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EIGHTH ANNUAL REPORT
OF THE
CHIEF, CHILDREN’S BUREAU.

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR,
CHILDREN’S BUREAU,
Washington, September 15, 1920.

Sir: I have the honor to transmit herewith the eighth annual report of the Children’s Bureau for the fiscal year July 1, 1919, to June 30, 1920.

THE YEAR’S WORK.

GENERAL SUMMARY.

The mandatory duties of the Children’s Bureau as set forth by Congress in the organic act were to “investigate and report * * * upon all matters pertaining to the welfare of children and to child life among all classes of our people.” The bureau was specifically charged “to investigate the questions of infant mortality, the birth rate, orphanage, juvenile courts, desertion, dangerous occupations, accidents, and diseases of children, employment, [and] legislation affecting children in the several States and Territories.”

The $25,640 appropriation for the first year’s work could not be stretched very far over the field indicated. A beginning was made, however, and increased funds were given from time to time until in 1919 a total appropriation of $268,160 was received. The President, responding to the need for a more comprehensive program for child welfare—a necessity then already proved by European war experience—allotted from his special war fund the sum of $250,000, making the total money available for that fiscal year $518,160. As a result a vigorous nation-wide campaign was carried forward for the protection of children and child life, in which all the States in the Union but one and one of our remote Territories cooperated. For the fiscal year covered by this report Congress appropriated $280,040, and much of the work under way was either curtailed or abandoned.

Chief among these activities was the work of State cooperation—the Follow-up of Children’s Year. The women who as volunteer child-welfare chairmen carried on the Children’s Year Campaign had voted to maintain an organization cooperating with the bureau and looking to it for leadership. These women represent 38 States, the District of Columbia, and Hawaii. With even a slightly increased appropriation it would have been possible through the county organizations effected by the State chairmen to enlist a large pro-

Provided by the Maternal and Child Health Library, Georgetown University
portion of the people of this country in a united effort for child
welfare. A program for follow-up work based upon the standards
of the 1919 child-welfare conferences was formulated by the bureau.
But with the reduced staff the cooperation and guidance which made
Children’s Year a success could not be given on a program that
urged the following:

2. Establishment of health stations.
3. Protection of health and development of school children by weighing and
   measuring tests, open-air classes, nutritional clinics, and other measures.
4. Protection of children from illiteracy and premature work by Back-to-
   School and Stay-in-School Campaigns.
5. Public provision for wholesome play and recreation, under trained leader-
   ship, and supervision of commercial amusements.
6. Continued study by each community of local needs and local resources, as
   related to the care of handicapped children, and the endeavor to bring the care
   of these children in line with the standards which have been found practicable
   in this field.
7. Study of present laws and local needs in order to effect necessary revision
   of existing laws and to further new legislation for the care and protection of
   children.

Constructive work was attempted on the Back-to-School and Stay-
in-School Campaign. This was aimed to encourage children to re-
main in school and to stimulate their parents to renewed effort to keep
their children from the ranks of the premature laborers who in later
years, if they do not become public charges, at least rarely develop
into citizens able to give valuable service to their country.

The acute paper shortage made it necessary to limit the amount of
printed matter planned for this campaign. While the editions were
issued by thousands, requests for them ran far into the millions. Cer-
tain communities have asked permission to reprint the leaflets at their
own expense.

To carry on the work outlined in this report including the studies
in Porto Rico and the other island possessions, the bureau is asking
for the fiscal year beginning July 1, 1921, a total appropriation of
$654,360 or about $0.006 per capita.

During the year the bureau has received and has given due attention
to a total of 72,453 letters. Sixteen new publications were issued
during this period, and the entire number of publications distributed
was 3,264,750. Of this number 2,347,931 were dodgers, and the
balance reports, bulletins, and leaflets.

During the year the following have been issued:

Child-Welfare Programs: Study Outlines for use of Clubs and Classes, by
Mrs. Max West and Nettie McGill.

Child-Welfare Special, The: A Suggested Method of Reaching Rural Com-
unities, by Dr. Frances Sage Bradley.

Children’s Year: A Brief Summary of Work Done and Suggestions for Follow-
up Work.

Courts in the United States Hearing Children’s Cases, by Evelina Belden.

Every Child In School.

Illegitimacy Laws in the United States and Certain Foreign Countries, by Ernst
Freund.

Illegitimacy Laws of the United States: Analysis and Index, by Ernst Freund.

Illegitimacy as a Child-Welfare Problem: Part I, by Emma O. Lundberg and
Katharine F. Learoet.

Industrial Instability of Child Workers: A Study of Employment-Certificate
Records in Connecticut, by Robert M. Woodbury, Ph. D.
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Laws Relating to Mothers' Pensions in the United States, Canada, Denmark, and New Zealand, by Laura A. Thompson.

List of Publications of the Children's Bureau. (Dec. 15, 1919.)

List of Publications of the Children's Bureau (revised to June 15, 1920).


Seventh Annual Report.

Social and Environmental Factors in the Moral Delinquency of Girls Committed to the Kansas State Industrial Farm (published in an issue of the Public Health Report as a portion of the "Psychiatric Study of Delinquents" in which the Bureau cooperated with the Public Health Service), by Alice M. Hill.


Stay in School Ruler: A rule for school.


What Do Growing Children Need? Dodger No. 10.

The following publications are in press:

Administration of Aid-to-Mothers Law in Illinois, by S. P. Breckinridge and Edith Abbott.


Administration of the First Federal Child-Labor Law.

Child Care: Part I. (Revised.)

Children Deprived of Parental Care, by Ethel M. Springer.

Illegitimacy as a Child-Welfare Problem, Pt. II: A Study of Original Records in the City of Boston and the State of Massachusetts, by Emma O. Lundberg and Katharine Lenroot.

Infant Mortality: Results of a Field Study in Akron, Ohio, by Theresa S. Haley.

Infant Mortality: Results of a Field Study in New Bedford, Mass, by Jessamine S. Whitney.

Infant-Welfare Work in Europe: An account of the present status in Great Britain, Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, and Italy, by Nettie McGill.

Standards of Legal Protection for Children Born Out of Wedlock: A Report of Regional Conferences held under the auspices of the U. S. Children's Bureau and the Inter-city Conference on Illegitimacy.

The following reports are in preparation:


Child Care: Part II.

Child Labor Legislation in the United States. (Revision.)

Child Labor and the Work of Mothers in the Shrimp-Canling Industries on the Gulf Coast.

Industrial Homework Among Children in Rhode Island.

Infant Mortality: Australia.

Infant Mortality: Results of a Field Study in Baltimore, Md.

Infant Mortality: Results of a Field Study in Gary, Ind.

Infant Mortality: New Zealand.


Kentucky Nutritional Survey.

Juvenile Courts: Bibliography.

Maternity and Child Care in Selected Rural Areas of Georgia.

Maternity and Child Care in Selected Rural Areas of Mississippi.

Methods of Infant-Welfare Work.

Employment of Young Persons in Michigan Metal Trades.

Office Administration for Child-Health Organizations Supervising Children of Preschool Age.

Probation in Children's Courts.

The Preadolescent Girl.
THE PROTECTION OF MATERNITY AND INFANCY.

In the last three reports of the bureau considerable space was given to a discussion of the need for protection of maternity and infancy. More recent figures show even more clearly the imperative need of facing our responsibility in this matter. Maternal deaths from causes incident to child bearing in the United States increased from 18,000 in 1916 to 23,000 in 1918. While influenza is responsible for a large number of the deaths in 1918, we have no reason to believe that we have been making appreciable progress in reducing our maternal death rate. The chart on page 9 shows that none of the principal countries of the world permitted such a waste of mothers as the United States.

The comparison of infant death rates as shown in the chart on page 10 reveals a similar condition. With the exception of the war-torn countries of continental Europe, only Chile, Japan, and Spain show higher infant death rates than our own country.

The bureau has completed its first study of infant mortality in a great city. Its previous investigations in smaller cities and rural districts have indicated the causes and accompanying conditions of mortality, but the findings in Baltimore are based on so large a mass of data as to carry greater authority.

To the individual the chances of life and death are fortuitous. In the great mass chance is eliminated, and the law of averages is inexorable.

From the findings in Baltimore certain facts stand forth to which we as a Nation can no longer close our eyes. Without qualification—regardless of color, race, or nationality—the infant death rate varies inversely with the father's income. When the father's income represented the ability to insure care and comfort ($1,850 a year or more) the infant death rate was one-fourth as high as when the father's earnings fell into the lowest wage group.

The number of children born dead or who die from the circumstances of birth is almost as great as the total number who die otherwise during the first difficult-year of existence. To instruct mothers before childbirth and to insure proper care at that time would eliminate most of this toll of death.

A measure providing Federal aid for the protection of maternity and infancy was introduced in Congress in October, 1919, and was favorably reported by the Senate Committee on Public Health and National Quarantine.
MATERNAL MORTALITY RATES

per 1000 births

Latest available figures up to 1917

The United States lost over 23,000 women in 1918 from childbirth. We have a higher maternal death rate than any other of the principal countries.

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INFANT MORTALITY THERMOMETER
DEATHS UNDER 1 YEAR OF AGE PER 1,000 BIRTHS

Within the first year after birth, the United States loses fifteen of all babies born. It ranks eleventh among the principal countries of the world. New Zealand loses fewer babies than any other country.

Rates are for latest available years up to 1918.

CHILDREN'S BUREAU, U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR.

Provided by the Maternal and Child Health Library, Georgetown University
CHILD-HYGIENE DIVISIONS.

Before the Children's Year Campaign, launched by the bureau, only 8 States had established child-hygiene or child-welfare divisions. It is significant that now 35 States, by legislative enactment, have given this kind of protection to their children. All but 13 States have now fallen into line.

One of the bureau's most important functions in the field of child health is the service it can render in an advisory capacity to these newly created divisions. At their request brief visits have been made to several of these divisions by the bureau's director of child hygiene to assist in organizing their activities. More detailed assistance in developing plans has been frequently requested, but it has been impossible to respond to many of these calls. It is hoped, however, that with an increased staff such assistance may be made available to all who desire it.

The most common problems of the State divisions are those of organization, administration, and development of satisfactory State-wide programs. The close contact which prevails between the bureau and the older child-hygiene divisions puts it in a particularly favorable position to pass on to the new divisions the experience of those which have been longer in existence. To this end a news-letter, essentially a record of the work of the various State divisions, is being sent to directors of child-hygiene divisions. The first issue appeared in January, 1920, and met with generous response. The bureau receives and compiles reports from these State directors, and the findings, by means of the news-letter, reach all the State child-hygiene divisions. Thus the activities of one State stimulate every other State to more earnest effort.

The State which receives a budget of $0.048 per capita for one year's work naturally sets a standard of possible activity which a State receiving only $0.002 per capita can not hope to emulate. Certain divisions with meager appropriations, however, have made signal contributions to child health.

After the work of one State child-conservation division had been under way for about a year, during which time many urban and rural infant-welfare clinics had been established, the State legislature failed to make appropriation. So great, however, was the demand for the clinics that they were reorganized under the joint supervision of the State public-health association and the pediatric society, while maternal-welfare clinics were created and placed under the supervision of the State public-health association and the State obstetrical and gynecological society. Through this method of cooperation the child-welfare work of the State was not allowed to lapse, even though public funds for its maintenance were lacking, but has made steady progress. Here, as in other States, the Children's Bureau minimum standards for child welfare have been indorsed and adopted.

