes until other agencies extend their programs to include them, to conduct activities through the League machinery until a demonstration is made and the work is assumed by some other agency, to provide for the training of Negro social workers, and to further the industrial advancement of the Negro.

Periodical: Opportunity, monthly, $1.50 a year.

National Vocational Guidance Association (1908); 425 West 123d St., New York; Ralph B. Kenney, Ph.D., Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 3,468; organizations, 60.

Purpose: To unite all of those persons engaged in or interested in any phase of vocational guidance in the United States into one national organization, and into branch organizations representing specific localities or specific problems of guidance; to encourage the formation of branch vocational guidance associations; to encourage experimentation in and the establishment of vocational guidance service in communities of the United States; to formulate standards and principles; and to gather and disseminate information regarding problems of and progress in vocational guidance.

Periodical: Occupations: The Vocational Guidance Magazine, 8 issues yearly, $3.50 a year.

National Woman's Christian Temperance Union (1874); 1730 Chicago Ave., Evanston, Ill.; Mrs. Anna Marden DeYo, Corresponding Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 600,000; organizations, 56 state and territorial branches, with 10,000 local unions.

Purpose and Activities: To promote activities for the protection of the home, the abolition of the liquor traffic, and the triumph of Christ's golden rule in custom and in law. Among the divisions of the organization's work are those relating to alcohol education, Christian citizenship, child welfare, character education, health, and radio.

Periodicals: Union Signal, weekly, $1.00 a year; Young Crusader, monthly, 35 cents a year.

National Women's Trade Union League of America (1903); 307 Machinists Bldg., Washington, D. C.; Elisabeth Christman, Secretary-Treasurer.

Membership: Organizations, 18.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the following program: organization of workers into trade unions, the shorter work-week in order to spread employment and increase the individual worker's leisure, a standard of living commensurate with the nation's productive capacity, equal pay for equal work regardless of sex or race, cooperation with trade union women of other countries, and international cooperation to abolish war. The program falls into three groupings—organization, education (workers' classes and special educational features), and legislation.

Periodical: Life and Labor Bulletin, mimeographed, monthly.

Navy Relief Society (1904); 1047 Navy Department, Washington, D. C.; Rear Admiral Spencer S. Wood, U.S.N., Secretary-Treasurer.

Purpose and Activities: To collect funds and provide relief for dependent widows, minor orphan children, and mothers of deceased officers and enlisted men of the regular Navy and Marine Corps of the United States; and to aid in securing employment for such widows and mothers and in the education of such orphan children. The aid of the Society may also be extended in special cases of distress to persons of the regular Navy and Marine Corps or to the members of their families.

Needlework Guild of America (1885); 1201 Chestnut St., Philadelphia; Rosamond K. Bender, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 1,300,000; branches, 750 in 42 states.

Purpose and Activities: To collect new garments annually and distribute them to hospitals, homes, and other charities; and to extend the Guild's usefulness by the organization of branches. The Guild cooperates with the American National Red

Cross in disaster relief. It is affiliated with the General Federation of Women's Clubs and is a member of the National Conference of Social Work.

New York Foundation (1909); 87 Nassau St., New York; William F. Fuetst, Secretary.

Purpose and Activities: To apply its income to such altruistic purposes (charitable, benevolent, educational, or otherwise) as the trustees may determine. Grants have been made to certain social and educational agencies, and studies have been made by some of them.

North American Civic League (1908); 92 State St., Boston; Joseph Spano, Field Secretary.

Activities: Bureaus of information for non-English-speaking people are maintained and branch offices function in New England. The activities are patriotic, educational, and protective.

Nurse Placement Service (1931); 8 South Michigan Ave., Chicago; Anna L. Tittman, R.N., Executive Director.

Activities: The Service functions nationally in all fields of nursing except private duty nursing. Its principal activities are placement and vocational counseling of nurses, and in addition, it gives services to hospital technicians and record librarians. The placement and counseling staff are all members of the nursing profession. The Service operates on a non-profit basis. It is organized and sponsored by the Midwest Division of the American Nurses' Association and is approved by the National Organization for Public Health Nursing as a bureau for placement and counseling in public health nursing.

Nutrition Clinics, Inc. (1929); 290 Commonwealth Ave., Boston; William R. P. Emerson, M.D., President.

Activities: These include the organization of a physical fitness service for younger children and those of school and college age chiefly to correct malnutrition, and for adults to correct physical unfitness; cooperation with all child-helping agencies and boards of health and education; institutes for the special training of nutrition and physical fitness workers; and the publication and distribution at cost of forms for carrying on the work and reprints of articles on health.

Osborne Association (1932); 114 East 30th St., New York; Austin H. MacCormick, Executive Director.

Membership: Individuals, 1,000.

Purpose and Activities: To study present methods of dealing with juvenile and adult offenders, from their arrest to their final release from institutions or from parole; especially to collect the facts about American penal and correctional institutions, and to put the facts so gathered before the public; to suggest better and more effective methods of dealing with crime and the offender on the part of the police, the courts, the institutions, and the probation and parole authorities; to work for such an administration of criminal justice and such a correctional system as shall give society the largest measure of protection; to promote the development of correctional institutions and agencies with adequate and well-trained staffs and well-rounded programs for the individualized training and treatment of the offender; and to help released prisoners in their problems of readjustment, by securing employment and giving such other assistance as they may require. The Association maintains a special Research Bureau for the purpose of collecting data on institutional conditions and administration, and on penal and correctional legislation. It conducts surveys of both juvenile and adult institutions on a nation-wide basis and publishes the reports in its Handbook of American Prisons and Reformatories and Handbook of American Institutions for Delinquent Juveniles.

Periodical: News Bulletin, bimonthly, $1.00 a year.

Pathfinders of America (1914); 12193 Ilene Ave., Detroit; J. F. Wright, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 1,500 adults and 300,000 students; organizations, 50 in 6 states and in foreign countries.

Activities: The organization promotes and carries on a moral training program in human engineering in public, private, and parochial schools; and conducts educational work among prisoners, so that while still in prison they may fit themselves for release. The activities are non-religious.

People's Lobby (1928); 1410 H St., NW., Washington, D. C.; Benjamin C. Marsh, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 2,450.

Purpose and Activities: To represent the common interests of the common people in relation to federal legislation. Its recent interests include unemployment insurance; taxation of incomes, estates, and land values; public ownership of natural resources, natural monopolies, and basic industries; and government farming and marketing corporations.

Periodical: People's Lobby Bulletin, monthly, $1.00 a year.

Personnel Research Federation (1921); 60 East 42d St., New York; Charles S. Slocombe, Director.

Membership: A federation of industrial corporations, educational institutions, social agencies, research bureaus, governmental agencies, and individuals.

Purpose: To collaborate with industrial, educational, governmental, and social agencies engaged in advancing and applying knowledge about people and their occupations; and to encourage research on vocational and professional opportunities, individual aptitudes, working conditions, and employer-employe relations, in the interest of more satisfactory vocational adjustments.

Periodical: Personnel Journal, monthly except July and August, $5.00 a year.

Phelps-Stokes Fund (1911); 101 Park Ave., New York; Thomas Jesse Jones, Ph.D., Educational Director.

Activities: The Fund has devoted its major attention to Negro education and race relations in the United States and Africa, and the improvement of New York City housing conditions. In the field of social work it has sponsored the University Commission on Race Relations, the Commission on Interracial Cooperation, and various interracial institutes, making the problem of relations between the white and Negro groups in this country one of its major interests. A survey with special reference to New York City entitled Slums and Housing was published in 1936.

Pioneer Youth of America (1924); 219 West 29th St., New York; Walter Frank, Treasurer.

Membership: Individuals, 825 adults.

Purpose and Activities: To build strong, healthy, and well-balanced bodies and minds in boys and girls between the ages of 8 and 16; to cultivate through creative activity their power to think clearly and freely and act courageously; to acquaint them with the social and economic problems that face the world; and to develop in them a sense of social responsibility and justice. Activities include coeducational camping; neighborhood clubs conducting craft work, dramatics, discussions, hikes, and sports; industrial trips to acquaint children with the place of workers in modern society; and summer play schools. The organization is sponsored by trade unions, and assistance has been given many trade unions in starting their own children's activities in junior unions.

Periodical: Pioneer Youth Bulletin, quarterly.

Pollak Foundation for Economic Research (1920); Newton, Mass.; William T. Foster, Ph.D., Director.

Purpose and Activities: To promote studies of the means whereby the economic activities of the world may be so directed, and the products so distributed, as to yield to the people generally the largest possible satisfaction. Studies have been published on cycles of unemployment, industrial accidents, real wages, group practice and group payment of medical care, instalment selling and financing, consumer credit, and other subjects.

Presbyterian Church in the United States, Committee on Social and Moral Welfare (1934); 201 Washington St., SW., Atlanta, Ga.; Stuart R. Oglesby, D.D., Chairman.

Activities: The Committee's activities are confined to a study of social and moral conditions during the year. The results of that study are reported to each General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church with recommendations for action on the part of the Assembly.

Presbyterian Church in the United States of America, Board of National Missions (1923); 156 Fifth Ave., New York; Rev. E. Graham Wilson, D.D., General Secretary.

Activities: The Board administers the missionary work of the denomination in this country. Included in its program are community centers, work among migrants, and other types of social work.

Presbyterian Church in the United States of America, Department of Social Education and Action, Board of Christian Education (1923); 917 Witherspoon Bldg., Philadelphia; Cameron P. Hall, Director.

Purpose: To develop in the Church a sense of responsibility for decisive action based on accurate information and Christian attitudes with reference to economic and industrial relations, war and peace, racial and group problems, family relationships, temperance, and other social questions; to present to the leaders in the Church a practical and constructive plan of social education and action; to make available to leaders of all groups in the Church suitable materials for carrying on such a program; and to cooperate with other organizations and agencies in the promotion of these purposes.

Periodicals: Social Progress, monthly, 50 cents a year; Report of the Standing Committee of Gen-

eral Assembly on Social Education and Action, annually.

Presbyterian Fellowship for Social Action (1935); King Ferry, N. Y.; Rev. G. Shubert Frye, Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 240.

Activities: These include active participation in efforts to promote world peace, civil liberties, economic justice, better race relations, and interchurch and inter-faith cooperation on all lines pertaining to the common welfare; careful scrutiny of proposed social legislation and of areas of industrial disturbance with a view to discerning the ethical issues involved; issuance of news letters and printed matter for information and suggested action on the part of individual Christians or church groups; encouraging or sponsoring regional and seasonal conferences for ministers and laymen and young people; and establishing and maintaining fraternal relationships with church, labor, or business groups in the interests of social justice.

President's Advisory Committee on Political Refugees (1938); 122 East 22d St., New York; George L. Warren, Executive Secretary.

Activities: The Committee assists the President, the Department of State, and the Intergovernmental Committee in London on the broader aspects of the problem of refugees. Specifically it receives and studies suggestions for projects of colonization and correlates public and private efforts in the treatment of the total problem. The Committee was appointed by the President in April, 1938.

Progressive Education Association (1918); 221 West 57th St., New York; Frederick L. Redefer, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 11,000.

Purpose and Activities: To seek new uses, new equipment, new methods, and new ideas in the profession of education. The Association is a nation-wide organization serving all levels of education in public and private schools. Its classroom experiments of yesterday have become the accepted practices of today. It functions through the publication of books, special reports, and a periodical, Progressive Education; through the work of national committees; by organizing national and regional conferences, special meetings, summer workshops, and radio talks; by providing speakers; and by organizing and assisting study groups.

Periodical: Progressive Education, 8 issues yearly, $3.00 a year.

Protestant Episcopal Church, National Council, Department of Christian Social Relations (1919); 281 Fourth Ave., New York; Rev. Almon R. Pepper, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Provincial departments, 8; diocesan departments, 90.

Purpose and Activities: To stimulate and coordinate the social service work of the dioceses and provinces of the Episcopal Church, to improve standards of parochial social service, to provide advisory and consultative service to Episcopal social institutions (homes for children, homes for the aged, hospitals, maternity care, and settlements) and agencies, to direct the Episcopal Social Work Conference, and to conduct conferences on social relations and relations between capital and labor. The Department includes a Division of Industrial Relations and the Episcopal Committee for European Refugees.

Public Administration Clearing House (1931); 1313 East 60th St., Chicago; Louis Brownlow, Director.

Purpose and Activities: To facilitate the interchange of information, points of view, ideas, and experience among organizations of public officials, organizations of citizens, and other groups which are planning for improvements in the administrative technique of government; to encourage closer cooperation among these groups; and to assist in making available to each group the information and technical resources and experience at the disposal of other organizations, thus preventing overlapping of program and duplication of effort. The organization publishes biennially a directory of agencies in the field of public administration, calls special conferences, maintains a personnel exchange service, and disseminates information concerning significant developments in the field of public administration.

Public Administration Service (1926); 1313 East 60th St., Chicago; David L. Robinson, Jr., Executive Director.

Membership: 13 national organizations: American Municipal Association, American Public Welfare Association, American Public Works Association, American Society of Planning Officials, Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, Council of State Governments, Federation of Tax Administrators, International City Managers' Association, Municipal Finance Officers' Association, National Association of Assessing Officers, National Association of Housing Officials, National Municipal League, and Public Administration Clearing House.

Activities: The Service furnishes cities, counties, states, and the federal government with advisory services on public welfare and other governmental problems; makes administrative surveys, reorganizes departments and offices, improves operating procedures, and drafts laws; and conducts research projects in public administration and in devising systems for scientific measurement and control of government activities. The Publications Division publishes monographs and books covering varied problems of governmental administration, designed chiefly to aid operating officials but published for general sale; and serves constituent organizations as editorial and publication agency. Branch offices function in Berkeley and Boston.

Public Affairs Committee (1936); 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York; S. M. Keeny, Secretary.

Purpose: To make available in summary and inexpensive form the results of research on social and economic problems to aid in the understanding and development of American policy. The sole purpose of the Committee is educational. It has no economic or social program of its own to promote, and it will at no time disseminate controversial or partisan propaganda or otherwise attempt to influence legislation.

Periodical: Public Affairs Pamphlets, monthly, 10 cents a copy, $1.00 a year.

Reformed Church in America, General Synod's Committee on Social Welfare (1900); 156 Fifth Ave., New York; John A. Ingham, D.D., Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 15; organizations, 1 national.

Purpose: To consider national social issues and to present them to the Reformed Church in America with specific recommendations.

Periodical: Proceedings, annually, $1.00 a copy.

Refugee Economic Corporation (1934); 570 Lexington Ave., New York; Emery H. Komlos, Assistant Secretary.

Purpose and Activities: To effect the economic rehabilitation of refugees through the medium of agricultural and industrial colonization, loan funds, and programs of selective immigration. The Emigre Charitable Fund, a sister corporation, coordinates its charitable activities with the work of the Corporation. The scope of the work of both organizations is world-wide.

Regional Planning Association of America (1923); 56 West 45th St., New York; Lewis Mumford, Secretary.

Membership: A small group of experts particularly interested in regional planning.

Purpose: To promote research into fundamental problems of regionalism, regional planning, housing, and community planning.

Relief Society, Women's Auxiliary of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints (incorporated under the name of National Woman's Relief Society) (1842); 28 Bishop's Bldg., Salt Lake City; Mrs. Vera White Pohlman, General Secretary-Treasurer.

Membership: Individuals, 86,142; constituent groups, 2,077 local branches in 43 states, the District of Columbia, the territories of Hawaii and Alaska, and 21 foreign countries.

Purpose and Activities: To administer direct assistance to families in their homes with funds derived from voluntary contributions of members; to do preventive and corrective health work, particularly with respect to maternity and child care, with the interest derived from a special trust fund accumulated in the past by the members of the Society; and to conduct educational work through special institutes and conferences on social work, and through regular meetings (weekly, October through May; monthly, June through September) in all local branches for the study of uniform planned courses in theology, literature, home management, and social service, and for sewing for the needy. Groups of approximately 12 or less local branches are directed by a district board through district meetings, by visits to the local branches, and by correspondence. The districts are in turn directed by the General Board of the Society through semi-annual general conferences at the headquarters in Salt Lake City to which all districts send delegates, through an annual conference in each district to which the General Board sends a representative, through correspondence, and through the medium of the Society's monthly publication. The Society is the general social service organization of the Mormon Church. It is affiliated with the National Council of Women of the United States.

Periodical: Relief Society Magazine, monthly, $1.00 a year.

Rockefeller Foundation (1913); 49 West 49th St., New York; Mrs. Norma S. Thompson, Secretary.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the well-being of mankind throughout the world. The Founda-

tion's program is concerned with certain definite problems in the fields of medical science, natural science, social science, the humanities, and public health. Except to a limited degree in public health, it is not an operating agency. It contributes toward those activities of institutions and organizations which give promise of advancing the objectives of its program; and, in addition, in the field of public health, it cooperates with governments in the development of general public health activities and the study and control of certain diseases.

Rosenwald Fund (Julius Rosenwald Fund) (1917); 4901 Ellis Ave., Chicago; Edwin R. Embree, President.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the well-being of mankind. The chief programs are promotion of rural education; fellowships for Negroes and white southerners; and aid to the study of educational and social problems, especially in the area of race and culture.

Sage Foundation (Russell Sage Foundation) (1907); 130 East 22d St., New York; Shelby M. Harrison, General Director.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the improvement of social and living conditions in the United States. The members of the staff of the Foundation study social conditions and methods of social work; interpret the findings; make available the information by publications, conferences, and other means; and seek to stimulate action for social betterment. The several departments are: Charity Organization, Consumer Credit Studies, Delinquency and Penology (temporarily inactive), Industrial Studies, Library, Publications, Social Work Interpretation, Social Work Year Book, Statistics, and Surveys.

Salvation Army, The (1865); 120 West 14th St., New York; Edward J. Parker, National Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 4,821 officers in the United States; organizations, 1,638; institutions, 306.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the Kingdom of God in the hearts and lives of mankind, by varying methods adapted to prevailing conditions. Activities include Americanization, camps, children's homes, Christmas dinners, employment, eventide homes, family welfare, hotels, men's social service centers, missing friend's bureau, nurseries, open-air and indoor religious services, prison work, settlements, transient and emergency relief, visitation, women's homes and hospitals, and women's residences. The Army has four geographical units in the United States, with headquarters in Atlanta, Chicago, New York, and San Francisco. A commissioner is in charge of each unit. It meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodicals: War Cry, weekly, $3.50 a year; Young Soldier, weekly, $1.00 a year.

Save the Children Federation (1932); name changed in 1939 from Save the Children Fund; 1 Madison Ave., New York; John R. Voris, D.D., Executive Director and President.

Purpose and Activities: To serve underprivileged children, especially in neglected and undeveloped areas where no adequate private agencies exist for the general welfare of children; to study the needs of children in America and other lands; and to provide information regarding conditions and to arouse public opinion on child needs. The Federation is the American member of the Save the Children International Union. It is a non-political, non-sectarian organization. The principal field in America at present is the isolated regions of the Southern Appalachians where, in cooperation with the public schools, it serves in 100 impoverished counties. Abroad in its service to war refugee children the organization works with the International Union in Geneva, Switzerland, and the British Save the Children Fund in London. The Federation publishes bulletins, special brochures, and pamphlets at irregular intervals.

Science Research Associates (1937); 600 South Michigan Ave., Chicago; Robert K. Burns, Director of Research.

Activities: This organization conducts research in occupational and technological trends, employment opportunities, job descriptions and qualifications, and sources and use of occupational material. It issues five publications, four of which are monthly, and distributes these to several thousand schools, libraries, and government agencies throughout the country.

Periodicals: Occupational Monographs, monthly, $5.00 a year; Vocational Trends, monthly, $2.50 a year; Vocational Guide, monthly, $4.00 a year; Occupational Reprints, monthly, $2.50 a year; Basic Occupational Plans, quarterly, $3.50 a year.

Seamen's Church Institute of America (1907); 281 Fourth Ave., New York; William T. Weston, General Superintendent.

Membership: Affiliated institutes, 14 and their branches.

Purpose and Activities: To promote institutes for seamen in sea, lake, and river ports of the United States or elsewhere; to promote standards in such

work; to affiliate, if possible, existing local agencies for seamen; and to promote the spread of knowledge of their needs by publications. Such institutes promote facilities for lodging, board, the safe-keeping of money and personal effects, reasonable recreation, and opportunities for religious expression.

Seeing Eye, Inc., The (1929); Morristown, N. J.; W. H. Ebeling, Executive Vice President.

Purpose: To act as a philanthropic association for the purpose of supplying blind persons with dogs trained to act as guides, to train dogs to guide the blind, to train and teach instructors in the science and technique of educating dogs as guides, and to educate and train blind persons in the proper use and handling of these dogs.

Periodical: The Seeing Eye Guide, quarterly, free.

Shut-in Society (1877); 221 Lexington Ave., New York; Mrs. T. D. Rambaut, Secretary-Treasurer.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 7,500, covering the United States and including a few in Canada and in England.

Purpose and Activities: To give cheer and comfort to chronic invalids, cripples, and the blind who are members of the Society. Correspondents are supplied who act as friendly advisers as to health, ways to earn, hobbies, etc. Shut-ins are also provided with sick room supplies and materials for handiwork. Two of the state branches maintain exchanges in which the handiwork of members is sold. Wheel chairs are loaned to members who need them.

Periodical: Open Window, monthly, $1.00 a year.

Social Science Research Council (1923); 230 Park Ave., New York; Robert T. Crane, Ph.D., Executive Director.

Membership: Representatives of the 7 following organizations: American Anthropological Association, American Economic Association, American Historical Association, American Political Science Association, American Psychological Association, American Sociological Society, and American Statistical Association, and 7 members-at-large.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the development and coordination of research in the social sciences and the encouragement of adequate technical training in these fields. Among its committees is the Committee on Social Security, which has recently published two studies entitled Social Insurance Coordination; and Old-Age Security, Social and Financial Trends.

Social Work Publicity Council (1921); 130 East 22d St., New York; Mrs. Sallie Fraysur, Membership and Finance Secretary.

Membership: Individuals and organizations, approximately 1,500; constituent local publicity councils, 20.

Purpose and Activities: To stimulate and develop better interpretation of social problems and social work. The Council serves as a clearing house for information and ideas on publicity and public relations for public and private social, health, and civic agencies; publishes a periodical, Channels, and special bulletins on interpretation; and maintains a critical editorial service for service members. The Council meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodical: Channels, 8 issues yearly.

Social Work Today, Inc. (1934); 112 East 19th St., New York; Frank C. Bancroft, Managing Editor.

Membership: Individuals, 70; organizations, 28 local.

Activities: These consist in the publication of a national professional magazine in social work, and in the conducting of other educational activities which are of constructive value in the development of that field and in its relation to other groups and lines of endeavor. The organization meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodical: Social Work Today, monthly, $1.50 a year.

Social Work Vocational Bureau (1940); 122 East 22d St., New York; Louise C. Odencrantz, Executive Director.

Activities: The Bureau is a non-profit membership organization providing placement and counseling service for social workers and social agencies. Organized on a national basis it facilitates the distribution of available personnel through the clearance of vocational and job information between persons whose equipment is in demand and agencies which need social work personnel. Services are available at present only to the case work fields but will be extended to other social work fields as financing permits. The Bureau is supported by annual dues from individual professional members, sustaining members, and agency members; and contributions from affiliated national organizations and foundations. The personnel records of the former Joint Vocational Service have been turned over to this Bureau. The Bureau meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Society for the Advancement of Management (1936); a merger of the Taylor Society and the Society of Industrial Engineers; 29 West 39th St., New York; Evelyn Buckley, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 1,500; organizations, 70.

Purpose and Activities: To conduct and promote scientific study of the principles governing organized effort in industrial and economic life, including both labor and management, through research, discussion, publications, and other appropriate means; and to impart to the public information concerning these principles and their various applications for the general betterment of society.

Periodicals: Advanced Management, quarterly, $6.00 a year; News Letter, irregularly.

