

which is affected by white political influence. In Atlanta, for example, the sanitary department has removed all Negroes, leaving whites to sweep streets and remove garbage in Negro districts. Negro waiters, too, are often replaced by women and white men; and Negro barbers are losing favor.

Clearly the color line has begun to run. No one knows how far it will go or what its ultimate outline will be. Meanwhile, the Negro's chances depend on the race between opening and closing opportunities, which, in turn, are closely related to the increase of white population, the rehabilitation of southern agriculture, the development of industry, the political situation, the growth of trade unionism and changes in public sentiment.

Facing north, Mr. Woofter discovers that there are sections where the Negro is being underbid in the labor market by Mexicans, while in various cities easily accessible to southern rural districts he feels the same pressure of white population that is exerted generally in the South. The use of Negro labor, considered a necessary experiment during the war, was resumed after the 1920 depression and augmented by 1929. In certain plants it had become a definite policy. Before 1920, Negroes were chiefly common laborers. While the evidence is not yet conclusive, indications are that the Negro has probably gained ground in recent years. This is especially creditable since most of the men in factories today were field hands yesterday.

Woman's place outside the home has not altered greatly since 1920 except by way of rapid expansion in mechanical laundries and some increase in industry, particularly fruit and nut packing in Chicago and textiles in Pennsylvania. New York City reports an advance of Negro women in the garment industry.

The status of the men is more ambiguous because it is determined by balancing gains against losses and neither are clearly defined, even within a given industry. Often one employer will deny the Negro's ability to do work which he is performing with great success in a neighboring city. The Negro's foremost conquests in the North have been in me-

chanical pursuits, especially, steel, meat packing, and the automobile industry.

Openings in municipal employment have been created by the political influence which has accrued from the growth of Negro population. Here, as well as in businesses patronized by Negroes, the colored man is making appreciable headway. Stores and offices owned by Negroes have multiplied. In them Negro clerks and managers are readily employed. White proprietors have generally preferred white employees. In Chicago, however, Negroes have been taken on by a chain of drug stores, several chain groceries and department stores and a number of small businesses. Losses among waiters, elevators operators, apartment house, and office building attendants can, in part, be traced to definite propaganda for the employment of whites.

In the building trades, the Negro's position varies as the trade union winds blow hot in one place, cold in another. While the American Federation of Labor favors no discrimination, this attitude is not found in all locals and internationals and these latter have the final decision on Negro admission. Other curbs to the Negro's progress are his own scant training and interest in manual labor. Both refer back to industrial education which is deficient in the North as well as in the South. In the South the expense of teaching technical subjects has been the greatest obstacle; but everywhere pupils have tended to avoid other than academic studies because they lacked respect for industry and feared they would be denied the education given freely to white children.

All in all, the Negro has won his preliminary contest with industry. It remains for him to compete for the title of skilled laborer. In spite of the many obstacles in his way, he has already made some progress in the direction of the skilled occupations. But unless he continues this rise in scale his numerical gain in industry will have been only a jump from the agricultural frying pan to the industrial fire. These facts were presented at a second conference in Washington which brought together especially (*Continued on page 112*)

Win or Lose?

By BEULAH WELDON BURHOE

THERE are in the United States about six hundred tuberculosis hospitals and sanatoria from which are discharged each year over a hundred thousand patients. Some of these ex-patients will die, some will be numbered among the chronic sick, some (those whose disease was discovered early enough) will soon be absorbed again into their old places in the community. But there is a group, a very large group, of sanatorium graduates whose fate depends directly on the conscience of the community to which they return. They are not sick enough for a sanatorium, but they are not yet well enough to enter competitive industry. They have been brought safely to convalescence because the community has provided for their proper sanatorium care. But this is only the first step. The community must provide stepping stones back to employment, if only for economic considerations. The sanatoria throughout the country represent an investment of over \$300,000,000. It

costs \$83,000,000 a year to maintain them. While there are no available figures for the relapse rate, it has been estimated that fifty per cent of the sanatorium graduates break down and go back for further treatment.

This problem of social adjustments to prevent relapse, is being studied by the after-care department of the National Tuberculosis Association, organized a year ago. In several large cities there are bureaus for the handicapped where vocational guidance and placement are provided for those disabled by accident or disease. A few of these bureaus maintain curative workshops where a patient's aptitude and work-tolerance is tested and where training in certain industrial processes is provided. In New York City there is a very successful workshop which gives sheltered employment to workers in the garment industry. (See *The Survey*, Feb. 1, 1925, p. 516.) The factory is a model in equipment and sanitation. Work is apportioned on a prescription basis de-

terminated by the examining physician. The employe spends the entire day at the factory where rest rooms are provided for the hours when he is not at work. He is paid for a full day's work though he may work only an hour or two, receiving what he earns in cash, his subsidy by check, so that he can measure his progress by the increase in currency. In several cities the local tuberculosis association maintains a special employment bureau which seeks to obtain jobs suitable to the capacity of the sanatorium graduate.