A large part of the field of child hygiene is covered by private organizations. Some of these are conducting their work in an effective manner, but a very large number are laboriously pathfinding in fields where the pathfinding has already been done, and a vast amount of effort and money is being wasted through poorly organized work.
What the bureau has done for State divisions it can also do for the private organizations. Visiting nurses' associations, for example, have been given advice and assistance on office administration and record planning, so far as their undertakings touch the problems of child welfare. In assisting these organizations the bureau has demonstrated the pressing need of introducing efficient office administration among those responsible for the conduct of children's agencies. A careful study has been made of the records and methods in use in 200 nursing agencies, supplemented by intensive field work in a number of cities covering the various types of organizations. As a result of this study a series of bulletins is now being prepared on the subject of office administration, case record systems, annual reports, and publicity. These bulletins will present the practices of scientific office management and commercial procedure adaptable to children's health agencies in order to bring about a higher standard of service with a minimum of effort and expense. Through this cooperation the standards of the private organizations can be raised, and the money now contributed indirectly by the public can be put to much more effective use.

CHILD-WELFARE SPECIAL

Early in July, 1919, the bureau sent forth the Child-Welfare Special to carry the gospel of child hygiene to the remote rural districts of the country.

There has been a general assumption that children born and brought up in the wholesome surroundings of the country were universally healthy, and the emphasis of the need of hygiene has previously been placed on the city child. Careful studies, however, have revealed the great prevalence of defects among rural children, mainly remediable if not preventable; and in the cantonments the country boys showed an alarming lack of resistance under physical strain.

The Special is a compact child-welfare station mounted on a motor truck and fully equipped for making physical examinations of children. It is manned by a doctor, nurse, clerk, and chauffeur. Tried out at first as an experiment the Special has so demonstrated its usefulness that in the budget for the next fiscal year provision is made for two additional cars.

The Special goes into a State only at the request of the State department of health and in general only to those communities which assure local cooperation. Under these conditions the car was first sent to Illinois and Indiana.

The counties visited showed all types of rural conditions. The great need for the education of mothers in food values and the preparation of food was common to all. One county was fairly prosperous; others were distinctly limited in their resources. In some communities no one kept cows, and the poor bone and muscle development of the children was a mute but striking evidence of an ill-balanced diet; in other communities there was an abundance of milk and other foods necessary to proper physical development, the people were well-to-do, but the children were suffering from too abundant and frequent feedings.

Before the Special left, one county had installed a public-health nurse, with a car to insure county-wide service; another secured two
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nurses within 30 days of its departure; a third has since secured one nurse and has raised money for two more; while still another is planning to add a second nurse as soon as one can be found.

It is this kind of stimulus which the bureau seeks to give; to make a demonstration and then to depend upon the interest and power of the community to undertake any local action necessary.

Hearty thanks are due to the women who, in advance of the Special’s arrival, make plans for the examinations, so that busy mothers are not compelled to wait too long for their turn, and to the doctors and nurses who so generously cooperate with the Special’s staff. In many places persons with automobiles went for mothers and babies in the outlying districts, and in one instance the son of one of the physicians in a small town drove his car back and forth all day, bringing mothers and children to the conference. In many cases doctors have treated free of charge those children who needed attention but whose parents were unable to pay for it; and dentists have cooperated in a similar way.

Later, at the urgent request of the State health officer of Kentucky and county health and educational officers, the Special was sent into certain counties of Kentucky to assist in an intensive survey and examination of school and preschool children. This survey is a part of a larger study of the health and well-being of the community.

Each examination made by the Child-Welfare Special represents a conference between the physician, the nurse, and the mother on the physical condition of the child, with specific advice on diet, hygiene, and any special defects which need correction. No prescriptions or treatments are given, but a written report of the child’s condition is given to the parents by the doctor, together with any recommendations she has to offer. Of these detailed examinations, 3,850 have been made since July 11, 1919.

By far the commonest defect found in all localities was decayed teeth, while enlarged tonsils and malnutrition were frequently discovered. This does not differ in general from the findings among city children. The particular point that should be emphasized in regard to examinations is the fact that most of these defects are preventable or easily remediable.

KENTUCKY NUTRITIONAL SURVEY.

At the request of the State board of health, the Children’s Bureau undertook an intensive nutritional survey of a district in the mountainous section of Kentucky. The study covered an area of but 30 square miles, and it included 123 families containing 256 children between 2 and 11 years of age.

There are two distinct aspects of a nutritional survey—one is the study of the children themselves in order to determine their physical condition, and the other an investigation of all the factors responsible for producing this condition.

A medical examination of each child was made by a Children’s Bureau physician, and the factors contributing to the child’s condition were ascertained by visiting the home and interviewing the mother. In this investigation the greatest amount of attention was, of course, given to the amount and kind of food which the child received and to the family food supply; but information was also se-
cured concerning sleep, exercise, care of the teeth, housing conditions, and other important factors.

Ignorance of the laws of hygiene and nutrition was general. Teeth were almost totally uncared for, toothbrushes being practically unknown and a visit to a dentist a rare occurrence.

Throughout the district the diet was meager, for which poverty was largely responsible. The families that could afford to keep a cow usually kept one, and the diet of the children in these families contained the necessary elements. In homes where poverty prevented the keeping of a cow or the purchase of milk, the ration became almost entirely one of corn meal and fat salt pork, with only occasional supplementing with beans and blackberries. Fully one-third of the children examined were rated as poor in nutrition.

Only a small percentage of the children were living in families able to provide the essentials of adequate health care, decent shelter, sufficient clothing, and a simple but properly balanced diet.

The prevailing ignorance of hygiene can and should be removed by health education. This will not be sufficient, however, unless the problem of poverty is also met in a thoroughgoing, systematic manner. In this particular district the solution must lie largely in scientific agriculture. With adequate farm equipment and proper treatment of the soil, the land could be made productive. Gardening can be encouraged and women and children can be instructed in the management of gardens in various latitudes so as best to supplement the family diet.

AID TO MOTHERS.

Most of the States (40) have now recognized the principle that children should not be taken from their mothers because of poverty alone. The rapid growth of the mothers' pension movement is indicative of the belief, generally held, that home life and a mother's care are of paramount importance.

Although larger grants have been given in many of our States, the amounts in general are inadequate. On the whole, unfortunately, proper consideration has not been given to the increased cost of living, and the full purpose of these laws is not being attained. Yet it is encouraging to note that in some cases budget studies have been made by mothers' pension fund officers so that allowances can be based upon actual living costs.

Because of the great differences in the amount of the allowances, the classes of persons to whom given, the agencies granting aid, and the methods of supervision, it is most desirable that the bureau make a complete study and report of the administration of mothers' pension laws. Repeated requests for this information have been made by agencies administering such laws in the different States.

Two other very important studies should be made in connection with the question of mothers' pensions. These are the institutional care of children and the placement of children in foster families. These investigations should be made on a wide basis, so that the findings would be authoritative in assisting the States to determine a sound and constructive policy in regard to the care of children deprived of normal family life.
THE CHILD AND THE COURTS.

The Children's Bureau has undertaken two studies of courts hearing children's cases. The first was by a questionnaire survey to secure general information of the extent and development of the juvenile-court movement. The second, now in progress, is an intensive study of 10 representative courts having special organization for children's work.

From the data gathered in the questionnaire study it was estimated that 175,000 children were brought before courts in the United States in 1918. Of these, approximately 50,000 came before courts not adapted to handling children's cases. Especially in small towns and rural districts children are still subjected to the same unsocialized court procedure which the juvenile court is designed to replace. Although every State but one had legislation providing for juvenile probation, less than half the courts hearing children's cases actually had probation services. The majority of the courts failed to secure adequate information regarding the child's home and family circumstances, his physical and mental condition, and personal tendencies.

This survey furnishes a general index of the organization of all courts hearing children's cases and points out certain significant tendencies in the juvenile-court movement. One tendency is to an increasing recognition of the necessity of extending to all children brought before the courts the intelligent methods which have been worked out in the best courts, such as the facilities for thorough physical and mental examination and diagnosis, accompanied by complete social investigation. Another important trend is toward merging juvenile and family cases in domestic relations or family courts, dealing with all problems relating to family life. Cooperation between the courts and other social agencies of the community has been greatly developed. A few States have provided for State supervision of juvenile courts and probation work.

Data are being secured regarding the nature of juvenile offenses against Federal laws and the action taken by the authorities. This inquiry is particularly timely because of the effort now being made to secure legislation authorizing probation in the Federal courts.

During the coming year the bureau plans to make a special study of the need of juvenile courts in rural districts. Another study which should be made is that of the development of family, or domestic relations, courts. The development of these courts is due to the belief that loss of effectiveness often results because delinquent parents cannot be dealt with in the juvenile court in which the delinquent or neglected child appears. In some States domestic relations courts can be organized under existing statutes, in others legislation is required.

CHILDREN BORN OUT OF WEDLOCK.

Each year in the United States at least 32,000 white children are born out of wedlock. This is proportionately fewer than in most foreign countries. The death rate of infants of illegitimate birth, according to the studies made by the bureau, is three times as high as that of other children—an index of the handicaps under which they
labor all their lives. The burden which the survivors unwittingly
place upon the community is out of all proportion to their numbers.
In most of the European countries the position of the child born out
of wedlock was materially improved during the war. Conditions
have not forced us to act, and we have lagged behind. The laws of
many of our States are archaic; but, following a century-long period
of indifference, legislatures are beginning to concern themselves with
 provision for the care and support of these children.

Following the completion of special studies on the problem of ille-
gitimacy, two regional conferences were held in Chicago and New
York in February, 1920, under the auspices of the bureau, for discus-
sion of legal measures for the protection of these children. Repre-
sentatives from 35 cities took part in the conferences, and resolutions
were adopted voicing the consensus of opinion on the basic principles
of such legislation. The main recommendations of these two confer-
ences are summarized as follows:

1. *Birth registration.*—All births should be registered, but in the
case of an illegitimate birth the name of the father should be recorded
on the birth certificate only after an adjudication of paternity or
on the written consent of the father. Adjudications of paternity
should be reported by courts to the birth-registration authorities.
Records of birth out of wedlock should be confidential—open to in-
spection only upon order of court. Transcripts for school or work
purposes should not disclose any facts concerning birth status.

2. *Reporting to administrative agency.*—All births not clearly le-
gitimate should be reported to a public agency having the responsi-
ability for child welfare.

3. *Establishment of paternity.*—Proceedings to establish patern-
ity should be initiated by the mother. If she is unwilling, and
the public agency above referred to deems it advisable in the interests
of the child, proceedings should be instituted by the public agency.
The law should provide for the use of either a civil or a criminal pro-
ceeding, as the exigencies of the case demand. The court given juris-
diction should be equipped with a staff of probation officers or other
social case workers, and the proceedings should be as informal and
private as possible.

4. *The father’s responsibility for the support of the child.*—The
Chicago resolutions stated that, “the father of a child born out of
wedlock should make financial provision for the adequate care, main-
tenance, and education of the child, having reference to the father’s
economic condition.” The New York resolutions included the state-
ment that, “the obligations for support on the part of the father
should be the same for the child born out of wedlock as for the legiti-
mate child.” Both conferences agreed that the court should have con-
tinuing jurisdiction with reference both to custody and support dur-
ing the minority of the child, that the acceptance of lump-sum pay-
ments should be in the discretion of the court, but that settlements out
of court in order to be valid should be approved by the court.

5. *Inheritance and names.*—After an adjudication of paternity or
an acknowledgment in writing by the father, the child born out of
wedlock should have the same rights of inheritance as the child born
in wedlock. Assumption of the name of the father should be per-
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6. Legitimation.—The Chicago resolutions included no recommendation on this subject. The New York resolutions stated that subsequent marriage of the parents should legitimize the child born out of wedlock, and that offspring of a void or voidable marriage should be by law legitimate.