Society of Recreation Workers of America (1938); City Hall, Elizabeth, N. J.; Arthur T. Noren, Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 325; affiliated organizations, 2 state.

Purpose and Activities: To unite in one organization all recreation workers in America. The Society acts as an agency for representing workers where group representation is desired. District and national conferences are held for discussion of professional problems. The Society has committees on training, professional ethics, research and study, and the stimulation of writing in the field of recreation. It is affiliated with the National Recreation Association.

Periodical: Quarterly Bulletin.

Society of St. Vincent de Paul, Superior Council of the United States (founded in 1833 in France, and in 1845 in the United States); 289 Fourth Ave., New York; George J. Gillespie, President.

Membership: 2,375 divisions (called conferences) of the Society in the United States, organized on parish lines with an active volunteer membership of approximately 30,000, and an honorary membership of approximately 7,500.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the spiritual welfare of the Society's members. The principal means to that end are: the giving of personal service and available funds to aid poor, sick, or otherwise helpless fellow beings; the visitation of poor families in order to assist them by advice and encouragement and to render financial aid for conserving their homes; and such other works of charity, material or spiritual, as may be helpful to those in need of such aid. Groups of three or more conferences in cities or towns are under the supervision of a local council. The Society-at-large in the United States is under the supervision of the Superior Council.

Society of State Directors of Health and Physical Education (1926); National Recreation Association, 315 Fourth Ave., New York; James E. Rogers, Secretary-Treasurer.

Membership: Individuals, 80 active and past state directors of health and physical education on staffs of state departments of education.

Purpose and Activities: To foster the development of state-wide programs of health and physical education activities in the schools, to develop standards, and to further professional growth through studies and conferences.

Periodical: Quarterly, free.

Southern Conference for Human Welfare (1938); 1909 First Ave., North, Birmingham; Howard Lee, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 2,000; organizations, 15 national, 40 state, and 300 local.

Purpose and Activities: To advance human freedom and humane democracy in all the southern states; and to improve the economic, social, and cultural standards of the southern people. An annual convention is held, attended by delegates from 13 states who are representatives from farm, religious, labor, business, Negro, youth, and civic organizations. Resolutions passed at these conventions have covered such subjects as Negro rights; protection of farmer, tenants, and sharecroppers; labor relations; abolition of the poll tax; civil liberties; adequate old age pensions; and federal aid for housing, health, and education. The Conference has an active Civil Rights Committee.

Periodicals: News Bulletin, monthly, $1.00 a year; Annual Proceedings, 15 cents a copy.

Southern Education Foundation (1937); a merger of the John F. Slater Fund and the Negro Rural School Fund (Anna T. Jeanes Foundation); 726 Jackson Pl., NW., Washington, D. C.; Arthur D. Wright, President.

Purpose and Activities: To cooperate with public and private school officials and others in improving educational and living conditions, with special regard for the needs of the Negro race. This objective is promoted by grants of money, or through the cooperation of the officers of the Foundation with such officials and others, or in such other ways as may be determined by the board of directors. At present the chief activity is to aid in the support of some 475 supervisors of Negro rural schools.

Spelman Fund of New York (1928); 49 West 49th St., New York; Guy Moffett, Secretary.

Purpose: To cooperate with public agencies in improving technical aspects of public administration.

Sturgis Fund of the Winifred Masterson Burke Relief Foundation (1918); White Plains, N. Y.; Charles L. Gibson, M.D., Superintendent.

Purpose: To promote extension and improvement of activities in the field of convalescence.

Summer Play Schools Association (1939); 1841 Broadway, New York; Adele S. Mossler, Director.

Membership: Individuals, 325.

Activities: The Association serves children by: demonstration schools and experimentation with adapting modern educational methods to the leisure-time needs of children; planning and supervising play schools which are conducted (in New York City) by settlement houses, community centers, public and private school groups, and a university; cooperating with many public and private agencies and drawing upon the resources of the community; training teachers for this special type of program through courses, demonstration schools, and consultation on the job; and helping parents to a greater insight into their children and their family problems through discussion groups and personal interviews, drawing upon parents' ideas and help wherever possible. Courses in parent education are given for community workers. The Association was formerly the Summer Play Schools Committee of the Child Study Association of America.

Survey Associates, Inc. (1912); 112 East 19th St., New York; Paul Kellogg, Editor.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 1,700; organizations, 17 national, 6 state, and 75 local.

Activities: The organization is a cooperative society, conceived as an educational project along original lines and carrying on work of inquiry, chronicle, exchange, and interpretation entering into two publications of national scope: the Survey Midmonthly, a journal of social work covering such fields as family and child welfare, community organization, health, labor legislation, housing, education, unemployment relief, public welfare, and social security; and the Survey Graphic, a magazine of swift, close-up inquiry and interpretation, gauging things in process, and exploring the general welfare.

Periodicals: Survey Midmonthly; Survey Graphic, monthly; each $3.00 a year, or $5.00 a year for both.

Tax Policy League (1932); 907 Broadway, New York; Mabel L. Walker, Ph.D., Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 1,000.

Purpose: To conduct research in public finance, and to serve as an exchange for information on governmental revenues and expenditures.

Periodicals: Taxes for Democracy, semimonthly, $1.00 a year; Tax Policy, monthly, $3.00 a year.

Twentieth Century Fund (1919); 330 West 42d St., New York; Evans Clark, Director.

Purpose and Activities: To improve the structure and workings of the economic system in the cause of higher standards of living for the entire population. The Fund carries on studies of current economic problems and, through special committees in charge of each study, formulates constructive policies to help in the solution of these problems. The findings of these studies are published by the Fund in books, pamphlets, and leaflets. The Fund has been especially active in the fields of distribution, housing, internal debts, labor relations, old age security, relations between the government and the light and power industry, security market regulation, short selling, and taxation.

Unitarian Association, American, Social Relations and Adult Education Section, Division of Education (1927); 25 Beacon St., Boston; Robert C. Dexter, Ph.D., Director.

Purpose and Activities: To help individual churches with their own social problems and programs. Activities include the publishing from time to time of factual and interpretive material dealing with the social aspects of religion, and the issuing of current educational releases. The Section serves as a sponsoring agent for adult educational activities in Unitarian churches.

United States Committee for the Care of European Children (1940); 215 Fourth Ave., New York; Eric H. Biddle, Executive Director.

Purpose and Activities: To aid and assist children who desire or are required to depart from European countries, or have become refugees therefrom; to see that such children will not be permitted to become public charges; to accept and use for such purposes gifts, legacies, bequests, etc.; and to furnish assistance and work in cooperation with individuals and organizations engaged in the

foregoing purposes. Activities include assistance and service to unaccompanied children arriving in the United States as evacuees from countries subject to the dangers of war. The Committee's program of activities is subject to adjustment in accordance with changing war conditions abroad. Information with regard to the current status of this program may be secured from the national office.

United States Conference of Mayors (1932); 730 Jackson Pl., NW., Washington, D. C.; Paul V. Betters, Executive Director.

Membership: 180 cities of 50,000 population and over, represented by their chief executives.

Activities: The Conference provides an agency through which the larger cities of the United States can cooperate in the practical study of all municipal questions; devotes special attention to measures under consideration by Congress, which, if enacted, would vitally affect cities; interprets to federal legislators and administrators the current problems confronting cities; informs municipal executives of policies, rules, and regulations adopted from day to day by federal agencies concerned with unemployment relief, public works, housing, loans to home owners, and other matters of direct and vital importance to urban communities; provides an informational, research, and consulting service to municipal officials; and publishes research reports on all phases of municipal administration.

Periodicals: United States Municipal News, biweekly, $5.00 a year; Annual Proceedings; Regional Conference Proceedings.

Universalist Church, Commission on Social Welfare (1937); 16 Beacon St., Boston; Frederic W. Perkins, D.D., Chairman.

Purpose: To stimulate and guide the intelligent study of social questions and the contribution of Christian principles to their solution, and to quicken a sense of responsibility on the part of our churches for the support of social welfare agencies in their respective communities.

Voluntary Parenthood League (1919); 1211 Madison Ave., New York; Mrs. George Engelhard, Treasurer.

Membership: National council, legislative committee, and approximately 3,500 enrolled endorsers.

Purpose: To render available for the people's need the best scientific knowledge as to how parenthood may be voluntary instead of accidental and, as a first step toward that end, to remove the words "prevention of conception" from the federal obscenity laws; and to educate parents, so that the birth of children may occur with due regard to health, heredity, income, choice, environment, and the well-being of the community.

Volunteers of America (1896); 34 West 28th St., New York; Gen. and Mrs. Ballington Booth, Commanders-in-Chief.

Membership: Organizations, 104 stations or mission posts, 74 homes and industrial branches, and 14 camps.

Purpose and Activities: The foremost aim of the organization is its mission in spiritual guidance to approximately 1,500,000 persons whom it serves annually. In addition it carries on family welfare work and emergency family relief; and maintains day nurseries, emergency homes for stranded families, homes and clubs for working girls, homes for children, homes for the aged, industrial institutions for opportunity labor, hotels or lodging houses for unattached men, health camps for mothers and children, a hospital, maternity homes, and men's service clubs; and conducts a nation-wide prison work, the Volunteers Prison League.

Periodical: Volunteers' Gazette, monthly, $1.00 a year.

White House Conference on Children in a Democracy (1939); Washington, D. C.; Katharine F. Lenroot, Executive Secretary.

Activities: For a full discussion of the Conference see Conference on Children in a Democracy, 1939–1940 in WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCES in Part One. Responsibility for the follow-up program rests with an autonomous organization—the National Citizens Committee—and a Federal Inter-Agency Committee. The latter consists of a cooperating group of federal agencies and does not operate as a separate agency. Conference proceedings, publications on recommendations of the Conference, etc., may be obtained free on request from the Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.

Wieboldt Foundation (1921); 106 South Ashland Blvd., Chicago; William A. Wieboldt, General Director.

Purpose and Activities: To eliminate to the greatest possible extent the principal causes which make charity necessary. The Foundation uses its income for the support of charitable institutions which are operated primarily for the benefit of the population of the metropolitan area of Chicago, or whose principal activity is carried on in such area, or which in an emergency alleviate human suffering caused by major catastrophes occurring within the United States. Preference is given character-build-

ing agencies, particularly programs and research dealing with younger people.

Women's Joint Congressional Committee (1920); Y.W.C.A., 17th and K Sts., Washington, D. C.; Mrs. E. R. Haas, Secretary.

Membership: 20 national organizations: American Association of University Women, American Dietetic Association, American Federation of Teachers, American Home Economics Association, American Medical Women's Association, American Nurses' Association, Association for Childhood Education, Council of Women for Home Missions, General Federation of Women's Clubs, Girls' Friendly Society of the United States of America, National Board of the Young Women's Christian Associations, National Congress of Parents and Teachers, National Consumers League, National Council of Jewish Women, National Education Association, National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs, National League of Women Voters, National Women's Trade Union League, Service Star Legion, and Women's Homeopathic Medical Fraternity.

Purpose and Activities: To serve as a clearing house of organizations engaged in promoting congressional legislation of special interest to women. Whenever five or more national organizations have endorsed a piece of legislation, a legislative committee may be organized to promote the measure, on behalf of the organizations in favor of it. The Committee itself endorses no legislation and proposes none. Laws of interest to social workers which have been passed, due largely to the efforts of organizations represented in the Committee, include statutory provision for the maintenance of the Women's Bureau in the U. S. Department of Labor, the Sheppard-Towner Act relating to maternal and infant hygiene and similar provisions in the Social Security Act, a compulsory education law for the District of Columbia, provision for a federal institution for women prisoners, the Cable Act relating to the independent citizenship of women, the Wagner-Peyser Act relating to federal and state employment services, and the Copeland Federal Food, Drugs, and Cosmetics Act.

Work Camps for America (1940); 2 West 64th St., New York; Robert E. Lane, Executive Secretary.

Activities: This organization offers an opportunity for young men and women between the ages of 18 and 24 to combine outdoor life with work and study in work camps. The work programs usually consist in developing recreational facilities in the surrounding community; the study programs, in learning of the social, economic, and cultural patterns of the people who make up the community. Through voluntary labor service in these camps and through exchange of ideas from youth of all social groups, young men and women develop a will to serve their communities.

Workers Alliance of America (1931); 930 M St., NW., Washington, D. C.; Frank Ingram, General Secretary-Treasurer.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 800,000; organizations, 14 state and 1,375 local.

Purpose and Activities: To safeguard the interests of all persons who are affected by mass unemployment; to organize all such persons for effective action to secure productive, useful jobs at trade union wages; to protect working conditions on such jobs; to secure adequate relief for those who are denied jobs and safeguard them against all forms of abuse and discrimination; and to achieve a federal system of unemployment and social insurance. The means used to carry out these purposes are organized mass pressure directed around legislative and administrative bodies involved in the development and direction of unemployment relief policies and programs.

Periodical: Work, bimonthly, $1.00 a year.

Workers Defense League (1936); 112 East 19th St., New York; David L. Clendenin, National Secretary-Treasurer.

Membership: Individuals, 2,000; organizations, 5 national, 3 state, and 72 local.

Purpose and Activities: To defend the right of workers to organize, strike, picket, and bargain collectively; to fight all attempts to limit the rights of assembly, free speech, free press, or any democratic rights of workers; to bring about by investigation, action, and education, vigorous prosecution wherever workers' rights have been abused; to educate workers for active participation in the defense of their rights; to fight economic and political discrimination against minorities; to render material aid to labor prisoners and the victims of Fascist reaction; and to fight for the right of asylum in this country for refugees from Fascist countries, and against the deportation of aliens because of their political beliefs or activities. The League is the official defense agency of the Southern Tenant Farmers' Union, an organization of Negro and white sharecroppers, tenant farmers, and migratory workers in the South.

Periodical: Last Minute News, monthly, 25 cents a year.

Workers Education Bureau of America (1921); 1440 Broadway, New York; Spencer Miller, Jr., Director.

Membership: Organizations, 632.

Purpose and Activities: To provide a national clearing house for the workers' education movement in the United States; to stimulate interest in education among the workers of the country; to assist in the establishment of labor institutes, industrial conferences, and study classes in the different localities in cooperation with the trade unions, universities, public libraries, and other public educational institutions; to conduct educational addresses and discussions by radio; to sponsor research concerning the curriculum of workers' education and the methods of adult instruction; to cooperate in establishing standards for the separate experiments; and to publish, through the Workers Education Bureau Press, textbooks, pamphlets, outlines, and syllabi for workers' educational enterprises. Special bulletins of Workers Education News Service are issued from time to time.

Periodical: Workers Education News Letter, monthly.

Young Judaea (1909); 111 Fifth Ave., New York; Louis P. Rocker, President.

Membership: Individuals, 20,000; organizations, 14 state and 85 local.

Purpose: To advance the cause of Zionism; to further the mental, moral, and physical development of the Jewish youth; to promote Jewish culture and ideals in accordance with Jewish tradition; and to emphasize anew the ideal of democracy.

Periodicals: Leader, monthly, $1.00 a year; Young Judaean, monthly, $1.00 a year.

Young Men's Christian Associations of the United States of America, National Council (1883); 347 Madison Ave., New York; Eugene E. Barnett, General Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 1,316,573; organizations, 1,288 local associations and 22 area and state committees.

Purpose and Activities: To minister to the needs of boys and young men, helping them meet the problems and conditions of present-day life and giving them opportunities for greater self-development of body, mind, and spirit. A positive program is offered for the teaching of character-making ideals: by promoting health education and physical activity, by providing opportunities for intellectual self-improvement and culture, by acquainting boys and young men with the teachings and ideals of Jesus, and by providing wholesome social fellowship and economic and vocational guidance. The National Council meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodicals: National Council Bulletin, bimonthly, 10 cents a copy; The Intercollegian, 7 issues yearly, $1.50 a year; Christian Citizenship, 8 issues yearly, $3.00 a year.

Young Women's Christian Associations of the United States of America, National Board (1906); 600 Lexington Ave., New York; Emma P. Hirth, General Secretary.

Membership: Associations, 422 community and 590 student.

Purpose and Activities: To unite in one body the Young Women's Christian Associations of the United States; to establish, develop, and unify such associations; to participate in the work of the World's Young Women's Christian Association; and to advance the physical, social, intellectual, moral, and spiritual interests of young women. The National Board acts as a resource on education, research, and advice to local associations; holds conferences; trains and recommends professional staff; calls biennial conventions for discussion and adoption of policies; assists by personnel and grants in similar programs abroad; cooperates with other national agencies; and carries on a national program of education and activity in public affairs, particularly as they affect women. The National Board meets annually as one of the associate groups of the National Conference of Social Work.

Periodicals: Womans Press, monthly, $1.00 a year; Bookshelf, monthly except July, August, and September, $1.00 a year.

Ziegler Foundation for the Blind (Matilda Ziegler Foundation for the Blind) (1928); Matilda Ziegler Magazine for the Blind, Monsey, N. Y.; Walter G. Holmes, President.

Activities: These chiefly consist of the continuance of the Matilda Ziegler Magazine for the Blind, which was founded in 1907, and has been sent since that time, free each month, to every blind person in the United States and Canada who can read one of the systems—Braille, New York point, and Moon—in which it is printed. The Foundation also supplies radios, clocks, and typewriters to the blind at reduced prices and otherwise aids the blind of the United States.

STATE AGENCIES—PUBLIC

Note: The information in this list is based for the most part on communications from the agencies included. For health, labor, and public welfare departments substantially all bureaus and other administrative subdivisions are named, and are indicated by indention in the printing; for education departments only those are included which seem to be related to social work. Due to variations in policy by the departments these subdivisions often represent functions of the agency rather than definitely organized bureaus, divisions, and so forth. Subdivisions relating to the administration of a department—divisions or bureaus of accounting, business management, personnel, and so forth—are omitted in all instances. Entire accuracy is not claimed for the list because of obvious difficulties in obtaining information of this nature through correspondence, but *it is believed to* be substantially correct as of October, 1940.

An attempt has been made to indicate, by the use of italics, the state agencies administering the various Titles of the Social Security Act. For example, the Alabama State Department of Public Welfare administers the following services under the Social Security Act: aid to dependent children, aid to the blind, child welfare services, and old age assistance. This has been indicated by setting up the appropriate subdivisions of the Department in the following manner:

Child Welfare
Child Welfare Services
Public Assistance
Aid to Dependent Children
Aid to the Blind
Old Age Assistance

Whenever the only address given for an agency is the capital city, the office is in the State Capitol. In the few instances in which the address of a subdivision differs from that of the agency under which it functions, the address is given after the subdivision's name.

In November, 1940 (too late for inclusion in this directory), state defense councils were being organized in the various states to create and direct the recreational, social, religious, civic, patriotic, and other community activities in support of the military training program inaugurated by the federal government. It is suggested that anyone wishing to know whether such a council has been set up in a given state should write to the state Secretary of State for the desired information.

ALABAMA

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Auburn; P. O. Davis, State Extension Director.

- Agriculture
- 4-H Club Work
- Home Economics

Education

State Department of Education; Montgomery; A. H. Collins, State Superintendent.

- Administration and Finance
  - Research, Comprehensive Educational Surveys, and Child Accounting
  - Schoolhouse Planning
- Instruction
  - Community Organization and School Attendance
  - Physical and Health Education
- Negro Education
- Vocational Education
  - Agricultural Education
  - Homemaking Education
  - *Services to Crippled Children*
  - Trade and Industrial Education
  - *Vocational Rehabilitation*

Health

State Department of Public Health; Montgomery; J. N. Baker, M.D., State Health Officer.

- Administration
  - County Organization
  - Public Health Education
  - *Administration of Public Health Services*
- Hygiene and Nursing
  - *Maternal and Child Health Services*
  - Nursing
  - Oral Hygiene
- Laboratories
- Preventable Diseases
  - Epidemiology
  - Industrial Hygiene
  - Tuberculosis Control
  - Venereal Disease Control
- Sanitation
  - Inspection (food establishments, hotels)
- Vital Statistics

Labor

State Department of Industrial Relations; 711 High St., Montgomery; Judge John D. Petree, Director.

- Labor
- Workmen's Compensation
- Safety and Inspection, 1401 Webb Crawford Bldg., Birmingham
- Boiler, Elevator, and Factory Inspection
- Mine Inspection
- State Employment Service
- *Unemployment Compensation*

Public Welfare

State Department of Public Welfare; Montgomery; Loula Dunn, Commissioner.

- Child Welfare
  - Adoptions
  - Child-caring Institutions
  - *Child Welfare Services*
  - Foster Home Care
- Field Service
  - Selection of CCC Enrollees
  - Surplus Commodities Distribution
- Public Assistance
  - Adult Institutions (almshouses)
  - *Aid to Dependent Children*
  - *Aid to the Blind*
  - Aid to the Handicapped
  - *Old Age Assistance*
  - Temporary Aid
- Statistics and Surveys

State Department of Corrections and Institutions; Montgomery; Col. William E. Persons, Director.

- Administration of State Penal Institutions

State Board of Pardons and Paroles; 702 Washington Ave., Montgomery; Alex Smith, Chairman.

- Supervision of Parole and Probation

State Service Commission; Gunter Bldg., Montgomery; Maj. W. M. Weston, Commissioner.

- Service to Veterans

Alabama Pension Commission; Montgomery; S. C. Blackshear, Secretary.

- Service to Confederate Veterans and Their Widows

Alabama State Planning Commission; 2 North Perry St., Montgomery; A. J. Hawkins, Director.

ARIZONA

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); University of Arizona, Tucson; C. U. Pickrell, State Extension Director.

- Agriculture
- 4-H Club Work
- Home Economics

Education

State Department of Education; Phoenix; Herman E. Hendrix, Ph.D., Superintendent of Public Instruction.

- Agricultural Education
- Home Economics Education
- Indian Education
- Trade and Industrial Education
- *Vocational Rehabilitation*

Health

State Board of Health; Phoenix; Frederick O. Perkins, M.D., M.S.P.H., Superintendent of Public Health.

- *Administration of Public Health Services*
- Communicable Diseases
- Health Education
- Local Health Administration
- *Maternal and Child Health Services*
- Sanitary Engineering
- State Laboratory
- Vital Statistics

Labor

Industrial Commission of Arizona; Phoenix; L. C. Holmes, Chairman.

- Labor
- State Compensation Fund
- Workmen's Compensation

Arizona Unemployment Compensation Commission; P. O. Box 111, Phoenix; G. B. Donaldson, Executive Director.

- State Employment Service
- *Unemployment Compensation*

State Mine Inspector; Phoenix; Tom C. Foster, Inspector.

Public Welfare

State Department of Social Security and Welfare; Home Builders Bldg., Phoenix; Harry W. Hill, Commissioner.

- Child Welfare
  - Adoptions
  - *Child Welfare Services*
  - Foster Home Care
  - Licensing and Supervision of Child-caring Institutions
- Crippled Children
  - *Services to Crippled Children*
- Public Assistance
  - *Aid to Dependent Children*
  - *Aid to the Blind*
  - General Home Relief
  - *Old Age Assistance*

Referrals to NYA and WPA
Selection of CCC Enrollees
Supervision of Agencies and Institutions Caring for Dependent and Handicapped Adults
Surplus Commodities Distribution

Board of Directors of State Institutions; Phoenix; J. M. Sparks, Executive Secretary.

Administration of State Prison, State Hospital for the Insane, and Old People's Home

Arizona Board of Pardons and Paroles; Phoenix; Walter Hofmann, Chairman.

State Veterans Relief Commission; Phoenix; B. B. Shimonowsky, Chairman.

Temporary Relief of Disabled Veterans and Their Families

State Veterans Service Officer; Phoenix; B. B. Shimonowsky, Service Officer.

Assistance in Pension and Compensation Claims

Arizona Resources Board; Tucson; William H. Johnson, Chairman.

ARKANSAS

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); 524 Post Office Bldg., Little Rock; H. E. Thompson, Assistant Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Education; Little Rock; T. H. Alford, Commissioner.