All those engaged in the problem of the employment of the tuberculous are concerned with some phase of adult education. While it is generally conceded that the person who has had tuberculosis is better off if he returns to his old position, thus avoiding the strain of adjusting to new conditions, this is not always possible. Here the state bureaus for vocational rehabilitation are sometimes of great help. Since 1920 there has been available through an act of Congress \$1,000,000 allocated to states on a population basis where the states match the federal funds. This money can be used for the re-training of civilians disabled through accident or otherwise who cannot return to their former occupations. Those who have had tuberculosis fall in this "otherwise" group. One young man in the far west who received training through one of these state bureaus is on his way toward becoming one of the foremost commercial artists in the country. This training aspect is, of course, of most importance in the adolescent group.

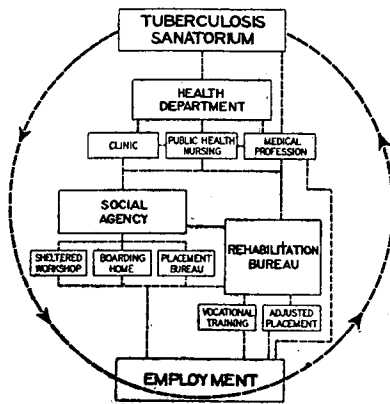
Consideration of the education, or re-education, of the person who has had tuberculosis opens up the field of adult education as a therapeutic measure. Several sanatorium superintendents have seen the vision of a sound educational therapy. They have capitalized the hours of leisure which are often so irksome when imposed for long months and years. One sanatorium superintendent in the mid-west has persuaded a socially minded board of education to provide two full-time teachers for the adults in his institution. Here the patients are pursuing their studies, even those who are still in bed, their beds being rolled into the auditorium for classes. In several sanatoria, studies are now being made of the patients in relation to educational programs. Each patient is interviewed, to determine previous schooling, former employment, future ambitions and present desires for study. In the sections of the country where there is a large foreign born population, this is a fertile field for Americanization in its true sense. This sort of educational work has been carried on for some time by a few institutions but as a country-wide movement it has only begun.

The field of education has now been long recognized as a public responsibility. The pioneer work in adult education has been done and its further extension to those who are temporarily or permanently disabled is but a matter of time. The lag in the field of after-care of the tuberculous individual is in the social field. The reason for this lag is expense. Tuberculosis is expensive, much more expensive than those who administer community funds often realize. It is difficult for a lay person to understand why a man weighing possibly 170 pounds, with a good color and no outward

evidences of weakness, cannot do a full-time job. It is easy to brand him as a shirker, as a man who thinks that the world owes him a living. Forward looking social agencies have long recognized the expensiveness of the disease but they have had difficulty in getting general understanding.

One outstanding family agency in New York City has a special tuberculosis division. All families in which there is a case of tuberculosis are put on a special budget and supervised by case workers who are nurses. Other agencies throughout the country recognize this need but they are hampered by lack of funds. They know that a man who has just returned from a sanatorium should not do a full day's work under ordinary employment conditions, but where there is no work for men who are entirely fit, the problem of the employment of the disabled is a dismal one. Part-time work is almost non-existent.

As we have seen, some communities are trying to solve this problem by subsidizing sheltered workshops. In England the industrial colony, notably Papworth, has found much enthusiastic support. Two or three experiments in colonization are being made in this country. They all involve considerable expenditure and can only be undertaken when the community realizes the importance of this problem and the savings involved. Not until cities, counties, and states realize that it is cheaper to provide support for a sanatorium graduate until he finds suitable employment, than it is to pay for the otherwise almost inevitable relapse, can we be sanguine about the problem of the after-care of the tuberculous.



The circle charts the route of the unsupervised and leads, too often, back to the sanatorium. The supervised routes within the circle lead back to employment

BEFORE any community can give adequate consideration to the supervision of those who have returned from sanatoria, there are several fundamental conditions that must be fulfilled. When a case is discharged from a sanatorium, the notice of his discharge must be sent by the sanatorium back to the community in which he will live. In many states in this country this is not done. In several states there is an arrangement whereby the sanatorium notifies the county nursing association, the local health department, or the local tuberculosis association. In four states, New Jersey, Massachusetts, Ohio, and Connecticut, there is mandatory provision in the Sanitary Code for the notification of discharged sanatorium patients to the department of health. These discharge notices should, of course, carry full information about the condition of the patient and some prognosis of work-tolerance, as a guide to the social agency.