7. Care by the mother.—Whenever possible, the mother should be persuaded to keep her child during the nursing period at least. The enactment of compulsory legislation was not recommended, though great stress was laid upon the necessity of using the best methods of case work for keeping mother and child together.

8. State supervision.—The duty of the State to protect the interest of children born out of wedlock was recognized and affirmed. With due allowance for local variance and need, the conferences recommended the creation of State departments having responsibility for child welfare, the duties of which should include responsibility for assisting unmarried mothers and their children. The parents should not be permitted to surrender a child for adoption, or to transfer guardianship, or to place it out permanently for care, without order of the court or State department, made after investigation. The State should license and supervise private hospitals which receive unmarried mothers for confinement, and all private child-helping and child-placing agencies. Full opportunity should be afforded, however, for the development of private initiative, and there should be cordial cooperation between private agencies and the State.

At the request of the Children's Bureau, the National Conference of Commissioners on Uniform State Laws has given consideration to the subject of the legal protection of children born out of wedlock. At its annual meeting in August, 1920, the conference adopted a resolution for the draft of an act or acts for the protection of illegitimate children, and the following committee on status and protection of illegitimate children was appointed: Ernst Freund, professor of jurisprudence and public law, University of Chicago Law School, chairman; J. B. Weaver, Des Moines, Iowa; Thomas A. Jenckes, Providence, R. I.; John G. Sargent, Ludlow, Vt.; John B. Sanborn, Madison, Wis.; C. W. Ashford, Honolulu, Hawaii; F. M. Clevenger, Wilmington, Ohio.

CHILD-WELFARE LEGISLATION.

Child-welfare legislation, like all social legislation, has been built up piecemeal. It had first to do with exceptional children who were more clearly than others State charges because of dependency, delinquency, defect, or neglect. The guardian power of the State was shown again in the laws applying to education and regulating the possible exploitation of children as laborers in factories, workshops, and mines. All this legislation was uncoordinated and sometimes contradictory, the result of unrelated effort and achievement by different groups of workers attacking diverse evils. Even the relationship of school attendance and child-labor laws was frequently overlooked.
The number of laws affecting children has made necessary a study of the whole rambling body of legislation enacted in their behalf. England blazoned the way through the consolidated factory acts, consolidated education acts, and the children's act of 1908. In this country the White House Conference of 1909 urged, among other things, the unification of our laws relating to dependent children. Finally in 1911 a commission was appointed in Ohio to codify and revise all legislation relating to children. This was the first Children's Code, the first recognition of underlying unity in the relation of the State to all children. In the nine years that have followed 18 other States have appointed similar commissions, and an active interest in the movement has been developed in a number of other States.

There has been also a gradual broadening of the meaning of State guardianship until children's codes and commissions are being extended to include regulations for the promotion of the welfare of all children instead of being confined, as heretofore, chiefly to laws for the care of the dependent, the neglected, and the delinquent.

The usual procedure of these commissions has been to devote one or two years to the study of the whole problem of child-welfare requirements before starting on the actual revision of the laws. The field covers school attendance, health, employment, and the special care of dependent, neglected, and delinquent children, the mentally defective, and the physically handicapped, as well as the matter of State supervision of agencies and institutions. Having educated itself as to child-welfare needs, a most important part of the commission's task is to carry this education to the people of the State.

The bureau has received many calls for material from the various States and much work has been done in collecting, analyzing, and indexing legislation relating to all phases of child welfare. This information has been placed at the service of the persons in the States who are working on legislative problems.

STANDARDS OF NORMAL DEVELOPMENT AND PHYSICAL FITNESS FOR WORKING CHILDREN.

The following minimum standards for working children were adopted at the Washington and regional conferences on child welfare, conducted by the bureau in May and June, 1919:

A child shall not be allowed to go to work until he has had a physical examination by a public-school physician or other medical officer especially appointed for that purpose by the agency charged with the enforcement of the law, and has been found to be of normal development for a child of his age and physically fit for the work at which he is to be employed.

There shall be annual physical examination of all working children who are under 18 years of age.¹

At the meeting of the section on child labor and education at which these standards were adopted a resolution was passed requesting the Children's Bureau to appoint a permanent committee to formulate definite standards of normal development and physical fitness, for the use of physicians in examining children applying for employment certificates.

¹ U. S. Children’s Bureau—Minimum Standards for Child Welfare, Bureau publication, No. 82, p. 3.
This committee was appointed in December, 1919, holding its first meeting on January 9 and 10, 1920. The personnel of the committee is as follows:

Dr. George P. Barth, director of hygiene, city health department, Milwaukee, Wis., chairman.
Dr. Emma M. Appel, employment certificate department, Chicago Board of Education.
Dr. S. Josephine Baker, chief, bureau of child hygiene, department of health, New York City.
Dr. Tullifero Clark, representing the United States Public Health Service.
Dr. C. Ward Crampton, dean, Normal School of Physical Education, Battle Creek, Mich.
Dr. D. L. Edsall, dean, Harvard Medical School.
Dr. George W. Goler, health officer, Rochester, N. Y.
Dr. Harry Linenthal, director of industrial clinic, Massachusetts General Hospital.
Dr. H. H. Mitchell, representing the National Child Labor Committee.
Dr. Anna E. Rude, director, hygiene division, United States Children's Bureau.
Dr. Thomas D. Wood, chairman on health problems and education, Columbia University, New York City.
Miss E. N. Matthews, director, industrial division, United States Children's Bureau, secretary.

Minimum standards of physical fitness and health have been adopted tentatively by the committee and a record form and instructions drafted for the use of examining physicians who will test its efficacy and report back to the committee. A statement of the committee's tentative recommendations has been sent for trial and criticism to State labor officials, local examining officers, and experts in industrial hygiene throughout the country.

The following general recommendations have been made by the committee:

1. Age minimum for entrance into industry.—The minimum age for the entrance of children into industry should be not younger than 16 years. Since it is recognized that pubescence is a period of general instability due to the necessity of physiological readjustments which make great and special demands upon the vitality of the child, it is of paramount importance that he shall be protected during this period from the physical and nervous strain which the entrance into industry invariably entails. The committee recognizes the fact that pubescence may occur early or may be very greatly delayed and is convinced that the more it is delayed the more there is indicated a physical stage during which it is highly inappropriate to subject the child to the strains of industry.

2. Physical minimum for entrance into industry.—No child under the age of 18 years shall be permitted to go to work who is not of normal development for his age, of sound health and physically fit for the work at which he is to be employed.

3. Physical examinations for children entering industry.—The physical fitness of children entering industry should be determined by means of a thorough physical examination conducted by a public medical officer duly appointed for this purpose. Where possible all examinations should be made on the nude body. Before such a physical examination is made, the child should present a definite promise of employment in writing from his intended employer, stating the specific occupation in which he is to be employed.

4. Reexaminations for children changing occupations.—The employment certificate should not be given to the child, but sent by mail to the employer. When a child leaves the specific employment for which the certificate is issued, the employer should return the permit to the issuing officer by mail. With each change of employer another examination should be made before the child is again permitted to work, the mode of procedure to be the same as in the issuance of the original permit. When a child is transferred to any occupation in the same
establishment differing in its physical demands and hazards from those common to the occupation for which the permit has been issued, this must be communicated by the employer to the issuing officer in writing, and a new physical examination of the child made and a new certificate issued.

5. Periodical reexaminations for all working children.—All employed children up to the age of 18 shall have at least a yearly physical examination, this examination to be made by a public medical officer duly appointed for this purpose. Whenever in the judgment of the medical examiner more frequent examinations are desirable, the child may be ordered to report at stated intervals for this purpose. These examinations shall take place either in the certificate-issuing office or in the establishment in which the child is employed.

6. Need of study by local administrative and medical officers of occupations in which children are employed and of their effect upon health.—Occupations in which children are likely to be employed should be made the subject of special study for the purpose of ascertaining their physical requirements and their effect upon the health and development of the growing child. The examining physician should be authorized and required periodically to visit industrial establishments and to familiarize himself with conditions of employment and with the various health hazards of industry.

7. Need of authoritative scientific investigation.—The committee recognizes the impossibility of formulating definite physical standards for children in industry which will be complete and finally authoritative without considerable further scientific study of the effect of different kinds of work upon the physique of the adolescent child.

Research is especially needed with reference to:

(a) The rate of growth and development of children employed in different occupations and industries as compared with children not in industry.
(b) Morbidity among children employed in different occupations and industries as compared with children not in industry.
(c) Mortality among children employed in different occupations and industries as compared with children not in industry.
(d) Fatigue in children employed in different occupations and industries.
(e) Effect of employment in specific occupations at different stages of physiological development upon the growth and health of—

(1) Normal children;
(2) Children with certain physical defects (such as compensated cardiac disease or with orthopedic defects) or with a personal or family history indicating predisposition to certain diseases.
(f) Effect of employment in specific occupations upon the menstrual function and pelvic organs of adolescent girls and young women.
(g) Types of work desirable for—

(1) Children and young persons with some mental defect who, nevertheless, are able to fulfill the educational requirements necessary to obtain an employment certificate;
(2) Children and young persons who are suffering from certain physical handicaps, such as the crippled child and the child with seriously impaired vision or hearing.

Material for at least the greater number of such studies might effectively and economically be secured from the records of examinations made in the public schools and in connection with the issuance of employment certificates in States where reexaminations are required. It is, therefore, urged that all such examinations be scientifically made and that methods and record forms be standardized so as to be statistically comparable.

8. Certain tentative minimum standards obtainable from results of scientific research already available.—While recognizing the necessity of considerable further study, the committee is of the opinion that the results of scientific research already available, and the experience acquired in the administration of laws prescribing physical requirements for admission to industry, permit the recommendation at the present time of certain tentative minimum standards the acceptance of which will aid materially in safeguarding the physical welfare of the child obliged to enter industry before reaching his full development.

The tentative minimum standards of physical fitness for children entering and working in industry adopted by the committee are as follows:
REPORT OF THE CHIEF, CHILDREN'S BUREAU.

1. Standards of normal development.
   (a) Certificates should be refused to children who do not come up to the following minimum standards of height and weight for specified age, which are based on the most reliable experience and present-day practice.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Weight (in clothing)</th>
<th>Height</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14 yrs</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 yrs</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 When children are weighed stripped not more than 5 pounds should be allowed for clothing.

Note.—While the committee recognizes that girls of 16 are lighter in weight than boys of like age, it prescribes but one standard. This is for the purpose of giving greater protection to girls who are to be regarded as more vulnerable at this period.

In exceptional cases a child who falls below the prescribed minimum of height or weight may, however, be granted a certificate if, after examination by two physicians, it is found that this condition is a family or racial characteristic and that he is free from any other defects which would justify the refusal of the certificate.

(b) Certificates should be refused to children who do not show unmistakable signs of adolescence.

2. Standards of health and physical fitness for specific employment.
   (a) Certificates should be refused permanently to all children who have the following defects:
      (1) Cardiac disease, with broken compensation.
      (2) Pulmonary tuberculosis or other evidence of serious pulmonary disease.
      (3) Active glandular tuberculosis.
      (4) Active tuberculous or syphilitic disease of joint bones.
      (5) Irremediable defective vision.
      (6) Total deafness.
      (7) Trachoma.
      (8) Serious orthopedic defects.
      (9) Malnutrition, equivalent to grade 4 in the Dunfermline scale.
      (10) Chlorosis.
      (11) Syphilis.
      (12) Hyperthyroidism.

   All children who are permanently refused employment certificates because of physical defects as noted under class (a) should be referred to some appropriate person or agency for whatever medical or other assistance is needed.