Free Textbooks
Vocational Education
Agricultural Education
Home Economics Education
Trade and Industrial Education
Vocational Rehabilitation

Health

Arkansas State Board of Health; Little Rock; William B. Grayson, M.D., State Health Officer.

Administration of Public Health Services
Communicable Disease Control
Venereal Disease Control
Local Health Service
Malaria Control
Maternal and Child Health Services
Public Health Education
Public Health Nursing
Sanitary Engineering
State Hygienic Laboratory
Tuberculosis Control
Vital Statistics

Labor

State Department of Labor; Little Rock; E. I. McKinley, Commissioner.

Industrial Commission
Prevention of Industrial Accidents and Diseases
Inspection (boiler, places of employment)
Mediation and Arbitration
Minimum Wage and Maximum Hour Commission
Safety
State Apprenticeship Council
State Employment Service
Statistics
Unemployment Compensation
Wage Collections
Women and Children

State Mine Inspection Department; 505 First National Bank Bldg., Ft. Smith; J. W. Fitzjarrell, State Mine Inspector.

Public Welfare

State Department of Public Welfare; Little Rock; John R. Thompson, Commissioner.

Child Welfare
Child Welfare Services
Supervision of Adoptions
Supervision of Juvenile Court Department
Crippled Children
Services to Crippled Children
Research and Statistics
Social Service
Aid to Dependent Children
Aid to the Blind
Certification to NYA
Confederate Pensions
Eye Operations for the Blind
General Relief
Hospitalization for the Needy Sick
Old Age Assistance
Referrals to WPA
Rehabilitation of the Blind
Selection of CCC Enrollees
Talking Book Distribution
Trachoma Control Service
Vending Stands for the Blind
Surplus Commodities Distribution

Arkansas State Board of Pardons and Paroles; Little Rock; Capt. J. R. Porter, State Parole Officer.

Arkansas Service Bureau; War Memorial Bldg., Little Rock; Claude A. Brown, Director.

Service to Veterans

Arkansas State Planning Board; Little Rock; L. A. Henry, Director.

CALIFORNIA

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); College of Agriculture, University of California, Berkeley; B. H. Crocheron, State Extension Director.

- Agriculture
- 4-H Club Work
- Home Economics

Education

State Department of Education; Sacramento; Walter F. Dexter, Ed.D., Superintendent of Public Instruction and Director of Education.

- Adult and Continuation Education
- Emergency Education Programs
- Attendance and Migratory Schools (in Division of Elementary Education)
- Commission for Special Education
  - Correction of Speech Defects
  - Education of the Blind
  - Education of the Deaf
- Commission for Vocational Education
  - Agricultural Education
  - Business Education
  - Homemaking Education
  - Trade and Industrial Education
  - *Vocational Rehabilitation*
- Education and Care of Indian Children
- Physical and Health Education
  - Physical Education for Girls

Health

State Department of Public Health; Sacramento; Bertram P. Brown, M.D., Director.

- *Administration of Public Health Services*
- Cannery Inspection
- Child Hygiene
  - *Maternal and Child Health Services*
- County Health Work
- Epidemiology
- Food and Drug Inspection
- Industrial Hygiene Service
- Laboratories
- Orthopedics
  - *Services to Crippled Children*
- Public Health Nursing
- Sanitary Engineering
- Sanitary Inspection
- Tuberculosis
- Venereal Diseases
- Vital Statistics

Labor

State Department of Industrial Relations; State Bldg., San Francisco; George G. Kidwell, Director.

- California Apprenticeship Council
- Fire Safety
- Immigration and Housing
- Industrial Accident Commission
  - Workmen's Compensation
- Industrial Welfare
- Labor Statistics and Law Enforcement
- State Compensation Insurance Fund

California Employment Commission; 1025 P St., Sacramento; R. G. Wagenet, Secretary of Commission and Director of Department of Employment.

- Department of Employment
- State Employment Service
- *Unemployment Compensation*

Public Welfare

State Department of Social Welfare; Sacramento; Martha A. Chickering, Ph.D., Director.

- Adoptions
- *Aid to Dependent Children*
- *Aid to the Blind*
- Aid to the Needy Aged
  - *Old Age Assistance*
- Boarding Homes and Institutions
- *Child Welfare Services*
- County Aid to Indigent Sick
- Probation
- Public Assistance
- Research and Statistics

California State Relief Administration; 155 West Washington Blvd., Los Angeles; S. G. Rubinow, Administrator.

- Camps
- Certification
  - Referrals to CCC, FSA, NYA, WPA
- Cooperatives
- Properties
- Statistics
- Surplus Commodities Distribution

State Department of Institutions; Sacramento; Aaron J. Rosanoff, M.D., Director.

- Administration of State Mental Hospitals and Other Institutions
- Juvenile Research, Stanford University

State Department of Penology; 9 Ferry Bldg., San Francisco; John Gee Clark, Director.

- Criminal Identification and Investigation
- Criminology
- Narcotics
- Pardons and Commutations
- Prisons and Paroles (Parole Board)

Veterans' Welfare Board, Department of Military and Veterans' Affairs; 1020 N

St., Sacramento; George A. Comte, Secretary.

State Planning Board, Department of Finance; 441 Public Works Bldg., Sacramento; L. Deming Tilton, Administrative Officer.

COLORADO

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); State Agricultural College of Colorado, Ft. Collins; F. A. Anderson, State Extension Director.

- Agriculture
- 4-H Club Work
- Home Economics

Education

State Department of Education; Denver; Mrs. Inez Johnson Lewis, State Superintendent of Public Instruction.

- Home and School Service
- Vocational Education
  - *Vocational Rehabilitation*

Health

State Board of Health; Denver; R. L. Cleere, M.D., C.P.H., Secretary and Executive Officer.

- *Administration of Public Health Services*
- Bacteriology
- Crippled Children
  - *Services to Crippled Children*
- Epidemiology and Local Health Work
- Food and Drugs
- Laboratory
- *Maternal and Child Health Services*
- Meat and Slaughter Plant Inspection
- Plumbing Inspection
- Public Health Nursing
- Sanitary Engineering
- Social Hygiene
- Tuberculosis Control
- Vital Statistics

Labor

Industrial Commission of Colorado; Denver; Ray H. Brannaman, Chairman.

- Adjustment of Wage Claims
- Electrical Wiring and Apparatus Regulation
- Industrial Relations
- Inspection (factory, steam boiler)
- Labor Statistics
- Minimum Wages of Women and Children
- Regulation of Private and Free Employment Agencies
- State Compensation Insurance Fund
- Workmen's Compensation

Department of Employment Security; Denver; Bernard E. Teets, Executive Director.

- State Employment Service
- *Unemployment Compensation*

State Bureau of Mines; 220 State Museum Bldg., Denver; Edward P. Arthur, Commissioner.

State Coal Mine Inspection Department; Denver; Thomas Allen, Chief Inspector.

Public Welfare

State Department of Public Welfare; Denver; Earl M. Kouns, Director.

- Certification to CCC, NYA, WPA
- Child Welfare
  - *Child Welfare Services*
- Public Assistance
  - *Aid to Dependent Children*
  - *Aid to the Blind*
  - General Relief
  - Old Age Pension
    - *Old Age Assistance*
- Research and Statistics
- Surplus Commodities Distribution
- Tuberculosis Assistance (indigent tuberculous residents)

Division of Public Welfare, Executive Department; Denver; Gov. Ralph L. Carr, Administrator, ex-officio.

- Administration of State Charitable, Correctional, Penal, and Mental Institutions

State Commission for the Blind; 100 West 7th Ave., Denver; Mrs. Kathryn C. Barkhausen, Executive Secretary.

- Colorado Industrial Workshop for the Blind
- State Craft Shop for the Blind

Colorado State Planning Commission; Denver; Edward D. Foster, Director.

CONNECTICUT

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); University of Connecticut, Storrs; G. C. White, Acting State Extension Director.

- Agriculture
- 4-H Club Work
- Home Economics

Education

State Department of Education; Hartford; Alonzo G. Grace, Ph.D., Commissioner.

- Attendance (in Division of Law)
- Instruction
  - Guidance (supervision of guidance programs in schools)

Supervision
Adult Education
Health Education
Special Classes
Vocational Education
Agricultural Education
Homemaking Education
Rehabilitation
Vocational Rehabilitation
Trade and Industrial Education
Research and Planning

Board of Education of the Blind; 165 Capitol Ave., Hartford; Stetson K. Ryan, Executive Secretary.

Health

State Department of Health; Hartford; Stanley H. Osborn, M.D., C.P.H., Commissioner.

Administration
Licensure and Registration
Local Health Administration
Administration of Public Health Services
Child Hygiene
Maternal and Child Health Services
Mouth Hygiene
Services to Crippled Children
Laboratories
Mental Hygiene
Occupational Diseases
Preventable Diseases
Cancer Research
Narcotic Control
Public Health Instruction and Nutrition
Public Health Nursing
Sanitary Engineering
Venereal Diseases
Vital Statistics

Connecticut State Tuberculosis Commission; Hartford; John C. Stanley, Chairman of Commission.

Case Finding
Supervision of Sanatoria

Labor

State Department of Labor and Factory Inspection; Hartford; Cornelius J. Danaher, Commissioner.

Apprenticeship
Factory Inspection
Bedding
Homework Investigation
Inspection (boiler, elevator, factory, mercantile, miscellaneous establishments)
Law Enforcement
Safety and Sanitation
Labor
Collection of Wages
Mediation and Arbitration
Minimum Wage
Statistics and Information
Supervision of Private Employment Agencies
State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation

Workmen's Compensation Commission; 54 Church St., Hartford; Leo J. Noonan, Chairman.

Public Welfare

Office of Commissioner of Welfare; Hartford; Robert J. Smith, Commissioner.

Public Welfare Council
Child Welfare
Child Welfare Services
Collection
Old Age Assistance
Aid to the Blind
Old Age Assistance
Selection of CCC Enrollees
State Aid
Surplus Commodities Distribution
Widows' Aid

Connecticut Development Commission; Hartford; Sidney A. Edwards, Managing Director.

DELAWARE

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); University of Delaware, Newark; G. L. Schuster, State Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Public Instruction; Dover; H. V. Holloway, Ph.D., State Superintendent.

Americanization and Adult Education
Art Education
Attendance
Music Education
Physical and Health Education
Service for Foreign Born People
Special Education and Mental Hygiene
Vocational Education
Agricultural Education
Distributive Occupations Education
Home Economics Education
Trade and Industrial Education
Vocational Rehabilitation

Health

State Board of Health; Dover; Edwin Cameron, M.D., Executive Secretary.

Administration of Public Health Services
Communicable Diseases

Dental Hygiene
Laboratories
Maternal and Child Health Services
Public Health Nursing
Sanitation
Services to Crippled Children
Tuberculosis
Venereal Disease Control
Vital Statistics

Labor

Labor Commission of Delaware; 400 Equitable Bldg., Wilmington; Col. Thomas C. Frame, Chairman.

Child Labor
Women's Labor

Delaware Unemployment Compensation Commission; 601 Shipley St., Wilmington; Charles M. Wharton, D.D.S., M.D., Executive Director.

State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation Operations
Unemployment Compensation

Industrial Accident Board of State of Delaware; 305 Equitable Trust Bldg., Wilmington; John C. Saylor, Secretary.

Workmen's Compensation

Public Welfare

State Board of Charities; Dover; C. Rollin Zane, Executive Director.

Agency Relationships
Child Welfare
Child Welfare Services

Mothers' Pension Commission; Public Bldg., Wilmington; A. Bernice Quimby, Executive Secretary.

Aid to Dependent Children

Old Age Welfare Commission; 211 Delaware Trust Bldg., Wilmington; Charles L. Candee, D.D., President of Commission.

Old Age Assistance
Relief Units

State Board of Parole of Delaware; P. O. Box 163, Wilmington; James W. Robertson, Secretary.

Delaware Commission for the Blind; 305 West 8th St., Wilmington; Mrs. Anne Rowe Stevens, Superintendent.

Delaware Commission for the Feebleminded; Stockley; Howard T. Ennis, Superintendent.

FLORIDA

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); Experiment Station, Gainesville; Wilmon Newell, State Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Education; Tallahassee; Colin English, Superintendent.

Administration and Finance
Attendance and Transportation
Child Accounting
Reports and Statistics
School Plant Planning
School Surveys
Instruction
Health and Physical Education
Negro Education
School Library Service
Vocational Education
Agricultural Education
Distributive Occupations Education
Home Economics Education
Trade and Industrial Education
Vocational Rehabilitation

State Board of Control; Jacksonville; H. P. Adair, Chairman.

Administration of State Educational Institutions, including School for Dumb and Blind

Health

Florida State Board of Health; 1217 Pearl St., Jacksonville; Albert B. McCreary, M.D., State Health Officer.

Administration of Public Health Services
Dental Health
Drug and Narcotics
Engineering
Epidemiology
Health Education
Laboratories
Local Health Service
Malariology
Maternal and Child Health Services
Public Health Nursing
Tuberculosis
Venereal Disease Control
Vital Statistics

Florida Crippled Children's Commission; Tallahassee; Terry Bird, M.D., Director of Services.

Services to Crippled Children

State Tuberculosis Board of Florida; 111 West Ashley St., Jacksonville; W. T. Edwards, Chairman.

Labor

Florida Industrial Commission; Tallahassee; Harold C. Wall, Chairman.

Apprenticeship
Safety Measures
State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation
Workmen's Compensation

Public Welfare

State Welfare Board; 49 West Duval St., Jacksonville; Clayton C. Codrington, Commissioner.

Child Welfare
Child Welfare Services
Children's Institutions
Public Assistance
Aid to Dependent Children
Aid to the Blind
Certification to CCC, NYA, WPA
Old Age Assistance
Surplus Commodities Distribution
Research and Statistics

Board of Commissioners of State Institutions; Tallahassee; W. B. Cone, Secretary.

Administration of Mental, Correctional, and Penal Institutions

State Service Office; Bay Pines; C. H. Holstlaw, State Service Officer.

Service to Veterans

State Board of Pensions; Tallahassee; Roumelle Bowen, Secretary.

Service to Veterans

Florida State Planning Board; P. O. Box 149, Tallahassee; George G. Gross, Executive Secretary.

GEORGIA

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); Georgia State College of Agriculture, Athens; Walter S. Brown, State Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Education; Atlanta; M. D. Collins, Ped.D., Superintendent.

Administration and Adult Education
Negro Education
Rehabilitation
Vocational Rehabilitation
Textbooks and Library Service
Vocational Education and Community Services
Agricultural Education
Home Economics Education
Trade and Industrial Education

Health

State Department of Public Health; Atlanta; T. F. Abercrombie, M.D., Dr.P.H., Director.

Administration of Public Health Services
Dental Health Education
Information and Statistics
Laboratories
Local Health Organization
Malaria and Hookworm Service
Maternal and Child Health Services
Preventable Diseases
Public Health Engineering
Public Health Nursing
Tuberculosis Control

Labor

State Department of Labor; Atlanta; Ben T. Huiet, Commissioner.

Unemployment Compensation
State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation

Industrial Board; Atlanta; A. J. Hartley, Secretary-Treasurer.

Workmen's Compensation

Public Welfare

State Department of Public Welfare; Atlanta; Braswell Deen, Director.

Adult Service (including inspection and service of jails, etc.)
Child Welfare Services
Institutions
Administration of State Eleemosynary Institutions
Public Assistance
Aid to Dependent Children
Aid to the Blind
Certification to CCC, NYA, WPA
Old Age Assistance
Research and Statistics
Services to Crippled Children
Surplus Commodities Distribution

State Prison and Parole Commission; Atlanta; C. E. Rainey, Chairman.

State Board of Penal Correction; Atlanta; Grover C. Byars, Chairman.

Prison Camps and Industries

Veterans Service Office; Atlanta; C. A. Cheatham, Director.

Confederate Pension Division; Atlanta; Lillian Henderson, Director.

Georgia State Planning Board; P. O. Box 270, East Point; Richard C. Job, Director.

IDAHO

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); College of Agriculture, University of Idaho, Moscow; E. J. Iddings, State Extension Director.

- Agriculture
- 4-H Club Work
- Home Economics

Education

State Board of Education; Boise; J. W. Condie, State Superintendent of Public Instruction.

- Attendance and Accounting
- Vocational Education
  - Agricultural Education
  - Home Economics Education
  - Rehabilitation
    - *Vocational Rehabilitation*
  - Trade and Industrial Education

Health

Division of Public Health, State Department of Public Welfare; Boise; Ernest L. Berry, M.D., Director.

- *Administration of Public Health Services*
- Communicable Diseases
- Local Health Administration
- Industrial Hygiene
- Laboratories
- Maternal, Child Health, and Crippled Children
  - *Maternal and Child Health Services*
  - *Services to Crippled Children*
- Public Health Nursing
- State Chemist and Sanitary Engineer
- Venereal Disease Control
- Vital Statistics

Labor

Industrial Accident Board; 153½ South 8th St., Boise; Frank Langley, Chairman.

- Occupational Disease Compensation
- State Employment Service
- *Unemployment Compensation*
- Workmen's Compensation

State Insurance Fund; P. O. Box 1038, Boise; L. F. Bracken, Manager.

Inspector of Mines; Boise; Arthur Campbell, Inspector.

Public Welfare

State Department of Public Welfare; Boise; Emory Afton, Commissioner.

- Administration of State Charitable Institutions
- Public Assistance
  - *Aid to Dependent Children*
  - *Aid to the Blind*
  - *Child Welfare Services*
  - Foster Home Placement
  - *Old Age Assistance*
  - Research and Statistics
  - Selection of CCC Enrollees
  - Social Service
  - Surplus Commodities Distribution
- Public Health (*see* under HEALTH)

Idaho Prison Board; Boise; Gov. C. A. Botolfsen, Chairman.

Veterans Welfare Commission; Boise; Lester F. Albert, Secretary.

Idaho State Planning Board; P. O. Box 1779, Boise; Joseph D. Wood, Consultant and Executive Secretary.

ILLINOIS

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); College of Agriculture, University of Illinois, Urbana; H. P. Rusk, State Extension Director.

- Agriculture
- 4-H Club Work
- Home Economics

Education

State Department of Public Instruction; Springfield; John A. Wieland, Superintendent.

- Public School
  - Physical Education
  - Physically Handicapped Children
  - Rehabilitation
    - *Vocational Rehabilitation*
  - Statistics
  - Vocational Education
    - Agricultural Education
    - Distributive Occupations Education
    - Home Economics Education
    - Industrial Education

Health

State Department of Public Health; Springfield; A. C. Baxter, M.D., Director.

- *Administration of Public Health Services*
- Cancer Control
- Child Hygiene and Public Health Nursing
  - *Maternal and Child Health Services*

Communicable Diseases
Pneumonia Control
Venereal Disease Control
Dental Health Education
Industrial Hygiene
Laboratories
Local Health Administration
Lodging House Inspection
Public Health Instruction
Sanitary Engineering
Tuberculosis
Vital Statistics
Statistical Research

Labor

State Department of Labor; Springfield; Martin P. Dutkin, Director.

Apprenticeship
Industrial Commission, 205 West Wacker Dr., Chicago
Workmen's Compensation
Inspection (factory, private employment agency)
State Employment Service, 222 West North Bank Dr., Chicago
Statistics and Research
Unemployment Compensation, 222 West North Bank Dr., Chicago
Women and Children's Employment

Department of Mines and Minerals; Springfield; James McSherry, Director.

Miners' Examining Board
Mining Investigation Commission
State Mining Board

Public Welfare

State Department of Public Welfare; Springfield; A. L. Bowen, Director.

Child Welfare, 201 West Monroe St., Springfield
Child Welfare Services
Criminal Identification and Investigation, State Armory, Springfield
Criminologist and Institute for Juvenile Research, 907 South Wolcott St., Chicago
Delinquency Prevention, 600 South 1st St., Springfield
Handicapped Children, 201 West Monroe St., Springfield
Services to Crippled Children
Mental Hospitals
Old Age Assistance, State Armory, Springfield
Pardons and Paroles (Parole Board), State Armory, Springfield
Rural Crime Prevention, State Armory, Springfield
Supervision of Parolees, State Armory, Springfield
Trachoma Control, 904 West Adams St., Chicago
Veterans' Service, State Armory, Springfield
Visitation of Adult Blind, 1900 Marshall Blvd., Chicago

Illinois Emergency Relief Commission; 222 West North Bank Dr., Chicago; Leo M. Lyons, Executive Secretary.

Certification to CCC, NYA, WPA
Surplus Commodities Distribution

Illinois State Housing Board, Department of Public Works and Buildings; Room 1512, 228 North Lasalle St., Chicago; Allan C. Williams, Executive Secretary.

Illinois State Planning Commission; 407 South Dearborn St., Chicago; H. L. Kellogg, State Planning Engineer.

INDIANA

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); Purdue University, La Fayette; H. J. Reed, State Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Education; Indianapolis; Floyd I. McMurray, State Superintendent.

School Attendance
Special Classes for Physically Handicapped Children
State School Relief
Vocational Rehabilitation
Vocational Training

Health

State Board of Health; Indianapolis; Verne K. Harvey, M.D., Director.

Administration of Public Health Services
Bacteriological Laboratory
Communicable Diseases
Community Sanitation
Dairy Products
Food and Drugs
Health and Physical Education
Industrial Hygiene
Local Health Administration
Maternal and Child Health
Dental Health
Maternal and Child Health Services
Nutrition
Psychiatry
Narcotic Inspection
Public Health Nursing
Sanitary Engineering, Housing, and School Hygiene
Venereal Disease Control
Vital Statistics

Labor

Division of Labor, Department of Commerce and Industries; Indianapolis; Thomas R. Hutson, Commissioner of Labor.

Apprenticeship
Boiler Inspection
Factory Inspection
Industrial Board
Workmen's Compensation
Mines and Mining
Women and Children

Indiana Unemployment Compensation Division; 141 South Meridian St., Indianapolis; Wilfred Jessup, Director.

State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation

Public Welfare

State Department of Public Welfare; 141 South Meridian St., Indianapolis; Thurman A. Gottschalk, Administrator.

Children
Child Welfare Services
Supervision of Children's Institutions and Agencies
Corrections
Classification and Education of Inmates
Paroles
Deportation and Importation of Dependents (in Administration Division)
Inspection and Investigation
Inspection and Investigation of State Institutions
Inspection of Local Jails and Infirmaries
Medical Care
Care of Mentally or Physically Handicapped Adults
Supervision of Public Benevolent Institutions
Public Assistance
Aid to Dependent Children
Aid to the Blind
Old Age Assistance
Supervision of CCC and NYA Enrolment
Services to Crippled Children

Indiana Unemployment Relief Commission; 1145 East 22d St., Indianapolis; Dudley A. Smith, Director.

Certification to WPA
Social Service
Surplus Commodities Distribution

Division of Institutions; 141 South Meridian St., Indianapolis; Thurman A. Gottschalk, Supervisor.

Institutional Industries Sales
Supervision of State Institutions

State Probation Department of Indiana, Executive Department; Indianapolis; Mrs. Inez M. Scholl, Director of Probation.

State Probation Commission

Board of Industrial Aid for the Blind; 536 West 30th St., Indianapolis; Robert Lambert, Executive Secretary.

State Planning Board of Indiana; Indianapolis; Mrs. Teresa Zimmerly, Secretary.

IOWA

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, Ames; R. K. Bliss, State Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

Srate Board for Vocational Education; Des Moines; Jessie M. Parker, Chairman and Executive Officer, ex-officio.

Rehabilitation
Vocational Rehabilitation
Vocational Education

State Services for Crippled Children, State Board of Education; Iowa City; E. M. MacEwen, M.D., Director.

Services to Crippled Children

Health

State Department of Health; Des Moines; Walter L. Bierring, M.D., Commissioner.

Administration of Public Health Services
Cancer Control
Communicable Diseases and Epidemiology
Health Education and Public Relations
Laboratories
Local Health Services
Maternal and Child Health Services
Public Health Engineering and Industrial Hygiene
Public Health Nursing
Tuberculosis Control
Venereal Disease Control
Vital Statistics

Labor

State Bureau of Labor; Des Moines; Charles W. Harness, Commissioner.

