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CONTENTS

THE RAPID URBANIZATION OF AMERICA—CHALLENGES TO SAFETY

POPULATION TRENDS

by PHILIP M. HAUSER
Chairman, Department of Sociology, University of Chicago, Chicago

Now it is my function to try to provide some basic perceptives about trends in population with special emphasis on trends in urbanization. Let me, at the very outset, refer to the basic trends and considerations of this talk. I refer to the basic trend with respect to total population of this nation which, without question, is of such magnitude as to challenge the resources of you individually and collectively as an organization. Back in 1930 projection of the U. S. population at that time indicated that we would be a nation of about 165 million people by the end of the century. We would remain stationary probably and would probably decline in population after that time. These trends were not hard to believe because they were consistent with trends in most countries.

But, what has happened? The course of events has completely belied those projections. We became a nation of 165 million people, not in 1999 but in 1955. Some of you may have observed that during the past week we have become a nation of 175 million people. Why has this come to pass? The answer is to be found in the most remarkable boom in babies and marriages that has been completely unanticipated either in its magnitude or its duration.

This boom has drastically altered present rates of population growth and as a matter of fact, altered the prospect for the future. What is the prospect in the future? By 1975 the prospect is that the population of the U. S. will be somewhere between 216 million at the lower limits and 246 million at the upper limits. These are just abstract numbers. What I have just said implies that in the short space of 25 years between 1950 and 1975 we shall be adding to our population at the lower limits of something like 65 million people, more than all the entire United Kingdom or all of Western Germany. We shall be adding to our population within the span of the same short period of 25 years at the upper limit something like 95 million people, more than all the people of Japan. Now to translate this in its implications for your own activities it means that in effect you've got the job of planning to deal with a population as large as that of all the United Kingdom at the lower limit, all of that of Japan at the higher limit, both of which we will be confronted with in the course of 25 years.

Now the second of the trends I should like to lay before you is urbanization. Trends with respect to urbanization and the outlook are even more dramatic than those to which I have referred for population growth as a whole. When our first census was taken in 1790 there were only 24 places in the United States that had a population of 2,500 or more. Two had a population of 25,000 people. In all of urban United States there were only 200,000 people, five per cent of the total population of the U. S. at this time. By 1950 almost two-thirds of the total population of the U. S. lived in such places. Almost 100 million Americans. As a matter of fact, with most of these figures you probably have in a nutshell one of the most dramatic episodes in the history of man because they imply not only a large population growth in clusters of urban places but a transition in a way of life which has never occurred before which makes it necessary for an organization like this one to be in existence and to be concerned with problems of safety that our culture and other things produce.

Let's look at what has happened in terms of metropolinization which may be a better concept of urbanization for many of your purposes, confined to the first half of this century. In 1900 about a third of the American people lived in places which would qualify as standard metropolitan areas today. During the first half of the century the

population of non-metropolitan areas increased by 50 per cent. The population of metropolitan U. S. increased 3½ fold. In consequence by 1950 57 per cent of our people, more than 85 million Americans, lived in 168 such standard metropolitan areas. This trend may be expected to continue and can be easily documented.

It is also clear that it is not only a trend but an accelerating one. The first half of this century the metropolitan areas of the U. S. absorbed 73 per cent of the total population growth of the country. In the last decade of our 50-year period, that is, between 1930 and 1950, the metropolitan area absorbed 81 per cent of total growth of the nation and the first half of the present decade between 1950 and 1955 the metropolitan area of the U. S. absorbed 97 per cent of the total population growth of the U. S.

If we project this trend to the future, let us say the year 1975, the trend projected indicates that we will have about 200 such standard metropolitan areas increasing from 168 in 1950. In these 200 metropolitan centers there will be as many people living as there were when our last census was taken in 1950, more than 150 million Americans. That would be about two-thirds of the population of the U. S. will be living in our standard metropolitan area. How come?

Many of these things that we denounce—large population concentration, high densities, congestion—are simply manifestations of the way in which we make our living, the way we conduct our economy and the reason why we have an American standard of living. We are not going to get rid of it by any magic wands. Now with this observation in mind, I'd like to turn to a third trend that bears on the subject and this is decentralization of population within the standard metropolitan areas.

Now if by decentralization you get the image of a central city being emptied while people flee to the suburbs and this is an imagery encouraged by supplements to the newspapers, then I think you are wrong. The process of decentralization is a process by which larger and larger proportions of the metropolitan area are living in metropolitan rings or suburbs. There is nothing new about this process, nothing new about urbanization. It is simply a continuation of the process by which our cities have grown from the beginning.

If you relate the rate of growth of suburban rings around our central cities within metropolitan areas to the rate of growth of central cities over the first half of the century, then our suburban population grew at a rate of about one and one-third to one. In the last 10 years of that 50-year period, between 1940 and 1950, the suburban ring population grew two and one-half times as fast as the central cities and in the first half of the present decade, 1950 to 1955, suburban populations grew seven times as fast as central city populations. As between 1950 and 1955 central city populations increased by four per cent. The population of our suburbs increased by 28 per cent. How come? Why this increased decentralization? There are two explanations.

The first is that we are witnessing along with this tremendous growth an adaptation of the way in which we live in our standard metropolitan areas to 20th century technology as distinguished from 19th century technology. In brief, most of our cities and metropolitan areas grew during the 19th century and the early part of the 20th century largely in response to the 19th century technology which is characterized by the steam engine, the belt and the pulley.

These were forces that tended to have centrifugal effects forcing population around the factory, while the 20th century technology permits further decentralization, widespread distribution of population in the clusters represented by standard metropolitan areas, which is caused by 20th century technology typified by the electric power, the automobile, the highways, the trucks and the telephone. All this makes possible tremendous increases in the size of the clusters which characterize our form of economic organization. We will see cities changing in response to the 20th century as distinguished from the 19th century technology.

The second reason as to why you have this decentralization is quite simple. The reason larger proportions of our population live in the suburbs is not because there is suddenly a flight to the suburbs. It is a simple fact that since about 1920 the cities have filled up and the continued growth of the basic economic unit represented by standard metropolitan areas has necessarily taken place outside the city, both population-wise and industry-wise because you can't grow where you are already filled up.

Bear this in mind—our central cities have fixed boundaries and the economic unit continues to grow and transcends those boundaries. Population must live and industry must locate outside the confines of central city limits. Now with those factors in mind, what is the prospect? Here are some dramatic and startling things that will have many implications for safety work. Between 1950 and 1975 there will be an increase of about 65 million people in metropolitan area population. Of this 65 million if the population is distributed in the same way as the trends to which I have referred indicated, of that 65 million only 12 million will go into cities and the other 53 million will go into the suburban areas and of the 53 million, 32 million will be living in what is now open country and unincorporated types of the suburban areas.

The remaining 21 million will go into incorporated places. In 1950 40 per cent of the population lived in central cities; in 1955 this increased to 47 per cent. These projections indicate that by 1975 something up to 60 per cent of the populations of our metropolitan areas will be living in the suburbs. Only 40 per cent in central cities.

Finally I can perhaps slip in a reference to the trends which account for this structure, the land-use pattern that we found in all of our metropolitan areas in this country. The first cycle of development—all of our cities had their origin or points of origin at points which encompass their original economic function. In the case of Chicago we have our origin around the junction of the Chicago River and Lake Michigan which gave us our first way of living. And from this point outward the city spread. In growing, these newer portions of the city were necessarily those most distantly removed from point of origin.

In such growth the newer houses were always those most distantly removed from the point of origin. Newer housing always was most desirable, one reason because it had all the effects of new technology, new electric lights, better plumbing, etc. In addition, population tended to be distributed in space with social economic factors, those in the higher stratifications had better housing, those in the lower less desirable housing.

Another fact, remember that our cities grew in a remarkable fashion. We grew in a big American way, not structure by structure but by subdivision, neighborhood, and community at a time. When the time came to decay, and this has implications for safety, we did this in a big American way also. We did not decay structure by structure; we decayed by subdivision, neighborhoods and communities at a time and our slums became a matter of national and international disgrace. Now in the 20th century we refer to this.

This growth produced the highest economy ever in the history of mankind but it had certain costs and one is the slum areas. The perspective is that now we are going back to clean up some of the mess we created in a hurry to get where we are. This is urban renewal—tearing down and rebuilding whole neighborhoods. This is the third cycle. We now stand at the threshold of a new cycle of development. It is now the suburban areas which are growing at a terrifically rapid rate, the same as the cities did during the 19th century.

The logical query—are the slums of the next generation in the suburbs? Obviously we don't have to wait until the next generation. Some are now slums, not only are people moving to the suburbs but so is industry. Around industrial developments we are beginning to get cheap housing without regard to effects on the entire area, without any machinery of government that will provide zoning in terms of interest of the entire metropolitan area or deal adequately with the problem of circulation to meet the needs of this tremendous metropolitan explosion.

The implication for safety? In the future there will be a tendency to use these metropolitan areas in keeping with the changing requirements of the family cycle, that is: boy—girl get married, live in city; children come, they flee to the suburbs; children leave to come back to the central city. In 1890 when the last child left home for marriage the average wife in the U. S. was a widow. By 1950 as a result of increasing longevity, decreasing fertility, decreasing age of marriage, increasing concentration of marriage under age 30, when the last child leaves home for marriage the husband and wife still have an average of 14 years left together. This implies that the demand for housing in respect to safety has safety needs that did not exist a century and a half ago. This implies the kind of population, the kind of demand for housing, the kind of popula-

tion with respect to safety needs that did not exist a century ago.

To summarize quickly, let me put it like this: the net effect is that the metropolitan areas of the future, unlike those of the past, are going to be much more heterogeneous. There will be good neighborhoods and bad neighborhoods from the innermost reaches of the city clear out to the end of the suburbs.

Metropolitan areas are growing to a point where we can expect coalescence. They will wipe out interurbia as they meet. This is megalopolis.

THE IMPACT OF HOUSING REHABILITATION AND CONSERVATION

By DR. E. R. KRUMBIEGEL
Commissioner of Health, Milwaukee Health Department, Milwaukee, Wis.

There are really three basic segments of an urban renewal program: 1. neighborhood conservation, 2. neighborhood rehabilitation, and 3. urban redevelopment.

Redevelopment is the clearing of slums and converting the area to other types of uses. Unfortunately the process of redevelopment is a slowly progressing one, because of the enormity of the costs involved and certain other factors, and therefore, we sometimes find ourselves trying to do rehabilitation in areas that should really be redeveloped.

Now the principal community force that we bring to bear in effecting conservation and rehabilitation of neighborhoods is the housing code and it's a very important document. The legal basis for enactment and enforcement of a housing code is predicated upon the power of the local police force to do one or more of four things: to promote and protect the public health, the public safety, the public morals and the public welfare. I'd like to take each briefly to discuss.

Actually few items in a good modern housing code have little to do with the public morals. However, there are many items in a good housing code which have to do with the public welfare, but primarily with the economic welfare.

There are many direct relationships between the items of a housing code and the protection of the public health. And there are many items which deal with the condition and the maintenance of structures. Housing code enforcement causes the elimination of many conditions which lead to a chain of events which could result in home accidents.

Now the enforcement of housing codes is a very important catalyst in the prevention of home accidents. But these same factors can also serve as the catalyst to cause home accidents. A fact not often recognized: when an order is served upon a person to do a variety of things to his structure, that order may initiate a sequence of events which may precipitate an occurrence of home accidents. Let me illustrate: take a broken or loose balcony rail. The occupants of the house are usually aware of the broken rail and will avoid use of that balcony or if they use the balcony, they stay away from the rail. And though the rail may remain in bad condition over the years, no accident will result. But on the other hand, an unskilled repairman may fall from this very same balcony when trying to repair it.

An even more serious type of accident is this: the failure to paint may result in structural deterioration and over the years might result in conditions hazardous to occupants. However, when the order is issued, there are rarely existent health and safety hazards as a result of not painting. Yet, observations show that the failure of unskilled painters to follow safe ladder practices is a very real problem to safety.

Most housing code enforcement activity is carried out in areas of the city which are moderately to severely blighted. The majority of property owners in these areas are: 1. aged persons, low income groups, pensioners, widows; 2. people with large families and low income; 3. people belonging to minority groups.

Tenant occupied houses are owned by small scale, elderly property owners, the individual who lives in one house and owns the house next to him, the old pensioner, for example.

Most such persons do attempt to do housing rehabilitation work themselves, out of economic necessity. They believe that they are capable of doing minor carpentry work and certainly the painting.

Also many older people, developing a sense of frugality—they don't know how long they'll live—feel that they must do the work themselves. Many therefore, attempt tasks beyond their capacity from a safety viewpoint. For example, among the aged, we are confronted with such things as poor vision, muscular weakness, tendency to dizziness when gazing upward and forgetfulness—forgetting good safety practices. Among the minority groups, we are dealing with a great many people of low education attainment and lack of experience in using tools. In addition, accident proneness increases with emotional upsets, such as are caused by anger and resentment. Believe me, when an order is issued, we influence the people, but we certainly do not make friends.

Since housing code enforcement activity may not only catalyze accident prevention but also an accident creation potential, the enforcement agency has the moral obligation to promote home accident prevention as a segment of its home improvement program. Actually there's some merit to this over and above the safety factor. Many times we are in a position to teach people at a teachable moment. For instance, no matter how much you tell a person about ladder safety, it may not sink in. But if the person knows that he is about to undertake a task on a ladder, we may be in a much better position to fix in his mind the elements of ladder safety.