   (b) Certificates should be refused to all children pending correction of all serious remedial defects, such as—
      (1) Defective vision subject to correction by glasses;
      (2) Contagious eye and skin disease;
      (3) Defective teeth: Extraction or treatment and prophylactic care needed;
      (4) Malnutrition equivalent to grade 3 of the Dunfermline scale;
      (5) Untreated hernia;
      (6) Diseased tonsils;
      (7) Defective nasal breathing requiring correction, causing complete occlusion of the nostrils.

   All children who are temporarily refused employment certificates because of the existence of physical defects as outlined under class (b) should be referred to the care of a public medical officer, school physician, family physician, or school nurse, who will assume jurisdiction of the case and make every effort to see that the necessary medical treatment or other care is secured for the child. As soon as such treatment has been received the employment certificate may be issued.

   (c) All children who because of their physical condition or because of their family or previous history show a tendency to weakness or disease of any organ should be excluded from occupations which would tend to aggravate that tendency.

Provided by the Maternal and Child Health Library, Georgetown University
CHILD-WELFARE IN A COAL-MINING COMMUNITY.

This inquiry was undertaken in order to study the effect of life in a mining community upon the welfare of children, and particularly the extent and conditions of child labor in and about the mines. A representative anthracite coal mining area in Pennsylvania was chosen as the location of the inquiry. The mining of coal is the principal, and practically the only important, industry of the community; the few smaller industries and business enterprises of the district are there either to supply the mining industry or the mine workers or to utilize the labor of the women and girls in the miners' families. The area has a relatively stable population; the majority of the families included in the study had lived in the district 10 years or more, and most of the fathers in these families who were working in the mines had been engaged in mining for at least 10 years.

The community is largely urban, comprising one city, two smaller towns, and the surrounding mining patches. In the city over 25,000 persons are crowded into an area of approximately 13 square miles. These figures are the more amazing in the light of the fact that only 12 per cent of the houses are as high as three stories. More persons per square mile are crowded into 2 stories here than in New York City, where the congestion is notorious.

The natural results of such crowded living conditions are reflected in a high infant mortality rate. In 1918, according to statistics of the United States Bureau of the Census, the infant mortality rate in the city was 165 deaths under 1 year of age per 1,000 births, as compared with only 101 in the birth-registration area as a whole. Lot congestion is found as well as room congestion, a study of typical residence districts revealing the fact that from 65 per cent to 85 per cent of the lot space is covered by buildings. Not only is there no yard space, but there are also no open spaces furnished by the city for out-of-door recreation.

While the complete report of the investigation is not yet ready for publication, certain figures of striking significance are available.

Over half the children in the community between the ages of 13 and 16 years, inclusive, had worked; this includes two-thirds of the boys and one-third of the girls of these ages. Of the children who were working regularly one-third of the boys and over one-fourth of the girls started to work before they were 14. "Family need" was the reason most frequently given for leaving school and going to work, and the proportion of children who had left school for work was greater as the father's income was less. The number of wage earners in a family, including the number of child wage earners, decreased as the father's earnings increased.

Over one-half of all the fathers, or heads of households, earned less than $1,250 a year. While the average best day's pay as reported was between $4 and $5, nearly three-fourths of the fathers who reported had had periods of unemployment during the year. The number of cases of unemployment due to industrial causes was found to have been greater than those due to all other causes combined. Accidents were an important factor in unemployment, almost one-fifth of all the fathers working in the mines having met with accidents at their work within the three and one-half years preceding the inquiry.
In addition to these findings the completed report will contain an analysis of other conditions in the community affecting the health, education, and recreation of children.

A similar study of conditions affecting child welfare in a bituminous coal district is at present under way.

CHILDREN ENGAGED IN INDUSTRIAL HOME WORK.

Children's participation in factory work in the home has for some time attracted the attention both of persons interested in problems of children in industry and of that section of the public which cares to make sure that its purchases have been produced in accordance with modern sanitary and industrial standards. In order to discover the extent and character of children's home work, the conditions under which the work is done, and its effect on family life, an investigation was made of the employment of children in industrial home work in three Rhode Island cities. This State is a center for the manufacture of cheap jewelry—an industry which lends itself readily to home work.

It was found that a surprising number of children between 5 and 15 years of age—in all, nearly 5,000, or 8 per cent, of the children of this age group—had at some time during the year 1918 done factory work in their home, either by hand or by machine. Nearly 100 different kinds of work were done by the children who were employed by many different factories. They carded snaps and shoe buttons; assembled various kinds of jewelry; strung beads; clipped, strung, and scalloped lace; pasted or stitched chenille dots on veils; finished underwear; and performed many other simple operations incidental to manufacture. Children—a number of them under 14—used machines in such work as cutting holes and pressing humps on snaps, and assembling collar buttons.

In the majority of cases home work had been restored to in families where the father's earnings were insufficient for the maintenance of the family. It had, however, contributed very little to the family's purse, since the average earnings per family from that source in 1918 had been only $14. Moreover, the children's share in this small addition to the family resources was negligible, since over half the children were unable to earn as a maximum 5 cents per hour.

Many of the children worked not only after school hours but also in the evenings; some worked exclusively at night. A small number of children who were regularly employed during the day in factories or stores also worked at home every night. Eyestrain was reported for many home-working children. The ill effects of home work on the child's work in school and its interference with school attendance were frequently testified to by teachers and other school officials.

Danger to the health of the community has been recognized as an important reason for prohibiting home work. Among the diseases reported by families engaged in it were influenza (a large number of cases), pneumonia, mumps, typhoid fever, measles, whooping cough, bronchitis, tonsilitis, diphtheria, eczema, "coughs," tuberculosis, and syphilis, all of which had been declared communicable and dangerous to public health by the Rhode Island State Board of Health.

Employers were interviewed in order to get their opinion as to the necessity for home work. Their reasons for utilizing it were in gen-
eral as follows: Shortage of labor, desire to lower the cost of production, the seasonal nature of the work, custom, and the desire to assist needy families. It is significant that three-fifths of the employers interviewed stated that should it be abolished readjustments in their business might easily be made.

The system of home work results in making a factory of the home—a condition which operates against a normal environment for growing children. The child home worker is subject to hazards from which he is not safeguarded by law. The health of the community is endangered by the use of clothing and other articles made in homes in which infectious diseases are present. Effective administration of laws providing for the inspection of places where home work is carried on has been found practically impossible.

**RURAL CHILD LABOR.**

Almost three-fourths of the working children of the United States aged 10 to 15 years, inclusive, and more than one-eighth of our total child population of these ages, are laboring in gainful occupations entirely unregulated by State or Federal child-labor laws. The great majority—numbering at the time of the last decennial census approximately a million and a half—are engaged in some form of farm labor. That the compulsory education laws—the sole legal protection afforded these children—are inadequate to insure them against the loss of education that results from premature and excessive work is shown by the fact that wherever rural child labor is greatest we find the highest percentage of illiteracy and the largest proportion of children not attending high school. No specific information is available regarding the effect of unregulated farm labor upon the physical and social development of the child.

Plans for a comprehensive inquiry into the economic, social, physical, and working conditions affecting the rural child laborer are at present under way. Two experimental field studies have already been commenced in representative child-employing agricultural areas, upon the results of which will be based more extensive inquiries to be undertaken during the coming year.

**CHILDREN ENTERING EMPLOYMENT.**

One of the greatest losses of time, energy, and enthusiasm is the waste on the part of children blindly endeavoring to discover for themselves suitable places in our complicated industrial system; and the years spent in blind-alley and overcrowded occupations is responsible for much of the unrest prevalent to-day.

Our industrial centers have been the first to realize the situation—Boston, Chicago, Cincinnati, Minneapolis, and other cities have demonstrated the possibilities of vocational guidance. Some of this work has been the outgrowth of the school systems; some has developed through private organization; among the most important has been the gradual entrance into the field of vocational guidance of certain of the public employment services. The need of vocational guidance in rural districts has been for the most part unrecognized, although a start in this direction has been made in one of the Middle Western States.
In the interest of the children of the country it is imperative that a comprehensive study be made of the conditions under which young people enter industry—of the requirements made, and the opportunities offered in the various lines of industry, trade, and other employment. The effect of occupation upon the health and physical development of the growing child should also be studied, as well as the employment of children in hazardous occupations, and the industrial accidents of children.

CHILD-WELFARE STUDIES IN PORTO RICO AND EXTRA-CONTINENTAL UNITED STATES.

Last year the Seventh Annual Report of the Chief, Children's Bureau, called attention to the need of studies of child welfare in the island possessions and referred especially to conditions shown in official reports from Porto Rico and the Virgin Islands. In this report attention is again called to the importance of these studies as a matter of national policy, and it is advised that the general welfare of children in all the extra-continental portions of the United States be made the subject of study by this bureau at the earliest practicable period, and that a special appropriation be allotted for this plan in its complete form.

As mentioned in the report of last year, from its organization in 1912 the bureau has been repeatedly asked by officials acquainted with social conditions in the island possessions to make such studies, but heretofore it has not been practicable to undertake work outside of continental United States. Among the chief reasons for making such child-welfare studies are the following:

1. To carry out the law creating the Children's Bureau, which directs it to investigate all matters pertaining to the welfare of children and child life among all classes of our people.

2. To secure information—now nowhere available—which is essential to a proper understanding by the citizens of the United States of the progress and the needs of the outlying possessions for which this Government is responsible.

3. To stimulate among the native citizens of the islands, by adaptation of the same methods which have proved effective in the United States, interest in and responsibility for the protection of maternity, infancy, and childhood.

The outlying possessions are remote, few visitors or tourists frequent them, and the popular acquaintance with them which would develop interest in their welfare problems is lost because of their inaccessibility.

In some areas great progress has been made in education and in the whole field of child welfare since the connection with the United States was established, and our share in this progress will be noted by historians as a most creditable chapter in our history. Yet it is unfortunately true that our actual knowledge of progress already made in certain of the islands is little greater than our ignorance of their present needs.
Recently the matter has been brought sharply to the attention of the bureau by a letter from the commissioner of education of Porto Rico, Mr. P. G. Miller, which was sent with the approval of the Governor of Porto Rico, and of the Bureau of Insular Affairs. The commissioner's letter is as follows:

I have the honor to address you for the purpose of placing before you the necessity for investigating the general condition of children in Porto Rico by your bureau.

By way of preliminary information, let me say that last year the total estimated number of children of school age—that is, between 5 and 18 years—was 441,465, and the total number of compulsory school age—that is, between 8 and 14 years—was 222,783. The total enrollment in all public schools was only 100,704. At the close of the fourth school month of the present school year the total enrollment was 176,689.

Because of limited funds the department of education has not been able to cope successfully with the problem of providing the elements of an education for all children of compulsory school age.

Although there have been a few sporadic attempts at medical inspection and although instruction in hygiene is given in the public schools, the fact remains that the supplementary agencies of education which have done so much in many of the States toward improving the conditions of childhood are conspicuous by their absence from Porto Rico. This statement does not mean that much has not been accomplished. A great deal has been done during the past 20 years that Porto Rico has been under the protection of the American flag. In this connection I respectfully suggest that you secure from the Bureau of Insular Affairs, War Department, Washington, D. C., a copy of the Annual Report of the Governor of Porto Rico for the Fiscal Year ending June 30, 1919. Beginning on page 533, you will find a detailed account of the educational progress made during the past two decades.