Apprenticeship
Child Labor
Health and Safety
Inspection (elevator, factory)
Licensing of Private Employment Agencies
Statistics

Unemployment Compensation Commission; 1020 Locust St., Des Moines; Claude M. Stanley, Chairman.

State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation

Workmen's Compensation Service; Des Moines; John T. Clarkson, Industrial Commissioner.

State Mine Inspection Department; Des Moines; George W. Duckworth, Secretary.

Public Welfare

State Board of Social Welfare; Iowa Bldg., Des Moines; D. H. Jenkins, Secretary.

Child Welfare
Child Welfare Services
Licensing of Boarding Homes and Maternity Homes
Supervision and Inspection of Child-caring Agencies and Institutions
Public Assistance
Aid to the Blind
General Relief
Certification to WPA
Selection of CCC Enrollees
Surplus Commodities Distribution
Old Age Assistance
Research and Statistics

Board of Control of State Institutions; Des Moines; D. R. McCreery, Chairman.

Administration of State Charitable, Correction, Penal, and Mental Institutions
Children
Supervision of Placement in Foster Homes of State Wards

Iowa Board of Parole; Des Moines; Sam D. Woods, Secretary.

Iowa State Commission for the Blind; Des Moines; Ethel T. Holmes, Executive Secretary.

Iowa Soldiers' Bonus Board; Des Moines; Edwin H. Curtis, Executive Secretary.

KANSAS

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); Kansas State College of Agriculture and Applied Science, Manhattan; H. J. C. Umberger, State Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Education; Topeka; George L. McClenny, State Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Vocational Education
Trade and Industrial Education
Vocational Agricultural Education
Vocational Home Economics Education

Health

Kansas State Board of Health; Topeka; F. P. Helm, M.D., Secretary and Executive Officer.

Administration of Public Health Services
Child Hygiene
Maternal and Child Health Services
Public Health Education
Public Health Nursing
Dental Hygiene
Epidemiology
Food and Drugs
Local Health Work
Public Health Laboratory
Sanitation
Industrial Hygiene
Tuberculosis Control
Venereal Disease Control
Vital Statistics

Kansas Crippled Children Commission; 817 First National Bank Bldg., Wichita; Rollin A. Raymond, Secretary.

Services to Crippled Children

Labor

State Labor Department; 801 Harrison St., Topeka; Jeff A. Robertson, Commissioner.

Factory, Mill, and Mine
Factory Inspection
Mine Inspection
Research
Unemployment Compensation
State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation
Wage and Hour
Women and Children

Workmen's Compensation Commission; Room 210, 801 Harrison St., Topeka; Erskine Wyman, Commissioner.

Public Welfare

State Board of Social Welfare; 801 Harrison St., Topeka; Frank E. Milligan, Chairman.

Administration of State Correctional and Eleemosynary Institutions
State Department of Social Welfare
Child Welfare Services
Public Assistance

Aid to Dependent Children
Aid to the Blind
General Assistance
Licensing and Supervision of Private Agencies
Old Age Assistance
Research and Statistics
Special Welfare Services
Handicapped Persons
Surplus Commodities Distribution
Veterans Services
Vocational Rehabilitation

State Board of Administration; Topeka; Frank W. Boyd, Chairman.

Administration of Penal Institutions
Pardons and Paroles

Kansas State Board of Review; Sixth and Armstrong Sts., Kansas City; Mrs. Mary Numbers, Chairman.

Censorship of Motion Pictures

Kansas State Planning Board; Topeka; H. R. Miller, Director.

KENTUCKY

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); College of Agriculture, University of Kentucky, Lexington; T. P. Cooper, State Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

Srare Department of Education; Frankfort; John W. Brooker, Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Census and Attendance
Special Education
Adult Education
Vocational Rehabilitation
Vocational Education

Health

State Department of Health of Kentucky; 620 South 3d St., Louisville; A. T. McCormack, M.D., Dr.P.H., Commissioner.

Administration of Public Health Services
Bacteriology
Communicable Diseases
County Health Work
Crippled Children Commission
Services to Crippled Children
Dental Health
Epidemiology
Food, Drugs, and Hotels
Laboratory
Maternal and Child Health Services
Medical Registration
Medical Service
Prevention of Trachoma and Blindness
Public Health Education
Public Health Nursing
Sanitary Engineering
Tuberculosis
Venereal Diseases
Vital Statistics

Labor

State Department of Industrial Relations; Frankfort; W. C. Burrow, Commissioner.

Apprenticeship
Child Labor
Conciliation Service
Labor Standards
Minimum Wage for Women and Minors
Prevailing Wage Law on Public Works
Regulation of Women's Employment
Safety Inspection
Statistics and Information
Unemployment Compensation
State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation
Workmen's Compensation Board

State Department of Mines and Minerals; Lexington; G. M. Patterson, Chief.

Public Welfare

State Department of Welfare; Frankfort; Margaret Woll, Commissioner.

Certification to WPA
Child Welfare
Child Welfare Services
Corrections
Hospitals and Mental Hygiene
Probation and Parole
Public Assistance
Old Age Assistance
Research and Statistics
Selection of CCC Enrollees
Surplus Commodities Distribution

Kentucky Disabled Ex-Service Men's Board; Lexington; C. N. Florence, Chief Counselor.

Committee on State Planning, Governor's Cabinet; 9th and Broadway, Louisville; John E. Ulrich, Director.

LOUISIANA

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); Louisiana State University and Agricul-

tural and Mechanical College, University; J. W. Bateman, State Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Education; Baton Rouge; J. E. Coxe, State Superintendent of Public Education.

Home Economics Education
Negro Education
Physical Education
Trade and Industrial Education and Civilian Rehabilitation
Vocational Rehabilitation
Vocational Agriculture

Health

State Board of Health; Civil Court Bldg., Royal and Conti Sts., New Orleans; Joseph A. O'Hara, M.D., President.

Administration of Public Health Services
Child Hygiene
Maternal and Child Health Services
Communicable Diseases and Epidemiology
Crippled Children
Services to Crippled Children
Food and Drugs
Laboratories
Malaria-Mosquito Control
Parish Health Administration
Venereal Diseases
Rural Sanitation
Tuberculosis Control
Sanitary Engineering
Vital Statistics

Labor

State Department of Labor; Baton Rouge; B. W. Cason, Commissioner.

Apprenticeship
Boiler Inspection
Minimum Wage for Female Workers
State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation
Women and Children
Workmen's Compensation

Public Welfare

State Department of Public Welfare; Baton Rouge; C. Ellis Henican, Commissioner.

Case Work Supervision of Patients and Inmates in Institutions
Child Welfare
Adoptions
Child Welfare Services
Licensing and Supervision of Public and Private Agencies Caring for Children
Licensing of Private Institutions Caring for Recipients of Assistance
Parole Supervision and After-care of Patients and Inmates of Institutions
Probation, Parole, and Pardon Services
Public Assistance
Aid to Dependent Children
Aid to the Blind
Old Age Assistance
Referrals to WPA
Relief to Unemployables
Selection of CCC Enrollees
Surplus Commodities Distribution
Research and Statistics
Veteran Services
Confederate Veterans Pensions
State Service Commission

Department of Institutions; Baton Rouge; J. E. Snee, Director.

Administration of State Mental Hospitals, and Correctional, Penal, and Eleemosynary Institutions
State Hospital Board

State Board of Parole; P. O. Box 1051, Baton Rouge; J. S. Darby, Chairman.

Louisiana State Board for the Blind; Baton Rouge; George O. Delesdernier, Executive Secretary.

Louisiana State Planning Commission; P. O. Box 1831, Baton Rouge; J. Lester White, Chairman and Director.

MAINE

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); College of Agriculture, University of Maine, Orono; A. L. Deering, State Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Education; Augusta; Bertram E. Packard, Ed.D., Commissioner.

Physical Education
Rehabilitation
Vocational Rehabilitation
Vocational Education
Adult Education
Agricultural Education
Home Economics Education
Industrial Education

Health

Bureau of Health, State Department of

Health and Welfare; Augusta; Roscoe L. Mitchell, M.D., Director.

Administration of Public Health Services
Communicable Diseases
Dental Hygiene
Diagnostic Laboratory
Maternal and Child Health Services
Public Health Nursing and Child Hygiene
Sanitary Engineering
Services to Crippled Children
Venereal Diseases
Vital Statistics

Labor

State Department of Labor and Industry; Augusta; Jesse W. Taylor, Commissioner.

Boiler Inspection
Industrial Safety

Maine Unemployment Compensation Commission; 331 Water St., Augusta; Clifford A. Somerville, Chairman and Acting Director.

State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation

Industrial Accident Commission; Augusta; Donald D. Garcelon, Chairman.

Workmen's Compensation

State Board of Arbitration and Conciliation; 30 Skillings St., South Portland; Charles M. Taylor, Chairman.

Public Welfare

State Department of Health and Welfare; Augusta; Joel Earnest, Commissioner.

Aid to the Blind
Health (*see* under HEALTH)
Old Age Assistance
Pensions (Civil and Spanish War veterans and their dependents)
Selection of CCC Enrollees
Social Welfare
Aid to Dependent Children
Boarding Homes for Children
Child Care
Child Welfare Services
Hospital Aid
Indian Affairs
World War Relief
Support of State Poor
Surplus Commodities Distribution

Department of Institutional Service; Augusta; George W. Leadbetter, Commissioner.

Administration of State Charitable, Correctional, and Penal Institutions

Parole Board; Augusta; George W. Leadbetter, Commissioner.

MARYLAND

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); University of Maryland, College Park; T. B. Symons, State Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Education; 1111 Lexington Bldg., Baltimore; Albert S. Cook, State Superintendent of Schools.

Agricultural Education
Colored Schools
Educational Measurements
Guidance
Home Economics Education
Industrial Education
Physical Education and Recreation
Vocational Rehabilitation, Special Education, Attendance, and Crippled Children
Vocational Rehabilitation

Health

State Department of Health; 2411 North Charles St., Baltimore; Robert H. Riley, M.D., Dr.P.H., Director.

Administration of Public Health Services
Bacteriological Laboratory
Chemistry
Child Hygiene
Maternal and Child Health Services
Communicable Diseases
Pneumonia Control
Tuberculosis Control
Venereal Disease Control
Food and Drugs
Oral Hygiene
Public Health Education
Sanitary Engineering
Services to Crippled Children
Vital Statistics

Labor

Commissioner of Labor and Statistics; 120 West Redwood St., Baltimore; John M. Pohlhaus, Commissioner.

Arbitration of Strikes
Inspection (boiler, children in industry, factory, homework, mercantile, mine, women in industry)
License (homeworkers, workshop)
Permits
Employment Certificates to Minors
Newsboy Badges
Special Permits to Mentally Handicapped Minors
Statistics and Information

Maryland Unemployment Compensation Board; Baltimore Trust Bldg., Baltimore; William Milnes Maloy, Chairman.
State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation

State Industrial Accident Commission; 741 Equitable Bldg., Baltimore; Charles E. Moylan, Chairman.
State Accident Fund
Workmen's Compensation

Bureau of Mines; Annapolis; J. J. Rutledge, Ph.D., Chief Mine Engineer.

Public Welfare

State Department of Public Welfare; 120 West Redwood St., Baltimore; J. Milton Patterson, Director.
Aid to Dependent Children
Aid to the Blind
Certification to NYA and WPA
Child Welfare
Child Welfare Services
General Public Assistance
Old Age Assistance
Selection of CCC Enrollees
State Aid
Supervision and Licensing of Children's Institutions and Boarding Homes
Supervision and Licensing of Institutions and Boarding Homes for Aged
Surplus Commodities Distribution

Department of Correction; Annapolis; Willis R. Jones, Chairman and Director.
Administration of State Correctional and Penal Institutions

Division of Parole and Probation, Executive Department; Annapolis; Herman M. Moser, Director.

Board of Mental Hygiene; 330 North Charles St., Baltimore; George H. Preston, M.D., Commissioner.
Supervision of State and Private Hospitals for Mental Patients

Maryland Veterans' Commission; 202 Guilford Ave., Baltimore; Joseph A. Cantrel, Chairman.
Graves Registration
State Service Office
Veterans' Relief

Maryland State Board of Motion Picture Censors; 211 North Calvert St., Baltimore; George R. Mitchell, Chairman.

Maryland State Planning Commission; 17 Latrobe Hall, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore; Abel Wolman, Dr.Eng., Chairman.

MASSACHUSETTS

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); Massachusetts State College, Amherst; W. A. Munson, State Extension Director.
Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Education; Boston; Walter F. Downey, Commissioner.
Attendance and Child Accounting
Blind
Aid to the Blind
Health and Physical Education
Medical Inspection
Physical Education
Immigration and Americanization
Physically Handicapped Children
Public Libraries
Safety Education
Special Schools (deaf, blind, mentally retarded)
University Extension Service
Adult Education
Motion Pictures
Vocational Education
Agricultural Education
Home Economics Education
Industrial Education
Industrial Service
Rehabilitation
Vocational Rehabilitation

Health

State Department of Public Health; Boston; Paul J. Jakmauh, M.D., Commissioner.
Administration of Public Health Services
Adult Hygiene
Biologic Laboratories
Communicable Diseases
Crippled Children (in Division of Administration)
Food and Drugs
Genito-infectious Diseases
Maternal and Child Health Services
Sanitary Engineering
Water and Sewage Laboratories
Tuberculosis

Division of Vital Statistics, Department of the Secretary of the Commonwealth; Boston; Arthur J. Hassett, State Registrar of Vital Statistics.

Labor

State Department of Labor and Industries; Boston; James T. Moriarty, Commissioner.
Apprenticeship

Conciliation and Arbitration
Industrial Safety
Minimum Wage
Necessaries of Life
Occupational Hygiene, 23 Joy St., Boston
Standards
State Development and Industrial Commission, Park Square Bldg., Boston
State Labor Relations Commission, 294 Washington St., Boston
Statistics
Unemployment Compensation Commission, 1 State St., Boston
State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation

Department of Industrial Accidents; Boston; Edward P. Doyle, Secretary.

Workmen's Compensation

Commission on Interstate Co-operation; Room 101, 20 Somerset St., Boston; John W. Plaisted, Secretary.

Labor Standards

Public Welfare

State Department of Public Welfare; Boston; Arthur G. Rotch, Commissioner.

Administration
Incorporated Private Charities
Research and Statistics
Selection of CCC Enrollees
State Board of Housing
Supervision of Infirmaries, Lodging Houses, and Boarding Homes for Aged
Aid and Relief
Appeals
Settlements
Social Service
State Hospital and Infirmary (Tewksbury)
Supervisory Service
Aid to Dependent Children
General Relief
Old Age Assistance
Child Guardianship
Child Welfare Services
Investigations of Adoptions
Massachusetts Hospital School
Services for Crippled Children
Supervision of Children and Older Boys and Girls
Supervision of Infants, Boarding Homes for Infants, and Maternity Hospitals
Supervision of Investigations
Juvenile Training
Administration of State Industrial Schools
Boys Parole
Girls Parole

Massachusetts Department of Correction; Boston; Arthur T. Lyman, Commissioner.

Parole Board

Massachusetts Board of Probation; Courthouse, Boston; Albert B. Carter, Commissioner.

Adult Probation
Education
Juvenile Probation
Statistics (juvenile delinquency, probation)

Department of Mental Health; 100 Nashua St., Boston; Clifton T. Perkins, M.D., Commissioner.

Hospital Inspection
Medical Service
Mental Hygiene and Research
Settlement and Support
Statistics and Mental Deficiency

State Aid and Pension Department; Boston; Richard R. Flynn, Commissioner.

Service to Veterans

State Planning Board; Boston; Elisabeth M. Herlihy, Chairman.

MICHIGAN

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); Michigan State College of Agriculture and Applied Science, East Lansing; R. J. Baldwin, State Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Public Instruction; Lansing; Eugene B. Elliott, Ph.D., Superintendent.

Child Accounting
Special Education

State Board of Control for Vocational Education; Lansing; Eugene B. Elliott, Executive Officer.

Agricultural Education
Home Economics Education
Trade and Industrial Education
Vocational Rehabilitation

Health

Michigan Department of Health; Lansing; H. Allen Moyer, M.D., Commissioner.

Administration of Public Health Services
Education
Engineering
Epidemiology
Pneumonia
Tuberculosis
Venereal Disease

Industrial Hygiene
Laboratories
Local Health Service
Maternal and Child Health
Maternal and Child Health Services
Nutrition Consultant Service
Public Health Dentistry
Public Health Nursing
Records and Statistics

Michigan Crippled Children Commission; 458 Hollister Bldg., Lansing; W. G. Hutchinson, M.D., Acting Director.

Afflicted Children
Crippled Children
Hospital Bedside Education
Orthopedic Nursing and Physiotherapy
Services to Crippled Children

Labor

State Department of Labor and Industry; Lansing; John H. Thorpe, Commissioner of Labor.

Accident Prevention
Deaf and Deafened
Employment of Females and Minors
Inspection (boat, boiler, elevator, mercantile, mine)
Wage Claim Collection
Workmen's Compensation

Michigan Unemployment Compensation Commission; 14320 Woodward Ave., Detroit; John C. Townsend, Executive Director.

State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation

State Accident Fund; Prudden Bldg., Lansing; W. C. Bishop, Manager.

Michigan Labot Mediation Board; Lansing; G. Franklin Killeen, Executive Secretary.

Public Welfare

State Social Welfare Commission; 230 North Grand Ave., Lansing; Walter F. Gries, Chairman.

State Bureau of Social Security
Aid to Dependent Children
Aid to the Blind
Old Age Assistance
State Department of Social Welfare
Child Welfare Services
General Relief
Licensing of Maternity Hospitals, Boarding Homes, and Summer Camps for Children
Referrals to WPA
Selection of CCC Enrollees
Supervision of Institute for Blind
Surplus Commodities Distribution

State Hospital Commission; 509 City National Bldg., Lansing; Charles F. Wagg, Executive Secretary.

Supervision of State Mental Hospitals and Institutions for Feebleminded and Epileptics

State Department of Corrections; Lansing; Gen. Edward G. Heckel, Director.

Pardons and Paroles (Parole Board)
Prisons
Administration of State Correctional and Penal Institutions
Prison Industries
Probation

State Juvenile Institute Commission; Clinton; Mrs. H. H. Halladay, Chairman.

Administration of State Training Schools

Michigan Child Guidance Institute; University of Michigan, Ann Arbor; L. J. Carr, Ph.D., Director.

Michigan State Planning Commission; Haven Hall, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor; George C. S. Benson, Secretary.

MINNESOTA

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); Department of Agriculture of the University of Minnesota, University Farm, St. Paul; Paul E. Miller, State Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Education; St. Paul; John G. Rockwell, Ph.D., Commissioner of Education.

Indian Education
Library Extension
Physical and Health Education
Special Classes for Handicapped Children
Vocational Education
Agricultural Education
Home Economics Education
Trade and Industrial Education
Vocational Rehabilitation

Health

State Department of Health; St. Paul; A. J. Chesley, M.D., Secretary and Executive Officer.

Administration
Administration of Public Health Services

Licensing (embalmers, funeral directors, plumbers)
Narcotic Drugs
Public Health Education
Child Hygiene
Dental Health
Maternal and Child Health Services
Nutrition Education
Hotel Inspection
Preventable Diseases
Epidemiology
Laboratories
Tuberculosis Control
Venereal Disease Control
Public Health Nursing
Sanitation
Industrial Hygiene (administered jointly with Division of Preventable Diseases)
Vital Statistics

Labor

Industrial Commission of Minnesota; St. Paul; N. H. Debel, Chairman.

Labor and Industry
Accident Prevention
Boiler Inspection
Painting Standards
Statistics
Steamfitting Standards
Voluntary Apprenticeship
Women and Children
Workmen's Compensation

Division of Conciliation; St. Paul; Lloyd J. Haney, Labor Conciliator.

Public Welfare

Department of Social Security; St. Paul; Walter W. Finke, Chairman of Social Security Board and Director of Division of Social Welfare.

Employment and Security
State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation
Public Institutions
Insane (support, deportation)
Supervision and Management of State Institutions
Social Welfare
Administrative Services
Central Index
Field Services
Field Representatives
Special Field Consultants
Personnel Procedures and Staff Development
Research and Statistics
Medical Services
Crippled Children
Services to Crippled Children
Hospitals, Jails, and Lockups
Institutional Inspection
Licensing and Supervision of Maternity Hospitals
Mental Hygiene
Mental Examinations
Supervision of Feebleminded and Epileptic Outside Institutions
Supervision of Paroled Insane
Tuberculosis Sanatoria
Parole and Probation
Public Assistance and Welfare
Aid to Dependent Children
Aid to the Blind
Child Welfare
Adoptions, Supervision of Dependent and Neglected Children, etc.
Child Welfare Services
Old Age Assistance
Relief Programs
Disabled War Veterans' Relief
Homeless Men's Camp
Selection of CCC Enrollees
Surplus Commodities Distribution
Work Projects

Minnesota Resources Commission; St. Paul; Herbert J. Miller, Executive Secretary.

MISSISSIPPI

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); Mississippi State College, State College; E. H. White, State Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Education; Jackson; J. S. Vandiver, State Superintendent.

Adult Education
Information and Statistics
Vocational Education
Agricultural Education
Distributive Occupations Education
Home Economics Education
Trade and Industrial Education
Vocational Rehabilitation and Crippled Children's Service
Services to Crippled Children
Vocational Rehabilitation

Health

State Board of Health; Jackson; Felix J. Underwood, M.D., Executive Officer.

Administration of Public Health Services
Health Education and Library
County Health Work and Maternal and Child Health
Dental Health
Maternal and Child Health Services
Nutrition
Public Health Nursing

Hygienic Laboratory
Industrial Hygiene and Factory Inspection (*see* under LABOR)
Preventable Disease Control
Epidemiology
Malariology
Venereal Diseases
Sanatorium
Sanitary Engineering
Vital Statistics

Labor

Division of Industrial Hygiene and Factory Inspection, State Board of Health; Jackson; J. W. Dugger, M.D., Director.

Child and Female Labor Law Enforcement
Factory Sanitation
Preventive Health Service

Mississippi Unemployment Compensation Commission; 524½ East Capitol St., Jackson; C. B. Cameron, Executive Director.

Research and Information
State Employment Service, P.O. Box 1218, Jackson
Unemployment Compensation

Public Welfare

State Department of Public Welfare; P. O. Box 1970, Jackson; W. F. Bond, State Commissioner.

Child Welfare Services
Services for the Blind
Supervision and Inspection of Child Welfare Agencies and Institutions
Licensing of Boarding Homes
Supervision of Public Assistance
Aid to the Blind
Certification to NYA and WPA
Old Age Assistance
Selection of CCC Enrollees
Surplus Commodities Distribution

Board of Trustees of State Eleemosynary Institutions; 306 Capital National Bank Bldg., Jackson; Charles E. Brumfield, Executive Secretary.

Administration of State Hospitals and Correctional Institutions

State Service Commission; War Memorial Bldg., Jackson; G. S. Vincent, Commissioner.

Service to Veterans

Mississippi Board of Development; 329 North State St., Jackson; E. O. Spencer, Chairman.

MISSOURI

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); College of Agriculture, University of Missouri, Columbia; J. W. Burch, State Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Public Schools; Jefferson City; Lloyd W. King, State Superintendent.

Health Education
Negro Education
Occupational Information and Guidance
Speech Education
Vocational Education
Agricultural Education
Home Economics Education
Rehabilitation
Vocational Rehabilitation
Trade and Industrial Education

Health

State Board of Health; Jefferson City; Harry F. Parker, M.D., State Health Commissioner.