Adequate supervision of the sanatorium graduate is twofold—medical and social. Both are equally necessary. The medical supervision, as shown on the accompanying chart, is the responsibility of the medical profession and the health department. The social supervision will depend upon local conditions. It may be done by a local tuberculosis association, or by a family welfare agency. It may take a number of forms such as sheltered employment, re-education, placement, or colonization; the important thing is that it should be there in some form. Obviously, the route from the sanatorium back to employment will be reasonably free from hazards only when it becomes a matter of community conscience.

The Uniform Child Labor Law

By FLORENCE KELLEY

THE nationwide movement for the safety, health, education, and welfare of wage-earning children and youth, receives tremendous impetus through this year's action of the Conference on Uniform State Laws at Chicago. On August 13 the Conference adopted by a roll-call vote, 34 to 1, its third draft for a uniform state child labor act, and the American Bar Association approved the act at its annual meeting on August 22.

The conference consists of approximately 160 commissioners, each appointed by the Governor of his state. They include Dr. Ernst Freund of the Chicago University Law School, a lifelong devoted advocate of this cause, and Professor Joseph H. Beale of the Harvard Law School appointed this year to replace Professor Samuel Williston, resigned. Since 1926, the Commissioners on Uniform State Laws have been giving painstaking consideration to the forward steps in this field for which they now deem the time ripe. Their first draft for a uniform child labor act was started in 1909, and this, their third draft, is adopted at their fortieth annual conference.

For the host of administrative state and city officials made necessary by our expanding industries it is an immense service to have wrought into clearly intelligible, readable form the sorely needed proof-of-age specifications for supplying the effective care intended for wage-earning children today by the advanced states. Especially beneficial will this service be to the children where, as in Pennsylvania and many other industrially developed states, the spoils system runs riot and new, inexperienced, incompetent men and women come and go as administrative authorities, with every political change.

The scope of the act extends beyond child labor measures hitherto proposed for immediate enactment in this country as to age and safety. The upper limit is the twenty-first birthday for all persons employed (in cities of specified size) before 6 A. M. and after 8 P. M. as messenger for a telegraph or messenger company or other company engaged in similar business, in the distribution, transmission, or delivery of messages or goods. The same age limit applies to women and girls if required to stand constantly, or to oil or clean machinery in motion, or in or about a mine or quarry, or in the street trades. To cover the prohibitions of dangerous occupations for persons under eighteen years eleven titles are required, several of them very comprehensive, and for those under

sixteen years, twenty-six titles. Provision for certification and issuance of permits to workers sixteen to eighteen years, will introduce a new era for them all. It will give teeth to that section of the act which prescribes for them a working day of not more than eight hours, a working week of not more than six days and forty-eight hours, and rest at night from 6 P. M. to 7 A. M.

The educational requirement is the completed eighth grade of the public schools. The provision for enforcement is substantially that which has long been familiar as prescribed by the State of New York for its minors.

From the foregoing standards there are, however, variations, which may account for the refusal of New York delegates to vote approval of the draft in the meeting on August 13. These variations may, indeed, reduce the probability of nation-wide uniform adoption unless and until they are modified.

First, the act excludes from its definition of "gainful occupation" or "employment," the whole field of agriculture, thus ignoring Ohio's celebrated Bing law regulating the work of minors in commercialized mass production of fruits and vegetables in the vicinity of cities. Second, the act amazingly exempts from all its elaborate educational and badge safeguards provided for boys under sixteen years engaged in street trades, "boys between nine and fourteen years who may distribute or sell newspapers, magazines, or periodicals."

New York's approval is presumably withheld because the proposed act does not go far enough in one or perhaps both these important respects. More than a decade ago, by statewide law, she successfully placed her newsboys under control of the educational authority even in Greater New York, administratively the most difficult municipality in the nation, and fixed the minimum age at twelve years. How then could New York delegates today consistently vote approval of a draft which would, wherever adopted, comprehensively outlaw this important group of working children? The exclusion of *all* agriculture by definition, and of newsboys by repeated specific provision (involving conflict in terms) is an inexplicable blot upon this third draft after more than four years' consideration, the more so by contrast with the extraordinary enlightenment of the provision for the other minors.



Courtesy the Neighborhood Kitchen



Consumers' League of Cincinnati