The problems of childhood which should be investigated do not relate merely to education but practically to all other sociological conditions, matters of hygiene, proper nourishment, proper housing, infant mortality, and the care of children in large families without sufficient means for subsistence. The needs of a thorough investigation of this kind is great. I believe that much can be done toward formulating a constructive program for the improvement of the conditions of childhood. Legislatures oftentimes do not take action because they do not know the facts. * * *. I believe that the Legislature of Porto Rico would be willing to enact remedial measures within the resources of the people of Porto Rico, if a properly formulated constructive program were presented.

In conclusion let me say that we have no funds available for paying the expenses of an investigation of this kind, but I shall be glad to answer any inquiries that you may desire to make before arriving at a definite decision.

Very truly, yours,

P. G. Miller,
Commissioner of Education.

Bureau of Insular Affairs,
War Department,

Respectfully transmitted to Miss Julia C. Lathrop, Chief, Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor, Washington, D. C. A copy of the Report of the Governor of Porto Rico for the Year 1919 is enclosed herewith.

Other statements have been heretofore received from Porto Rican officials especially noting the large number of homeless, vagrant children, and the difficulties experienced by the juvenile court and other authorities in dealing with delinquent and dependent children. Reference was made to these conditions last year.

A condensation of certain portions of the 1919 Report of the Governor of Porto Rico will provide further data showing child-welfare problems the solution of which might be hastened by a general sur-
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vey, and will serve as an illustration of the value of the same procedure in the other extra-continental possessions.

Porto Rico.—While illiteracy as a teaching problem is outside the sphere of the Children’s Bureau, the ignorance which it connotes is a social condition affecting fundamentally the existence and welfare of children. Accordingly the following facts as to education are of the greatest importance: Progress has been made, a modern public school system has been established, and illiteracy reduced in the past 20 years since Porto Rico became a part of the United States. But in 1919 it must still be said that the adult illiteracy has been reduced only to a figure “probably less than 60 per cent.”

It is superfluous to add that in a civilized country illiterate adults are usually of low earning power; and that parents who can not read and write can make little progress in learning the present methods of keeping babies alive and rearing vigorous children and are at great disadvantage in training the young to live usefully in the world. Moreover, unless the State furnishes schools and requires attendance the ignorance of parents too often entails upon the children the same ignorance and poverty.

Porto Rico has an estimated population of 1,263,474, of whom 441,465 are of legal school age—between 5 and 18 years—and 222,783 are of compulsory school age—between 8 and 14 years.

The total enrollment in public schools was 36.4 per cent of the total population of school age—between 5 and 18 years; hence, almost two-thirds of all the children of school age were out of school. Of the population of compulsory school age—8 to 14—only 63.3 per cent were enrolled. Thus about one-third of the compulsory school age children—some 81,000—are entirely unknown to school authorities.

The tables show the average attendance to be far less than the enrollment, so that over 100,000 children between 8 and 14 were always out of school.

A large school nonattendance where a compulsory-education law exists is particularly unfortunate. It may be that school funds are insufficient to provide proper school facilities, including the service of trained attendance officers. Poverty, ignorance, the lack of care by mothers who are obliged to work out of the home, children at work who are entitled to school—all may be causes of absenteeism.

The actual proportions of this social problem can be ascertained only by painstaking field study.

With 100,000 children between 8 and 14 out of school in Porto Rico it can not be supposed that all will keep out of mischief. If also there are several thousand destitute and uncared-for waifs, as was shown in the report of the Children’s Bureau for last year, it is not strange that the juvenile-court judges are deeply concerned by the unprotected children brought before them. In the last year 281 juvenile-court cases were heard. The ages of 28 children were unknown; it is of interest in connection with school attendance that of the 233 whose ages were known 184 were of compulsory school age—between 8 and 14. Of the 281 cases, 145 had never attended school, 118 had not gone beyond the fourth grade, 74 children were illegitimate, the parentage of 19 unknown.

1 See Report of the Governor of Porto Rico to the Secretary of War, 1919, p. 49.
2 Ibid., pp. 531 and 586.
3 Ibid., pp. 680-681.
The attorney general calls attention to the fact that the lack of adequate facilities to take care of the juvenile delinquents continues to be the most serious drawback to the effectiveness of the juvenile-court law. During the last session of the legislature a bill providing for the construction of another reform school in the city of Ponce was introduced into the lower house and passed, but the senate did not take it into consideration. The reform school at Mayaguez is now more than ever insufficient and inadequate to take care of the juvenile delinquents who are sent there every year.

Another bill presented in the house of representatives during the last session was one creating a special juvenile court with exclusive jurisdiction over the island. This bill was also passed by the lower house, but it was not discussed or passed by the senate. The principal feature of this bill was the placing in the hands of one judge the work of all the juvenile cases presented throughout the island, and doing away with the present system under which each district judge must act also as judge of the juvenile court of said district. The general provisions of the present juvenile-court law were embodied in the new bill.5

The safety of the lives of babies has come to be recognized as a fair test of social well-being. Hence the report of the commissioner of health for Porto Rico regarding infant deaths and those of young children is especially pertinent. In 1918–19, 7,603 died under 1 year of age, 3,666 between 1 and 2 years, and 4,245 between 2 and 5 years; or a total under 5 years of age of 15,514, about 39 per cent of all deaths. In addition the commissioner reports 4,063 stillbirths. He charges the responsibility for these deaths (a) to lack of applied knowledge of the hygiene of maternity and infancy, (b) to the scarcity and dearth of the milk and to the further fact that most of it is badly contaminated and dangerous, and (c) to the early weaning and improper feeding of Porto Rican babies of the poorer classes.6

In regard to uncinariasis (hookworm) the commissioner says that this problem “under its triple aspect—biological, economical, and social—continues to be of incalculable magnitude.” He complains of the lack of cooperation on the part of patients and employers and says that if property owners would assist they would soon feel the benefits of efficient work made possible by the restored energy of the Porto Rican peasant. To the rural workers latrines and shoes are luxuries usually unattainable. Even if they know their importance in safeguarding health they can not afford them.7

The report of the commissioner of agriculture and labor refers to the renting system of house and lot and to the need of building houses for artisans and other laborers. This report also shows by food prices and wage figures the mounting cost of living and the low economic condition of farm laborers and industrial workers.

Attention is especially called to the agricultural laborers. The number of workers in the coffee industry is placed at 150,000. The plantations are usually in the interior and quite inaccessible, so that

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6 Ibid., pp. 156, 286.
7 Ibid., p. 151–152.
it was impossible for the inspectors to visit all the plantations. The life of the workers is said to be no different from what it was when observed by officials of the bureau six years earlier. The number of illiterates is “quite great and consequently they live without ambition”; wages varied for men from 50 to 75 cents a day, for women and minors a maximum of 35 cents. These sums are not enough to buy food at prevailing high prices.

In the sugar industry, which employs about 150,000 men in the season, pay is better during harvest—up to $1.50. After harvest about 40 per cent are unemployed and pay is 75 cents a day on the average. “The social condition of these workers is superior to that of their fellows in other agricultural industries. They live around the coast and as a rule very near or within town.”

In the fruit industry the conditions are about like those in cane harvesting and the workers live under the same conditions, the wages being, however, about 10 per cent lower. It is stated that 15,000 persons are so employed.

On the tobacco plantations wages have increased and men now receive 75 cents a day, women 40 cents, and children 30 cents. About 40,000 laborers are employed on the tobacco plantations.

Many women work on the plantations, and obviously among the 355,000 workers in the four agricultural industries mentioned many mothers are employed.

The commissioner recommends among other constructive measures that the Federal child-labor law be extended to Porto Rico. He notes the employment of children of compulsory school age.  

This review of the 1919 Report of the Governor of Porto Rico and the incorporated reports of the commissioners of education, health, agriculture, and labor, and of the attorney general—to all of which reference is made in this summary—indicates that a general child-welfare survey should be made. It would, first, secure reliable data and, second, interpret its findings in such popular form as to be understood by those most concerned. This method of getting facts and popularizing them has aided materially in improving the welfare of children and the conditions interwoven therewith in continental United States, and it can be adapted and applied in any country.

These items from the Report of the Governor of Porto Rico have been set forth not only because of the right of Porto Rico to ask the services of the bureau but also because the report shows the same conditions which exist in varying degrees in the other tropical islands.

VIRGIN ISLANDS.

Last year’s report also called attention to the need of studying child welfare in the Virgin Islands. The United States has now been for three years in possession of these islands. A census taken by the United States Bureau of the Census immediately after the purchase showed that the population in 1917 was 26,051, and the report states there had been a gradual decline since 1835, when the population was about 43,000.
The infant mortality rate was reported as high by the census, but no figures were available. The great poverty and the fact that more than half the married women (58.7 per cent) work for a living, mostly as field laborers, is charged by the census report with responsibility for the infant mortality. The usual characteristics of life and plantation work in tropical climates and the usual disregard of child welfare may in general be understood to exist here.

The illiteracy was 24.9 per cent of the population 10 years of age and over.

Schools have been started and other improvements undertaken by the Navy Department, under which the islands are administered.

A study that would sum up all the factors now affecting child life, whether favorable or unfavorable, should be made. This is due the helpless population of these lately purchased possessions, which now may claim the same rights for the children as are recognized in other parts of the United States.

The problems of human life are universal, and these problems of the extracontinental portions of the United States as suggested by the instances given are in fact identical with those on this continent and with those of all the world.

The bureau has plans under way for a general series of child-welfare surveys in the extracontinental parts of the United States.

The survey of Porto Rico will probably be undertaken first, and preliminary conferences with Porto Rican authorities and representative citizens will be held in advance of determining matters of procedure, as the cooperation of the citizens of any community is essential to the full value of such studies. It is confidently counted upon in this case.

VISIT TO CERTAIN COUNTRIES OF CENTRAL EUROPE AND SUGGESTIONS BASED THEREON.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA.

In March, 1920, at the request of the President of the Czechoslovak Republic, you directed me to go to Prague representing the Children's Bureau. The request was made because Czechoslovakia has child-welfare problems created or greatly intensified by the war and requiring for their solution permanent governmental plans. A ministry of social welfare already exists, and under it a children's bureau, and it was thought that a consideration of the experience of the United States might be of assistance to the new Republic.

In order to indicate the governmental spirit in which the child-welfare problems of Czechoslovakia are approached, it seems desirable, at the risk of repeating familiar knowledge, to refer briefly to the character of the population, to the resources of the country, and to the legal framework of the new Republic.

Czechoslovakia is composed of former Provinces of the Austro-Hungarian Empire—Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, Slovakia, and Sub Carpathia. The capital of the new Republic is Prague, long the chief city of Bohemia. The country lies in a central position, occupying a stretch of about 600 miles from its western boundary to the extreme eastern point of Sub Carpathia, which abuts upon Roumania. Its average north to south diameter is approximately a quarter of its length from east to west. On the north lies Poland.
and on the south Austria and Hungary. The people belong to the Slav race, and the existence of the Czechs and Slovaks in their present position is traced from the tenth century. They have shown extraordinary racial persistency under defeat and foreign domination; and their history as a nation, whether submerged or in power, is of great interest to students of democratic conscious race development. The present population is estimated at 14,000,000.

The agricultural and industrial resources of Czechoslovakia are rich and are highly developed. It is reported that only 4 per cent of the land is unproductive, and the high degree of intensive cultivation in Bohemia is noted by every traveler. In Bohemia, Slovakia, and Moravia, the cooperative associations for credit, for purchases, for sales, and for stimulating the best methods of cultivation are a strong element in profitable agricultural development. There now exist in the Republic 10,000 agricultural cooperative societies, with a membership of nearly 1,000,000; these societies having increased rapidly since the independence.