Administration of Public Health Services
Child Hygiene
Maternal and Child Health Services
Cosmetology and Hairdressing Establishments
Food and Drugs
Laboratories
Local Health Administration and Communicable Disease Control
Venereal Disease
Public Health Education
Public Health Engineering and Sanitation
Industrial Hygiene Service
Public Health Nursing
Vital Statistics

State Service for Crippled Children; University Hospital, Columbia; William J. Stewart, M.D., Director.

Services to Crippled Children

Cancer Commission of the State of Missouri; 3713 Washington Blvd., St. Louis; Dorothy Hehmann, Executive Secretary.

Labor

State Labor and Industrial Inspection Department; Jefferson City; Earl H. Shackelford, Commissioner.

Bedding

Industrial Hygiene
Industrial Relations
Labor Welfare
Licensing of Mattress Factories
Regulation of Fee Charging Employment Agencies

Unemployment Compensation Commission of Missouri; Jefferson City; Andrew J. Murphy, Sr., Chairman.

Informational Service
Research and Statistics
State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation

Missouri Workmen's Compensation Commission; Jefferson City; Edgar C. Nelson, Chairman.

Missouri Bureau of Mines, State Inspection Department; Jefferson City; Arnold Griffith, Chief Mine Inspector.

Public Welfare

State Social Security Commission of Missouri; Jefferson City; George I. Haworth, Administrator.

Child Welfare
Child Welfare Services
Foster Care
Licensing of Child-caring Agencies
Supervision of Juvenile Probation
Public Assistance
Aid to Dependent Children
General Relief
Old Age Assistance
Selection of CCC Enrollees
Surplus Commodities Distribution

Board of Managers of State Eleemosynary Institutions; Jefferson City; W. Ed Jameson, President.

Management of State Mental Hospitals, School for Feebleminded and Epileptic, and Tuberculosis Sanatorium

Department of Penal Institutions; Jefferson City; Grover C. Clevenger, Director.

Board of Probation and Parole; Jefferson City; Robert C. Edson, Director.

Missouri Commission for the Blind; Jefferson City; Marie M. Finan, Executive Director.

State Service Officer, Office of Adjutant General; Jefferson City; Monte C. Coulter, State Service Officer.

Service to Veterans and Their Dependents

Missouri State Planning Board; Jefferson City; William W. Anderson, Director.

MONTANA

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); Montana State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, Bozeman; J. C. Taylor, State Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Public Instruction; Helena; Ruth Reardon, State Superintendent.

Attendance and Child Accounting
Health and Physical Education
Medical Inspection
Physical Education
Rehabilitation
Adult Education
Agricultural Education
Special Schools
Vocational Education
Vocational Rehabilitation

Health

State Board of Health; Helena; W. F. Cogswell, M.D., Secretary.

Administration of Public Health Services
Child Welfare
Health Education
Maternal and Child Health Services
Public Health Nursing
Communicable Diseases and Rural Health Work
Venereal Disease
Food and Drugs
Hygienic Laboratory
Industrial Hygiene
Vital Statistics
Water and Sewage

Labor

Division of Labor and Publicity, Department of Agriculture, Labor and Industry; Helena; Eugene C. Burris, Commissioner of Labor.

Unemployment Compensation Commission of Montana; Old National Bank Bldg., Helena; Barclay Craighead, Chairman.

State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation

Industrial Accident Board; Helena; J. Burke Clements, Chairman.

Workmen's Compensation

Public Welfare

State Department of Public Welfare; Helena; I. M. Brandjord, Administrator.

Child Welfare Services
Public Assistance
Aid to Dependent Children
Aid to the Blind
General Relief
Old Age Assistance
Selection of CCC Enrollees
Services to Crippled Children
Statistics and Research
Supervision of Jails and Charitable Institutions for Adults
Surplus Commodities Distribution

Consolidated Boards; Helena; W. L. Fitzsimmons, Clerk of Boards.

Board of Commissioners for the Insane
Board of Prison Commissioners
Interstate Compact Relative ro Uniform Crime Control Acts
Parole Board

Montana Commission for the Blind; Great Falls; Edwin G. Peterson, Chairman.

Montana State Planning Board; Montana Bldg., Helena; Fred E. Buck, Secretary.

NEBRASKA

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); College of Agriculture, University of Nebraska, Lincoln; W. H. Brokaw, State Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Public Instruction; Lincoln; Charles W. Taylor, State Superintendent.

Character Education

State Board for Vocational Education; Lincoln; Charles W. Taylor, Secretary.

Vocational Education
Agricultural Education
Home Economics Education
Trade and Industrial Education
Vocational Rehabilitation

Health

State Department of Health; Lincoln; P. H. Bartholomew, M.D., Acting Director.

Administration of Public Health Services
Communicable Disease
Maternal and Child Health Services
Public Health Laboratory
Public Health Nursing
Sanitation
Venereal Diseases
Vital Statistics

Labor

State Department of Labor; Lincoln; V. B. Kinney, Commissioner.

Labor
Child Labor
Female Labor
Inspection (factory, safety)
State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation

Nebraska Workmen's Compensation Court; Lincoln; Frank M. Coffey, Presiding Judge.

Administration of Workmen's Compensation

Public Welfare

State Board of Control; Lincoln; C. W. Eubank, Chairman.

Assistance and Child Welfare
Assistance
Aid to Dependent Children
Aid to the Blind
Certification to FSA, NYA, WPA
Home and Veteran Relief
Old Age Assistance
Selection of CCC Enrollees
Child Welfare
Child Welfare Services
Services to Crippled Children
Supervision and Inspection of Child Welfare Agencies and Institutions
Supervision and Licensing of Maternity Homes
Supervision of Juvenile Probation and Parole
Research and Statistics
Surplus Commodities Distribution
Institutions
Administration of State Charitable, Mental, and Penal Institutions
Services for the Blind
Supervision and Inspection of Medical Institutions and Homes for Dependent Adults

State Board of Pardons and Paroles; Lincoln; M. F. Kracher, Chief State Probation Officer.

World War State Fund Relief Committee, State Board of Educational Lands and Funds; Lincoln; Edgar J. Boschult, Ph.D., Chairman.

State Spanish-American War Veterans' Relief Fund; Lincoln; E. E. Carle, Quartermaster, Spanish-American War Veterans.

Nebraska State Planning Board; Lincoln; W. H. Mengel, Planning Engineer.

NEVADA

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); College of Agriculture, University of Nevada, Reno; T. E. Buckman, Acting Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Education; Carson City; Mildred Bray, State Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Vocational Education
Agricultural Education
Home Economics Education
Trade and Industrial Education
Vocational Rehabilitation

Health

State Department of Health; Carson City; Edward E. Harner, M.D., State Health Officer.

Administration of Public Health Services
Communicable Diseases
Dental Hygiene
Laboratory
Maternal and Child Health Services
Orthopedics
Services to Crippled Children
Public Health Nursing
Sanitation
Venereal Disease Control
Vital Statistics

Labor

State Department of Labor; Carson City; R. N. Gibson, Commissioner.

Apprenticeship
State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation

Nevada Industrial Commission; Carson and East Proctor Sts., Carson City; D. J. Sullivan, Chairman.

Workmen's Compensation

State Inspector of Mines; Carson City; Matt Murphy, State Inspector.

Public Welfare

State Board of Relief, Work Planning and Pension Control; 303 South Center St., Reno; Gilbert C. Ross, Executive Secretary.

State Welfare Department
Child Welfare Services
Old Age Assistance

Nevada Emergency Relief Administration; 303 South Center St., Reno; Gilbert C. Ross, State Administrator.

Food Stamp, 541 Sierra St., Reno
Social Service, 21 Library Bldg., Reno
Certification to WPA
Surplus Commodities Distribution, 541 Sierra St., Reno

State Board of Prison Commissioners, Executive Office; Carson City; W. S. Harris, Clerk of Board.

State Board of Pardon and Parole Commissioners; Carson City; W. S. Harris, Clerk of Board.

Commissioners for the Care of Indigent Insane; State Hospital, Reno; J. C. Ferrell, M.D., Superintendent.

Nevada State Planning Board; Carson City; Robert A. Allen, Chairman.

NEW HAMPSHIRE

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); University of New Hampshire, Durham; J. C. Kendall, State Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Board of Education; Concord; James N. Pringle, Commissioner.

Adult Education
Attendance and Child Welfare
Education of the Physically Handicapped
Health Supervision
Institutional Education of the Deaf
Rehabilitation
Vocational Rehabilitation
Vocational Education
Agricultural Education
Home Economics Education
Industrial Education

Health

State Board of Health; Concord; Travis P. Burroughs, M.D., Secretary.

Administration of Public Health Services
Communicable Diseases
Industrial Hygiene

Laboratory
Maternity, Infancy, and Child Hygiene
Maternal and Child Health Services
Services to Crippled Children
Public Health Education
Public Health Nursing
Sanitation
Venereal Disease Control
Vital Statistics

New Hampshire State Cancer Commission; Concord; Jeanette Saben, Executive Secretary.

Labor

State Bureau of Labor; Concord; John S. B. Davie, Labor Commissioner.

Apprenticeship
Factory Inspection
Minimum Wage
State Board of Conciliation and Arbitration
State Employment Service, 32 South Main St., Concord
Unemployment Compensation, 34 South Main St., Concord
Workmen's Compensation

Public Welfare

State Department of Public Welfare; Concord; Harry O. Page, Commissioner.

Administration of Public Assistance
Aid to Dependent Children
Aid to the Blind
Old Age Assistance
Aid to Tuberculous
Child Welfare Services
Inspection, Supervision, and Licensing of Public and Private Institutions and Boarding Homes
Services for the Blind and Deaf
Sight Conservation Services
Veterans' Service

New Hampshire Department of Probation; Concord; Richard T. Smith, Director.

New Hampshire State Planning and Development Commission; Concord; Frederick P. Clark, Planning Director.

NEW JERSEY

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, Rutgers University, New Brunswick; Laurence A. Bevan, State Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Public Instruction; Trenton; Charles H. Elliott, Ph.D., Commissioner of Education.

Adult Education
Attendance and Child Accounting
Guidance
Health and Physical Education
Dental Service
Health Education
Medical Inspection
Nursing Service
Physical Education
Safety Education
School Lunches
Special Education
Atypical Children
Special Schools
Evening Schools for Foreign Born
Vocational Education
Agricultural Education
Consumer Education
Home Economics Education
Industrial Education
Rehabilitation
Physically Handicapped Children
Vocational Rehabilitation

Health

State Department of Health; Trenton; J. Lynn Mahaffey, M.D., Director.

Administration of Public Health Services
Bacteriological Laboratory
Chemistry
Dental Health
Engineering
Food and Drugs
Local Health Administration
Maternal and Child Health Services
Negro Health
Venereal Disease Control
Vital Statistics

Crippled Children Commission; 732 Broad Street Bank Bldg., Trenton; Joseph G. Buch, Chairman-Director.

Consultant Orthopedic Nursing
Medical Social Work
Services to Crippled Children
Statistics

Labor

State Department of Labor; Wallach Bldg., Trenton; John J. Toohey, Jr., Commissioner.

Electrical and Mechanical Equipment
Engineers' License, Steam Boiler, and Refrigerating Plant Inspection
General and Structural Inspection and Explosives
Hygiene, Sanitation, and Mine Inspection
Licensing, Regulation, and Supervision of Private Employment Agencies, 1060 Broad St., Newark

Minimum Wage
Statistics and Records
Wage Claims
Women and Children
Workmen's Compensation

Unemployment Compensation Commission; 28 West State St., Trenton; Harold G. Hoffman, Executive Director.

State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation

Commission for the Rehabilitation of Physical Handicaps; 234 East Hanover St., Trenton; John J. Toohey, Jr., Director.

Vocational Rehabilitation

Public Welfare

State Department of Institutions and Agencies; Trenton; William J. Ellis, Commissioner.

Administration of State Penal and Correctional Institutions; Hospitals for Mental Disease, Mental Deficiency, Epilepsy, and Tuberculosis; and Veterans' Homes
Board of Children's Guardians
Aid to Children in Own Homes
Aid to Dependent Children
Child Welfare
Child Welfare Services
Dependent Children
Care of State Wards
Classification and Education of State Wards
Commission for the Blind, 1060 Broad St., Newark
Aid to the Blind
Inspection and Visitation (charitable children's homes and homes for aged, county and municipal hospitals, almshouses, jails)
Institutional Farms
Licensing (private hospitals and nursing homes, private institutions for mentally diseased and mentally deficient)
Medicine
Old Age Assistance
Parole
Research
Selection of CCC Enrollees
State Use

State Municipal Aid Administration; 150 East State St., Trenton; Charles R. Erdman, Jr., Ph.D., Director.

Apportionment of State Funds for Public Assistance to Municipalities

Juvenile Delinquency Commission; Trenton; Douglas W. MacNeil, Director.

State Service Office; Trenton; Brig. Gen. William A. Higgins, Adjutant General.

Service to Veterans

State Housing Authority; 1060 Broad St., Newark; Harry I. Luftman, Secretary.

New Jersey State Planning Board; Trenton; Charles P. Messick, D.B.Adm., Chairman.

NEW MEXICO

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, State College; A. B. Fite, State Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Education; Santa Fe; Mrs. Grace J. Corrigan, Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Instruction
Child Accounting and Attendance
Child Development
Rehabilitation
Vocational Rehabilitation
Vocational Education
Agricultural Education
Distributive Occupations Education
Home Economics Education
Trade and Industrial Education

Health

State Department of Public Health; Santa Fe; James R. Scott, M.D., Ph.D., Director of Public Health.

Administration of Public Health Services
County Health Administration
Communicable Disease Control
Laboratory, Albuquerque
Maternal and Child Health Services
Public Health Nursing
Registration and Vital Statistics
Sanitary Engineering
Venereal Disease Control Services

Labor

State Labor and Industtial Commission; Santa Fe; Vincent J. Jaeger, Labor Commissioner.

Apprenticeship
Workmen's Compensation

Unemployment Compensation Commission of New Mexico; P. O. Box 1301, Albuquerque; Roy L. Cook, Chairman-Executive Director.

State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation

New Mexico Bureau of Mines and Mineral Resources, New Mexico School of Mines; Socorro; C. E. Needham, Ph.D., Director.

Public Welfare

State Department of Public Welfare; P. O. Box 1391, Santa Fe; Mrs. Jennie M. Kirby, Director.

Child Welfare Services
Crippled Children's Services
Public Assistance
Aid to Dependent Children
Aid to the Blind
Certification to NYA and Surplus Commodities
General Assistance
Old Age Assistance
Selection of CCC Enrollees
Research and Statistics

Disabled Soldiers Relief Commission; P. O. Box 1723, Santa Fe; Murray C. Beene, Director of Veterans Affairs.

New Mexico State Planning Board; 138 Alameda St., Santa Fe; Lyle Brush, Chairman.

NEW YORK

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); New York State College of Agriculture, Ithaca; L. R. Simons, State Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Education Department; Albany; Ernest E. Cole, Commissioner.

Adult Education and Library Extension
Child Accounting and Attendance (in Division of School Administrative Services)
Child Development and Parent Education (in Division of Elementary Education)
Guidance
Health and Physical Education
Physically Handicapped Children
Public Service Training
Rehabilitation
Vocational Rehabilitation
Research
Vocational Education
Agricultural Education
Business Education
Home Economics Education
Industrial and Technical Education
Industrial Service

Health

State Department of Health; Albany; Edward S. Godfrey, Jr., M.D., Commissioner.

Administration of Public Health Services
Cancer Control
Communicable Diseases
Laboratories and Research
Maternity, Infancy, and Child Hygiene
Maternal and Child Health Services
Narcotics
Orthopedics
Services to Crippled Children
Public Health Education
Public Health Nursing
Sanitation (including milk inspection)
Syphilis Control
Tuberculosis
Viral Statistics

Labor

State Department of Labor; 80 Centre St., New York; Frieda S. Miller, Industrial Commissioner.

Bedding, 124 East 28th St., New York
Board of Mediation, 250 West 57th St., New York
Engineering, Albany
Industrial Board
Industrial Code
Industrial Hygiene
Industrial Relations
Inspection (boiler; building construction and public assembly; factory; mercantile; mine, tunnel, quarry, and explosives)
Labor Relations Board, 250 West 57th St., New York
Placement and Unemployment Insurance, Broadway Arcade Bldg., Albany
State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation
Self-Insurance and Finance
Standards and Appeals, 11 North Pearl St., Albany
State Insurance Fund, 625 Madison Ave., New York
Statistics and Information
Wage Claims
Women in Industry and Minimum Wage
Enforcement of Child Labor Laws
Homework Inspection
Workmen's Compensation

Public Welfare

State Department of Social Welfare; Albany; David C. Adie, Commissioner.

Administration of State Institutions (delinquent children; dependent Indian children; wives, widows, or daughters of veterans)
Child Welfare Services
Services for the Blind
Supervision and Inspection of Child Welfare Agencies and Institutions

Licensing of Boarding Homes
Supervision and Inspection of Medical Institutions and Homes for Dependent Adults
Supervision of Public Assistance
Aid to Dependent Children
Aid to the Blind
Home and Veteran Relief
Old Age Assistance
Selection of CCC Enrollees
State Charges and Indians
Surplus Commodities Distribution

Department of Correction; Albany; John A. Lyons, Commissioner.
Criminal Identification, Records, and Statistics
Education
Prison Industries
Probation

Division of Parole (Parole Board), Executive Department; Albany; David Dressler, Ph.D., Executive Director.

Department of Mental Hygiene; Albany; William J. Tiffany, M.D., Commissioner.
Child Guidance
Inspection and Special Examination, 80 Centre St., New York
Occupational Therapy, 80 Centre St., New York
Psychiatric Social Work
Statistics

Bureau for the Relief of Sick and Disabled New York Veterans; Albany; Lieut. Col. Francis G. Roddy, Director.

State Division of Housing, Executive Department; 80 Centre St., New York; Edward Weinfeld, Commissioner.

Division of State Planning, Executive Department; 353 Broadway, Albany; Maurice F. Neufeld, Ph.D., Acting Director.
Stare Planning Council

NORTH CAROLINA

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); State College Station, Raleigh; I. O. Schaub, State Extension Director.
Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Public Instruction; Raleigh; Clyde A. Erwin, State Superintendent.
Adult Education
Child Accounting and Attendance
Instructional Service
Child Development and Parent Education
Health and Physical Education
Negro Education
Vocational Education
Agricultural Education
Distributive Occupations Education
Home Economics Education
Occupational Information and Guidance
Rehabilitation
Vocational Rehabilitation
Trade and Industrial Education

Health

State Board of Health; Raleigh; Carl V. Reynolds, M.D., Secretary and State Health Officer.
Administration of Public Health Services
County Health Work
Epidemiology
Malaria Control
Venereal Disease Control
Industrial Hygiene
Laboratories
Oral Hygiene
Preventive Medicine
Crippled Child
Services to Crippled Children
Health Education
Maternity and Child Hygiene
Maternal and Child Health Services
Sanitary Engineering
School Health Coordinating Service
Vital Statistics

Labor

North Carolina Department of Labor; Raleigh; Forrest H. Shuford, Commissioner.
Apprenticeship
Safety Engineering
Service to World War Veterans
Standards and Inspections
Inspection (boiler, elevator, factory, mercantile, mine)
Women and Children
Statistics

Unemployment Compensation Commission; Raleigh; C. G. Powell, Chairman.
Research and Statistics
State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation

North Carolina Industrial Commission; Raleigh; T. A. Wilson, Chairman.
Industrial Safety
Workmen's Compensation

Public Welfare

State Board of Charities and Public Welfare; Raleigh; Mrs. W. T. Bost, Commissioner.
Child Welfare

Child Welfare Services
Licensing of Boarding Homes
Supervision and Inspection of Child-caring Institutions
Consultant and Field Service on Work Among Negroes
Field Social Work Service
Institutions and Corrections
Mental Hygiene
Personnel and County Organization
Public Assistance
Aid to Dependent Children
Old Age Assistance
Referrals to NYA and WPA
Selection of CCC Enrollees
Staff Development
Surplus Commodities Distribution

North Carolina State Commission for the Blind; Raleigh; Roma Sawyer Cheek, Ph.D., Executive Secretary.
Aid to the Blind

North Carolina Rural Rehabilitation Corporation; 15 West Hargett St., Raleigh; W. Carey Parker, Executive Secretary.
Loans to Counties for Construction of Buildings for Vocational Courses and Community Center Purposes
Loans to Students of Rural Social Work Attending Accredited Schools of Social Work

Prison Department, State Highway Commission; Raleigh; R. G. Johnson, Director of Prisons.
Administration of State Penal Institutions

Probation Commission; Raleigh; J. H. Sample, Director.
Adult Probation

Division of Parole, Executive Department; Raleigh; Edwin Gill, Commissioner of Paroles.

World War Veterans' Loan Fund; P. O. Drawer 286, Raleigh; Col. Graham K. Hobbs, Commissioner.

State Housing Board; Durham; Eugene Newsom, Secretary.

North Catolina State Planning Board; P. O. Box 231, Raleigh; Theodore S. Johnson, Consultant.

NORTH DAKOTA

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); North Dakota Agricultural College, State College Station, Fargo; E. J. Haslerud, State Extension Director.
Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Board of Higher Education; Grand Forks; Edward Erickson, State Director.
Vocational Education and Vocational Rehabilitation
Vocational Rehabilitation

Health

State Department of Health; Bismarck; Maysil M. Williams, M.D., C.P.H., State Health Officer.
Administration of Public Health Services
Child Hygiene and Public Health Nursing
Maternal and Child Health Services
Communicable Diseases
Health Education
Laboratory
Preventable Diseases
Sanitary Engineering
Venereal Diseases
Vital Statistics

Labor

State Department of Agriculture and Labor; Bismarck; Math Dahl, Commissioner.
Cooperatives
Dairy
Labor
Minimum Wage

Workmen's Compensation Bureau; Bismarck; Leonard H. Miller, Secretary.
Mine Inspection
State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation
Workmen's Compensation

Public Welfare

State Public Welfare Board; Bismarck; E. A. Willson, Executive Director.
Child Welfare
Child Welfare Services
Services to Crippled Children
General Relief
Certification to FSA, NYA, WPA
Selection of CCC Enrollees
Surplus Commodities Distribution
Public Assistance
Aid to Dependent Children
Aid to the Blind
Old Age Assistance

Board of Administtation of North Dakota; Bismatck; R. M. Rishworth, Executive Secretary.
Administration of State Penal and Charitable Institutions

Veterans Service Commissioner's Office; 13 South Broadway, Fargo; R. J. Downey, Commissioner.

North Dakota Advisory Resources Board; Bismarck; H. C. McColly, Secretary.

OHIO

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); College of Agriculture, Ohio State University, Columbus; H. C. Ramsower, State Extension Director.

- Agriculture
- 4-H Club Work
- Home Economics

Education

State Department of Education; Columbus; E. N. Dietrich, Director.

- Child Accounting (in Division of School Finance)
- Film Censorship
- Health and Physical Education
- Special Schools (blind, deaf, physically handicapped)
- Visual Education
- Vocational Education
  - Agricultural Education
  - Home Economics Education
  - Industrial Rehabilitation
    - *Vocational Rehabilitation*
  - Trade and Industrial Education

Bureau of Social and Adult Education; Ohio State University, Columbus; Charles Scott Berry, Ph.D., Director.

Health

State Department of Health; Columbus; R. H. Markwith, M.D., Director.

- *Administration of Public Health Services*
- Adult Hygiene
  - Appendicitis Control
  - Cancer Control
  - Geriatrics
  - Occupational Diseases
  - Pneumonia Control
  - Venereal Diseases
- Birth and Death Registration (in Division of Audits and Statistics)
- Child Hygiene
  - Communicable Diseases
  - Hospitals and Dispensaries
  - *Maternal and Child Health Services*
  - Nutrition
  - Prevention of Blindness
  - Tuberculosis
- Dental Health Education
- Engineering (including environmental sanitation and milk sanitation)
- Laboratory
- Nursing
  - Consultation for Public Health Nursing Problems
  - Placement and Registry of Public Health Nurses

Labor

State Department of Industrial Relations; Columbus; George Allen Strain, Director.