CITIES AND RESOURCES ARE FOR PEOPLE

By ALLAN C. WILLIAMS
President, Neighborhood Renewal Consultants, Inc., Chicago

Let's take a fresh look at our cities and the resources available to our people, for cities and resources are significant in terms of people. People are the prime resource of every nation. All other things are by-products of civilization, deliberately fabricated, or created by upsetting the natural order, as man ignores the consequences of his short-range objectives.

As we look back over history, we see that the people of every epoch concentrated their skills and thought by the simple device of living close enough to each other to be effectively in personal contact. Cities come to have "personalities" as people shape them in relation to geographic factors and public policies. For example, a Chicagoan is both producer and product of his city. The essence of Chicago is its people.

Another way to think about cities and the regions they serve, is to think of the relative efficiency and convenience of living with neighbors. Large or small, a city is a collection of people who find it advantageous to live together, often because their individual skills can be used in specialized ways. They are much more productive as a group than they would be as individuals.

Safety in modern living is influenced by the efforts of men to establish a kind of safety for their earlier living conditions. Over the centuries we have seen technology develop safety measures, legislation express the will of the community and codes protect by specifying methods of building, standards of fire safety and use of elevators.

Let's plan land-use—The law demands personal safety and the protection of property, but there is nothing in the law about neighborhoods which are old, ugly or dirty. Certainly it is bad for morale to have unattractive buildings and surroundings. But when fathers and mothers tremble to see children play in the yard, the time for land use reorganization is overdue.

The goal must be in view: cities are for people. The methods of achieving that goal must not overshadow the purpose of cities. The place to begin is implicit in a plan which reorganizes the use of land so that people circulate conveniently and safely and so that vehicles have a system designed for their use exclusively.

The plan should embody necessary land use assignments. The plan can limit the commitment of land for vehicles, and end

the threat of municipal bankruptcy for the care and repair of streets and parking areas. The plan can bring to old neighborhoods a living environment better than commonplace subdivisions can offer.

Considering our increasing population we can't allow cities to sprawl endlessly. We must consider the land uses which are to be designed as cities for the future and arrange land use patterns to fit the human needs, the skills of the people, their ideas and desires and the sheer quantities of population.

Cities are not local. They serve their surroundings. In some ways cities influence their suburbs. In other ways they serve entire regions. Such influences are changing swiftly in the presence of more people, more education, more wealth, more leisure, more cultural activities and more movement of people and goods.

Design for people—Safety can be one of the criteria to test the suitability of proposed plans. Living in town or country should be safe. The elements of safety are in the space we use if we design for the people consistently. The fact that we are in the midst of a vast increase in population can be translated into pressure on land and other natural resources. We must give special thought to the re-use of land because it is critical in terms of location. Other resources are scarcely re-usable.

In a paper prepared for the land Economics Institute held at the University of Illinois last spring, Marion Clawson reported for Resources of the Future (Washington, D. C.), the following pair of tables, under the general title of "Current Land Uses and Over-All Demands for Land in the United States."

TABLE I. Use of land in the United States, 1900-2000 A.D.

Use of Land (Millions of Acres)	1900	1910	1920	1930	1940	1950	1980	2000
Cities, including parks[1]	6	7	10	12	14	17	30	41
Recreation areas, public[2]	5	9	12	15	41	47	90	107
Agriculture, including farm roads, farmsteads	431	467	529	530	516	520	500	500
Forestry	525	512	501	501	488	484	460	450
Grazing	864	838	777	770	763	753	732	710
Transportation	18	20	22	24	24	25	28	30
Reservoirs & water management		1	2	3	7	10	15	20
Wildlife (Primary Use)			1	1	10	10	14	16
Mineral extraction, & misc. deserts, swamps, mountaintops	55	50	50	48	42	38	35	30

Total (Millions of Acres)—for each year listed above—1,904.

[1]Cities of population 2,500 and over.

[2]Excludes municipal parks. Includes national park system, also areas in national forests reserved for recreation, also state parks, TVA, and Army Engineer's Corps reservoir areas reserved for recreation. Excludes all areas primarily for other purposes, although recreation is incidental. Assumption: about half of potential demand will be met.

Sprawl courts disaster—Continuing to think about people as our prime resource, and land as the resource in which location is implicit, consider the alternatives before us. If we permit urban sprawl to go at a pace comparable to population growth, we will court disaster in our public works budgets because of the capital investments needed to equip raw land for the complex activities of cities. If we reorganize the urban areas to serve more comfortably, more efficiently, more safely, we can have better cities and save our land resources.

If we go in the direction of unplanned urban sprawl, Table II suggests how we must juggle our inheritance.

TABLE II. SUMMARY. Projected Land Use Changes, 1950-2000 A.D.

Land Uses	Projected Change 1950-2000 A.D.		Estimated Changes: Extent and Direction	Probable Adjustment To Be Made If Projections of Demand and Supply Responses Are In Error
	Million Acres	% of 1950		
Urban purposes.....	+24	+141%	Very High	Area used will change proportionately.
Public recreation.....	+60	+128%	High	Some area adjustment; mostly intensity.
Agriculture	—20	— 4%	Low	Adjustments in area, intensity of use, Foreign trade, & domestic consumption (all readily possible).
Forestry	—34	— 7%	High	No major change in area, great changes of intensity and consumption.
Grazing	—43	— 6%	High	No major change in area, great changes of intensity in use and output.
Transportation	+ 5	+ 20%	High	Area used will change proportionately.
Reservoirs, etc.....	+10	+100%	High	Area used will change proportionately.
Wildlife	+ 6	+ 60%	Moderate	Area used will change proportionately.
Mineral Extraction, and misc. deserts, swamps, mountains	— 8	— 21%	Low	Includes unaccounted areas.

We have an opportunity to think in terms of public policies. No neighborhood can be ignored, for the changes needed in every city are integral parts of systematic safety. The fact that they are integrated into systems will make the fundamental difference.

But while population grows swiftly, the field of economic policy on the state and local level is a morass of confusion and neglect. Barriers to productivity are not confined to depressed regions. Some of the toughest ones are found in the areas of greatest growth. There exists no broad, organized body of research, no tested package of plans and programs to guide business leaders seeking to further local and regional development.

The rapid urbanization of America has implicit challenges to safety. Existing land use patterns in and near cities must be adjusted and re-adjusted endlessly to serve the ideas, the skills and the sheer quantities of people in each locality.

DISCUSSION PARTICIPANTS

NORMAN DAMON
Vice President, Automotive Safety Foundation, Washington, D. C.

JOHN V. GRIMALDI
Consultant, Safety and Plant Protection, General Electric Co., New York City

MISS ELSA SCHNEIDER
Specialist, Health, Physical Education, Recreation, Safety, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

HOWARD ENNES
Director, Bureau of Public Health, Equitable Life Assurance Society, New York City

Grimaldi: The population of the United States is increasing. But for a limited period of time, it is increasing mostly in the middle age to aged group. The older person is not so apt to have accidents, but is more apt to have severe accidents. This means we should be thinking of our selection and placement program in industry to protect our people from severe injuries.

This means that in the urbanization problem areas particularly we have one problem that's a responsibility of industry that we must face up to and have not as yet. This is waste disposal. There's a limitation point where industry will so saturate an area and in doing so discharge into the air—contaminants. The sewage disposal problem—both industrial waste and sanitary waste—is related to this.

We also have a traffic problem. With more and more people and more and more cars, planners will have to work out a system to get people into and through a city a little more rapidly than they are able to now. What's the answer to this? The high speed highway, the throughways.

We should study tensions and their effects on people. At New York hospital they're trying to find out what it is that makes people more susceptible to disease and accidents. One figure they came up with was that 25 per cent of their population have 50 per cent of the diseases and of the accidents. They attribute this to the tensions these people have. The disorders with which people come into the clinic occur mostly when the people are under tensions. And the same thing can be said of accidents. And as urban areas develop, perhaps some of the tensions of living in these populated areas will increase.

Need for building codes is everyone's problem—particularly people in industry.

Industry must recognize this responsibility much more than they have in the past. We must remember that we live in industry because people like us. When we have trouble, it is because people don't like us, and one of the reasons people don't like us is because of the things we do in a community where people know us best. We might discharge contaminants into the air and result in our being forced out of a community. The time may come when we may not be allowed to continue as we presently continue.

Schneider: When people are thinking about replanning a city, is there no attention given to human values? And what people really want out of life? Don't cities reflect the hopes that people have?

Hauser: Certainly planning is going to involve human values. One thing very definitely involved is this: Between 1900 and 1950, while the population of our country doubled, our senior citizens quadrupled. Youngsters of school age 5 to 19 during that same period increased a little over 40 per cent. Prospect in 1975, our population will increase from 42 per cent if the birth rate drops to 60 per cent if our birth rate remains at post war levels. So the prospect is that while our population will increase about 40 to 60 per cent, the number of persons 65 and over will increase by 77 per cent. What is also happening is that we are more than doubling our younger population. Both ends of our age structure are increasing tremendously.

Damon: There is a great urgent need for machinery to deal with these metropolitan area problems. We are approaching this in two ways. First, through statutory authorities. At one end of this country, Miami, the voters have just approved a metropolitan authority with a manager. And in Seattle was created a metropolitan authority dealing with sewage problems. The other approach is voluntary, which might lead to statutory measures.

In addition, there's a need for a long range, basic transportation plan, such as the inter-state highway system, which has set down a master plan by which we will have a highway system cutting through our cities. There is now at work a national committee on urban transportation which is taking a look at this question of a master plan for transportation for metropolitan areas, called Better Transportation for Your City. And naturally, the orderly way, efficient way of doing these things, quite obviously is the safe way.

Ennes: The rather basic thing that we must realize when talking about safety is that the family and the people are the constants. This poses some very real problems. Basically, we also must understand the point of view and the values and work from the perspectives of the family. We must face up to the fact that we must relate safety to the values and interests of the people. Safety as such is of no particular concern. We must try to understand that one of the basic jobs that we have to work for is to build a sense of personal and individual and family responsibility that helps people see that the behavior they follow has a bearing on what they want to get out of life.

It is a matter of understanding that there are different perspectives and that the real resources that we have to work with are the people.

Schneider: Statistics indicate that more and more both parents are going to be out of the home working a great deal and increasingly things will be happening which will put increasing tensions on children. And increasingly people will say that schools will have to do a better job of safety education.

I make this one plea: you people plan the school programs as well as the city in which the school is located. And we must be realistic in what the school can be expected to do in light of pressures over which the school has no control and over which the children have no control in this adult-dominated world. So often, adults expect of children, behavior which adults themselves do not show to children. Also we create for children a kind of world in which children can not behave the way that they would like to because of adult pressures and adult expectations. The thing they are really asking for is consistent behavior. We must have consistent behavior in the homes and in the schools. Remember the kind of examples you set greatly influence young people.

SUCCESSFUL HOME FIRE PREVENTION THROUGH INSPECTION

By FRANCIS J. SAUNDERS
Chief, Springfield Fire Dept., Springfield, Ill.

For some time prior to 1956 we had heard of various cities with inspection programs and had become quite interested in them. At the Memphis Conference, early in 1956, Francis Durkin, who was then chief, discussed home inspection with various fire department personnel and returned very enthusiastic. He had made arrangements to have several cities send him detailed programs, literature and forms used in their inspections.

After going over all of the material received, we picked out what we thought was most suited to our needs and had a large supply printed.

We had several meetings with our captains and personnel who were to conduct the inspections to acquaint them with the

program. Each fireman was also given a typed set of regulations and suggestions to become familiar with, and by the first of May 1956 we were ready to roll.

Naturally we started out our first day with some misgivings; this was all new to our citizens and we were not quite sure how we would be received. But I would like to say that our welcome exceeded our expectations. Of course we found a few people here and there who were disgruntled, or who thought they had grievances with the fire department. But after we explained the program to them, they changed their attitudes. They learned of the benefits of the inspections, and for the entire year in which we called on more than 23,000 homes our refusals were less than 7 per cent.

Now I would like to mention a few things about our procedure as explained to the men in their instruction sheets. All of the material in our instructions and in the inspection procedure is not original with us. When we had finished gathering data from different places, we screened it and picked out what we thought was best suited to our local needs. If anyone recognizes a phrase now and then, I hope that they will feel complimented that we used some of their ideas.

THE ROLE OF THE BUILDING COMMISSIONER IN ENVIRONMENTAL HOME SAFETY

By PAUL E. BASELER
Executive Secretary, Building Officials Conference of America, Inc.

There are many aspects to the problem of safety because there are many hazards involving all phases of our environment. My assignment deals with a behind-the-scenes activity designed to produce safety for the public, individually and collectively. It includes personal and environmental safety and is intended to provide for the general communal good, rather than being limited to individual benefits. This activity is carried out without fanfare; inconspicuously and quickly. Many individuals are not aware of its existence, and most people take for granted the effects of this protection.

As a part of its police power, municipal government must watch over the construction alteration and use of buildings. The purpose of this is to determine that the structure will be strong and enduring under the conditions in which it is used; that buildings will have adequate light, ventilation and sanitary facilities to make them healthful; that fire hazards will be reduced to a minimum; that means of escape will be adequate in case of disaster; and that each property owner's rights are equally respected. This is accomplished through a law known as the building code.