A change in land tenure is provided by the law for expropriation, with indemnity, of a certain proportion of the lands belonging to the great proprietors, and the taking over of all lands belonging to the former Government and to enemy owners. This is the first step in an agrarian reform which is intended to create the largest practicable number of small proprietors. The Government has created a special land commission, which concerns itself not only with compensation, division, and sales, but also with methods by which the individual farmer can succeed as an independent proprietor. The Government is increasing the number of agricultural schools and has already added 13. Unquestionably this reform promises strong impetus to production.

The excellent harvest of the present year will greatly improve economic conditions. Beet sugar is the most important single article of manufacture, and consequently the prospect of a remarkably good beet harvest this year is of especial importance. The industries are steadily regaining ground, and as soon as needful raw material from outside can profitably be secured the return to normal production appears to be assured.

Czechoslovakia's independence after the last war was gained with great hardship on foreign soil, but without bloodshed within its own borders. The declaration of independence was proclaimed October 28, 1918, and the Government organized with Prof. Thomas Garrigue Masaryk as President and a national assembly whose duty it was to prepare a constitution for a permanent Government, which was adopted February 29, 1920. It expresses in modern social and political terms those principles of freedom which the founders of this country set forth in our fundamental law.

The Czecho-Slovak constitution shows the emergence from an aristocratic domination by providing that privileges due to sex, birth, and calling are not recognized. The principle of the protection of the family as the essential unit of the nation is recognized by the provision that "The relation of marriage, the family, and motherhood are under the special protection of the laws." "All religions are equal before the law." A strong democratic spirit permeates the sections of the constitution which deal with the election and powers of
the National Assembly. Suffrage is universal, and the law provides penalties for those who fail to vote.

The eight-hour day, the prohibition of child labor before the age of 14, compulsory education, the regulation of home work, the protection of women in industry, and sickness and unemployment insurance are already established by law.

Thus it would appear that a democratic governmental structure has been set up which gives promise that the advancement of the common welfare can not fail to be continuously the concern of government.

With the aid of many persons a general view of the conditions under which children were living was made possible. A journey from Prague to the eastern end of Sub Carpathia gave opportunity for observation of conditions in smaller cities and the remoter parts of the country.

The greater part of the population of Czechoslovakia lives in the western Provinces of Bohemia and Moravia, and there the level of literacy is high; few if any European nations show a better rate. Slovakia on the contrary had a large illiteracy rate, 27.8 per cent, before the independence; but in the first year of the Republic the Government opened 2,700 new primary schools in Slovakia, in order quickly to reduce this figure.

Naturally language as the primary sign of nationality is profoundly cherished; and while the official language of the Republic is the Czecho-Slovak tongue, by a law which is made part of the constitution the language rights of the ethnic minorities are carefully guarded, so as to preserve the profound sentiment for which they stand while providing at the same time in the Czecho-Slovak language a common medium for general intercourse and public business.

Perhaps no nation gives greater attention to the support of universities and technical schools. In the year 1919-20, the attendance at the universities and technical schools was 21,342; and the number of medical students, 700 of whom came from the neighboring State of Jugoslavia, was so great that the teaching was done by shifts and the laboratories were used the 24 hours around.

Sub Carpathia, at the extreme east of the Republic, has a scattered population; before the war it consisted largely of migrant agricultural laborers who formerly went down to the Hungarian plains directly to the south to work in the growing season and returned for the winter to the mountains, perhaps finding work in timber industries. This class, always poor, has inevitably suffered and still suffers serious privation. Although the Czecho-Slovak Government, the Czecho-Slovak Red Cross, the American Red Cross, and the European Children's Fund are all aiding in the work of relief, the reports of wandering homeless children, of sickness, and helpless misery are of a painful character. It is stated that more than one-half of the population is illiterate, and adequate schools will be established as rapidly as possible.

The Czecho-Slovaks will undoubtedly work out with strong practical wisdom the solution of their social problems, which are on the whole the problems common to all modern countries. At present every social problem is intensified by the conditions created by the war, and none is more urgent and immediate than that of child welfare.
Precise statistical information is not necessary as a preliminary to the immediate and imperative work of relief; but it is well to remember in any discussion of this subject that the usual statistics of population are not available. Czechoslovakia, like the other new central European countries, has new boundaries, and until now no country has been able to do more than estimate the number of her citizens, although a census is to be made this year by Czechoslovakia. Populations have shifted from country to city. It is believed that Prague has almost or quite doubled its population, and as no building has been done since the war began, the crowding is so serious that here, as in other new and crowded central European capitals, notably Warsaw and Budapest, the Government has found it necessary strictly to ration all housing space. Obviously, crowding is unfavorable for children of any age, aiding as it must the spread of contagion, and lowering health and vigor even if actual illness is escaped. We are only too familiar in this country with the moral injury to family life caused by crowded, uncomfortable tenements.

The Czech-Slovak Government estimates approximately 3,000,000 children under the legal working age of 14, and, although no exact figures are available, there is reason to believe that, due to lessened births and increased deaths, the actual number is far below the normal population under 14.

The Austrian census for 1910 gives a total of 2,962,513 children under 14 years of age for the two Provinces of Bohemia and Moravia, and the children under 14 formed 31.5 per cent of the total population of the two Provinces. Thus, with the present population of Czechoslovakia estimated at 14,000,000, if the proportion of children under 14 remained as in 1910, there would be a population of nearly 4,500,000 children under 14 years of age instead of the estimated 3,000,000, making a loss in children alone of 1,500,000 in six years. While these figures are sheer estimates, there can be no doubt that the last six years have taken a heavy toll of young lives and have greatly altered the usual proportions of a normal population by the lessened birth rate, the war deaths of fathers and young men, and the civilian deaths of old people, a changed balance which deprives many children of natural family protection.

Notwithstanding the war injury, many of the estimated 3,000,000 children are approximately normal. They are safely cared for by good parents; they are in school; they need only such care from the Government as will stimulate sound physical, mental, and moral growth and will afford the wise education necessary for useful productive happy life. If this were not true, the problem would be insoluble.

Among the 3,000,000 it is estimated that 300,000 are war orphans, who naturally claim the care of the Government in degrees varying only with their needs.

But war has changed conditions in many ways. Thousands of fathers have been killed and many mothers have died of the typhus or other diseases due to the hardships of civilian life, so that an unknown number of the families who would be self-supporting in normal times are broken or destroyed and their children are actually homeless and helpless. Thrifty families have exhausted small savings and are unable to meet sickness or accident independently, while this new
poverty renders parents and children less able to resist any further adversity. For six years children have undergone dwarfing of body and retarding of mental growth; an unknown number suffers from malnutrition and its consequences; an unknown number is tuberculous. Undoubtedly the loss of family life and the breakdown of the accustomed conventions and safeguards have increased the numbers of wayward or delinquent children and young persons. This condition is brought out in the Czecho-Slovak Red Cross report made at Geneva. Although many have escaped injury, the depressing effect of the war upon growing children and youth is nation-wide.

In all countries and at all times certain classes of children require the special care and protection of the State for their own safety and for the welfare of society. These are the dependent, other than war orphans, the delinquent, and the defective. Probably the number of these children has not lessened but rather increased proportionately.

Reports prepared by the ministry of social welfare in the spring of the present year stated that the death rate among babies was rising and that although the Czecho-Slovak Society for the Protection of Mothers and Infants was helping to care for over 150,000 of the babies under 2 years of age, there were still 127,000 who needed help; that of the 2,500,000 children between 2 and 14 nearly 700,000 were in need of relief—of which number 500,000 received food from the European Children's Fund, while 174,000 others were not reached.

Details are given showing the increase in tuberculosis and the inadequacy of the existing sanatoria and hospitals. An important organization to combat tuberculosis, called the Masaryk League, has been started on a nation-wide plan. The members are able and devoted but need large funds in order to do the prompt work the emergency requires.

The report of the ministry of social welfare calls attention also to the needs of the middle class, whose savings are exhausted.

The report emphasizes the need of moral protection for boys and girls:

Most of all our youth suffered. Deprived of the guidance of the fathers and the care of the mothers, who had to stand day and night in lines in front of the shops waiting for their ration of food; in many cases also without a regular school attendance, the children were left entirely to the influences of the streets. The increase in the number of youthful criminals and of young girls abandoned to prostitution is terrifying.

Greater efforts to protect and save delinquent young persons are urged, and the need for them of adequate schools and organizations adapted to reform and education is pointed out. The report contains these words:

The economic consequences of the war are incalculable, but it appears that the effect the war had on morals is equally disastrous.

The constitution authorizes ministries but leaves functions to be defined later by law. As it will be seen from the foregoing that extraordinary duties in regard to children must now devolve upon the Czecho-Slovak ministry of social welfare and its children's bureau, it was desired that suggestions should be submitted as to the character and scope of the necessary child-welfare legislation.

Provided by the Maternal and Child Health Library, Georgetown University
cordingly the writer prepared a memorandum in which an effort was made to adapt the best fruits of experience in the United States to the needs of another country. It was offered with a strong sense that a more intimate acquaintance should precede the attempt to do more than offer general principles. The paragraphs especially referring to the ministry of social welfare follow:

1. The Government through the ministry of social welfare is responsible for the welfare of the children of the Republic. Through the children’s bureau of the ministry it shall be empowered to make investigations and reports upon all matters pertaining to the welfare of children.

2. It shall maintain, through the children’s bureau, a staff of qualified inspectors to report upon the conduct of all public and private institutions and associations having to do with children, including asylums and all institutions for children whether normal, sick, defective, delinquent, or dependent, and including especially the care of children placed out or boarded out in families.

3. It shall license all new philanthropic associations or institutions for children. It shall first ascertain the need of the proposed activity, the responsibility, competency, and resources of the association or institution proposed, with the purpose of preventing unnecessary or ill-advised undertakings and expenditures. It may refuse a license for cause. It may withdraw a license for cause at any time.

4. It may allow subventions from the national treasury to associations and institutions caring for children, but only when the methods of the association or institution are approved, its usefulness recognized, and license issued.

5. No subventions for child welfare should be paid from the Government treasury save with the approval of the ministry of social welfare.

6. The ministry as a result of its studies and investigations may from time to time formulate by-laws as to standards of child welfare to be maintained by all agencies receiving subventions, and when such by-laws are approved by the President of the Republic they shall have the effect of law.

7. It is the duty of the ministry of social welfare, through the children’s bureau, to inspect all institutions for children maintained by the Republic and to report annually to the President as to their efficiency and adequacy, with information as to their needs.

8. The inspectors and other authorized representatives of the ministry of social welfare shall have for the purposes set forth in this memorandum the right of entry into all institutions and the right to investigate the management of all associations and institutions receiving subventions.

9. The names and records of all children cared for outside of their own houses and maintained by public or private funds in other homes or working for their keep without apprenticeship shall be reported to the children’s bureau. This list shall be confidential and shall be inspected only upon permission of the children’s bureau. It shall be maintained to establish the identity and relationship of children so as to safeguard their rights.

10. With the approval of the President of the Republic and on recommendation of the ministry of social welfare, the children’s bureau may be directed to take over any needed activity for the social welfare of children.
welfare of children which is not performed adequately or which is found to be necessary and is not performed.

11. The welfare of children requires the harmonious cooperation of various agencies. Experience shows that duplicating, confusion, and consequent waste of energy and money result from the failure to secure an orderly plan of cooperation.

It is therefore submitted that a program committee be created, to consist of designated representatives of the ministries of social welfare, education, health, industry, and justice. It shall be the duty of this committee to prepare from time to time, as the needs of various groups of children may require, plans to meet the requirements so far as the cooperation of the agencies represented by the respective ministries may be essential thereto, and the respective ministries shall upon approval of the plans cooperate in their execution.