- Boiler Inspection
- Factory and Building Inspection
  - State Apprenticeship Council
- Labor Statistics
- Mines and Mining
- Minimum Wage
- Steam Engineer Examiners
- Workshops and Factories

Bureau of Unemployment Compensation; 427 Cleveland Ave., Columbus; H. C. Atkinson, Administrator.

- State Employment Service
- *Unemployment Compensation*

Industrial Commission of Ohio; Columbus; Will T. Blake, Chairman.

- Safety and Hygiene
- Workmen's Compensation

Public Welfare

State Department of Public Welfare; Columbus; Charles L. Sherwood, Director.

- Administration of State Institutions
- Aid to the Aged
  - *Old Age Assistance*
- Criminal Identification and Investigation
- Juvenile Research
- Mental Diseases
  - Medical Treatment and Care for Insane, Feebleminded, and Epileptic
  - Supervision and Licensing of Private Hospitals for Mental Diseases
- Ohio Commission for the Blind (prevention, instruction, employment)
- Pardon and Parole (release of prisoners)
- Probation and Parole (Parole Board)
- Public Assistance
  - *Aid to Dependent Children*
  - *Aid to the Blind*
  - Children's Services
    - *Child Welfare Services*
    - Placement of Dependent Children
    - *Services to Crippled Children*
  - General Poor Relief
  - Selection of CCC Enrollees

Soldiers Claims and Records, Adjutant General's Department; 107 Wyandotte Bldg., Columbus; Wade C. Christy, Supervisor.

- Service to Veterans

State Board of Housing; 410 Wyandotte Bldg., Columbus; O. W. L. Coffin, Secretary.

OKLAHOMA

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, Stillwater; E. E. Scholl, State Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Public Instruction; Oklahoma City; A. L. Crable, State Superintendent.

Adult Education
Nursery School Education
Rehabilitation
Vocational Rehabilitation
Research
Attendance and Child Accounting
Vocational Education
Agricultural Education
Home Economics Education
Physically Handicapped Children
Trade and Industrial Education

Health

State Department of Public Health; Oklahoma City; Grady F. Mathews, M.D., Commissioner.

Administration of Public Health Services
Community Sanitation
Dental Education
Epidemiology
Food, Drug, and Sanitary Inspection
Full-time Health Units
Laboratory
Malaria Control
Maternal and Child Welfare
Maternal and Child Health Services
Milk Control
Public Health Education
Public Health Nursing
Sanitary Engineering
Tuberculosis Control
Venereal Disease Control
Vital Statistics

Oklahoma Commission for Crippled Children; 313 Franklin Bldg., Oklahoma City; Joe N. Hamilton, Executive Secretary.

Services to Crippled Children

Labor

State Department of Labor; Oklahoma City; W. A. Pat Murphy, Commissioner.

Inspection (boiler, factory)
Labor Statistics
State Board of Arbitration and Conciliation
Unemployment Compensation and Placement
State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation
Women and Children in Industry

State Industrial Commission; Oklahoma City; William L. Fogg, Chairman.

Workmen's Compensation

Department of Mines and Mining; Oklahoma City; Robert H. Brown, Chief Mine Inspector.

Public Welfare

State Department of Public Welfare; Oklahoma City; J. B. Harper, Director.

Child Welfare
Child Welfare Services
Public Assistance
Aid to Dependent Children
Aid to the Blind
Old Age Assistance
Selection of CCC Enrollees

State Board of Public Welfare; Oklahoma City; Bert McDonel, Administrator.

General Relief
Surplus Commodities Distribution

State Board of Public Affairs; Oklahoma City; E. W. Smartt, Chairman.

Administration of State Eleemosynary and Penal Institutions

State Department of Charities and Corrections; Oklahoma City; Mrs. Mabel Bassett, Commissioner.

Pardon and Parole Office; Oklahoma City; J. A. Minton, Pardon and Parole Attorney.

Oklahoma Commission for the Adult Blind; Oklahoma City; Mrs. O. B. Grimmett, Executive Secretary.

Soldiers Relief Commission; 205 Historical Bldg., Oklahoma City; C. S. Harrah, Chief Clerk.

Service to Veterans

Confederate Pension Department; P. O. Box 3098, Oklahoma City; Mrs. Myrtle J. Cook, Commissioner.

Oklahoma Planning and Resources Board; Oklahoma City; Don M'Bride, Chief Engineer, Division of Water Resources.

OREGON

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); Oregon State Agricultural College, Corvallis; W. A. Schoenfeld, State Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Education; State Library Bldg., Salem; Rex Putnam, Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Vocational Education
Distributive Occupations Education
Home Economics Education
Trade and Industrial Education
Vocational Agricultural Education
Vocational Rehabilitation

Health

Oregon State Board of Health; 816 Oregon Bldg., Portland; Frederick D. Stricker, M.D., Secretary and State Health Officer.

Administration of Public Health Services
Bedding and Upholstery
Communicable Diseases
Eugenics
Hygienic Laboratory
Licensure of Chiropodists, Embalmers, and Plumbers
Maternal and Child Health Services
Public Health Nursing
Sanitary Engineering
Venereal Disease Control
Vital Statistics

Labor

State Bureau of Labor; 301 State Library Bldg., Salem; C. H. Gram, Commissioner.

Inspection (boiler, electrical appliances, factory)
State Welfare Commission (industrial welfare)
Wage Collection
Wages and Hours for Women and Minors

State Unemployment Compensation Commission; 550 Marion St., Salem; S. Gaiser, Administrator.

State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation

State Industrial Accident Commission; Salem; L. O. Arens, Chairman.

Workmen's Compensation

State Board of Conciliation; 5765 Northeast Cleveland Ave., Portland; John O'Neill, Secretary.

State Apprenticeship Commission; State Library Bldg., Salem; O. D. Adams, Secretary.

Oregon State Department of Geology and Mineral Industries; 702 Woodlark Bldg., Portland; Earl K. Nixon, Director.

Public Welfare

State Public Welfare Commission; 507 Spalding Bldg., Portland; Elmer R. Goudy, Administrator.

Adoption Investigations and Reports to Courts
Aid to Dependent Children
Aid to the Blind
Approval of State-aid Claims of Child-caring Institutions
Child Welfare Services
Food Stamp Plan
General Assistance (relief)
Investigation, Certification, and Supervision of Private Commercial Boarding Homes for Children
Licensing of Child-caring Institutions
Old Age Assistance
Research and Statistics
Selection of CCC Enrollees
Services to Crippled Children
Surplus Commodities Distribution

Oregon State Board of Control; Salem; Daniel J. Fry, Secretary.

Administration of State Hospitals, Penal Institutions, and Schools for the Blind and the Deaf

State Board of Parole and Probation; State Library Bldg., Salem; Fred Finsley, Director.

Oregon Blind Trade School and Commission for the Blind; 8435 Northeast Glison St., Portland; Linden McCullough, Superintendent.

Vending Stand Program

State Child Guidance Extension; University of Oregon Medical School, Portland; D. W. E. Baird, M.D., Chairman, Administrative Committee.

Oregon Economic Council; Salem; Sigfrid Unander, Secretary.

PENNSYLVANIA

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); Pennsylvania State College, State College; M. S. McDowell, State Extension Director.

- Agriculture
- 4-H Club Work
- Home Economics

Education

State Department of Public Instruction; Harrisburg; Francis B. Haas, Superintendent.

- Administration and Finance
  - Child Accounting and Research
  - Consolidation and Transportation
- Instruction
  - Agricultural Education
  - Art Education
  - Extension Education
  - Health and Physical Education
    - School Nursing
  - Home Economics Education
  - Industrial Education
  - Music Education
  - Special Education
  - Vocational Rehabilitation
- State Board of Censors (motion pictures)

Health

State Department of Health; Harrisburg; John J. Shaw, M.D., Secretary.

- *Administration of Public Health Services*
- Health Conservation
  - Cancer Control
  - Epidemiology
  - Industrial Hygiene
  - Laboratories
  - Narcotic Drug Control
  - Pneumonia Control
  - Public Health Education
  - Rural Sanitation
  - Venereal Diseases
- Maternal and Child Health
  - Dental Hygiene
  - *Maternal and Child Health Services*
  - Nutrition
  - Orthopedic Services
    - *Services to Crippled Children*
  - Preschool Hygiene
  - School Medical Inspection
- Milk Sanitation
- Public Health Nursing
- Sanitary Engineering
- State Board of Housing
- Tuberculosis Control
  - State Sanatoria
  - Tuberculosis Clinics and Surveys
- Vital Statistics

Labor

State Department of Labor and Industry; Harrisburg; Lewis G. Hines, Secretary.

- Apprenticeship
- Employment and Unemployment Compensation
  - State Employment Service
  - *Unemployment Compensation*
  - Unemployment Compensation Board of Review
- Industrial Board
  - Industrial Standards
- Inspection (including wages and hours)
  - Accident Prevention
  - Bedding and Upholstery
  - Boiler
  - Buildings
  - Elevator
  - Mines and Quarries
- Labor Relations Board
  - Mediation
- Licensing of Private Employment Agencies
- Rehabilitation
  - *Vocational Rehabilitation*
- Research and Information
- State Workmen's Insurance Fund
- Women and Children
- Workmen's Compensation Board
- Workmen's Compensation Referees
  - Workmen's Compensation

Department of Mines; Harrisburg; John Ira Thomas, Secretary.

Public Welfare

State Department of Welfare; Harrisburg; E. Arthur Sweeny, Secretary.

- Assistance
  - Community Work
    - *Child Welfare Services*
  - Council for the Blind
  - Family and Child Welfare
  - Homes and Hospitals
  - Interracial Relations
  - Solicitation of Funds
- Corrections
  - Classification
  - Prison Labor
  - Probation and Parole
- Institutional Management
  - Construction
  - Farms
  - Nutrition
- Mental Health
  - Inspection
  - Mental Deficiency
  - Statistics
  - Therapy
- Public Information
- Research and Statistics

State Department of Public Assistance; Harrisburg; Howard L. Russell, Secretary.

- *Aid to Dependent Children*
- Blind Pensions

General Assistance
Old Age Assistance
Public Relations
Relief Work
Research and Statistics
Selection of CCC Enrollees
Surplus Commodities Distribution

Office of Parole Supervision, Department of Justice; Harrisburg; Thomas T. Taylor, Supervisor of Paroles.

Pennsylvania Veterans' Commission, Department of Military Affairs; 116 South 3d St., Philadelphia; Florence D. Ogden, Executive Secretary.

Education of Soldiers' Orphans
Relief for Sick and Disabled Pennsylvania Veterans and Their Dependents

State Planning Board, Department of Commerce; Harrisburg; F. A. Pitkin, Executive Director.

RHODE ISLAND

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); Rhode Island State College, Kingston; H. O. Stuart, Acting Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Education; Providence; James F. Rockett, Director.

Adult Education
Americanization
Attendance and Child Accounting
Education of Blind
Free Public Band Concerts
Health and Physical Education
Rehabilitation
Vocational Rehabilitation
State Free Scholarships
Vocational Education
Agricultural Education
Home Economics Education
Trade and Industrial Education

Health

State Department of Health; Providence; Lester A. Round, Ph.D., Director.

Administration
Care and Supervision of Crippled Children
Services to Crippled Children
Child Hygiene
Maternal and Child Health Services
Industrial Hygiene
Preventable Diseases
Communicable Diseases
Social Hygiene
Administration of Public Health Services
Laboratories
Narcotic Drugs and Pharmacies
Sanitary Engineering
Scientific Crime Detection
Tuberculosis Sanatorium
Vital Statistics

Labor

State Department of Labor; Providence; Harvey Saul, Director.

Census
Employment Statistics
Firemen's Relief
Industrial Inspection (boiler, factory)
Labor Relations
Labor Disputes
Prevailing Wages
Wage Collections
Policemen's Relief
Women and Children
Child Labor
Forty-eight Hour Law
Homework
Minimum Wage
Workmen's Compensation

Rhode Island Unemployment Compensation Board; 130 West Exchange St., Providence; Clemens J. France, Ph.D., Chairman of the Board.

Employment Security Field Offices
State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation

Public Welfare

State Department of Social Welfare; 40 Fountain St., Providence; Vincent Sorrentino, Director.

Blind
Children's Services
Adoptions
Child Welfare Services
Investigation of Applications for Marriage Licenses of Minors
Licensing of Maternity Homes and Hospitals
Licensing and Supervision of Day Nurseries and Child-caring Institutions
Placement of Dependent Children
Correctional and Penal Services, Howard Hospital and Infirmary
Probation and Parole, Providence County Court House
Adult and Juvenile
Psychiatry and Psychometry
Public Assistance
Aid to Dependent Children
Aid to the Blind
General Relief
Old Age Assistance
Referrals and Certification to CCC, NYA, WPA, and Surplus Commodities

Soldiers' Relief
Service to Veterans
Statistics and Research

Rhode Island State Planning Board, Executive Department; Providence; Alvah J. Webster, Director of State Planning.

SOUTH CAROLINA

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture): Clemson Agricultural College of South Carolina, Clemson; D. W. Watkins, State Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Education; Columbia; James H. Hope, Superintendent.

Adult Education
Negro Schools
Vocational Education
Agricultural Education
Home Economics Education
Industrial Education
Vocational Rehabilitation

Health

State Board of Health; Columbia; James A. Hayne, M.D., Dr.P.H., State Health Officer.

Administration of Public Health Services
Communicable Diseases
Crippled Children
Services to Crippled Children
Dental Hygiene
Hygienic Laboratory
Industrial Hygiene
Maternal and Child Health Services
Public Health Nursing
Rural Sanitation
Sanitation
Social Hygiene
Tuberculosis
Vital Statistics

Labor

State Department of Labor; Columbia; W. Rhett Harley, Commissioner.

Conciliation
Inspection
Standards and Statistics

South Carolina Unemployment Compensation Commission; 1003 Main St., Columbia; Clemson M. Wilson, Executive Director.

State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation

South Carolina Industrial Commission; Columbia; John H. Dukes, Chairman.

Workmen's Compensation

Public Welfare

State Department of Public Welfare; Columbia; Thomas H. Daniel, State Director.

Aid to Physically or Mentally Incapacitated Persons
Child Welfare
Child Welfare Services
Field Service
Public Assistance
Aid to Dependent Children
Aid to the Blind
Old Age Assistance
Selection of CCC Enrollees
Research and Statistics
Services for the Blind
Surplus Commodities Distribution

State Penal Board; Columbia; Gov. Burnet R. Maybank, Chairman.

Administration of State Correctional and Penal Institutions

Children's Bureau of South Carolina; Columbia; Mrs. C. T. Wootten, Supervisor.

State Service Bureau; Columbia; R. Stedman, Director.

Service to Veterans

State Board of Housing; Charleston; Matthew A. Condon, Chairman.

South Carolina State Planning Board; Columbia; Robert L. Sumwalt, Chairman.

SOUTH DAKOTA

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); South Dakota State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, Brookings; A. M. Eberle, State Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Public Instruction; Pierre; J. F. Hines, Superintendent.

Agricultural Education
Distributive Occupations Education
Homemaking Education

Rehabilitation
Vocational Rehabilitation
Trade and Industrial Education

Health

State Board of Health; Pierre; J. F. D. Cook, M.D., Superintendent.

Administration of Public Health Services
Communicable Diseases
Laboratories and Research
Maternity, Infancy, and Child Hygiene
Maternal and Child Health Services
Physically Handicapped Children
Services to Crippled Children
Sanitary Engineering
Venereal Disease Control
Vital Statistics

Labor

Unemployment Compensation Commission of South Dakota; 422½ South Main St., Aberdeen; J. W. Kaye, Chairman.

State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation

South Dakota Industrial Commission; Pierre; Leo A. Temmey, Industrial Commissioner.

Workmen's Compensation

Public Welfare

Department of Social Security; Pierre; C. H. McCay, Director.

Certification to Surplus Commodities
Child Welfare Services
Coordination of Public Welfare
Property and Insurance
Public Assistance
Aid to Dependent Children
Aid to the Blind
Old Age Assistance
Referrals to WPA
Research and Statistics
Selection of CCC Enrollees

Board of Charities and Corrections; Elk Point; Grace Crill, Secretary.

Administration of State Charitable and Penal Institutions

State Commission for the Control of the Feeble-Minded; Redfield; F. V. Willhite, M.D., Superintendent.

State Contact Office; Mitchell; H. S. Barnard, State Contact Officer.

Service to Veterans and Their Dependents

South Dakota Resources Advisory Board; Miller; A. B. Cahalan, Chairman.

TENNESSEE

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); College of Agriculture, University of Tennessee, Knoxville; C. E. Brehm, State Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Education; Nashville; B. O. Duggan, Commissioner.

Negro Schools
Rehabilitation
Vocational Rehabilitation
Vocational Education
Agricultural Education
Distributive Occupations Education
Home Economics Education
Trade and Industrial Education

Health

State Department of Public Health; Nashville; W. C. Williams, M.D., Commissioner.

Administration of Public Health Services
Central Administration
Conservation of Sight
Dental Hygiene
Health Education
Local Health Service
Maternal and Child Hygiene
Maternal and Child Health Services
Mental Hygiene
Public Health Nursing
Services to Crippled Children
Statistical Service
Laboratories
Preventable Diseases
Acute Communicable Disease Control
Industrial Hygiene
Malaria Control
Trachoma Control
Venereal Disease Control
Sanitary Engineering
Tuberculosis Control
Vital Statistics

Commission for Crippled Children's Service; 305 Nashville Trust Bldg., Nashville; T. Graham Hall, Chairman.

Labor

State Department of Labor; Cotton States Bldg., Nashville; S. E. Bryant, Commissioner.

Mines
State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation

Workmen's Compensation
Workshop and Factory Inspection

Public Welfare

State Department of Public Welfare; Nashville; Paul Savage, Commissioner.

Child Welfare
Aid to Dependent Children
Child Welfare Services
Licensing and Supervision of Private Child-caring Institutions
Confederate Pensions
Field Service
Public Assistance
Aid to the Blind
Certification to NYA and WPA
Old Age Assistance
Selection of CCC Enrollees
Research and Statistics
Surplus Commodities Distribution

State Department of Institutions; Nashville; Andrew T. Taylor, Jr., Commissioner.

Administration of State Correctional, Penal, and Mental Institutions
Commission and Workshop for the Blind
Pardons, Paroles, and Probation (Parole Board)

Ex-Service Men's Bureau, Office of Adjutant General; War Memorial Bldg., Nashville; Guy H. May, Director (Joint Office with American Legion).

Tennessee State Planning Commission; Nashville; William D. Price, Executive Director.

TEXAS

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas, College Station; H. H. Williamson, State Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Education; Austin; L. A. Woods, State Superintendent.

Child Accounting and Attendance (in Division of Census and Division of Information and Statistics)
Health and Physical Education (in Division of Supervision)
Negro Education
Rehabilitation and Crippled Children
Services to Crippled Children
Vocational Rehabilitation
Vocational Education
Agricultural Education
Distributive Occupations Education
Homemaking Education
Trade and Industrial Education

Health

State Department of Health; Land Office Bldg., Austin; George W. Cox, M.D., State Health Officer.

Administration of Public Health Services
Cancer
Laboratory
Pneumonia Control
Public Health Education
Vital Statistics
Professional Services
Communicable Diseases
Local Health Service
Malaria
Maternal and Child Health
Health Education
Maternal and Child Health Services
Mental Health
Public Health Dentistry
Public Health Nursing
Tuberculosis
Venereal Diseases
Technical Services
Bedding
Food and Drugs
Industrial Hygiene
Sanitary Engineering

Labor

State Bureau of Labor Statistics; Austin; Joe Kunschik, Commissioner of Labor.

Inspection (boiler, factory, mercantile)
Private Employment Agency (licensing, regulation, supervision)
Emigrant Employment Agency
Public Works
Eight-hour Law
Prevailing Wages
Women in Industry
Health, Safety, and Comfort
Hours of Labor

Texas Unemployment Compensation Commission; Brown Bldg., Austin; Orville S. Carpenter, Chairman and Executive Director.

State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation

Industrial Accident Board; Land Office Bldg., Austin; Otto Studer, Chairman.

Workmen's Compensation

Public Welfare

State Department of Public Welfare; Austin; J. S. Murchison, Executive Director.

Child Welfare
Child Welfare Services

Public Assistance
General Relief
Old Age Assistance
Research and Statistics
Selection of CCC Enrollees
Surplus Commodities Distribution

State Board of Control; Austin; Harry Knox, Chairman.

Supervision of State Eleemosynary Institutions

Texas Prison Board; 704 Second National Bank Bldg., Houston; S. M. Lister, M.D., Chairman.

Texas Prison System

Board of Pardons and Paroles; Austin; J. B. Keith, Chairman.

State Commission for the Blind; Austin; Hazel H. Beckham, Executive Secretary.

Veterans' State Service Office of Texas; Land Office Bldg., Austin; George C. Betts, Veterans State Service Officer.

UTAH

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); Utah State Agricultural College, Logan; William Peterson, State Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Public Instruction; Salt Lake City; Charles H. Skidmore, State Superintendent.

Health, Physical Education, and Recreation
Research and School Finance
School-Community Relations and Libraries
Vocational Education
Agricultural Education
Distributive Occupations Education
Home Economics Education
Trade and Industrial Education
Vocational Rehabilitation

Health

Utah State Board of Health; Salt Lake City; William M. McKay, M.D., Acting Commissioner.

Administration of Public Health Services
Communicable Disease Control
Dental Health
Industrial Hygiene
Local Health Administration
Maternal and Child Health
Maternal and Child Health Services
Nutrition Service
School Health Education
Public Health Education
Public Health Engineering and Sanitation
Public Health Laboratories
Public Health Nursing
Services to Crippled Children
Venereal Disease Control
Vital Statistics

Labor

Industrial Commission of Utah; Salt Lake City; Wm. M. Knerr, Chairman.

Employes' Combined Injury Benefit Fund
Child Labor Law
Minimum Wage Law
Inspection (boiler, building, elevator, factory, mine)
Labor, Immigration, and Statistics
Disabled Miners' Fund
Firemen's Pension Fund
Labor Relations
Placement and Unemployment Insurance, 650 Union Pacific Bldg., Salt Lake City
State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation
State Insurance Fund
Workmen's Compensation

Public Welfare

State Department of Public Welfare; Salt Lake City; J. W. Gillman, Director.

Assistance and Service
Aid to Dependent Children
Aid to the Blind
Certification to FSA, NYA, WPA
Child Welfare Services
General Relief
Old Age Assistance
Selection of CCC Enrollees
Surplus Commodities Distribution
Research and Statistics

Juvenile Court and Probation Commission; Salt Lake City; A. O. Ellett, Secretary.

Department of Adult Probation and Parole, State Board of Corrections; 708 Utah Savings and Trust Bldg., Salt Lake City; Oscar E. Lowder, Chief Agent.

Utah Commission for the Adult Blind; 138 South 2d East, Salt Lake City; Murray B. Allen, Executive Secretary.

Recreational Center for the Blind
State-wide Home Teaching Service for the Blind
Utah Work Shop for the Blind

Utah State Planning Board; Salt Lake City; Sumner G. Margetts, Director.

VERMONT

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); College of Agriculture, University of Vermont, Burlington; J. E. Carrigan, State Extension Director.

- Agriculture
- 4-H Club Work
- Home Economics

Education

State Department of Education; Montpelier; Francis L. Bailey, Commissioner.

- Guidance
- Health and Physical Education
- Rehabilitation
  - *Vocational Rehabilitation*
- Vocational Education
  - Agricultural Education
  - Home Economics Education
  - Trade and Industrial Education

Health

State Department of Public Health; 2 Colchester Ave., Burlington; Charles F. Dalton, M.D., Secretary and Executive Officer.