Housing codes, zoning ordinances, subdivision laws and similar regulations also are designed to safeguard health, property values and environmental safety. Each of these has its place, and one cannot be substituted for the other. The housing code is applicable to buildings used for dwelling purposes that were legally constructed under the laws that existed at the time they were built. In general, it provides for raising the livable standards in those buildings. Obviously, however, it is neither just or practicable to require these old buildings to measure up in every respect to the conditions which are required by the building code for new buildings. The housing code may contain requirements for light, ventilation, sanitation and even safety, which appear to overlap similar requirements in the building code. If carefully examined, however, it will generally be found that these requirements in the housing code are less exacting than their counterpart in the building code.

Similarly, the zoning law may establish side yard requirements for the purpose of preventing overcrowding and providing access for one reason or another. The build-

ing code also contains requirements for side yards principally for the purpose of minimizing the fire hazard of one property to another and permitting adequate light and ventilation to enter the buildings.

These laws must be closely related. Administration of them must be under one head or at least fully correlated. When the level of up-grading of an existing building has been determined under the housing law, the installation of the required facilities and all necessary repair and structural change must be accomplished in accordance with the building code, and under the direction of the building official. Similarly, the zoning ordinance must be administered by the building official for obvious practical reasons.

But the building code is the principle "tool" by which safety is procured in the buildings in which we live, work, worship, and play.

What is the building code—Unfortunately, there seems to be a general lack of understanding of the real purpose and intent of the control of building construction. Few are aware of the existence of building laws until they are prohibited by the local code from building as they please. The natural reaction is to seek to circumvent the law or to have it altered to suit their individual needs or conditions. Even organized groups in the construction industry frequently seek adjustments in building codes in an effort to solve their own particular problems without regard to the more fundamental principle of public safety. This, of course, is undesirable. The only valid approach to rational building regulation is one that considers the public interest without bias, regardless of what individual or vested interests may be affected.

The building code is a law passed by a local government to provide for the safety of persons while they are in, or passing any building, and to prevent any property owner from building so as to cause an undue hazard to his neighbor's property. The building code must provide equal control and protection for all persons, regardless of their position, individual interests, or the kind of use of building involved. Its preparation, therefore, should only be entrusted to unbiased interests pledged to place the public safety and benefit above personal prejudices. Neither should they be subject to influence by local pressures which would dictate restrictive requirements based on hide-bound practices which are not even remotely related to safety; nor be affected by biased advice from vested interests, no matter how freely available.

But the building code is not a design manual for architects or engineers, nor a guide to the "do-it-yourself" enthusiast. There are many fine publications for these purposes, which if carefully followed will produce conditions that meet the requirements of any proper building code.

The building code should contain minimum requirements for design and the use of materials to secure safety. It should not require the use of expensive materials or construction, but should permit any materials and methods that will produce the required performance when measured by accepted tests and criteria. It should not restrict the ingenuity of the designer either in planning the building or in the structural or esthetic use of materials, but it must provide a mandatory standard of safety to guide or limit him in the exercise of this discretion.

Since the requirements of the building code are confined to the minimum necessary for safety, the code does not assure an owner of superior materials or workmanship, nor produce the best protection of his investment in the building. These are to be secured by seeking competent advice from reputable persons or firms trained to render such services.

The impact of building codes on community safety—While we are concerned in this conference with "home safety," we must not lose sight of the fact that in its strictest sense, the "home" is the "family," not just the house in which the family lives. We must recognize that the members of the "family" are entitled to the safety which building codes provide in the schools, churches, shops, stores, offices, places of amusement or entertainment, and any and all buildings they may enter or pass, as well as in their houses.

Those who would limit building regulations to home buildings and advocate adoption of such limited regulations by local governments whether or not the requirements for other buildings are adopted, are not promoting the public interest or safety. Indeed, if their own interests are confined pri-

marily to the building of homes, they are suspected of promoting building regulations to serve their personal selfish ends.

But let us review the effect of good building regulations on safety as applied especially to homes. First of all, we must recognize that there is more truth than poetry in that old saying: "A man's home is his castle." He is, therefore, entitled to more liberty in deciding the construction of his home than may be allowed in other buildings.

Building regulations—along with zoning and housing regulations—perhaps more drastically affect the property rights of individuals than any other laws. They say to a man, "Even though you own that property, you may only use so much of it for stipulated purposes, and the buildings you construct on it must be thus and so." Such laws must be carefully drafted and well administered or they may deprive the individual of personal liberties. Never, under any circumstances, should such laws become the tool of vested interests to promote their products or theories, no matter how cleverly their motives may be disguised in claims of public benefit.

The regulation of construction of homes is based on these fundamental principles. Such regulations usually provide for structural safety by stipulating requirements for footings; foundations; exterior walls; floor, wall and roof framing or construction; weather resistance and similar matters.

Health safety is covered by requirements for light and ventilation, including sizes of yards surrounding the building, sanitary facilities, and similar matters. Fire safety is taken care of by interior finish requirements; stipulation of fire resistance for various elements of the building, including exterior walls when located near common property lines; and requirements for the location, installation and protection of heating and similar devices and chimneys or vents serving them.

Exits in single- or two-family dwellings are not a serious problem since every house has a door, and most have both a front and back door. Nevertheless, the building code contains basic requirements in connection with this phase of home planning. Recent changes in plan and trends in architectural design, however, have introduced conditions that have resulted in creating certain hazards not before contemplated. Notably among these are the establishment of "rumpus rooms," "play rooms," "family rooms" or rooms for similar uses in basements or below-grade areas of the house; and the use of high windows, which only partially open, have resulted in some sad experience.

Basements and below-grade areas of houses formerly were used primarily for laundry, work space and storage. The use of such space for rooms in which a number of persons may congregate creates an entirely different condition. The "do-it-yourself" craze has frequently resulted in the introduction of greater hazard in basements by the installation of electrical equipment not previously anticipated there. Recent changes have been made in the exit standards to provide more comprehensive requirements for exits from private dwellings to compensate for these hazards. While these will no doubt result in greater safety in new dwellings built after the requirements are incorporated in building codes, their application to previously built homes poses difficult administrative problems.

Windows have been used through the years for multiple functions. There has been justifiable question about the desirability of this and changes have been introduced, but as in many such problems, the full effect of these changes has not always been envisioned. The old style vertical sliding window, with both top and bottom sashes sliding up and down, offered an acceptable emergency exit in case of fire or similar catastrophe, which might block normal egress through doors and halls.

The use of long strips of windows, high above the floor, opening in a manner that would make it difficult, if not impossible, to use the window for emergency escape; the use of jalousie windows, fixed lights often with double glazing, and similar practices, have further aggravated these conditions. Pleasing as these features of design may be, sad experience has proven that there is question of their desirability for safety. To provide for this, the exit standards have been changed to require that each bedroom in a house have one window large enough and low enough, so that it may be used as a means of escape in case exit through the house is blocked by fast-spreading fire.

But there is another area of hazard in which control is even more difficult. Many serious injuries have resulted from accidents in homes caused by slippery floors, steps, bath tubs and the like. How can a law curb Mrs. Housewife's desire for a bright, shiny floor; clean, sparkling steps; or high gloss bath tubs? To be sure, building codes require non-slip wax on floors in spaces frequented by the public. Stair treads for public use, especially in exitways, are required to have non-slip nosings; and tile floors in public wash rooms and elsewhere are required to have non-skid surfaces. But can such requirements be applied to similar conditions in homes? And supposing this would be feasible, how would such regulations be enforced?

Would we be willing to have a building inspector enter our private houses unannounced to see what kind of wax we are using on our floors? Would we be pleased with bath tubs with rough bottoms? Would we stand for a citation of violation of the law if we had used the wrong wax or polished it too highly? I think not! We can control these conditions in public spaces, but can we sanely invade the sanctity of a man's home for such purposes? This kind of hazard can only be overcome by education. Mrs. Public must be educated to refuse to purchase or use waxes that may result in falls and injury of her family. Manufacturers of such products must be educated to recognize the disservice they are doing the public by marketing finishes that are hazardous.

Of course, it could be argued that the desired results might be accomplished by outlawing the marketing of such products. This would require a comprehensive system of legislation and enforcement similar to the pure food and drug laws which prevent the sale of harmful foodstuffs and medicines. Before this could be accomplished, however, a vast amount of education would be necessary to convince the public that building codes are desirable and in their best interests, rather than "nuisance legislation" as they are too frequently now wrongly classified. Such an educational program would require much greater cooperation between many organizations, interests and individuals than now exists, and would necessitate a substantial expenditure of money.

The current situation—Unfortunately, the building code situation in the United States is not as bright as it could be. There are many communities that still have antiquated building codes that were drafted by local committees whose members injected into them personal prejudices; were influenced by pressure from local business, associations or practices; or accepted free advice from vested interests, unmindful of the biased provisions they contained. Even today there are many communities that do not have a building code. Many of these are finding that they should regulate construction because they are being overrun by vast developments of homes; large, sprawling factories; or immense shopping centers, all of which should be controlled by building regulations for the protection of the public. Too frequently these communities lack facilities to prepare their own building codes, and often they must adopt them as emergency legislation.

Recognizing the dilemma of these communities and the need of the public for congruity of building regulations in all communities, the Building Officials Conference of America offers building codes that are suitable for the needs of any community and which can be adopted without obligation. Based on recognized standards of safety and arranged to permit the use of materials and methods of construction on the basis of their own merits, these codes are kept constantly up-to-date through a continuing program of study, investigation and service. The community which adopts the appropriate BOCA Building Code and latest approved changes provides for its people adequate protection at minimum cost, without imposing unnecessary restriction. By adopting the changes approved each year, the government may permit its people to use new materials and methods that have been proven safe.

These codes contain regulations for buildings of all uses, providing protection for the public in homes, schools, churches, shops, offices, factories, places of amusement and entertainment. They have been tried and proven. Recently certain interests proposed to prepare and promote building regulations covering only house construction. Their reasons for this were based on their own limited interests. Their claims were that building codes contained requirements that

increased the cost of construction. This built up into a spectacular figure which, when carefully analyzed, was found not to be completely factual. As commendable as these aims may be, any proposal that could lead to leaving the families of the country without protection in other than homes—whether inadvertantly or otherwise—certainly is not in the public interest.

Of even greater concern, however, is the method by which it was proposed to accomplish this which would ultimately have placed the determination of building regulations in the hands of vested interests who might profit by or suffer loss from the requirements imposed. This would enable these interests to legalize material and construction innovations whether or not their soundness and durability has been satisfactorily proven. While this might provide the public with houses at slightly lower initial cost, it would leave the home owner "holding the bag" if the innovations did not prove enduring.

If the industry has developed sound new materials or techniques that will reduce the cost of building homes, existing procedures of the recognized code authorities amply provide methods of making these available to the public. These procedures require thorough study of each proposal by qualified, unbiased persons; open hearings where factual data in support of and opposition to each is heard; and the majority decision of public officials. Any proposal which passes this scrutiny can be depended on to be in the public interest.

But good building codes are only part of the problem. They must be soundly enforced. This requires competent, qualified administrators and adequate personnel. The protection of the public is far too important to be governed by political whims and subject to the uncertainty of patronage. Just as safety is the business of every individual and organization concerned with the public interest, the adoption of good building codes and the provision of competent, trained personnel to enforce them is your business and mine.

A STUDY OF FIRES AND EXPLOSIONS IN A RURAL COUNTY

By FLOYD B. OGLESBAY, JR.
Epidemiologic Investigator, Arkansas State Board of Health, Blythesville, Ark.

During the last nine months an epidemiologic study of the cause of fires in Mississippi County, Ark., has been conducted by the Arkansas State Board of Health in cooperation with the Public Health Service and local health department. Located on the Mississippi River in the northeast corner of the state, this county (pop. 82,000) was selected as typical of the urban-rural distribution in Arkansas (75 per cent rural).

Using a reporting form specifically designed for this study, the epidemiologic investigator supplied data on 86 investigations in the first 5½ months of the study. Of this total 72 were home fires. The 15 home fires resulting in injury caused 14 deaths and 18 injuries. Eleven deaths and two nonfatal injuries occurred among children under 12 years of age.

Misuse of petroleum products appeared to be the cause of fires in 19 home fire cases (26 per cent). In four home fire incidents a petroleum product apparently had been used to start a fire (a practice frequently blamed for fires in the rural South.) Four deaths and 10 injuries occurred in these four fires. Defective electric wiring caused roughly the same number of fires as petroleum products (17). The dwelling was demolished in 50 per cent of the home fires (36) reported during this period. The study is continuing.

THE ROLE OF THE VOLUNTEER—ORGANIZATIONAL EXAMPLES

Primarily a Fund Raiser

By WILLARD JOHNSON
Vice President, National Conference of Christians and Jews, Chicago, Ill.

One of the major problems faced by fund raisers for voluntary organizations is that of "selling something intangible". Safety is intangible. So is Brotherhood which is "sold" by my organization, the National Conference of Christians and Jews. In some respects it is easier to raise money for some of the physical diseases such as heart and cancer and to secure funds for the care of crippled, ill or homeless children. But since both Safety and Brotherhood are intangible there may be some help to persons working for Safety Councils from the experience of NCCJ which deals with the other intangible, Brotherhood.

Both of these intangibles are somewhat complex and involved. This means that voluntary workers who seek to raise funds for these causes should have considerable information about the subject itself and about the way in which the organization deals with this problem.

The entire NCCJ over the United States raises about $3,000,000 annually, about $225,000 of which comes from the Chicago region. The organization uses substantially the same methods over the country.