12. No children over 2 years of age shall be retained in an almshouse or in other institutions for adults, but shall be placed in an institution only if necessary and, if practicable, in a family home. A by-law to this effect is desirable as soon as it can become practicable.

POLAND AND OTHER COUNTRIES.

Before leaving Washington your authorization for visits to such other central European countries as might be practicable was given. Although it was evident that the time at command would permit only the briefest stays, it was felt that the bureau’s understanding of international child-welfare problems might be aided by visits, however limited.

While in Czechoslovakia official invitations were received to visit Poland and Jugoslavia. A short time was spent in Poland. Unfortunately, because of transportation difficulties it was possible to spend only a few days in Jugoslavia, and to go no farther than Belgrade. Something was seen of the operation of relief organizations from the United States and other countries and of the management of the permanent child-welfare activities in Budapest, Berlin, and Vienna. The greatest courtesy was shown in every country and full opportunities were given to see all that was possible in the time at command. The aid most graciously given by both officials and private citizens is deeply appreciated. In Czechoslovakia and in Poland the secretaries of the American Y. W. C. A. were exceedingly helpful.

The United States may well be proud of the work done by its relief organizations. They have saved innumerable lives and alleviated great misery. It should be remembered also that this contribution must not cease in those areas, where great need still exists.

A deep impression was made by the generous activities of the relief agencies of the neutral and allied nations who have labored throughout central Europe, and who are providing hospitality in their own countries for many thousands of children from Vienna and other parts of Austria and Hungary. But above all, the visitor is awed by the unmeasured devotion and skill with which citizens in all the war-harassed nations have themselves labored since 1914 to protect their children. The appreciation of American help, the ingenuity and success with which, aided by American food and clothing, they carry on vast child-welfare activities with great competency, were both touching and inspiring.
In the organization of the European Children's Fund feeding stations, the American directors could not praise too highly the unsparking volunteer work of the women of the local committees, upon whom, especially in the villages, great responsibility rested.

"I am here at 4:30 every morning," cheerfully said the mayor's wife, who was chairman of the feeding-station committee in a remote town, where the supplementary meal was a breakfast.

The emergence of the new democracies of central Europe creates in the United States a double interest—first, because as a Nation we can not but feel a profound sympathy with those who have now secured the political liberty for which our forefathers were obliged to fight 150 years ago; and second, because millions of our citizens have helped most generously in men and money to win the new freedom their old home lands enjoy and are deeply rejoiced by the result. "I have come back to see my family," said a prosperous American on his way to his father's farm in Slovakia, "but I would not want to come back if my country were still under another country."

Five new nations of central Europe lie like spans of a bridge from the Baltic to the Adriatic—Poland on the north, then Czechoslovakia, with Austria and Hungary to her south, and Jugoslavia still to the south and reaching to the Adriatic. If the hopes engendered by the war are realized, this great area will support in peace many nationalities, chiefly branches of the Slav race, under separate democratic governments, but with the age-long quarrels ended, the fighting over, the barricades down, and with the assurance of a new and greatly enriched life for the children of the future. Plainly that day is not yet. New States, made up of Provinces separated more or less violently from long-established, imperial, and highly centralized control, have first of all the difficult task of constructing the mechanism of their new government and their external policy—the more truly democratic they are, the greater this task.

Constructive government policies need time and thoughtful ripening and peace in which to grow. Yet these countries have enjoyed no such favoring circumstances. War and the danger of war, confusion within and without, have been too much their portion since the Great War ended.

The world knows the universal poverty and hunger which exist, even where war is stayed; and for two years already many countries, according to their resources, have poured into central Europe food and many kinds of help, though enough to meet the needs can never be furnished from without.

Under the burden of poverty, economic confusion, and actual war, the new nations must go on developing governmental and social institutions; to stand still is to increase the difficulties.

Of all this, Poland is an example. Had her civilian population been undisturbed by further war, had they enjoyed adequate food and a good financial basis, the work of organizing a democratic republic would have been an exacting task.

One hundred and fifty years ago, as our national existence began, the partition of Poland took place, and the Kingdom was divided among Germany, Austria, and Russia. Thenceforward Poland's children were obliged to learn the language of their various conquerors.

In the Czar's country to teach Polish was punishable with exile to
Siibera, and nowhere was it tolerated as the language of education. However deep the underlying sense of racial unity, however strong the common aspiration for a modern democratic national existence, it was inevitable that deep cleavages should be made by the passage of 150 years under the control of empires with differing types of education, of government, and of life. The welding of these three parts can not be done overnight; it needs the new constitution now being framed, new uniform laws and institutions, general education, and, above all, peaceful industrial and agricultural development.

Other countries of central Europe have new Provinces added on by the peace treaty, and they have in some cases far more difficult tasks of amalgamation. All require time and quiet, and the wonder is that the internal confusion is no greater.

The new Poland has created a temporary Diet, the duty of which is to write a constitution. This task has been much interrupted and delayed; but it is of interest to quote from a communication of one of the women members of the National Diet the following provision which was adopted by the drafting committee:

**Warsaw, May 15, 1920.**

I am very glad to inform you that it is exactly at this morning's meeting of the constitutional committee of our Diet that I had the pleasure of having carried through the following motion:

That it be enacted in our constitution that "Every child deprived of parental tutorship or either morally or physically neglected shall have the right to the State's protection and tutorship. A special law will precisely determine the obligation of the State in this respect, and it will secure to every mother in need of help the State's protection before the birth of her child and during its infancy.

"No parent can be deprived of his parental authority without a judiciary sentence."

Already ministries of health, labor, and education are in action, and a children's bureau has been established in the ministry of labor. Poland feels the national necessity of universal free public elementary schools and of returning in her schools to the Polish tongue. A moment's thought shows how great a matter this is to a country with an estimated population of 24,000,000, now terribly impoverished, and burdened with a large percentage of illiteracy. It was estimated that 26,000 new teachers were needed. They must be trained to teach and to teach in Polish; schoolbooks must be written in Polish and printed; new school buildings are imperative. Naturally schooling can not be delayed without increasing still further the ignorance which all the democratic countries of central Europe agree can not be longer tolerated. And what is true of the school needs in Poland is more or less true of all the other new central European countries, where, with the exception of a few former Provinces, general free schools are unknown.

In Poland the visitor sees examples of excellent child-welfare work done in a modern spirit but under the greatest physical difficulties; under favoring circumstances an important development may be anticipated in that country.

The juvenile court of Warsaw was seven months old and was the creation of the judge, who had never seen any court but his own. It was equipped with simplicity and was apparently conducted by the judge with the wise human kindliness which is recognized as the
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essential of a successful court. The information was given that juvenile courts were in operation in three other cities of Poland.

In Warsaw is located a home for Jewish children conducted on a self-government plan which for genuine effectiveness in bringing out the best qualities of the individual child the writer has never seen excelled.

On the outskirts of Warsaw were seen two institutions which illustrated the vast child-welfare tasks which Poland must undertake. One had in charge hundreds of very young children who had been rescued from the crowded tenements of Warsaw in the cold of the preceding winter. A number of tenement houses in the outskirts had been taken over, made clean and sanitary, and were used to shelter the children. Near by a great sand dune gave healthful sunny play spaces. This admirable hospital-home was one of the activities of a society of Warsaw women.

In another suburb of Warsaw a thousand children, largely refugees from Vilna and elsewhere, were cared for and were being brought back to normal existence. With a small school for boys as a nucleus, houses had been taken in the same neighborhood for a central kitchen, for schoolhouse, and for dormitories for girls and for boys. Great hardships had been endured by many, but the physical signs were slowly being erased, and perhaps less easily the moral injury was healing. "Some of these boys had become veritable bands of little brigands," said the chairman of the national committee in charge of this refuge and others. The chairman estimated that the children under the protection of his committee numbered 200,000—"and they are not all," he added. There seemed to be an excellent free spirit in the whole administration.

Dr. Thaddeus Kopec, of Warsaw, was the head of the gottte de lait stations in that city, which weighed and measured the babies systematically, furnished milk, advised mothers, and showed results of cheering excellence. The station visited, with devoted young doctors in attendance, was so clean, the progress of the babies so evident, that it would have been creditable anywhere, and seemed there little short of marvelous under the existing limitations.

In 1917, Dr. Kopec, in charge of the out-service of the Charles and Maria Hospital for Children, noted a sudden breakdown in the health of the poorer children of Warsaw. He describes the condition of 1,691 dispensary children under 5 years of age whose weight, strength, and health were under careful observation during 1917 and 1918.

Dr. Kopec reports that after the babies were 6 months old the mothers were usually unable to nurse them, and the babies lived on bread and potato soup, often made only from peelings and without fat. From this time the weight diverged noticeably from the normal. The children from 2 to 3 years of age weighed about two-thirds the normal weight for those ages.

Dentition began early but was delayed after the age of 9 months, and 13 per cent had no teeth at the age of 17 months.

As to walking and the proportion of normal children among those observed, he says:

I omit the first year of life, because then even in normal conditions not every child begins walking, but in the second year, and in its first quarter, normally the child walks. With us in this period only 16 per cent of the children walked; in the second quarter of the second year 20 per cent, in the third quarter 45
per cent, and in the fourth quarter 55 per cent; thus at the end of the second year a little over one-half of the children under observation were walking. In the third year no improvement was apparent. In the fourth year the percentage of walkers reached 65 per cent. In the fifth year 69 per cent were walking, but 27 per cent stopped walking because of emaciation and general debility, and 4 per cent had never begun to walk.

In regard to structure, the percentage of well-built, well-grown, physically developed children was 29 per cent in the first year of life; in the second it ranged from 10 to 13 per cent.

Nearly all the children had at least a trace of rickets.

Consumption occurred in the second year of life in 14 per cent of the children, in the third year in 17 per cent, in the fourth year in 26 per cent, and in the fifth year in 37 per cent; i.e., every third child had tuberculosis.

It must be borne in mind that Dr. Kopee's description is of children of the poorer classes as seen in a clinic. The condition of many children is, of course, by no means so appalling.

In Warsaw excellent children's hospitals were seen. One gave unusual attention to the training of nurses, and the buildings were planned with extraordinary skill to avoid cross infection. The writer was told of a remarkable private school in Warsaw conducted by a woman of teaching genius, and a beautiful exhibit of the art work of children selected from schools throughout Poland was visited.

In Budapest were shown many children's hospitals where devoted physicians and nurses were at work. The lack of equipment, such as bed linens, bandages, soap, made the cleanliness and sweetness of the wards seem almost miraculous. And the representative of the American Red Cross stated that throughout the country the hospitals were admirably managed but sadly hampered by lack of supplies. It is believed that before now the paper and other makeshifts used for surgical dressings have been replaced by hospital supplies furnished by the American Red Cross.

In Jugoslavia the Parliament is drafting a new constitution. Already, however, ministries of education, health, and social welfare have been established. Under the ministry of social welfare is a children's welfare bureau, and a governmental program of nation-wide application is in preparation. It was of special interest to note the large amount of volunteer work done by the Serbian women in the economical administration of the fund raised in this country, which among other activities supports at home with their mothers 2,400 children whose fathers were Serbian officers killed in the war. Unfortunately time did not permit observation of the work for children outside Belgrade.

The lack of precise information as to the actual numbers of children in need is accentuated here because of the paralysis of means of transportation, which in the remoter parts have never been modernized and now must be created afresh or developed for the first time.

In this country the task of uniting different populations heretofore separate is one of great importance. Universal education will, of course, aid, and need of schools is deeply felt, since schools were suspended in Serbia in 1912, and a generation of children must be rapidly taught the elements of education in order to avoid an increased illiteracy.