- *Administration of Public Health Services*
- Communicable Diseases
  - Venereal Disease Control
- Crippled Children
  - *Services to Crippled Children*
- Laboratory of Hygiene
- *Maternal and Child Health Services*
- Public Health Nursing
- Sanitary Engineering
- Tuberculosis
- Vital Statistics (in Division of Administration)

Labor

State Department of Industrial Relations; Montpelier; Howard E. Armstrong, Commissioner.

- Apprenticeship
- Employment of Minors and Women
- Inspection (boiler; factory; hotel and theater; mercantile establishment; quarry, mine, and tunnel; steam engine)
- Mediation and Arbitration
- Wages and Medium of Payment
- Workmen's Compensation

Vermont Unemployment Compensation Commission; 7 School St., Montpelier; Sterry R. Waterman, Chairman.

- State Employment Service
- *Unemployment Compensation*

Public Welfare

State Department of Public Welfare; Montpelier; Timothy C. Dale, Commissioner.

- Administration of State Institutions
- Adult Cripples' Service
- Case Work Services
  - *Aid to Dependent Children*
  - *Aid to the Blind*
- Central Index of Social Agencies
- Child Hygiene Clinics
- *Child Welfare Services*
- Defective Aid
- Education of Deaf and Blind Children
- Foster Care
- Indigent Tuberculosis Patients
- Inspection of Poorhouses
- Licensing of Agencies Dealing with Children
- Mental Hygiene Clinics
  - Psychiatric Clinics for Children
- Probation and Parole
- Selection of CCC Enrollees
- Veterans' Service

Old Age Assistance Department; Montpelier; W. Arthur Simpson, Director.

- *Old Age Assistance*

Vermont State Planning Board; Montpelier; Philip Shutler, Director.

VIRGINIA

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg; J. R. Hutcheson, State Extension Director.

- Agriculture
- 4-H Club Work
- Home Economics

Education

State Board of Education; Richmond; Sidney B. Hall, Ph.D., Superintendent of Public Instruction.

- Instruction
  - Adult Education
  - Health Education
  - Music and Art Education
  - Negro Education
  - Special Education
- Vocational Education
  - Agricultural Education
  - Home Economics Education
  - Rehabilitation
    - *Vocational Rehabilitation*
  - Trade and Industrial Education

Health

State Department of Health; Richmond; I. C. Riggin, M.D., Commissioner.

- Administration
- Health Education
- State Tuberculosis Sanatoria
- *Administration of Public Health Services*
- Child Health
- *Maternal and Child Health Services*
- Communicable Diseases
- Venereal Disease Control
- Crippled Children
- *Services to Crippled Children*
- Industrial Hygiene
- Laboratories
- Mouth Hygiene
- Public Health Nursing
- Rural Health
- Tuberculosis Out-Patient Service
- Sanitary Engineering
- Vital Statistics

Labor

State Department of Labor and Industry; Richmond; Thomas B. Morton, Commissioner.

- Apprenticeship
- Factory Inspection
- Mediation
- Finance
- Mine and Quarry Inspection
- Statistics and Research
- Women and Children

Unemployment Compensation Commission; Broad Grace Arcade, Richmond; Maj. Frank P. Evans, Chairman.

- Research and Statistics
- State Employment Service
- *Unemployment Compensation*

Industrial Commission of Virginia; Richmond; Parke P. Deans, Chairman.

- Workmen's Compensation

Public Welfare

State Department of Public Welfare; Richmond; William H. Stauffer, Commissioner.

- Children's Bureau
- *Child Welfare Services*
- Inspection (almshouse, jail, etc.)
- Mental Hygiene
- Public Assistance
- *Aid to Dependent Children*
- County and City Organization
- Field Services
- General Relief
- *Old Age Assistance*
- Referrals to NYA and WPA
- Selection of CCC Enrollees
- Surplus Commodities Distribution
- Research and Statistics
- War Service
- Service to Veterans

Virginia Commission for the Blind; 3003 Parkwood Ave., Richmond; L. L. Watts, Executive Secretary.

- *Aid to the Blind*

State Hospital Board; 309 North 12th St., Richmond; H. C. Henry, M.D., Director.

- Administration of State Mental Hospitals and Institutions for Epileptics and Feebleminded

State Prison Board; 500 Spring St., Richmond; William R. McCraw, Secretary.

- Administration of State Penal System

Virginia State Planning Board; 5 South 10th St., Richmond; Hugh R. Pomeroy, Director.

WASHINGTON

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); State College of Washington, Pullman; F. E. Balmer, State Extension Director.

- Agriculture
- 4-H Club Work
- Home Economics

Education

State Department of Education; Olympia; Stanley F. Atwood, Superintendent of Public Instruction.

- Indian Education

State Board for Vocational Education; P. O. Box 686, Olympia; H. G. Halstead, Acting Director.

- Vocational Education
- Agricultural Education
- Distributive Occupations Education
- Home Economics Education
- Trade and Industrial Education
- *Vocational Rehabilitation*

Health

State Department of Health; Smith Tower Bldg., Seattle; Donald G. Evans, M.D., M.P.H., Director.

- *Administration of Public Health Services*
- Epidemiology
- Tuberculosis Control
- Venereal Disease Control
- Laboratories
- Maternity and Child Hygiene
- *Maternal and Child Health Services*

Public Health Education
Public Health Engineering
Public Health Nursing
Vital Statistics

Labor

State Department of Labor and Industries; Insurance Bldg., Olympia; J. W. Hoover, Director.

Apprenticeship
First Aid Instruction
Industrial Insurance
Workmen's Compensation
Industrial Relations
Inspection (hotel, navigation)
Labor
Safety Standards in Industry

Office of Unemployment Compensation and Placement; P. O. Box 367, Olympia; Jack E. Bates, Commissioner.

State Employment Service
Unemployment Compensation

Public Welfare

State Department of Social Security; P. O. Box 1162, Olympia; Charles F. Ernst, Director.

Blind
Aid to the Blind
Prevention
Vocational Training and Rehabilitation
Children
Aid to Dependent Children
Child Welfare Services
Inspection and Licensing of Children's Institutions and Agencies
Services to Crippled Children
General Public Assistance
Certification to Federal Programs
Medical and Dental Care (including hospitalization)
Public Assistance to Needy Persons
Surplus Commodities Distribution
Old Age Assistance
Cooperative Living for Single Men
Friendly Visiting (through volunteers)
Public Assistance
Research and Statistics

Division of Public Institutions, Department of Finance, Budget and Business; Public Lands–Social Security Bldg., Olympia; Olaf L. Olsen, Director of Department.

Administration of State Correctional, Mental, Penal, and Other Institutions

Board of Prison Terms and Paroles; Olympia; W. I. Dailey, Chairman.

Washington State Planning Council; Olympia; P. Hetherton, Executive Officer.

WEST VIRGINIA

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture): College of Agriculture, West Virginia University, Morgantown; J. O. Knapp, State Extension Director.

Agriculture
4-H Club Work
Home Economics

Education

State Department of Education; Charleston; W. W. Trent, State Superintendent of Free Schools.

Child Accounting and Attendance (in Division of Statistics)
Negro Schools
Vocational Education
Agricultural Education
Distributive Occupations Education
Home Economics Education
Trade and Industrial Education
Vocational Rehabilitation
Service for Handicapped Children
Vocational Rehabilitation

Health

State Department of Health; Charleston; Arthur E. McClue, M.D., Commissioner.

Administration of Public Health Services
Child Hygiene
Maternal and Child Health Services
County Health Work
Dental Hygiene
Industrial Hygiene
Preventable Diseases
Public Health Education
Public Health Nursing
Rural Sanitation
Sanitary Engineering
State Hygienic Laboratory
Tuberculosis
Venereal Diseases
Vital Statistics

Labor

State Department of Labor; Charleston; Frank W. Snyder, Commissioner.

Child Labor
Conciliation
Industrial Safety and Health
Inspection (boiler, building, factory, weights and measures)
Labor Law Enforcement
Labor Welfare
Statistics and Information
Supervision of Private Employment Agencies
Wage Collections
Women in Industry

West Virginia Department of Unemployment Compensation; Charleston; John S. Stump, Jr., Director.
- State Employment Service
- *Unemployment Compensation*

State Compensation Commissioner; Charleston; A. G. Mathews, Commissioner.
- Workmen's Compensation

West Virginia Department of Mines; Charleston; N. P. Rhinehart, Chief.

Public Welfare

State Department of Public Assistance; Charleston; A. W. Garnett, Director.
- Adult Physical Rehabilitation
- Central Clearance Index
- Children
  - *Child Welfare Services* (including foster care)
  - Children's Institutions
  - Crippled Children
    - *Services to Crippled Children*
  - Probation and Parole
- Medical Services
- Referrals to WPA
- Research and Statistics
- Selection of CCC Enrollees
- Service for the Blind
  - Vending Stand Program
- Social Service
  - *Aid to Dependent Children*
  - *Aid to the Blind*
  - General Relief
  - *Old Age Assistance*
  - Trachoma Treatment Unit
- Surplus Commodities Distribution
- Veterans' Services

West Virginia Board of Control; Charleston; Walter R. Thurmond, President.
- Administration of State Charitable and Correctional Institutions and Mental Hospitals

Department of Probation and Parole; Charleston; Stanley E. Dadisman, Director.
- Adult Probation and Parole

Bureau of Negro Welfare and Statistics; Charleston; Isaac M. Carper, Director.

West Virginia State Planning Board; Wheeling; W. P. Wilson, Chairman.

WISCONSIN

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); College of Agriculture, University of Wisconsin, Madison; W. W. Clark, Associate Extension Director.
- Agriculture
- 4-H Club Work
- Home Economics

Education

State Department of Public Instruction; Madison; John Callahan, State Superintendent.
- Handicapped Children
  - Classes for Deaf, Blind, and Defective Speech
  - Schools for Mentally Handicapped Children
  - Services for Cardiac Children
  - Services for Malnourished Children
  - *Services to Crippled Children*

State Board of Vocational and Adult Education; Madison; George P. Hambrecht, Director.
- Adult Education
- Vocational Education
- *Vocational Rehabilitation*

Health

State Board of Health; Madison; C. A. Harper, M.D., State Health Officer.
- *Administration of Public Health Services*
- Communicable Disease
- Dental Education
- Industrial Hygiene
- Maternity and Child Health
  - *Maternal and Child Health Services*
- Nursing Education
- Public Health Education
- Public Health Nursing
- Sanitary Engineering
- State Laboratory of Hygiene
- Venereal Disease
- Vital Statistics

Labor

Industrial Commission of Wisconsin; Madison; Voyta Wrabetz, Chairman.
- Apprenticeship
- Licensing of Painters and Decorators
- Safety and Sanitation
- State Employment Service
- Statistics, 137 West Wilson St., Madison
- *Unemployment Compensation*, 137 West Wilson St., Madison
- Wage Collection
- Woman and Child Labor
- Workmen's Compensation

Wisconsin Employment Relations Board; Madison; S. Norman Moe, Executive Secretary.

Public Welfare

State Department of Public Welfare; Madison; Frank C. Klode, Director.

- Administration and Research
- Collection and Deportation
- Farm Supervision
- Finance and Statistics
- Institutional Management
- Publicity
- Care of the Adult Blind, Milwaukee
- Vending Stand Program
- Workshop for the Blind
- Child Welfare
- *Child Welfare Services*
- Corrections
- Identification and Classification
- Inspection of Jails
- Probation and Parole
- Psychiatric Field Service
- Supervision of Correctional and Penal Institutions
- Mental Hygiene
- Inspection of County Institutions
- Prevention
- Supervision of State Hospitals for Mental Diseases and Colonies for Mental Deficients
- Public Assistance
- *Aid to Dependent Children*
- *Aid to the Blind*
- Allocation of Relief Moneys (with approval of Emergency Board)
- Certification to FSA, NYA, WPA
- General Relief and Transient Camps
- Merit System for County Employes
- *Old Age Assistance*
- Selection of CCC Enrollees
- Sponsorship of Certain State-wide Welfare Projects
- Student Loans
- Surplus Commodities Distribution

Soldiers Rehabilitation Board, Adjutant General's Office; Madison; Col. John Mullen, Director.

- Service to Veterans

Wisconsin State Planning Board; Madison; M. W. Torkelson, Director of Regional Planning.

WYOMING

Agriculture

State Extension Service (in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture); College of Agriculture, University of Wyoming, Laramie; A. E. Bowman, State Extension Director.

- Agriculture
- 4-H Club Work
- Home Economics

Education

State Department of Education; Cheyenne; Esther L. Anderson, State Superintendent of Public Instruction.

- Education of the Adult Deaf and Blind
- Special Education
- Vocational Education
- Agricultural Education
- Civilian Rehabilitation
- *Vocational Rehabilitation*
- Distributive Occupations Education
- Home Economics Education

Health

State Department of Public Health; Cheyenne; M. C. Keith, M.D., State Health Officer.

- *Administration of Public Health Services*
- Communicable Diseases
- Laboratory
- *Maternal and Child Health*
- Public Health Nursing
- Sanitary Engineering
- *Services to Crippled Children*
- Venereal Disease Program
- Vital Statistics

Labor

State Department of Labor and Statistics; Cheyenne; Roy Sheer, Commissioner.

- Child Labor Permits
- Inspection (fire escape, public buildings, etc.)
- Labor Law Violations
- Wage Claims

Department of Commerce and Industry; Cheyenne; G. O. Houser, Executive Manager.

Unemployment Compensation Commission of Wyoming; P. O. Box 760, Casper; J. W. Williams, Executive Director.

- Research and Statistics
- State Employment Service
- *Unemployment Compensation*

Workmen's Compensation Department, Office of State Treasurer; Cheyenne; Matt T. Christensen, State Treasurer.

- Coal Mine Catastrophe Insurance Fund
- Firemen's Pension Fund
- Peace Officers' Indemnity Fund

State Coal Mine Inspection Department; North Side State Bank Bldg., Rock Springs; J. M. Sampson, State Inspector.

Public Welfare

State Department of Public Welfare; Cheyenne; Samuel S. Hoover, Director.

- *Aid to Dependent Children*
- *Aid to the Blind*

Child Welfare Services
Old Age Assistance
Relief
Selection of CCC Enrollees
Statistics
Surplus Commodities Distribution

State Board of Charities and Reform; Cheyenne; Joseph S. Weppner, Secretary.
Administration of State Correctional and Penal Institutions, Homes, Hospitals, and Parks

State Commission on Prison Labor; Wyoming State Penitentiary, Rawlins; A. S. Roach, Commissioner.

Wyoming State Planning and Water Conservation Board; Cheyenne; G. O. Houser, Executive Secretary.

STATE AGENCIES—PRIVATE

Note: In accordance with the national scope of the *Social Work Year Book* the only private agencies named for each state are those concerning which it is believed readers in other states may desire information. The following list is restricted to state conferences of social work, state-wide associations of social workers, and organizations for general social welfare planning. State-wide agencies in special fields are not included due to space limitations. For many such fields directories showing agencies in the several states may be obtained from the appropriate national organizations.

Because the secretaries of state conferences of social work are frequently changed, it is suggested that those here named be not addressed after the year 1941, except where it is indicated that they are employed on full-time, or at least on part-time. A revised list of state conferences and their secretaries may be obtained at any time by applying to the Association of State Conference Secretaries, 82 North High St., Columbus, Ohio.

I. State Conferences of Social Work and State-wide Associations of Social Workers

Alabama Conference of Social Work

(1916); Young Men's Christian Association, Mobile; E. B. Bowman, Secretary (volunteer).

Membership: Individuals, approximately 300; organizations, 4.

Activities: The Conference meets each year, usually in April.

Arizona Conference of Social Work

(1935); 22 West Wilshire Dr., Phoenix; Lucy Faherty, Secretary (volunteer).

Membership: Individuals, approximately 250; organizations, 10.

Activities: The Conference holds an annual three-day meeting in the spring.

Arkansas Association of Social Work

(1912); name changed in 1939 from Arkansas Conference of Social Work; Pyramid Bldg., Little Rock; E. B. Bylander, President.

Membership: Individuals, 88; organizations, 7.

Activities: The Association holds a state-wide conference each year in April. Three regional conferences are held at intervals throughout the year. The Association endeavors to promote social thinking and works for the passage of social legislation.

Periodical: Annual Proceedings.

California Conference of Social Work

(1901); 333 Kearny St., San Francisco; Anita Eldridge, Executive Secretary (full-time).

Membership: Individuals, 3,114; organizations, 193.

Activities: The Conference meets each year in April or May. Regional conferences were inaugurated in 1935. The Conference has an active Legislative Committee, and maintains an official representative during sessions of the legislature who reports to the Legislative Committee and to affiliated local legislative committees on matters of social legislation. A voluntary registration and certification of social workers project is now in its seventh year, during which time 2,192 social workers have been registered. In 1938 the Conference published a Census of Social Workers in California. In addition to the usual administrative committees there are active special committees on Education for Social Workers, Migratory Workers and Transients, and Personnel Standards and Employment Practices.

Periodical: The Conference Bulletin, quarterly, 25 cents a copy.

Colorado Conference of Social Work

(1917); 4200 East 9th Ave., Denver; Esther M. Dimchevsky, President.

Membership: Individuals, 499.

Activities: The Conference meets each year in the fall. For the past two years institutes have been held under its auspices. The Conference discusses state-wide social needs with a view to making definite recommendations for social action, and serves as a general forum for exchange of ideas on problems in the field of social welfare. It does not initiate or promote social legislation. The Conference is in process of reorganization.

Connecticut Conference of Social Work

(1910); 58 Gordon St., Hamden; Mrs. Freida Offenbach, Secretary (part-time).

Membership: Individuals, 796; organizations, 61.

Activities: The Conference conducts an annual two-day meeting in the autumn. The first regional conference was held in the spring of 1938. A com-

mittee is studying the demand for study courses in Connecticut and the advisability of holding them at some other time than the annual meeting. The constitution does not permit the Conference to formulate a platform. It is, to date, a forum group.

Connecticut Public Welfare Association (1937); Department of Public Welfare, Greenwich; Margaret Hayton, President.

Membership: Active members, 300; associate, 50. Active membership is open to anyone gainfully employed in the practice of social work in the public welfare field; associate membership is open to anyone interested in the development of public welfare in Connecticut.

Purpose and Activities: To afford an opportunity for social workers in the state to meet and discuss local problems. The state is divided into five districts, each district holding monthly meetings except during the summer. At least three state-wide meetings are held each year and in 1939 a well-attended week-end conference was conducted. The Association has standing committees on legislation and on education. The district organizations actively participate in social legislation.

Delaware, Social Welfare League of (1921); name changed in 1938 from Social Workers' Club; Children's Home, 200 Todd's Lane, Wilmington; Alice Caskie, President.

Membership: Individuals, 194.

Purpose and Activities: To stimulate interest in social welfare problems, and to promote standards of such service in the state. In 1938 the League published the Social Service Directory of Agencies in Delaware.

Delaware State Conference on Social Work (1922); 910 Gilpin Ave., Wilmington; B. E. Mullen, Chairman.

Membership: None. The 1940 Conference was supported by contributions from 94 individuals and 46 agencies.

Activities: The Conference meets every two years. Preceding the past two conferences discussion groups have met to consider and study problems to be presented in round table discussion groups. The Conference provides an open forum for the discussion of social work problems.

Periodical: Conference Proceedings.

Florida Association of Social Workers (1938); District Welfare Board, Allied Bldg., Tampa; Mrs. Cora B. Lambertson, President.

Membership: Individuals, 513; chapters, 21.

Purpose and Activities: To give representation to all persons employed in social welfare work in Florida, to improve standards of social work, to better social conditions by discussion and action, to encourage active participation in the State Conference of Social Work and similar programs, and to interpret social work and its aims to the general public. Each chapter holds monthly meetings and there are frequent joint meetings. Case work institutes are sponsored in various parts of the state in cooperation with the Florida State Conference of Social Work and the Florida State College for Women. The Association has an Education and Training Committee and a Legislative Committee. As yet no state-wide program related to social legislation has been developed, but the Association has representatives on the Florida Legislative Council. During the past year the Association sponsored a successful campaign to increase the membership of the State Conference of Social Work.

Periodical: "Bootstraps," quarterly.

Florida State Conference of Social Work (1911); 826 Newark St., West Palm Beach; L. R. Bristol, President.

Membership: Individuals, 913; organizations, 30.

Activities: The Conference meets each year, usually in March or April. Institutes are held under the joint sponsorship of the Conference, the Florida Association of Social Workers, and the Florida State College for Women.

Georgia Conference on Social Work (1924); 11 Pryor St., Atlanta; Florence van Sickler, President.

Membership: Individuals, 427; organizations, 30.

Activities: The Conference meets each year in the spring, usually after Easter. A section on social action has been organized, with regional conferences in the process of organization. The Conference initiates and promotes social legislation; has continuing committees on an adequate merit system; and committees to promote the esrablishment of mental health clinics, the study and coordination of public and private relief and service activities, and the study of problems of state and interstate migration problems.

Idaho Conference of Social Work (1940); University of Idaho, Southern Branch, Pocatello; John R. Nichols, President.

Membership: Individuals, 225; organizations, 30.

Activities: The first annual convention of the Conference was held in April, 1940. The Boise Federation of Social Work provided the working group which effected the three-day meeting at which the Conference was organized.

Illinois Conference on Social Welfare

(1896); Room 1500, 203 North Wabash Ave., Chicago; Elizabeth A. Hughes, Secretary-Treasurer, pro tem. (part-time).

Membership: Individuals, 450; organizations, 91.

Activities: The Conference meets annually, preceded by two days of study courses. In 1939, the enrolment in the study courses was 730 individuals from 84 of the 102 counties in the state and registrations at the annual conference held in Chicago numbered 1,972. During the year regional conferences are held on subjects including child welfare, community needs, health, legislation, mental hygiene, and recreation. The Conference organizes and directs cooperative campaigns for legislative or administrative improvement. In 1939, the chief effort was in connection with civil service, aid to dependent children, and certain bills affecting the juvenile court in the state. The Conference publishes occasional bulletins and reports in support of special objectives.

Periodical: Annual Proceedings.

Indiana State Conference on Social Work

(1890); 421 Illinois Bldg., Indianapolis; Thomas L. Metsker, Executive Secretary (full-time).

Membership: Individuals, 1,000; organizations, 35 state.

Activities: The Conference meets each year, usually in October, and study courses are held at that time. Ten associated state-wide groups or organizations meet with the Conference. The state has been divided into nine regions and the first regional conference meetings were held in 1940. Hereafter regional conferences will be held in April and May. A Committee on Social Legislation reports to the Conference, but only the Conference proper is empowered to act upon receipt of such report.

Iowa Association for Social Welfare

(1928); name changed in 1938 from Iowa State Conference of Social Welfare; Y.W.C.A., Des Moines; Adria Titterington, President.

Membership: Individuals, 800; organizations, 3.

Activities: The Association holds an annual conference in the spring, and sponsors regional conferences and state-wide institutes. The Association has an active Legislative Council.

Periodicals: Proceedings of the Conference; Bulletin, approximately 4 issues yearly.

Kansas Conference of Social Work

(1900); 1181 McVicar Ave., Topeka; Herman Newman, Executive Secretary (part-time).

Membership: Individuals, 515; organizations, 11.

Activities: The Conference meets each year in the spring and institutes are held at that time. The Conference carries on legislative work in cooperation with the Kansas Association for Social Legislation.

Periodical: Bulletin, occasional issues.

Kentucky Conference of Social Work

(1913); 301 West Main St., Louisville; Robert K. Salyers, President.

Membership: Individuals, 500.

Activities: The Conference meets each year in the fall, and is preceded by a one-day institute. The Conference is active in recommending sound social legislation to the state legislature, in interpreting social welfare measures to the general public, and in coordinating general social welfare activities.

Louisiana Conference of Social Welfare

(1916); P. O. Box 1362, Baton Rouge; Mrs. Roberta G. Falk, Executive Secretary (part-time).

Membership: Individuals, 1,454; organizations, 13.

Activities: The Conference meets each year, usually during the spring, and institutes are held in conjunction with the meeting. A new constitution was adopted in 1940 setting up a delegate assembly on a regional basis and regional meetings in various parts of the state were planned for the fall.