NCCJ in Chicago secures funds by three basic methods:

1. The Membership Campaign both for men and women.
2. The Special Gifts Campaign.
3. The Fund Raising Dinner.

Some 300 men and women serve as volunteers in these three campaigns with perhaps a score of these volunteers serving on all of the campaigns. All of the volunteers are organized into committees, with the Membership Committee, Special Gifts Committee and Dinner Committee. The Membership Committee has a Women's Division.

The Membership Committee consists exclusively of men and women who serve on the Executive Board and Women's Committee and who therefore know about NCCJ from this board participation. There is, therefore, no need to give special training to these persons since they are involved in the ongoing process throughout the year. Many of them have served for a long period of time on these boards and committees.

The Membership Committee accomplishes most of its results by the use of personal letters. Some of the members make personal calls on prospects and there are a good many telephone calls involved. The bulk of the money, however, is secured by personal letters written on personal or business letterheads (rarely, if ever, on NCCJ letterhead) by members of these two Membership Committees. (The Women's Committee uses NCCJ letterhead for its campaign more often than do the men.) Some $32,000 is raised by these committees, about half by the Women's Committee.

About a dozen persons serve on each of these Membership Committees. The essence of this campaign is the personal appeal of members of the Membership Committee to their friends and acquaintances and to persons who know about them. Many of these people are highly respected persons in the Chicago community and results are accomplished because of their position and reputation in the community.

We have observed, however, that mass appeals by these people are not effective. The only effective approach is to have them address letters and make calls to persons whom they know or with whom there is some personal connection. We have tried mass letter campaigns over and over and never have we found a mass letter campaign which would do much more than pay its own costs. This is one of the perplexing problems faced by many organizations as well as NCCJ. Obviously the personal ap-

proach and the personal appeal are essential.

To repeat, the essence of this membership campaign is the personal letter appeal with some telephone calls and personal approaches and visits. The letters are always individually typed with a complete personalized fill-in and regular signature with one piece of literature and a return envelope with prepaid postage.

The second basic campaign of NCCJ in Chicago is the Special Gifts campaign. This is the Chicago aspect of a national Special Gifts Campaign which is headed by prominent persons such as Henry Ford II, L. L. Colbert, President of Chrysler Corp. and this year General Robert Johnson of Johnson and Johnson Surgical Goods. The National Chairman invites 10 to 20 prominent men from Chicago to serve on the national Committee with him asking them to solicit 10 to 20 prospects either by personal call, telephone or personal letter. Prospects are written first by the national chairman and then asked for a specific contribution by a member of the local committee. There is also a prominent local chairman for this committee. Prospect lists are made by members of the local committee and thus again we have the person-to-person approach.

The members of the special gifts committee are usually not members of the executive board of NCCJ who concentrate on the membership campaign; rather the Special Gifts Committee members are persons sympathetic to NCCJ, but who do not know too much about it. They accept invitations to serve largely because of the prestige and personality of the national chairman. They are not given any special training except for a personal visit by a staff member of NCCJ in Chicago and are given some literature. This campaign raises about $20,000 each year and is successful because of the personality of the national chairman and the fact that prospect lists are made up by members of the committee in terms of their friends and associates and persons or commercial companies to which they wish to make an appeal.

The third and major aspect of fund raising for NCCJ in Chicago is the annual dinner which has now been held for 12 years. At the present time this dinner at $100 per plate is raising about $160,000 each year. Over the 12-year period a structure has been developed and some 300 businessmen in the city have had experience on the Dinner Committee so that not too much training is necessary except for new members who are often trained by those who have served in the past.

The structure of the dinner committee is as follows:

General Chairman
Chairman of the Steering Committee
Steering Committee
Dinner Committee
Division Chairmen
Section Chairmen

The dinner chairmen are the most prominent businessmen in the Chicago community. In recent years some of these chairmen have been William V. Kahler, President Illinois Bell Telephone Co.; John S. Knight, Publisher of the Chicago Daily News; Wayne Johnston, President of Illinois Central Railroad and William Patterson, President of United Air Lines.

The chairman of the steering committee is usually a member of the executive board of NCCJ and is responsible for most of the detail of organization and campaign. There are some 20 members of the steering committee who are also members of the executive board of NCCJ largely and others who have had considerable experience in fund raising both for NCCJ and for other organizations.

The divisional chairmen of which there are six are responsible for certain board divisions of the industrial and business field. There are some 20 sections so that each divisional chairman is responsible for three to five sections, each of which has its own chairman.

These divisions and sections follow the general breakdown of industrial and business organizations of the typical Community Chest pattern.

The essence of the dinner campaign is to sell places at the dinner for $100 per plate. Very often companies will buy an entire table or two tables thus making a contribution of $1,000 or $2,000. Most of the contributors are business firms and corporations, although many contributors are individuals. An attempt is made by the solicitors to secure companies who will buy an entire table or more and then send company executives to participate in the dinner

program. As a rule some 1,200 to 1,400 of the leading businessmen of the city participate in the dinner with a speakers table of 50 or 60 persons.

There is always an outstanding nationally known speaker such as Senator Kennedy in 1957 with a brief program of exposition about the work of NCCJ and some music. Last year the dinner program ran from 6:30 until 8:50. It was a pleasant surprise to have the program finished before 9 p.m.

The basic factor in this dinner campaign is the solicitation on a business level by some 200 members of the business and industrial community of the city of Chicago on the basis of $100 per plate. No deviations from this per plate basis is permitted.

Many of the members of the dinner committee have participated in this program over a period of time and therefore the only orientation needed for them each year is a new annual report together with some current literature for use with prospects.

All prospects are written by the dinner committee together with a formal invitation to the dinner some six weeks before the dinner date. Then this invitation is followed up by telephone calls, personal calls and by personal letters from the 200 members of the dinner committee.

This per plate dinner idea is being used by NCCJ in various parts of the country with considerable success. It might be said that this is the basic method of fund raising for the entire organization. Sometimes the dinner or luncheon is $25 per plate, at other times $50 and on a few occasions such as Chicago, $100.

Members of this dinner committee are secured and retained partly because of their deep and sincere interest in the work of NCCJ, partly because they have been successful in the past (and nothing succeeds in fund raising like success in the past) and partly because of the prestige and importance of the dinner chairman himself and members of the steering committee. There is a relatively small amount of literature used in this campaign although there are the customary pledge cards, printed invitations, annual reports, etc. The major factors, however, are the personality of the solicitor and the committee structure flowing from the dinner chairman himself. New workers, of course, are secured each year and they accept because of these motivations.

In light of our experience, the following observations may be pertinent.

To secure volunteers for fund raising I suggest the following considerations:

Have them invited by persons whom the would-be volunteers consider their superiors in business and industrial position—at least their peers. This recognition of status and power position is essential.

This means that the chairman of any campaign must be chosen from the highest possible levels in the city or neighborhood. It is sad but true that "do-gooders", as a rule, cannot attract volunteers who will raise much money.

If the invitations come from a high level, the form of the invitation—whether a personal call, a telephone visit or a letter is not so important. Most men of high status, however, prefer to make a personal visit or a telephone call.

To train volunteers, a group meeting is very important. And to get the group, it is necessary to have the general chairman extend the invitations, be present at the meeting and give some interpretation. This is one of the major functions of the general chairman.

It is also often desirable to have some entertainment or special attraction at this first interpretation meeting. Whether we like it or not, most people do not get much satisfaction from a meeting devoted entirely to fund raising.

A small amount of literature, probably one descriptive piece—is in order plus samples of the "tools" and pledge cards, to be used in the campaign. But don't expect literature to "train" volunteers. Word of mouth and participation in the campaign itself—when the volunteer is forced to justify his solicitation—are the vital elements of training.

To keep volunteers, it is necessary to develop a feeling of success. No one wants to be involved in failure—so the successful aspects of any campaign should be emphasized.

All volunteers should be thanked by the general chairman, by letter and some public recognition—at some big event, if possible. Names of workers should be printed in

programs and certificates of appreciation given to all. On the giving end, we often feel that perhaps we are overdoing the praise and the citations. But on the receiving end, when it has all narrowed down to the one individual, it is never too much.

We must tell volunteers constantly that they have succeeded and this success is due to them. There is no other way to keep volunteers.

I hope that this description of our fund raising program will be helpful to others who are to secure funds for the important cause of safety education.

II. A FUND RAISER AND PARTICIPANT IN PROGRAM WORK

By MRS. BEATRICE WRIGHT FUERST
Consultant, Volunteer Activities, National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis
New York City

Today we recognize volunteer activity as an essential part of our existence. Alexis de Tocqueville found more than a century ago that "in no country of the world has the principle of voluntary association been more successfully used or applied to a greater multitude of objects than in America."

More recently, the editors of "Fortune," in a book devoted to the subject, concluded "that volunteer activities have a deeper and more lasting effect upon American life and even American policies, than do the official ones."

America is without doubt the most highly organized country in the world. We have thousands and thousands of voluntary groups and armies of volunteers.

It has been my privilege over the past twelve years to be a participant, first as a professional staff member, and, more recently, as a volunteer, in one of the greatest volunteer movements the world has ever known, under the banner of the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis. I have been asked today to analyze my organization's "volunteer" for you—to dissect him, to take him apart, and see what "makes him tick."

Harry Emerson Fosdick has said "Democracy is based on the conviction that there are extraordinary possibilities in ordinary people." Nowhere have I seen this statement more magnificently demonstrated than in the fight against polio.

Only twenty-one years ago the National Foundation launched the most comprehensive and intensive people's attack on record against one of the thousand ills to which mankind is heir. In 1938 there was no precedent—no scrap heap of error—no milestone of success whose lessons the National Foundation could assimilate in charting its course. It was a pioneer movement, tempered in the realisms of the needs at hand, emboldened by a vision of faith in a goal and confidence in the American people.

It offered to the world a new concept of warfare against disease. It was dedicated to the philosophy that health is a matter of public concern, reaching far beyond traditional spheres of science and medicine—and it urged upon the people an acceptance of active partnership with the scientist. Through a concerted volunteer effort it directed upon the crippling malady of polio the full force of American intelligence, ingenuity and enthusiasm. Through 21 years "ordinary people with extraordinary possibilities" in every community in the nation pioneered in building with vision an organization which proved that people, through voluntary association, could join hands across the nation as neighbors and friends to accomplish a specific objective.

We, in the National Foundation recognize that volunteers are the lifeblood of our organization. We also know that the process of volunteering is a complex one. The nature of the organization and the motivations of the volunteer are so inextricably interwoven and interdependent that I feel I must discuss the pertinent factors of both to conscientiously paint a complete picture for you.

National voluntary health associations of the type represented by the Foundation differ markedly from other types of voluntary associations with respect to the composition

and nature of their membership. Most voluntary associations are formed (according to one authority) "when a small group of people, finding they have a certain interest (or purpose) in common, agree to meet and act together in order to satisfy that interest or achieve that purpose."

In the case of many voluntary associations, these people constitute the volunteer membership of the organizations, usually its "board." Since board members are often too busy to devote a great deal of time to the organization, they generally appoint a professional staff to carry out the day-to-day tasks of running the organization; since the nature of these tasks frequently requires some specialized training, this professional staff is generally composed of people trained in office management, public relations and social work. Textbooks used in schools of social work, accordingly, generally devote some attention to the related techniques of maintaining good working relationships with volunteer boards and educating the board members in the problems faced by the professional staff. In organizations having this character, volunteers are in effect the employers of the working-level staff.

In addition to board members, another type of volunteer worker is the part-time volunteer who assists the professional staff in such activities as home visitations, clerical work, speech making and fund raising, but does not necessarily become an official member of the association. "Adult Leadership," a magazine devoted entirely to the problems of community organizations, recently devoted an entire issue to a "Workshop on the Volunteer," and defined a volunteer worker as: "The non-paid person who gives time to furthering the purposes of the agency or organization. He or she may be a hospital aide, agency board member, doorbell ringer in get-out-the-vote drive, youth group leader, etc."

A standard reference book on voluntary health associations by Gunn and Platt defines volunteers as follows: "It was a 'volunteer' who, seeing unattended needs not far from his own doorstep, set out to remedy conditions. A group or society of such volunteers make up the voluntary agency. The society sooner or later engages a professional worker, who gradually replaces the volunteers in the daily tasks except for the routine direction of boards and committees. In time, and especially in emergencies, such organizations call for help from lay volunteers."

The point cannot be made too strongly that this generic definition of a "volunteer" does not adequately describe the volunteer members of the Foundation. The volunteer membership of Foundation chapters differs markedly from that of the organizations described or the definitions given. Foundation volunteers are, for the most part, neither "board members" who employ a professional worker to carry out the daily tasks of the organization nor assistants who are called in during emergencies to help out. The point is that Foundation volunteers both make decisions and actually perform the day-to-day tasks of their organization.

By and large, the Foundation volunteers perform the tasks which in many other voluntary associations are performed by professional personnel. As a matter of fact, you will be interested to learn that the entire paid professional staff of the National Foundation totals just under 500 people. The job of managing this organization is done by volunteers and the import of this role of the Foundation volunteer constitutes one of the major reasons for its success.

Volunteers observe, between the philosophy of the Foundation and that of some other organizations, that we don't use the social-work approach. They have often praised the Foundation because of its truly volunteer character and because of the simiplicity and economy of its operation. Volunteers tell us that they resent those professionals whom David Reisman has characterized as "the full-time planners of other people's short-time bursts of energy." "With the National Foundation," they say, "you feel a spirit of cooperation—of a whole family getting together."