Here as elsewhere interest was shown in the methods adopted in the United States for the protection of children and in the develop-
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The effectiveness of public-health nursing, which has been proved by American nurses with the various relief organizations. The desire and purpose was expressed in Jugoslavia and in other countries by Government officials and others to send young persons to the United States for special study of child-welfare methods or for graduate courses in public health and other subjects of practical value to the new democracies. A few students selected because of special qualifications are already in this country, in England, and in certain continental cities.

After observation of the intelligent interest and modern spirit of those interested in the various phases of child-welfare work in the countries visited the writer is convinced that one of the greatest services promising permanent results which can be rendered is to make possible the sending of educated young persons here for purposes of study in our schools of applied social science and of public health. Such students can select and carry back from foreign study that which best fits their home conditions.

IMPORTANCE OF CORRELATED STUDIES OF CHILD WELFARE IN CENTRAL EUROPE.

The visitor is impressed not only with the unbounded devotion of the civilian efforts to protect children in the war areas and their great effectiveness under the most depressing condition but also with the fact that much of the underfeeding and social injury has taken place under the observation of scientific authorities of the highest standing, who have unsparesly devoted themselves to practical amelioration, and whose observations would have great weight if summed up and published. The practical effect of scientific research pursued under the pressure of war food shortage is illustrated by the immediate adoption of Pirquet’s new feeding systems in the kitchens of the Vienna European Children’s Fund. From scientific studies in all the phases of child life touched by the war we may look not only for immediate help in solving the various urgent problems now confronting the countries of central Europe but also for data invaluable for other purposes.

Moreover, the scientific contribution to child welfare in Europe is important in its bearing upon the welfare of every country to which may come immigrants from central Europe, and with the present increasing immigration from central Europe to the United States, the welfare of the children of those countries is a matter of immediate concern to us.

STUDIES OF UNDERFEEDING.

The most obvious war consequence is, of course, the continent-wide phenomenon of underfeeding. Some of its results are known, others can not be known to this generation. It is already seen that far more than physical injury is involved. Occasional reports have been published by men overwhelmed with practical duties, and mention is made of the lack of data and the need of wider study.

Dr. Thaddeus Kopec, to whose work reference has previously been made, says:

It would be very important to have the largest number of children examined by the same physician, who would limit himself to fundamental types without going into particulars.
Dr. R. Hamburger, assistant at the pediatric clinic of the University of Berlin, in an article entitled: "The Feeding of German Children in War Time and at Present," states that bad conditions of the masses of the people particularly endanger children and adds:

When we want to consider the effect of the food on the entire mass of the children of Berlin, no extensive comparative investigations are known to have been made, because of the censorship.

Reports are not comparable and are sometimes apparently contradictory. Thus the Deutscher Verein für Schulgesundheitspflege in 1917 addressed a memorial to the governments of all the German federated States calling attention to the fact that, although the health of infants and children of preschool age seems not to be affected by war conditions, the health of school children, especially in large cities and industrial centers, has deteriorated. According to Dr. Kopiec, the Polish children, at least of the poor classes in Warsaw, showed very serious symptoms from the age of 6 months on.

A year later, in 1918, Dr. Walter Kaupe, children's physician in Bonn, in Monatschrift für Kinderheit Kunde, says:

Every physician dealing with infants or connected with an infant asylum will agree that at present breast-fed infants do not gain in weight as much as they did in former years. These unsatisfactory results of both breast and artificial feeding are not due to the quality of the mother's milk, as this has been proved to be the same, not to the quantity, as this was found to be sufficient, not even to the decrease of carbohydrates in the mother's milk, as this has not taken place.

The author comes to the conclusion that the war conditions produced changes in the mother's milk the nature of which is still unknown.

The following extract is from a speech by Dr. Leopold Moll, in charge of the Reichsanstalt für Mütter- und Säuglingsfürsorge (National Institute for Maternity and Child Welfare) in Vienna:

The physical condition of the infants and little children brought to the center has been showing a striking deterioration within the last year. The children are so weak that they perish in spite of breast feeding. A number of diseases are on the increase, including mental disturbances. The causes are not definitely ascertained yet, but are probably undernourishment and mental anxiety of mothers.

Dr. Moll is an authority of international reputation and author of a number of reports. His statements are based on experience gained at the above consultation center.

STUDIES OF BEHAVIOR AND DELINQUENCY.

The war effects upon the conduct of children and young persons have been mentioned in the report of the Ministry of Social Welfare of Czechoslovakia to the League of Red Cross Societies quoted above. The precocious delinquency of boys and girls referred to in that report apparently is a general phenomenon varying in intensity, doubtless, with the lack of social and family protection and the degree of hardship experienced.

Repeated reference has been made by Belgian observers to the continuing subtle moral injury which results when children are reared.

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under conditions which make truly meritorious the breaking of laws imposed by invaders and which compel constant deceit.

Dr. Albert Hellwig, juvenile judge in Frankfort-on-Oder, published in 1916 a study entitled "The War and Youthful Criminality" (Der Krieg und die Kriminalität der Jungendlichen), and in 1919 a second, entitled "The Protection of Youth from Influences Unfavorable to Moral Development" (Der Schutz der Jugend vor Erziehungswidrigen Einflüssen). In both volumes he uses a large amount of material showing the increase of juvenile delinquency as a result of the war, and in the second he undertakes the important duty of showing the protection necessary.

Edward Golias published in 1919 a pamphlet showing the increase of juvenile delinquency in Austria and Hungary. His data, however, do not go beyond 1916.

A few studies have been made in England of the social conditions accompanying juvenile delinquency in war time.

How far the lack of food and physical welfare is responsible, how far the absence of fathers and the breakdown of the family is accountable, in what degree the lack of schooling, how far the excitement and abnormal social conditions of war have unsettled nervous and mental balance and hence led to delinquency, are among the questions whose answers would be useful in the readjustment to peace conditions in every country, in the establishment of the new laws and institutions which are urgently necessary.

The studies thus far made are chiefly from the approach of the physician, but other scientific observations are also necessary, including those of the educator and the student of applied social science.

The approach of the anthropologist to the problem of child development is important and has immediate practical bearing upon the care of dependent children and other matters. So far as we are aware, no studies from that point of view have been undertaken in the war areas, although attention has lately been called to their importance by international authorities.

STUDIES OF CHILDREN IN INDUSTRY.

The physical effects of industrial life upon children have been little studied, although before the war European observers had begun to write upon it, and at least one study was under way in the United States.

Dr. Ludwig Teleky, of Vienna, presented a paper on Age Problems in Industrial Hygiene at the meeting of the International Congress of Hygiene and Demography held in Washington in 1912, in which he urged the importance of studying the effects of industrial occupations upon the physical welfare of children.

Prof. Giovanni Loriga, of the University of Rome, wrote a monograph upon the Labor of Children and the Growth of the Body, which was published by the Italian Labor Bureau in 1910.

In this country, under the direction of Dr. Helen T. Woolley, a series of measurements of school and working children in Cincinnati has been conducted for some years, and a preliminary report was published in 1914. In 1916 the scanty material then available on this subject was reviewed by Helen L. Sumner (Woodbury), of the Children's Bureau, in an address before the American Academy of
Medicine, which later offered a prize to be awarded in 1921 for the best study of the subject.

The reports of the medical officers who examine children for work certificates in a few cities in this country have already made plain the immediate practical value of such studies by the reports of their own work, showing the need of fuller knowledge of the effect of work and the need of expert examiners. The most recent discussions of this subject were those held at the Children's Bureau conferences on standards of child welfare in 1919. Dr. Emma MacKay Appel, examining physician under the Chicago Board of Education, and Dr. George P. Barth, director, School Hygiene Bureau, Milwaukee, emphasized the practical necessity of "safeguarding the physical condition of the child when he leaves school to go to work."

Dr. D. L. Edsall, dean of the Harvard Medical School, at the same meeting pointed out that children, and those in the earlier years immediately following childhood, are peculiarly prone to develop a latent tuberculosis, and they must therefore be protected from dangers that are likely to excite tuberculosis, "which is the great danger beyond all other medical dangers." "Children are also peculiarly prone to the effects of general physical strain and to the effect of postural strains—a fact sometimes overlooked in regulations."

At the conclusion of the 1919 conferences a committee on standards of normal development and physical fitness for working children was appointed.

The committee has made a preliminary report which includes a statement as to the need of authoritative scientific investigation of the effects of industrial employment upon the development and welfare of children.1

The intelligent protection of the health of working children and the studies upon which that protection should be based are subjects of increased urgency wherever marked underfeeding and hardship have prevailed for a period covering the war and postwar years of the child's life. In the scattered reports available on present conditions in Europe the following is found which bears directly upon the question. The apparent result of the double strain of growth and of hard physical labor has been noted among both town and rural boys. In an article by Dr. Albert Frome, superintendent of the surgical clinic of the University of Gottgen, who reports numerous cases of a new disease of the bones, occurring mainly in the large cities, but also in rural districts. Its victims seem to be mostly boys 15 to 18 years old who are doing heavy physical work. Its symptoms resemble those of rickets, and it is therefore called by some "late rickets." Recently the number of cases increased to such an extent that the disease can be considered endemic, in the opinion of the author and of a number of his colleagues. The prevalence of the disease among adolescents is ascribed by the author to their growth and to the fact that they should receive more energy than they spend. The fact that the disease is prevalent among boys doing hard physical work is emphasized.

The extent of this sign of breakdown, or other signs, such as tuberculosis, which may attack boys and girls beginning hard work

1 See p. 20.
after years of undernourishment: the best way to cope with them so as to restore, if possible, the natural vigor of this generation—are questions for concerted and immediate study and action.

It is significant that Dr. Ludwig Teleky, of Vienna, who was one of the first to urge the importance of studying the physical effects of industrial life upon children, is now, as reported, devoting himself solely to tuberculosis.

Studies of the effect of occupational strains upon these children should prove of special value in determining the effect of such strains upon normal children; those occupations which produced no serious ill effects upon these children with impaired constitutions should be given a clear bill of health, while those which proved too severe for weakened constitutions should be given further study to determine the effect upon children with sound constitutions. Studies should be continued over a term of years; for children reaching the age of 14 within the next 10 years must be considered as within the class subject to the hazards entailed by war hardships, in addition to the usual industrial hazards, whose dangers Dr. Teleky pointed out before the war and whose study he urged then because both human welfare and industrial efficiency were, in his opinion, involved.

Such studies are, of course, primarily the concern of scientific observers; but under the present conditions a working arrangement should be reached with adequate relief organizations, so that prompt service, whether public or volunteer, could be insured for the cases of breakdown or threatened danger. Thus far, since the end of the war, little opportunity or occasion to study this question has existed, because of the delays in reestablishing industry. But a slow return to normal conditions is already perceptible, and the time is near when the physical effect of industrial labor upon children and youth will be tested under new conditions.

Conferences between authorities on various aspects of scientific study involved in child welfare would doubtless suggest other and perhaps more important considerations.

A picture of the results of the war upon the children of central Europe, drawn with scientific faithfulness, would be of world-wide service.

Although political and economic understandings between the various States have not yet reached completion, the understanding among men of science is always complete; and a correlated study of the welfare of children would certainly enlist the aid of those who, in every country, are interested in this great matter and who for the last six years have devoted themselves to the service of the young.

Whether an international office, a Government, or a private scientific foundation should furnish the necessary initiative is perhaps immaterial. The important consideration is that a way should be found to organize an international study of the effects of the war upon children by the cooperation of the best authorities in every country.

Hon. W. B. Wilson,
Secretary of Labor.

Julia C. Lathrop, Chief.