Periodical: Annual Proceedings.

Maine State Conference of Social Welfare

(1909); 218 Ohio St., Bangor; Mrs. Marion Powers, Secretary (volunteer).

Membership: Individuals, 254.

Activities: The Conference meets each year in October. It has an active Committee on Social Legislation.

Periodical: Maine Conference News, 3 issues yearly.

Maryland State Conference of Social Welfare

(1925); 22 Light St., Baltimore; Mrs. Caroline D. McDermott, Secretary (part-time).

Membership: Individuals, approximately 700; organizations, 35.

Activities: The Conference meets annually in the spring for the presentation and discussion of social welfare problems and social work techniques for both lay and professional people. The Conference supports social legislation, conducts studies, and participates in social planning on a state-wide basis.

Periodical: Conference Bulletin, occasional issues.

Massachusetts Conference of Social Work (1903); 41 Mt. Vernon St., Boston; Richard K. Conant, Executive Secretary (part-time).

Membership: Individuals, 1,141; organizations, 205.

Activities: The Conference meets each year in the fall and institutes are held at that time. Ten district conferences are held throughout the state, operated by the executive secretary.

Periodical: Planning Sheets (covering various fields of work and groups of agencies), occasional issues.

Michigan Welfare League (1912); name changed in 1940 from Michigan Conference of Social Work; 512 Olds Tower, Lansing; John A. MacLellan, Executive Secretary (full-time).

Membership: Individuals, approximately 1,300; organizations, 25.

Activities: The League meets each year, usually in October, and an institute entitled Summer Institute of Social Welfare is held annually at Michigan State College. Four regional conferences are usually given each year. The League is an association of citizens to advance the common welfare through sound and efficient administration of child welfare, public health and relief, prisons, parole, probation, mental hygiene, and related social services. Its working committees include a Child Welfare Committee and a Committee on the Rehabilitation of the Cut-over Areas of Northern Michigan.

Periodical: Michigan Welfare News, monthly.

Minnesota State Conference of Social Work (1892); 515 Administration Bldg., Minneapolis; Mrs. Grace Ann Grey, Executive Secretary (full-time).

Membership: Individuals, 1,533; organizations, 75.

Activities: The Conference holds an annual five-day meeting in May, and institutes are conducted as part of the program. With the reorganization plan, inaugurated in 1940, the state will be divided into eleven areas, each of which will hold an annual regional conference. The Conference will be a medium for social action through the creation of a new policy in the naming of "open committees" on special social problems. By reason of resolutions passed at the annual meeting in 1940, the Conference is committed to a legislative program with reference to cash relief, direct relief, housing, adequate WPA funds, transients, health, aliens, and care of the feebleminded.

Periodical: Conferee, 6 issues yearly, to members only.

Mississippi State Conference of Social Work (1928); 117 North West St., Jackson; Jean McGillivray, Secretary (volunteer).

Membership: Individuals, 300.

Activities: The Conference holds an annual three-day meeting in the spring.

Missouri Association for Social Welfare (1901); Brown Hall, Washington University, St. Louis; Helen A. Brown, Executive Secretary (full-time).

Membership: Individuals, 1,100; organizations, 60; chapters, 5.

Activities: The Association conducts the State Conference on Social Welfare which meets annually in April, and in 1940 held ten institutes preceding the Conference. Regional conferences are held during October and November. Chapters also hold meetings in various parts of the state. The Association's standing committees are grouped into three classifications: social action, association activities, and association organization. Social action committees consist of the following: Administration, Child Welfare, Delinquency, Family, Group Activities, Health, Legislation, Race Relations, Rural Problems, and Social Insurance. Extensive legislative and educational work is done by these various committees correlating their efforts through the Legislative Committee. The association activities include the Press Publicity Committee which carries on a valuable educational program through weekly news releases sent throughout the year to over 250 rural newspapers in the state, and the Department of Registration and Certification which registers and certifies social workers in Missouri.

Periodical: Building a Better State, monthly except July and August.

Montana Conference of Social Work (1938); P. O. Box 732, Helena; Mrs. Sherman W. Smith, Secretary (volunteer).

Membership: Individuals, approximately 300.

Activities: The Conference meets annually in the fall.

Nebraska Conference for Social Work (1897); 3 Chamber of Commerce Annex, Lincoln; Elwood W. Camp, Executive Secretary (full-time).

Membership: Individuals, 1,100.

Activities: The Conference holds an annual meeting in the fall which includes a broad coverage of the field of social welfare dealing with such questions as public health, delinquency, public welfare

administration, case work, group work, institutional care, unemployment insurance, and social security problems in general. Institutes formerly held in connection with this meeting are now sponsored on a regional or district basis in cooperation with district organizations which hold monthly or quarterly meetings throughout the state. A Welfare Committee plans and directs social studies, social research, and social planning; and is currently interested in reorganization of public welfare services in the state, probation and parole, public health, taxation for public welfare services, civil service, low cost housing, and certain aspects of child welfare services. A Legislative Committee actively sponsors welfare legislation and with the Welfare Committee studies proposed legislation related to the field of social welfare with a view to supporting or opposing such legislation. A District Organization Committee actively assists local areas in organizing as groups and forming programs. The Conference occasionally issues special publications growing out of study and research activities.

Periodical: Bulletin, bimonthly, free.

New Hampshire Conference of Social Work; State Department of Public Welfare, State Annex Bldg., Concord; Mrs. Eva A. Reed, Secretary (volunteer).

Membership: Individuals, 150.

Activities: The Conference meets each year in April and holds a two-day institute at that time. Publicity, legislation, and executive committees function throughout the year. The Conference is in the process of reorganization.

New Jersey Welfare Council (1901); name changed in 1938 from New Jersey Conference of Social Work; 21 Fulton St., Newark; Gerald B. Bate, Executive Secretary (full-time).

Membership: Individuals, 1,203; organizations, 115 state and local.

Activities: An annual conference is held in December, and regional meetings are conducted in various sections of the state. The Council is a statewide, non-sectarian, non-partisan organization. Laymen and social workers share equally in its deliberations and its work, which includes standing committees on Child Welfare, Health, Labor and Industry, Relief, and Social Security. The Council serves as a clearing house for questions pertinent to social work; it indirectly, and on occasion directly, promotes social legislation.

Periodical: Bulletin, 13 issues yearly, 50 cents a year.

New York State Conference on Social Work (1899); 112 State St., Albany; Mrs. Mary B. Holsinger, Executive Secretary (full-time).

Membership: Individual members, 2,007; contributors, 122; organization members, 265.

Activities: The Conference meets each year, usually in October, and institutes are conducted at that time. Fourteen regional conferences are held each year in the spring. Through its staff and in other ways the Conference aims to spread reliable information respecting social work in the state, to raise standards of social work practice, and to encourage cooperation. The aggregate attendance at the state-wide conference is 2,000; at institutes, 550; and at regional conferences, 3,000 to 3,500.

Periodical: Quarterly Bulletin.

North Carolina Conference for Social Service (1912); Duke University, Durham; John S. Bradway, President.

Membership: Individuals, 527.

Activities: The Conference meets each year, usually in April. Its Committee on Legislation aims to secure the passage of desired measures.

North Dakota Conference of Social Work (1920); Devils Lake; Emil F. Klein, Secretary (volunteer).

Membership: Individuals, 350; organizations, 10, including 5 private agencies, 2 state agencies, and 3 county welfare boards.

Activities: The Conference meets each year, usually in October. In 1940 the meeting was extended from a two-day to a three-day meeting and a program of institutes was begun. The Conference is officially represented in each of the 53 County Coordination Councils which meet for interpretation and coordination purposes twice during each month. A Legislative Committee presents recommended measures to the legislature.

Ohio Welfare Conference (1891); G-15 State Office Bldg., Columbus; Hannah L. Protzman, Executive Secretary (part-time).

Membership: Individuals, 915; organizations, 10.

Activities: The Conference meets annually in October, at which time its 8 divisions and 25 kindred groups plan a four-day program. Study courses are conducted during the two days preceding the meetings. A two-day mid-winter meeting is held which usually focuses on one aspect of child or family welfare. Eleven regional conferences are held during the spring months.

Periodical: Proceedings, annually.

Oklahoma Social Welfare Association (1939); 602 South Cheyenne St., Tulsa; Louise Pye, Secretary (volunteer).

Membership: Individuals, 513; organizations, 5.

Activities: The Association held its first annual conference in October, 1939, and since then three regional conferences have been held. A Committee on Community Planning has made and distributed to the membership an outline for proposed coordination of agencies. Although at present the Association takes no definite part in social legislation, it has a committee which acts as a clearing center for other groups planning legislation.

Periodical: New Frontiers in Social Welfare, monthly except July and August.

Oregon State Conference of Social Work (1912); Child Guidance Clinic, University of Oregon Medical School, Portland; Grace Brubaker, Secretary-Treasurer (volunteer).

Membership: Individuals, 375.

Activities: The Conference meets each year in April or May. It has state-wide committees on Child Caring, Group Work, Health, Mental Health, Recreation, Relief, and Social Security.

Periodical: Findings of the Conference.

Pennsylvania Conference on Social Work (1908); P. O. Box 162, Harrisburg; William A. Jenny, Ph.D., Executive Secretary (full-time).

Membership: Individuals, 1,616; organizations, 16 state and 238 local.

Activities: The Conference meets each year in January or February. Between 15 and 20 associate groups meet concurrently as part of the annual meeting. Special Interest Groups (institutes) are also conducted in conjunction with the annual meeting. Regional meetings, based on local needs and interests, are conducted in the 12 geographic regions into which the state is divided. Occasionally Special Interest Groups are held in connection with the regional conferences. Discussion groups are conducted at all meetings in addition to general sessions. The Conference is an open forum for the exchange of opinion on social work policy and practice.

Periodical: Pennsylvania Social Work, quarterly, $1.00 a year.

Pennsylvania Liaison Conference (1929); 311 South Juniper St., Philadelphia; Alvin R. Guyler, President.

Membership: Individuals whose interest or influence includes the state or a section larger than one county, and organizations serving the state or a section larger than one county.

Purpose and Activities: To bring together representatives of organizations working in more than one county of the state for informal discussion of plans and policies and interchange of experiences. The Conference shall at no time usurp or duplicate the work or functions of the State Conference on Social Work or other state organizations.

Rhode Island Conference of Social Work (1940); Room 604, 139 Mathewson St., Providence; Willis E. Chandler, Secretary (part-time).

Activities: The Conference, which takes the place of the former Rhode Island Social Workers Institute, is sponsored by the Social Workers Club of Rhode Island. It plans to hold annual conferences in the fall, at which time institutes or study courses will be conducted.

Rhode Island, Social Workers Club of (1919); Court House, Providence; Ray Simmonds, President.

Membership: Individuals, 311.

Purpose and Activities: To afford a means by which all those interested in social work in Rhode Island can meet together. The Club holds monthly meetings, except during the summer, in different sections of the state. It sponsors the Rhode Island Conference of Social Work.

South Carolina Conference of Social Work (1909); 1119 Barnwell St., Columbia; Adele Johnston Minahan, Executive Secretary (full-time).

Membership: Individuals, 900.

Activities: The Conference meets each year in the fall, and is preceded by a one-day case work institute. Four regional conferences are held in the spring. An educational program is promoted and social legislation sponsored. The Conference has a Children's Committee; a Basic Budget Guide Committee which is working out a budget for low-income families whereby they will be taught to spend money wisely for food, clothing, and shelter; and four subcommittees which are making careful studies in the fields of illegitimacy, child placing and adoption, delinquency, and dependency.

Periodical: Annual Proceedings.

South Dakota Conference of Social Work (1922); Madison; Byron B. Kelley, Secretary (volunteer).

Membership: Individuals, 105; organizations, 5 state.

Activities: The Conference meets each year, usually in October. Plans are under way for a legislative committee to help promote social legislation in the legislature.

Tennessee Conference of Social Work

(1914); P. O. Box 246, Chattanooga; M. W. Brabham, President.

Membership: Individuals, 338; organizations, 30.

Activities: The Conference meets each year in March or April. Institutes were inaugurated in 1938 as part of the program of the annual meeting. Committees are working on plans for a state-wide social service exchange, for regional conferences, and for ways and means of financing a full-time executive secretary. The Conference is promoting legislation for sterilization of the feebleminded. Tennessee now has a State Department of Public Welfare which the Conference sponsored.

Periodical: Tennessee Welfare News, bimonthly.

Texas Social Welfare Association

(1909); name changed in 1939 from Texas Conference of Social Welfare; P. O. Box 1184, Austin; Arthur O. Morehead, Executive Secretary (full-time).

Membership: Individuals, 1,585; organizations, 83.

Activities: The Association meets each year in the spring and institutes are held at that time. Regional conferences are held in the fall, 11 being held in the official year 1939–1940. During that year the Association carried to completion a "Basic Social Needs Study" in each of the 254 counties in Texas. This study will be used as a basis for its legislative program for the next two years. The Association has a year-round research, educational, legislative, and informational program, and is now sponsoring a drive for a Texas school of social work.

Periodical: Associarion Bulletin, approximately 7 issues yearly.

Utah Congress of Social Workers

(1939); 139 State Capitol, Salt Lake City; Mrs. Ruth P. Lohmoelder, First Vice President.

Membership: Individuals, 150; chapters, 5.

Purpose and Activities: To promote constructive social work, to better social conditions by discussion and action, to interchange ideas and information on social questions, to develop personal acquaintance and fellowship of the members, and to stimulate interest in the State Conference of Social Work and encouragemenr of membership in the American Association of Social Workers. Chapters include members from 15 out of the 29 counties in the state. Each chapter holds monthly meetings. In addition, the Salt Lake City chapter has been conducting weekly study meetings. The Congress as a whole holds at least one meeting each year. Among its state-wide committees are those on Education and Research and on Social Legislation. A traveling library has been set up which makes it possible for members to have access to social work literature.

Utah State Conference of Social Work

(1925); 1216 East 13th South, Salt Lake City; Mrs. Virginia Lee Benner, Secretary-Treasurer (volunteer).

Membership: Individuals, 190; organizations, 6 state and 22 local.

Activities: The Conference meets each year, usually in October. Two annual regional conferences are also held. In 1939 an institute for child welfare workers was held immediately preceding one of these regional conferences. The Conference participated with the University of Utah School of Social Work and the American Association of Social Workers in financing a week's institute in June, 1940. The Conference expects to sponsor certain legislation in cooperation with other social welfare groups in the next session of Legislature in 1941.

Vermont Conference of Social Work

(1916); Vermont Children's Aid Society, Burlington; Margaret F. Brainerd, Secretary (volunteer).

Membership: Individuals, 467.

Activities: The Conference meets each year, usually in October, and institutes are sometimes held at that time. The Conference has committees on Mental Hygiene and Social Hygiene, and through its Legislative Committee endeavors to secure the passage of desired measures. A comprehensive survey of the state has been made and the results published.

Periodical: Annual Proceedings (limited number of copies).

Virginia Conference of Social Work

(1900); 403 Grigsby Pl., Norfolk; Raleigh C. Hobson, Secretary (volunteer).

Membership: Individuals, approximately 400.

Activities: The Conference meets each year, usually in the spring, and institutes are held at that time. Plans are under way for a series of regional conferences to be held in the fall and winter. The Conference has a Legislative Committee which acts in an advisory capacity but does not sponsor legislation.

Washington State Conference of Social Work (1903); Graduate School of Social Work, University of Washington, Seattle; George S. Chessum, President.

Membership: Individuals, 867; organizations, 42 local agencies and 31 community councils.

Activities: The Conference meets each year in the spring and institutes are held at that time. Committees carry on the special programs developed at the annual meeting. The Conference supports social legislation and has standing committees on Child Welfare, Community Councils, Interpretation, Legislation, Medical Care and Health, Migrants, Professional Education, and Public Assistance.

Periodicals: Proceedings of the Annual Conference; Newsletter, 4 or more issues yearly.

West Virginia Conference of Social Work (1917); 1627 South Davis Ave., Elkins; William H. Naggs, Executive Secretary (part-time).

Membership: Individuals, 210.

Activities: The Conference holds an annual convention in the late fall, preceded by a number of institutes. In 1940 the Conference will present a legislative program to the committee of members of the state legislature appointed by the Governor to present a program to the next legislative session. It will work for the passage, during the session of the state legislature beginning in January, 1941, of the legislation approved by its annual convention. In other legislative years the Conference has been a vital factor in securing the enactment of state laws for the prevention of blindness in infants, provision for the care of feebleminded, provision for the care of crippled children, and other legislation designed to prevent delinquency and to provide care for the underprivileged.

Wisconsin Conference of Social Work (1870); 313 University Extension Bldg., Madison; Frank M. Vicroy, Secretary (full-time).

Membership: Individuals, approximately 1,000; organizations, approximately 300 local.

Activities: The Conference meets biennially, usually in September or October, and annual regional conferences are held. It conducts studies followed by a thorough educational program, sponsors and assists in the securing of desirable social legislation, directs community surveys conducted by citizens, and assists in community organization programs. During legislative sessions a bulletin is issued to the membership describing the measures of social significance in the legislature.

Periodical: Monthly News Bulletin.

Wisconsin Public Welfare Association (1920); name changed in 1939 from Wisconsin Public Welfare Officials; 1721 East Newton Ave., Shorewood; Gertrude H. Draeger, Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 450, including social workers in public and private agencies, town and state officials, and lay persons.

Purpose and Activities: To foster closer relationship among the social workers of the state and also between welfare agencies, town, state, and county officials, and especially county boards and supervisors; to inform members on current social problems and techniques; and to develop workers' interests and activities. An annual state-wide meeting is held. Three regional meetings are also held annually in different sections of the state. The meetings not only offer an opportunity to discuss the problems that confront the rank and file of the group, but also serve as a gathering place where the workers from all parts of the state can meet in a social way and thereby create a closer feeling of fellowship.

Wyoming Conference of Social Work (1935); State Department of Public Welfare, Cheyenne; Marion Maxwell, Secretary (volunteer).

Membership: Individuals, 89; organizations, 1.

Activities: The Conference, which was revived in 1935 after a period of several years inactivity, meets annually in October. No regional conferences were held during 1939, but an effort is being made to hold such meetings in at least four districts prior to the annual meeting in 1940.

Periodical: Wyoming Social Worker, quarterly, free.

II. State-wide Organizations for Social Welfare Planning

Delaware Citizens Association (1927); 200 West 9th St., Wilmington; Etta J. Wilson, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 250.

Purpose: To act as an interpreting factor in developing understanding of standards and objectives of professional educators and social workers among lay groups; to develop personal responsibility and participation among Delaware citizens; and to supplement the work of official boards by financing demonstrations, studies, and experiments in the fields of welfare and public education.

Periodical: Signposts, quarterly, $1.00 a year.

Florida Legislative Council (1939); P. O. Box 989, Jacksonville; Marjorie Howard, Secretary-Treasurer.

Membership: Individuals, 50; organizations, 5.

Purpose and Activities: To promote interest in and study of social legislation in Florida and to formulate a long-time program; to coordinate the interests and activities of various organizations, agencies, and individuals in the field of social legislation; and to select each biennium a small group of bills for active promotion.

Kansas Association for Social Legislation (1933); Washburn College, Topeka; Lyle O. Armel, President.

Membership: Individuals, 200; organizations, 3 state.

Purpose and Activities: To study trends and gather information on the public welfare program in Kansas. The Association holds conferences with interested and constituent groups, and formulates plans and proposed legislation for consideration of the legislative body.

Periodical: Annual Proceedings, free.

Massachusetts Civic League (1898); 3 Joy St., Boston; Katharine Van Etten Lyford, Executive Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, 1,300.

Purpose and Activities: To educate and organize public opinion in Massachusetts in order to procure needed measures of social value, to prevent harmful legislation, and to secure good administration of existing laws. The present program includes the following: community freedom in choice of motion pictures, improved housing, police cooperation, improved radio programs for children, modern correctional methods, maintenance of the merit system in the public service, preservation of scenic beauty from the billboard blight, maintenance of high educational standards, repeal of teachers' oath law, and improvement of standards of public health. The League acts as a center for accurate information on current legislation, and issues a legislative bulletin during the session of the legislature.

Periodical: The Lens, monthly.

Ohio Institute (1914); 150 East Broad St., Columbus; R. E. Miles, Director.

Membership: Individuals, 52.

Purpose: To conduct research into state-wide problems of public importance, and to inform public officials and the public as to the results of such research.

Periodical: Ohio Citizen, occasional issues, free.

Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania (1912); 311 South Juniper St., Philadelphia; Alvin R. Guyler, Program Director.

Membership: Individuals, 7,000.

Purpose and Activities: To work for the reduction of the social waste entailed by dependency, mental disease, and crime; and to gather and disseminate information which will influence and create public opinion and guide legislative action for better standards of public social services in local communities as well as in state-wide projects. Through its Family and Child Welfare Division, Mental Hygiene Committee, and Penal Affairs Committee, the Association functions as an educational and organizing agency in the interest of all citizens of the commonwealth. It has no political, religious, or racial affiliations.

Periodicals: PCA Herald, 5 issues yearly, $1.00 a year; Social Legislation, weekly during legislative sessions, $2.50 a year.

State Charities Aid Association (1872); 105 East 22d St., New York; Homer Folks, Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 10,000; local committees, 107.

Purpose and Activities: To aid and promote effective public administration of health and welfare in New York State. The Association is a non-partisan, non-sectarian, state-wide citizens' organization. Its activities include social welfare legislation, child placing, visitation of public charitable institutions, and the promotion of effective state and local programs in the fields of public health, public welfare, and mental hygiene.

Periodical: S.C.A.A. News, monthly except July and August, free.

State-wide Conference on Social Legislation (1939); name changed in 1940 from United Conference on Social Legislation; 215 Fourth Ave., New York City; Helene P. Gans, Executive Secretary.

Purpose and Activities: To provide an opportunity for those interested in social betterment to exchange ideas with other citizens of New York State. Members of the state legislature are invited to an annual conference where a free discussion of those most interested in each field is held. No resolutions are passed or action taken.

Wisconsin State Conference on Social Legislation (1938); 3125 Plankinton Bldg., Milwaukee; Thomas E. Casey, Secretary.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 200,000; organizations, 20 state and 155 local.

Purpose and Activities: To unify and coordinate the efforts of all labor, farm, fraternal, professional, and community organizations and liberal people around a program of social legislation for the welfare of the people and the future of democracy. An annual state-wide meeting is held, as well as several district conferences. Special campaigns have been conducted against the sales tax, the Woodrum WPA bill, anti-labor bills, anti-alien bills, for housing, etc. The Conference maintains a legislative representative at Madison during legislative sessions. A weekly "Legislative Review" is broadcast from the state station WHA, at Madison.

Periodicals: Legislative Letter, biweekly, $2.00 a year; Proceedings of Annual and Congressional District Conferences.

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Note: The index combines in a single alphabetical list titles of the topical articles in Part One, cross references to subjects discussed in these articles, names of the public and private national agencies and the state-wide private agencies included in Part Two, and cross references to subjects with which these agencies are chiefly concerned. It is not a complete subject index of the contents of topical articles.

Among the cross references to topical articles are included a number of references to specific sections of these articles. In these instances the title of the section is given and the number of the page on which it appears. However, where the title of the section is identical with the subject carrying the cross reference, the phrase "See in" is used instead of the section title. For example, the index entry "Adoption. *See in* Child Welfare, 109" indicates that a section entitled "Adoption" begins on the page number given.

Agencies in addition to appearing alphabetically and by subjects are also mentioned under the topics (usually the titles of topical articles) to which their work is significantly related. For example, the National Child Labor Committee is listed alphabetically by that name and appears again as "Child Labor Committee, National." It is also listed under the titles "Labor Legislation and Administration" and "Social Action," indicating that it is one of the agencies particularly active in these fields. Some agencies with a variety of activities will be found under several titles. All titles are used in the meaning given to them in the corresponding topical articles.

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