The National Foundation is a large organization divided into 3100 small ones. There is a local chapter in each of the 3100 counties in the United States. Each chapter is managed and operated by lay volunteers whose responsibilities and activities are defined as follows:

1. Making sure that no polio patient—man, woman or child—shall go without the best available care for lack of funds. This is called the Patient Care program.

2. Informing the public about the disease, method of dealing with it, and of the activities and goals of the National Foundation.
3. Raising sufficient funds through the March of Dimes to finance adequately the National Foundation's program of research, professional education, patient care and public education.

The specific tasks which these responsibilities entail are described in detail in a manual for chapters with careful definition of responsibilities and in the March of Dimes guide prepared by national headquarters. There is no formal volunteer training program, except for polio emergency volunteers, or PEV's as they are called, who actually perform bedside care for polio patients in hospitals during time of epidemic emergency.

One unique feature of the Foundation's volunteer membership is that it is composed entirely of lay volunteers, although most chapters have a medical advisory committee consisting of doctors and other professional people who act merely in an advisory capacity. This same composition is employed on the national level also. The national board of trustees consists only of lay volunteers, including its president, Basil O'Connor, who serves entirely without remuneration. All professional committees serve in an advisory role. The national foundation is a voluntary organization in the strictest sense of the word.

Volunteers consider the patient care program to be the heart and soul of the Foundation's program. It requires action on the part of all chapter volunteers year 'round—getting in touch with families of polio patients—where volunteers actually do the interviewing—and use their own judgment in making decisions in each individual case—paying for medical and hospital care—establishing liaison with public, hospital and medical officials.

In terms of dollars alone the patient care program is impressive. Over the years, 68 per cent of all funds raised during the March of Dimes have been spent to assist polio patients—$250,000,000 in the 17-year period 1938-1955.

The most important aspect of the patient care program, as far as volunteers are concerned, however, is the fact that chapters are encouraged to view the patient care program as a *community service*—not as a form of charitable assistance to the needy. Chapters are urged to do everything possible to extend "a neighborly hand to those in need of its services."

Another valuable aspect of the patient care program is that the patient care program *makes an active volunteer membership absolutely essential.* Decisions must be made each year concerning the types of payments to be authorized for some 70,000 to 80,000 patients. This responsibility is delegated entirely to local chapter volunteers *in the community where the funds are raised.* Therefore, volunteers are *"highly involved" in program activity year-'round.*

The volunteers of the Foundation also take an active role in the March of Dimes—or the fund raising part of the program. Smaller blocks of time are devoted to the March of Dimes by volunteers (even though many more volunteers are required)—since the vast majority of March of Dimes volunteers are not recruited until September—the March of Dimes is held in January—and in February the organization is disbanded.

The membership of the March of Dimes has two characteristics which are not generally found in voluntary associations and which go far toward explaining why it is able to function efficiently as a mass organization: *First, it is a temporary organization,* mobilized only for one specific purpose and then dissolved. *Second, it has a high rate of membership turnover,* which makes it possible for a large proportion of the membership to have the *enthusiasm* which generally characterizes new members of an organization—but which often wanes with the years.

Since by any criteria the Foundation is a large organization the relevance of its size to membership participation must be considered. The factor of size, however, has not led to membership apathy in the Foundation for three reasons: First, the large year-'round membership is distributed among the local chapters which are themselves *relatively small organizations.* Second, the system of conducting the affairs of the chapter ensures each member will generally *have some definite assignment to carry out,* thus mitigating against the possibility that apathy will result from inactivity. Third, the

one large local organization of the Foundation, the March of Dimes, is mobilized only for the specific purpose of carrying out its fund-raising function and then is dissolved. All three of these structural features make it possible for the vast majority of the volunteer membership to be affiliated with the Foundation *only at such times as its services are actually needed.*

In contrast to the situation which prevails in many national organizations, the Foundation's local program is quite standardized throughout the country. The patient care program differs from county to county more in magnitude than it does in content. The broad outlines of the March of Dimes are established by national headquarters and followed, with local variations, in most communities. All local organizations are subject to the same rules and regulations and are in direct contact with national headquarters through one of its employees—the state representative. For these reasons, the expectation is that volunteers share a similar image of the kind of organization to which they belong. The images which volunteers have of the Foundation as a voluntary association go far toward explaining its continued interest and participation in its program.

This rather sketchy description of the Foundation's structure will, I hope, provide you the background against which to consider some rather compelling questions:

1. How do we recruit volunteers?
2. Why are so many thousands of people willing—and even eager—to spend countless hours of often heartbreaking and wearying work without thought of financial gain?
3. What keeps them interested and working—often for long years?
4. What do they mean to the organization?
5. What do they mean to America?

In an attempt to answer these questions, in assessing its strengths and weaknesses as it looked toward the future, the National Foundation instituted the most comprehensive survey of voluntary activity ever conducted in this country. The study was made by the Bureau of Applied Social Research of Columbia University and the American Institute of Public Opinion of Princeton, New Jersey. Incidentally its findings have been incorporated in a remarkable book entitled "The Volunteers" by David L. Sills, which you will want to read and to which I am indebted for many of the statistics I quote here today.

Recruitment Sources. A characteristic of voluntary health associations is that their members are not, for the most part, people who have joined on their own initiative—they are, rather, *recruited* by the organization. In the case of the National Foundation, our survey revealed that only 10 per cent of our volunteers joined without a specific invitation. In other words 90 per cent of them were *asked* to join!

A fundamental requirement of any social system is that people must behave in given situational conditions in certain relatively specific ways—"They feel a sense of obligation" to behave in a certain way. In fact, it is generally difficult to persuade people to take any specific course of action, including joining a voluntary association, unless they view this action as a necessary component of the proper *fulfillment of some role obligation.*

For this reason, among others, governments ask their citizens to buy bonds in war-time because of their obligation to their country or to "the boys overseas"—and advertisers tell women that their obligation to their husbands require that they keep their skins young and smooth.

Research among our own volunteers shows that the relationships which are most frequently utilized to obtain recruits are: (1) friendship, (2) community membership, (3) organizational membership.

The role relationship most frequently employed in recruiting is that of *friendship.* Fifty-eight per cent of all volunteers who were recruited were asked by a friend. This is perfectly in accord with the conclusions reached in various studies of how people are influenced. What to buy, what to think about public issues, what entertainment to seek, who to vote for—all have been shown to be decisions in which personal influence plays a very large part.

Volunteers do not, of course, extend invitations to their friends indiscriminately, rather they select people who have already demonstrated their competence and interest in community activities. Typically, this

means that volunteers select people with whom they have worked in other community volunteer activities. They turn to people whom they have assisted on other campaigns —on an exchange for "service rendered basis." Thus, we find that *personal friendship* is of crucial importance in maintaining a constant influx of new members into the Foundation.

Community and organizational relationships were used with nearly equal frequency —in 22 and 20 per cent of all invitations, respectively.

In the case of invitations which invoke the obligations attendant upon *community relationships,* an appeal is made not to an individual's sense of duty toward his friends, or toward an organization, but rather toward the community at large. This type of approach is particularly effective among people who are self-consciously aware of their reputations as community leaders affiliated with all "good causes." One March of Dimes director, for example, explained his acceptance in these terms, "I think this is one way of fulfilling one's responsibility to the community."

One wonderful example of volunteers who respond to the *community* responsibility is the Mothers' March on Polio, that dramatic finale to the March of Dimes which fuses an entire community into a synchronized gesture of fellowship and cooperation for one hour on one night as marching mothers answer the invitation of the porch light. If you have never witnessed a Mothers' March you should do so. It is an experience you will never forget! To go out into the night and see porchlights turning on in every direction—on every street—to see the excitement in the faces of dad, mother and the kids—the whole family—sharing something together—as they wait by the window for the Marching Mother to stop —and to watch the mothers marching—marching—because in their hearts there exists the determined decency to help others! It will bring tears to your eyes and a lump in your throat—and you will be so glad you can be a part of it all!

Perhaps the most significant example of all volunteer activities prompted by a sense of *community responsibility* was the vaccine field trial. A field trial everyone thought impossible—but *made possible* by the cooperative effort and participation of 300,000 volunteers, 20,000 doctors, 40,000 nurses, 50,000 school teachers in 217 communities across the nation. The parents of 1,800,000 children requested that their youngsters be permitted to take part in the trial—volunteering them as the very human tools of research. We proved in the field trials that it was possible to bring together the men of public health, the men of the medical profession, the women of the nursing profession, every level of administration in our school systems, and the hundreds of thousands of volunteers who manned the clinics, and did the most significant job of all—the making out of the mountains of records, which were the essentials for the evaluation study.

We look back at the children who wore their identification tags like medals, the little girls who came in their party frocks, the boys in their scout uniforms—all of them filled with the sense that they were making their moment in history as they rolled up their sleeves and extended their arms—one might say to fight back for their playmates. In our hearts we applauded the gallantry of these youngsters. Polio pioneers we called them—and I must say their courage and spirit cannot be rivaled by pioneers who opened new horizons anywhere, anytime in the history of our country.

Our experience with the vaccine field trial demonstrates another characteristic of the phenomenon of volunteering. In recent years there has been a huge increase in the voluntary services which professional people—doctors, nurses, educators, social workers and many others—contribute to and through voluntary associations.

Invitations extended in the name of an organization come about in a number of ways. Often a community organization is asked by the chairman to assume responsibility for one phase of the March of Dimes, and individual members of the organization are subsequently asked by one of their co-members to carry out specific assignments. The American Legion Auxiliary, the Lion's Club, the Junior Chamber of Commerce, the PTA are among the groups which most often adopt the March of Dimes as an organization project.

Actually, extensive "spade-work" is done year-'round on the national level with the

national leadership of all major women's, men's and youth organizations. The National Foundation takes great pains to acquaint the national leadership of these organizations with its overall program plans through personal contact, national meetings and the preparation of especially designed informative materials. All organizations are kept up-to-date on current developments and provided with materials specifically prepared for distribution through the organizations own channels from the top leadership all the way down to their grass roots membership which resides in each local community.

In this way, great impetus is given to community activity year around and during the March of Dimes since it carries the authority of direct endorsement from the top officials of the organization. Great care also is taken to suggest projects which will fit into the organizations own community service, education and health and welfare activities.

A recent rewarding example of recruiting an army of new volunteers in the polio fight through *organization responsibility* was the launching of the TAP program by the National Foundation. Teens Against Polio, we called it and by reaching out to them through their organizations we were successful in mobilizing the youth of the nation with all of its dynamic energy and enthusiasm—channeling it to serve the *needs* rather than the *fears* of the world.

Here are a few interesting statistics about Foundation volunteers. Although local chapters have on their rolls only an estimated 80,000 volunteers, some 3,000,000 Americans act as March of Dimes volunteers. An important difference between the two groups is the average length of time volunteers have been affiliated with the Foundation. Nearly one out of every five chapter volunteers has been active since the early years of the Foundation. However, only one out of every 20 March of Dimes volunteers is an old-timer.

Partly as a result of this high turn-over rate, March of Dimes volunteers are somewhat younger than chapter volunteers; 59 per cent under 40 years of age, in contrast to only 39 per cent of chapter volunteers. Accordingly they are more likely to be parents of young or adolescent children (71 per cent versus 63 per cent). Men and women are about equally represented in both groups.

Both chapter and March of Dimes volunteers participate widely in other community organizations. Seven out of every 10 belong to at least three organizations other than the Foundation, and many belong to six or more.

Foundation volunteers have generally been residents of their communities for many years; more than two-thirds of both groups have lived in their present communities for 10 years or more, and nearly half were either born where they now live or came to live there when they were children. Occupationally, they are for the most part small businessmen, lawyers, insurance agents, school superintendents, teachers, and the like—people whose status in the community is largely the result of their own efforts rather than inherited from their family's social position.

Motivation—And now, why are so many thousands of people willing to work? What keeps them interested and working? The development of volunteering is no accident. Its explanation derives from deep-seated sociological, anthropological, ethical and psychological factors. From them it is possible to sift out a half-dozen reasons why people volunteer.

a. *The rise in the social status and educational level of American women.* In 1900 government surveys showed less than one in 10 women had completed high school. In 1950 more than 5 per cent had completed college. Many of these women seek outlets for their talents and for self-gratification beyond the responsibilities of housework and family care. Volunteering is a legitimate part of this.

b. *The great increase in leisure time.* The five day week is an accepted part of American life. Working men have far more leisure. Women, too, have more free time because of labor saving devices and the development of packaged goods and services in our economy.

c. *The trend toward smaller family units.* As a nation, our family units are almost 40 per cent smaller than they were at the turn of the century. Along with this shrinking in the size of the household has come the less well-knit

family. Fewer family activities are focused in and take place within the home and around the family unit. Our society has had to create numerous social institutions to replace activities previously associated with the home. Volunteering might well be described as one of the places for a creative outlet, a social outlet with the accompanying satisfaction of shared group experience.

d. *The emphasis in our society on getting ahead.* Ours has been described as an achievement-oriented society. Volunteering derives frequently from the wish to get upward and onward—often from the wish to achieve by one's own efforts in a voluntary way what one may not be able to achieve in a dull job or monotonous home routine. Furthermore, the prestige accorded many volunteers is recognized as an aid, and a perfectly acceptable one, in personal advancement in business and social relations. Not only does the individual see this but we all know that most business groups now encourage their employees to engage in community service activities.

e. *The desire to express in practical ways our religious concepts.* Inherent in the ethical values of our major religions is the concept of service to one's fellow man. In the days of the larger family unit, this often took the form of taking in the widowed sister or caring for the sick. At the turn of the century it was also considered proper to bring baskets of food to the needy, clothes to the destitute. In a complex society such as ours has become, it is far more difficult to engage in direct personal acts of charity. Useful volunteering provides direct personal opportunity to serve one's fellow man.

f. *The need to belong.* As government has become larger the opportunity for the individual to feel a sense of belonging, a sense of identification with his community, becomes more difficult. The great voluntary agencies offer major channels for individuals to participate personally in the organized life of our society. They provide one of the sources of continuing identification of the citizen with his community and his country.

We in the National Foundation recognize that what the volunteer gets from the job is more important than the job itself. We are not like industrial or commercial enterprises in which success can be measured by a comparison of output, sales and costs on a balance sheet. Rather our success is dependent upon the non-monetary rewards our volunteers obtain from our program thus keeping them interested in and loyal to it.

Dr. William Menninger, the noted psychiatrist, sets forth as one of the attributes of the mature personality the ability to think beyond oneself and to give service to the community. Our experience in the National Foundation bears this out. We find that our best volunteers are wholesome, well-integrated persons.

Interestingly enough, most of our best volunteers have not had personal experience with polio. They stay with us because they are provided an opportunity to be a part of a worthwhile community activity.

Our experience in the National Foundation has taught us, too, that our volunteers will work with heartwarming devotion and loyalty when they get recognition for jobs well done. Another factor of significance in keeping our volunteers is the opportunities provided for them to learn about and be close to technical developments in the health field—to develop a kind of expertness in the field in which they are interested.

Finally, in addition to all the more serious factors our studies show that volunteers are more ready to work when there is fun associated with volunteering.

Too frequently the volunteer's expectations exceed his realizations from a volunteering job. We must take great care not to oversell the volunteer job. In addition, we need to plan the organization of volunteer activities and to define specifically enough the role the volunteer can play so that he can carry out significant, meaningful and satisfying work.

Our experience has demonstrated that the staff of professional workers serving with volunteers must be small in numbers and must convey to the volunteer a sense of devotion to the job and integrity in performance at least equal to that which the volunteers expect of themselves.

It is essential to provide the kinds of roles in volunteering which make for a happy and satisfying experience. We have been extremely interested to find that our studies indicate that the volunteers who are our continuing leaders find satisfying experiences in volunteering when it provides an opportunity for them to play one or more roles in the National Foundation—when they are given an opportunity to act in a humanitarian, in an expert capacity or in an organizing capacity.

We see in our Foundation program an opportunity to channel altruistic impulses.

The layman, too, gets a real feeling of satisfaction from being brought in on the ground floor on prospective developments in the scientific field. This means a good deal in terms of giving the volunteer a sense of satisfaction in gaining status among his friends and neighbors because he has become somewhat of an "expert"—and he does have new and special skills acquired in his volunteer role.

We all have seen volunteers who are "natural leaders." A voluntary organization provides rich opportunities for these talents to come to the surface. In our National Foundation chapters our volunteers get concrete opportunities not only to organize tasks, but to see them successfully completed.

The organizer, too, gets rich community recognition for his organizing talent. He is frequently asked to take on other difficult community jobs as a result of his work for the Foundation. Through the means of successful experiences in organization in one agency his horizons are frequently broadened.

This consideration of roles is of course, rather an arbitrary one and we recognize that many volunteers perform all three roles or some combination of them. The description of the roles is, however, interesting because it provides clues for program organization which will enable volunteers to function in the kinds of capacities which will give them the maximum of satisfaction and thus maintain their interest in and loyalty to the program.

Value to Organization and America—I would like to make special mention here of fund raising. None of us could exist without the dimes and dollars solicited from the general public by our volunteers. This often is considered the most mundane and difficult job for the volunteers. This need not be so. Given the right organization with careful attention to motivation, fund raising can and frequently is at least as rewarding as any other volunteering activity. It provides genuine opportunities for the practice of local initiative in fund raising and frequently proves highly satisfactory in providing the volunteer with a sense of accomplishment, a sense of power and a sense of creativity.

And of all, the sense of creativity may be most important. A well-organized fund raising program offers a wonderful way to employ amateur talents. Our society places so much stress on the expert and specialist that increasingly the person who does not have specialist training develops a sense of inadequacy about his ability to function in the community. But our experience has shown again and again that, once we have set the basic policies for our campaigns, there is plenty of room for the local volunteers to figure out adaptations, stunts, special events, unique organization methods through which they can be more effective fund raisers in the local community. We cherish this freedom of initiative for our local volunteers and it means much to them. When this is combined with the preservation of informality in local organization for fund raising, the relative absence of bureaucracy and good personal relationships between the paid staff and the volunteers, we get happy volunteers and good campaigns.

In summary, then, we have seen the volunteer as translated through a voluntary association. We have seen that volunteering carries with it very special meaning, rewards and gratification to the volunteer and that an understanding of this can help shape agency programs. We have seen how the power of people, organized in a common cause, through voluntary association, can move quickly and effectively in a total attack on a single problem.

We have not yet begun to assess the larger significance of all of this. It may well be that the methods proven successful in the conquest of polio will profoundly alter the course of events in our time. Surely there has been demonstrated an unprecedented strength and vitality in the volunteer move-

ment in this country which can be focussed on activities for the good of mankind.

Last year, the secretary of the All-India Women's Congress asked the National Foundation to provide information and to write an article for their journal on how volunteers in America organized to combat polio. She saw in the organization and techniques which had been developed a way in which the women of India could be mobilized against the all pervading, debilitating poverty, disease and ignorance which are the scourges of her country. She saw in the weapons we had forged, greater strength than we, ourselves, could see.

As the National Foundation looks beyond polio toward new horizons and greater victories we shall continue through voluntary association, the glory of a process that will shed shafts of light across the unillumined landscape of tomorrow—standing as a symbol of our democracy which truly permits "man's humanity to man" to flourish and bear fruit.

III. LEADERSHIP SKILLS REQUIRED

By MRS. LEONARD DAVIDOW
Chairman, Public Relations Committee, Girl Scouts of America
Highland Park, Ill.

Purposes of the Girl Scouts of the U.S.A.—To promote the qualities of truth, loyalty, helpfulness, friendliness, courtesy, purity, kindness, obedience, cheerfulness, thriftiness, and kindred virtues among girls, as a preparation for their responsibilities in the home and for service to the community. To direct and coordinate the Girl Scout movement in the United States, its territories, and possessions, and to fix and maintain standards for the movement which will inspire the rising generation with the highest ideals of character, patriotism, conduct and attainment, which purposes shall be nonsectarian, non-political, and not for pecuniary profit.

The Girl Scout Program—The Girl Scout program is an informal educational program designed to help girls put into practice the fundamental principles of the Girl Scout movement. It is carried out in small groups with adult leadership and provides a wide range of activities developed around the interests and needs of girls.

The Size of Girl Scouting—As of September, 1957, there were 3,115,000 registered Girl Scouts. Of this number, 2,388,000 were girl members, and 727,000 were adult members.

The Girl Scouts is a volunteer organization. Nothing illustrates this more graphically than the fact that less than 1 per cent of the 727,000 adults are paid, professional staff members. This means that there are over 700,000 adult volunteers working in Girl Scouting, and the number is constantly growing.

Leadership Skills Required—It is a firm policy of the organization that every adult must be selected on the basis of qualifications for membership, including full voluntary acceptance of the Girl Scout Promise and Laws, ability to perform the job, and willingness and ability to take training for it. In addition, members of boards of directors should be selected so that the group can reflect the spread of social, religious, educational, economic, and civic points of view within the territory covered by its charter.

There are three general categories of skills required.

1. *Ability to work directly with girls* from 7 to 17 years old within the framework of the Girl Scout program, to fulfill the purpose of the organization. Leaders and assistant leaders—about 310,000 of them—need a knowledge and understanding of girls as well as of the program, and we can't forget the requirements of tact, patience, humor and intelligence, as well as a willingness to *lead* girls rather than to *direct* them.
2. *Ability to work with adults in an administrative capacity.* Each of the councils throughout the country is an autonomous unit. It needs capable, experienced volunteers to guide and direct

it in matters of policy, procedure, and practice. It needs, for example, a sound board of directors, a full complement of able officers, and committee members to further the council's program in specialized areas: program, camping, troop organization, public relations, finance—to name just a few.

The national organization, operating within the general lines of policy established by the national council, needs volunteers qualified to establish specific policies and standards. These people must be able to approach problems with a background of knowledge and experience, as well as with an attitude that is national in scope.

3. *Ability to work with adults in a consultive or advisory capacity.* Girl Scout councils, as well as the national organization, need help in highly specialized and technical fields. Many volunteers serve as advisers or consultants in special projects. The services of doctors, lawyers, architects, engineers, as well as "merchant-chiefs" are needed, and gratefully used.

How the Girl Scouts Recruit—Successful placement is primarily a matter of selection, on an individual basis, of people well qualified to do specific jobs. For this reason, in Girl Scouting, placement in a council job is a local responsibility.

After a council determines its manpower needs, it makes careful plans for the recruitment of volunteers. This includes the development of recruitment sources within the community as well as the use of personnel tools—job descriptions, personal interviews, careful matching of the interests and qualifications of the individual with the needs of the job.

The national organization performs the recruitment, selection and placement function for its own manpower needs. In addition, it supplies services to local councils in several ways.

1. It develops promotional material designed to aid in local recruitment. These take the form of brochures, pamphlets, film strips, and recruitment kits.
2. It conducts research in recruitment problems and planning. For example, this fall a special pilot study will be made of leader selection techniques in twelve councils in various sections of the country. The findings of this study will then be shared with all Girl Scout councils, and we hope that councils will find the results helpful in improving their own techniques in the recruitment and selection of leaders.
3. The national organization does recruiting on a national level as an aid to the development of resources within the individual community. Several national organizations—service groups, fraternal groups, civic groups—to mention a few, have adopted volunteer service with the Girl Scouts as a recommended activity for local membership.

How the Girl Scouts Train—The two best words for the Girl Scout training program are *vast* and *comprehensive*. Training opportunities are offered to each of the 727,000 adults, and bringing opportunities to acquire new skills, deepen convictions, and grow in knowledge and understanding.

The development and carrying out of the training program is a shared responsibility of the national organization and the councils. The national organization recommends and makes available the basic standards, content, methods and materials. Councils adapt these to suit their needs. In addition, the national organization conducts training events in all parts of the country to supplement local training programs, and for purposes of demonstration and experiment.

Work in Girl Scouting provides the opportunity for an adult to use skills and abilities in a program of highly significant importance to girls, their communities, and their country. Such work has a wonderful by-product as well. It provides the deep pleasure and satisfaction that result *only* from the use of one's own abilities in the service of others.

Technical Skills Required

By Mrs. JOSEPH W. STILL,
Asst. National Director, Office of Volunteers, American National Red Cross
Washington, D. C.

In the American Red Cross

From its beginning the Red Cross has relied on volunteers to carry out its programs and today there are two million Red Cross volunteers. These men and women and young adults can be classified into two major categories—those who already have skills in their fields such as business executives, doctors, nurses, social workers and stenographers, and those who are trained by the Red Cross for their jobs such as first aid instructors, water safety instructors, Gray Ladies and Motor Service drivers.

An Example of Inservice Training in Technical Skills

First, I shall deal with the Motor Service because it is a Red Cross service that requires training in two different safety courses. These are first aid and Red Cross Driver Education. Both these courses were developed by the national Red Cross in cooperation with other agencies.

Red Cross Motor Service has as its purpose safe and efficient transportation. The volunteer drivers transport people and such items as shipments of blood, disaster supplies and food for mobile feeding operations. Some drivers use their own cars, others drive Red Cross cars, busses, ambulances and mobile canteens. The drivers may be called on at a moment's notice to take a bottle of rare blood to a hospital or help evacuate families threatened by flood, fire, or tornado.

Motor Service is administered in chapters by a volunteer committee. The National Red Cross provides guidance material for the chairman of this committee and sets standards for training.

The main steps in developing this service are: survey of needs for transportation in Red Cross and other agency programs, preparing job descriptions for the volunteers, recruiting, selection, training, supervising, evaluation of each volunteer, recognition, and continuing program evaluation. These principles are common to all Red Cross services as they are to any efficient business operation.

In the recruitment of volunteers for Motor or any volunteer service, there are two major aspects to consider: The potential sources of volunteers and the method of reaching them.

Some sources are: families and friends of volunteers and paid staff, fund raisers, organizations such as the YMCA and the YMHA, retired men and women who can be reached through personnel departments, local government employees, women's clubs and organizations, veterans groups, housing projects, civic and service groups, Volunteer Bureaus, businessmen's clubs and organizations, special interest groups (labor, Negro, farm, foreign language, and religious), schools and colleges—both students and faculty members, Welcome Wagon, and hobby groups.

Shut-ins and people in homes for the handicapped and aged can help with administrative work by addressing envelopes, writing announcements of meetings and training courses, keeping records, and telephoning people to remind them of meetings or to get substitutes when volunteers are unable to take an assignment.

Some methods of reaching potential volunteers: personal letters, newspaper articles, radio and TV announcements, displays, speakers, sponsored ads, church and club bulletins, movies, leaflets, bookmarks for distribution by libraries and through special mailings, and bulletin board announcements.

Recruitment information should always tell where to go, write or call in order to volunteer. He who interviews prospective volunteers should have information about the job to be done, should have a friendly manner, and an ability to size up people.

No one can be accepted for Motor Service who does not have a driver's license.

The training for Motor Service consists of three parts: First, the six-hour Red Cross Driver Education course. This course, does not teach people how to drive, but it

does teach them how to be more skillful and safer drivers. The course covers these subjects: effect of personal characteristics on driving habits, physical fitness and safety, local traffic problems, how a car operates, emergency repairs and car maintenance, automobile insurance, stopping distances, hazardous driving conditions, hazardous driving situations.

This course was prepared with the cooperation of the American Automobile Association. The textbook used is the AAA's *Sportsmanlike Driving*. The chairman of Motor Service organizes the course, but teaching is done by local volunteers—traffic safety experts, representatives of insurance companies, and instructors who know and can teach simple emergency repairs and car maintenance.

The cooperation that chapters have had throughout the country for representatives of the AAA, local, state, and parkway police and other safety representatives has been one of the most gratifying aspects of this training. Insurance representatives have given their time to explain the relation between rates and accidents and have given instruction in filling out accident reports. And the men who have taught the emergency repairs, one of them the husband of a Motor Service chairman, have learned that women can learn to change a tire when they have to.

While the driver education course is primarily for volunteers who will serve through the Red Cross, chapters may give the course to any local group as a public service.

Any adaptation of the course is given by the American Red Cross to the families of servicemen stationed in Europe to help them drive more safely in foreign countries. Army traffic safety experts and members of the foreign local police teach the course.

We recently received word from the League of Red Cross Societies that the government representatives of 17 countries had requested copies of the Instructor's Guide for the course.

The second part of the Motor Service training is first aid. This is essential for Motor Service drivers because first aid is training in accident prevention. Frequently the passengers transported by Motor Service are crippled children, the frail and elderly, the blind, and the injured, and drivers must be ready to handle emergency care. Another reason is that the Red Cross, is a symbol of medical aid and when there is a highway accident and people see the Red Cross, they expect help and our drivers should be able to give it.

The third part of the training is information about the Red Cross. This knowledge builds "esprit." We want all members of the Red Cross to be proud of belonging to an organization whose traditional humanitarian role is revered throughout the world. And we want the volunteer drivers to see their role in relation to that of other volunteers in the Red Cross. The drivers also need information about the Red Cross so they can answer at least some of the questions their passengers ask.

At the end of this three-part training, volunteers who have satisfactorily completed their training receive a certificate and a special Motor Service pin. They are eligible to wear a Red Cross uniform, but that is not required.

In many Red Cross chapters training is continued through meetings, driving skills tests, bulletins and lectures by first aid instructors, psychologists and psychiatrists and safety experts.

Supervising a group of drivers who are out on the road most of the time is not easy, but there are ways of knowing how well they do their jobs. If the drivers are cooperative in taking assignments, if they are punctual, if they check over the cars and report any defects, if they promptly report an accident, if an agency calls or writes to give a special word of praise, the chairman of Motor Service can get a pretty good indication of the drivers' performance. At meetings, the chairman has another vantage point from which to judge the attitudes of the drivers and their problems.

We recommend that the chairman evaluate each driver at least once during the year. And the driver should be told that he will be evaluated. We consider this evaluation of volunteers a form of recognition in itself, for it gives status and importance to the job.

If a volunteer cannot accept the disciplines of the service or is an unsafe driver, he must be released from the service.

Knowing how to praise and when to praise is a skill every chairman needs. For the volunteer, thanks and appreciation are one form of reward for their effort as are promotions and special assignments. One of the subtlest forms of recognition is sound planning for the use of the volunteer's time.

Some Aspects of Volunteering

In covered wagon days, volunteering was part of survival on a "quid pro quo" basis —you help me put up my log cabin, and I'll help you with yours. As towns grew, men of high standing governed their communities as volunteers and their wives went about doing good singly or in small groups.

Today, volunteering is big business. There are national standards, methods and techniques. Civil Service has established criteria for the job of a director of volunteers. And uniform makers throughout the country are trying to make hundreds of thousands of volunteers look trim and attractive.

We have come full circle from the pioneer days and, once again, volunteering is part of the American pattern of living.

Volunteer service is big business, but it is not a monopoly. The competition for volunteers today is intense. It hasn't reached the point where agencies "rush" volunteers as fraternities do, but we may come to it. This competition requires agencies to do a more careful analysis of their programs, and to find ways of presenting their needs, and attracting the right type of volunteer for the right job.

Motivation

In order to appeal to the right individual for the right job we have to understand the reasons why people volunteer. We are familiar with many of the motivations. Any tragic emergency will arouse people—a disaster sends people immediately to the Red Cross. The drowning of a child in an unguarded swimming hole will stimulate the organization of a water safety program.

Friends volunteer because their friends do. Young mothers bored with the daily companionship of three to six-year old minds, welcome a change of scene. Older people unhappy without the work that once gave them satisfaction and position, seek a renewal of those satisfactions. Ambitious people who want status in a community seek a door to it through volunteer service. Many people want to learn something new. Some enjoy acquiring such skills as craft work and do creative work of their own as well as teach these skills to others. Some volunteer because of a need to be associated with a "worthy cause."

Volunteers seek new settings, new people, new experiences. The housewife who had an executive job before marriage and who is tied to a home and children most of the day, finds a stimulating outlet by working two afternoons a week helping with the administrative work of an agency. It refreshes her mental outlook—and makes her more interesting to her husband.

The reasons for volunteering influence the type of job that appeals to a volunteer. We must develop more skills in merchandising volunteer jobs so they will become known to the kinds of people who would want to do them and who could do them well.

Public Relations Value of Volunteers

One reason for the great upsurge in volunteer service is that administrators of organizations and their staffs have learned the value of volunteers as public relations representatives. Administrators of mental hospitals, for example, learned that the volunteers serving in their hospitals talked about the overcrowded facilities, the lack of staff and the pitiable condition of the patients. This kind of talk helped to influence community action.

We know that the presence of enthusiastic, devoted volunteers in homes for the aged helps raise the standards of those institutions. Fund raisers know that their job is easier when there is an army of devoted volunteers telling their families and friends about the work of the organization.

An interesting development in volunteering is that some government agencies are using volunteers. The Welfare Department of the District of Columbia has a paid director of volunteers who has organized a program using hundreds of volunteers in a variety of activities for young and old. These volunteers undoubtedly have learned a great deal about the work of the public welfare department and can interpret it to others.

Using volunteers as a public relations device can backfire. If a job is dreamed up

just so an agency can list some volunteers on a roster, they spot the ruse in short order. The woman who has hired a baby sitter and driven 20 miles to do a job is not going to speak kindly of an organization she believes is taking advantage of her.

Volunteers who try to exploit an organization for social, business or professional advantage can create havoc by promoting their own interests rather than those of the organization. But a smart executive can use such people to public relations advantage, provided he keeps a tight rein, for such volunteers often do a magnificent job because of the very reason that they are ambitious.

Turnover

Turnover in volunteer workers is a barometer useful for measuring many factors in a program. A certain amount of dissatisfaction is essential to progress—it is the burr under the saddle. But too much turnover is a danger signal. And so is too little turnover. People who remain in their volunteer jobs too long tend to indulge in empire building and concentrate more on maintaining a position than on the activities which are a primary objective of the organization.

One way around this problem is to appoint volunteers for a particular length of time, such as one year, to let them know that at the end of that year they will be evaluated, and that one of the points in that evaluation will be how well they have done in developing leaders who could eventually take over their job.

Volunteer-Paid Staff Relationships

The relationships between paid and volunteer staff have been much discussed in workshops, conferences, and over coffee throughout the land. There are many myths about these relationships and to hear some of them you would think there were two Olympuses. On one, the professionals stand looking contemptuously down on the amateurs. On the other, the Lady Bountifuls scornfully look down upon the paid staff.

This is an anachronistic concept of volunteer-paid relationships, as old fashioned as bustles and Model-T's. Today, so many Americans give volunteer service that, for the most part, the relationships between volunteer and paid staff are based on performance and mutual respect.

Hidden Costs of Volunteer Service

Volunteer service is not "free help." Although the volunteers don't get paid, there are numerous costs in the nurture and logistics of volunteer service. In almost every organization giving continuous service there is paid staff that develops organizational planning. A qualified staff is needed to develop training materials and must keep up with new training ideas and methods of teaching.

Visual aids alone these days are a big item in training budgets. In the production of a training manual, for example, there are the costs of writing, designing, printing and distribution. Recruitment material and ideas must be developed and disseminated. These days, just the costs of handling correspondence are enormous.

There must be someone to plan the work of the volunteers, schedule them and supervise them. If there are uniforms, even though the volunteers buy them, there are costs of design, testing materials in all climates and special settings such as hospital operating rooms where synthetic materials can be hazardous, and answering complaints. In the Red Cross, uniforms are a chronic headache because no matter how you try, you can't please thousands of women with the same outfit.

Another expense in volunteer service is recognition items such as pins and certificates, and special recognition ceremonies.

And, of course, there is the hidden cost of mutual aid that agencies give each other. A great deal of our work in the Red Cross is helping other agencies in their programs, consulting with them on problems they are encountering, and giving them the benefit of our experience. And there is the aid other agencies give the Red Cross such as we get from the National Safety Council, the AAA and many others.

Values of Volunteer Service

While volunteer service is not "free," it is freely given by the volunteers, different from the kind of volunteering that I've heard takes place in the army when a sergeant bellows: I want three volunteers—you—you—and you. And because the kind of volunteering I have been discussing is freely given, it should be valued when the gift comes from an interested, capable, and reliable volunteer.

These volunteers bring more than extra hands and feet. To a staff frustrated by the same old problems, volunteers bring a fresh approach and outlook. They view things with an innocent eye that often sees solutions to old problems. They raise the tone of an operation in many subtle ways. Their new ideas stimulate and rejuvenate old programs. Volunteer service is thrice blessed. It blesses him that volunteers, him that guides, and the goal towards which they both work together.

DISCUSSION

By MARJORIE B. MAY

Dir., Home and School Div., Greater New York Safety Council, New York City

We have just had the pleasure of hearing a very interesting series of statements from a panel trained and experienced in the recruitment and successful use of volunteers. The potential value to us in the safety field is very high, but the true worth is dependent upon our own abilities to adapt these suggestions to meet our specific needs for our problems are somewhat different from those of the previous speakers.

First, we are dealing with an intangible. This intangible is even more difficult to understand because of our very nature—a heritage of pioneering and gambling spirit, and the negative concept fostered by the many well-meaning, sincere men who created and adopted the well-known slogan of "Safety First." Changing that negative approach from the "don't" to the positive "do, but do correctly" which we use today has been a slow process.

We are engaged, for the greater part, in an educational program which must be continuous and directed at the encouragement of individuals to change their attitudes, habits and physical environment wherever and whenever possible—not for just one day, week or month, but throughout their lives. Safety is an important part of living and cannot be separated from our daily activities. It must be with us both consciously and unconsciously, at all times, if we are to survive.

Second, safety is a myriad-faceted problem for which there is no panacea. There will never be a serum to make one accident free in even one respect. We shall never have the opportunity to see dramatic results in accident prevention such as New York City witnessed with the widespread inoculation of children against diphtheria. In one year, there were a thousand deaths from this killing disease and in the following year, just one. Nor shall we see strides comparable to those being made presently in the eradication of the dreaded polio, which, at its worst, killed only one-tenth the number of children we lose annually through accidents.

Then, there is the matter of measuring results. In our field it is much more difficult and takes far longer than in other fields. Most of the time we do not have satisfaction of knowing which, and how many, accidents have been prevented through our efforts. Statistical changes take years to show up. Perhaps, we should develop some direct service like driving accident victims to hospitals for care.

Fortunately, we need never worry about keeping our volunteers busy. There is so much to be done, we find it hard to keep from overburdening them. As for their willingness to be of service, I have never known a more sincere or dedicated group of volunteers than those interested in safety. In the more than 14 years during which I have been actively associated with such work, regardless of the inconvenience no one has ever refused any request I have made for assistance unless it was a physical impossibility to comply.

Although we can never repay these people for their work, moral support and devotion, I do not believe we do enough to show at least some small measure of appreciation.

A safety council does not have a set program which is carried out in the same way by all organizations or groups accepting it. We work differently in that we help an organization with *its* program—and each one

has its own variations. We look at *your* problems and try to develop programs to fit *your* specific needs by adapting ideas and materials to suit the purpose.

The reduction of accidents in your community (city, state or even the nation) is dependent upon the success of many such local cooperative and coordinated programs, official and voluntary in nature.

Very few safety councils go to the public directly for funds. Some receive funds through the Community Chest; we, in New York, do not. Our financial support comes from company memberships and a small number of individual memberships. There are no subsidies or grants except in the rare instances where such funds are earmarked for special projects.

In the same way, we do not go to the public directly to recruit volunteers. Each interested organization appoints one or more persons to work with us. Safety engineers and supervisors in various companies, representatives from official and voluntary agencies and the safety chairmen from such community groups as PTA's, civic and service clubs, and many, many others make up the large body of our volunteers. Only occasionally an individual does come to offer his or her services. This is generally after a serious personal injury or the loss of some member of the family.

You and your organizations hold the key to our recruitment problem. We must convince you of the importance of accident prevention and then, in turn, you must give us your support and assistance by sending your representatives to work with us in developing a program for you and the community.

By LUIDA E. SANDERS

Chairman, Home Safety Committee, Wisconsin Council of Safety
Madison, Wis.

I am impressed with the possibilities for tapping volunteer services. I'm impressed in two ways. As chairman of the home safety committee of the Wisconsin Safety Council I'm intrigued with the idea of all this volunteer help just waiting to be called in and put to work. As a volunteer I resent the implication that my talents and time are to be manipulated or used by professionals in the way in which they decide I ought to go.

I probably should admit at this point that my experience with safety work has been limited to Wisconsin and to a few programs. So, I would like to confine what I have to say to how I feel we might apply some of the principles and techniques suggested in two programs I'm especially concerned with at the moment.

The first program is that of our home safety committee itself. This committee is now made up of 14 persons representing either local councils or statewide organizations. I'm not really sure any of us are volunteers in the true sense of the word. It was mostly a case of "you are chosen."

Could we use more volunteers? Yes, but only on the basis of representatives from other organizations.

The would-be "volunteers" should be invited by "persons of recognized status and power position." Obviously, my calling or stopping in isn't enough. It should be "council president" or "chairmen of board of trustees." Since the new volunteers, we hope, will share the safety message with others in their organizations, *who* they are ought to be given very careful thoug't. Of course, the assignment of just anyone who happens to be around limits this effectiveness. I suspect that officers in local councils ought to be encouraged to take a similar look at who their committee members are or ought to be when they are attempting to work out community programs. I suspect we too could profitably consider a "training" program, or at least some orientation. Now newcomers learn in spite of us. And Mr. Johnson's other suggestion—developing a feeling of success—probably should have some formal consideration and more emphasis than we have been giving it.

Many of Mrs. Fuerst's suggestions might be applied to another group I'm working with. The board members of a county health council association are presently considering a safety program to be recommended to

their local councils. It is hoped that this may develop into a more or less permanent safety sub-committee on a county basis and later in the village councils.

First, the present health council members need to become aware of the importance of the accident problem. This process was begun this fall by a keynote speaker at the annual meeting, and a simple study was conducted by public health nurses. If this program is to grow, I think new members must be sought. And here, again, the personal appeal in getting people to volunteer seems indicated. Certainly just a public announcement won't do the job.

What this council association does will be guided by the board members—all of them volunteers. There's no close supervision by state or national organizations. Those of us who work with the state safety council have been asked for help on safety. I have an uncomfortable feeling that along with the safety ideas might go some of this manipulating—guidance sounds nicer—so that the right people are chosen and given the right help in selecting and carrying out safety programs.

Training in leadership skills, as Mrs. Davidow and Mrs. Skill suggested, would be extremely valuable both in the county program and in the state home safety committee and in fact ought to be included in planning.

My assignment was to consider desirability and feasibility for safety councils of the suggestions our speakers have made.

Certainly the personal approach in getting people to volunteer and to keep working in safety councils is both desirable and feasible. So is the idea of helping the volunteer to feel himself or herself an important part of the program.

I have some doubts about the feasibility of volunteer leadership training programs at the present time. In our local situation there is neither staff, time nor funds to initiate one on a practical scale.

I do not think it desirable for any trained professional or paid staff to come from the outside and say to volunteers this is what you need and this is how you've got to spend your time getting it. What they do in the local situation and how they do it, I feel, should be their own response to the needs they feel and see. The fumbling about with a minimum of guidance from outside may seem frustrating at times, but it can be a real learning experience and I think a much more lasting contribution to safety in their own community.

CITIZEN LEADERSHIP ON BOARDS AND COMMITTEES

By JAMES K. WILLIAMS
Executive Director, Connecticut Safety Commission, Hartford, Conn.

Throughout the country, thousands of citizens are today serving as members of boards and various types of committees in hundreds of community safety organizations. Active citizen participation is essential to the effective operation of safety organizations, especially those with a responsibility for developing and sustaining public support for official programs.

When sound methods are used, a system of citizen boards and committees, working cooperatively with professionals, maintains an important balance between expert service and popular control. Both official public agencies and voluntary community organizations today make extensive use of citizen leadership on policy-making boards and advisory committees.

Because of the important role that citizen leadership today plays in community safety organizations, the philosophy and operating practices of citizen boards and committees require constant attention by both the professional and volunteer leaders.

Over a period of time, boards develop certain traits and habits, just as do individuals. While public and voluntary agency boards differ in some respects, their functions and duties as policy-making groups are alike. The policy-making function is a vital part of the administration of any organization. A policy is a definite course of action adopted by the governing board of an organization. It clearly defines purposes and objectives and also the methods of accomplishing the objectives. A good framework

of policy is a necessary guide for both the professional staff and the volunteer leadership. One concept of a governing board's responsibility may be stated in this way:

> Policy *planning* is a responsibility of both the governing board, committee members and the professional staff. Policy *determination* is the responsibility of the governing board alone. However, policy execution is the responsibility of the staff executive and his staff. Once policies are established, it is the task of the professional staff to see that they are effectively implemented.

When this concept of responsibilities is not clearly understood by both the board members and the staff executive, considerable confusion can and does result. Lack of a clear understanding about responsibility for policy may seriously affect the total operation of an organization.

A community safety organization, like any other type of organization, has a great deal of work to do if it is to accomplish its purpose. Some of the work can be done by the citizen leaders on the governing board; some must be done by the professional staff. There are some functions, however, that are best carried out by small working groups of individuals.

The determination of the number, size and functions of committees in any organization requires thorough study. Having a committee just for the sake of having a committee is not any reason at all. Too many organizations suffer from a serious affliction called "committee-itis." A great many volunteers complain that their responsibilities consist of a vicious cycle of committee meetings. Even staff executives often complain that they must attend so many committee meetings that they don't have time to perform other necessary functions.

There is no slide rule formula by which the leadership of an organization can determine whether or not a committee should be appointed. Unless you can put down precisely what the job of a committee is, chances are it is not needed.

Too often the reason a committee fails is that it has no real and important job to do, or its purpose and function are not clearly understood by the chairman and members of the committee. Before a committee is established, it should be possible to answer "Definitely Yes" to each of the following questions:

1. Is there a definite job to be done or a real problem to be solved?

2. Can it be handled better by a committee than by any available individual or organization?

3. Are interested and qualified people available to serve on the proposed committee?

Whenever two or more people associate together to accomplish a common objective or purpose, their efforts must to some degree be organized. All through history people have associated or banded together to reach certain objectives that can best be attained through group effort. The continual efforts to increase the effectiveness of group activity have developed an important type of leadership known as management.

Effective management must be based upon democratic philosophies, sound policies and efficient practices. Above all, it requires effective "teamwork" between the volunteer and professional leadership of an organization.

IN A LOCAL SAFETY COUNCIL

By RICHARD K. AYERS
Managing Director, Metropolitan Safety Council, Denver, Colo.

One of the surest signs of decadence in any organization, in my view, is its failure to continuously upgrade—to look for and make use of its opportunities. Certainly, we must explore what others have tried and proven beneficial. We must see where their successes can be fitted into our needs.

At the meeting of managers of state and local safety organizations, I attempted to show how increased confidence in an or-

ganization can be only gained when an organization has (1) competence, (2) cohesiveness, and (3) communications.

Certainly accidents happen to us where we live, where we work, where we play, and where we raise our families. To meet our growth challenge we must take our program there. To accomplish this effectively takes competence, cohesiveness and communications on the local level—not haphazard and topsy-turvy spurts and starts.

Every local organization must be vitally interested in growth through the use of properly recruited and adequately indoctrinated volunteers. Without them and their help we can accomplish but a small portion of our responsibilities.

One of my old professors (Irwin Edman), once said "If it should ever become epidemic for all the people in the world to become concerned with the removable evils of the world, these evils would soon disappear." This may be a key to one of our greatest problems and a guide for our progress.

The panelists have emphasized the use of proper volunteers—volunteers capable of giving stature and influence, volunteers able to do the job that needs being done and willing to tackle the job and carry it through.

Perhaps they have implied our reference to the term "Volunteer" is wrong. Maybe the term itself is wrong; maybe its connotation is wrong. At least, they have pointed to the need for people carefully selected or cultivated, properly trained and then used where their abilities fit the needs.

This must alert us to the need for planned recruiting and development of our volunteers and their integration into our programs. Maybe we could use some help in this phase. Perhaps the National Safety Council could provide worthwhile help in developing guides and tools.

Then it is pointed out we must train these volunteers and use them. I would like to add one note of caution here. In our work it seems important that we never expect our volunteers to become safety experts and duplicate the abilities of the experts that every community has available. Rather we must provide experts as consultants and use the volunteers to do the job they are really capable of doing. We need to utilize every expert available and integrate their use with the volunteers to the best advantage of our programs.

This may indicate a need for a study of training materials that could well be made by the National Safety Council.

It does seem to me that one of the best advantages we in safety have is the wealth of safety in so many other organizations. Sure it is often raw and untrained—pointed toward low priority, or even non-priority, objectives—but it is there! Maybe one of our real challenges is to make effective use of this volunteer material in batches—the whole organization, with its own organizational mechanics. Through providing facts, priorities, programming and training. Selling the entire organization and doing an adequate job of coordination community-wide. Maybe we need national material on this, and national cultivation of major organizations in a more effective manner.

Through all these implications I can see a thread of doubt running. In this busy stage of our movement with all its crash demands, isn't it so often easier and quicker to go do the job ourselves than to take the time and effort to recruit and train and supervise volunteers?

But if we do this, how shall we spread? We are forever limited by our own lack of capacity!

This is certainly a unique age in which we are living. Today we are so filled with atoms and bombs, missiles and satelites, sputniks and mutniks, vanguards and explorers, superscience, superbrains, space and the stars.

It is good we should be concerned with these things, but it is even better we are today concerned with first things—making our own communities safer places in which to live, to work, to play and to raise our families. We can only accomplish this through spreading our usefulness and our impact by the proper use of volunteers. We must improve our guidelines and our tools for using our volunteers to help make our local safety organizations more effective in reducing accidents.

We must upgrade our competence, our cohesiveness, our communications!

HOW DO WE GET OUR INFORMATION IN HOME SAFETY?

THROUGH THE NATIONAL HEALTH SURVEY

By PHILIP S. LAWRENCE, Sc.D., Chief, Survey Analysis
National Health Survey Program, U. S. Public Health Service, Washington, D. C.

Throughout the years the Public Health Service has had constant requests for information concerning the number and kinds of illnesses and injuries in the nation, the extent of disability which these cause and the extent of medical care required. To answer these questions heavy reliance has been placed upon the findings of the National Health Survey of 1936, upon community or industrial studies and upon state reports of deaths and accidents.

In recent years there have been tremendous changes in the population, changes in the environmental risks to which people are exposed and great advances in health and medical care fields. These changes have created an urgent need for an up to date *national* panorama of the health of the people. It is this need which the National Health Survey Program hopes to fill.

The program was authorized by Congress about two years ago and collection of data started in July of 1957. The authorization for the program contains three features that are of interest in connection with methods of obtaining health information. First, the bill says that the survey should be on a continuing basis rather than a one-time attempt to collect immediate data; second, it says that the *methods* of obtaining illness and injury data must be studied concurrently with the data collection.

The third feature specifically recognizes the interests of other agencies and nongovernmental groups in the business of obtaining and using morbidity and injury statistics. It directs us to consult with federal agencies and state health departments and to utilize the services of public agencies insofar as possible. We feel that the National Health Survey is designed to support other existing programs and that other groups must continue to carry on studies in their own geographic and subject-matter areas.

In this national panorama of the health of the people there are many different areas. We obtain information on acute illnesses and chronic diseases, on medical care and dental care, on hospitalization and on disability. Although accidental injury is only one area in this picture, it is an extensive area and, within this, home injury is predominant. We tabulate only injuries which cause restriction of a person's activities for a day or more, or which resulted in medical consultation. Yet during a year we counted about 47 million such injuries and, of these, 40 per cent occurred at home.

How We Obtain Our Data

I said we counted 47 million injuries. This is, of course, only a figure of speech. We actually made an estimate by means of a scientifically designed sample of the United States. This count from the sample was expanded to give a national estimate for which we can measure the margin of error due to the sampling procedure. From among 1900 counties or groups of counties into which the whole country is divided, 372 are obtained in the first stage of sampling. Further sampling stages yield the final units, called segments, each of which contains about six dwelling units where the interviewer knocks on the door.

Interviewing is done continuously throughout the year but each week's sample is a representative sample of the nation. This makes it possible to produce weekly estimates of events that occur often in the population, or to combine weekly samples to obtain quarterly or annual estimates for less frequent events or for sub-groups of the population.

About 6,000 segments, or 36,000 households containing roughly 115,000 persons, are included in the interviews during the course of one year. These households are scattered through every state, but the sample is not designed to produce independent state estimates. One year's data will provide estimates for 12 major geographic sections,

for 8 metropolitan areas, or for metropolitan, urban, rural and rural farm divisions of the nation.

The interviews are conducted by 125 interviewers who are under the guidance and supervision of the Bureau of Census. The data are obtained according to specifications of the Public Health Service.

In a program of this kind the question of reliability of the basic data is of primary importance. For this reason numerous controls are built into the program for the purpose of maintaining quality. Interviewers are selected by examination and are further selected and trained in several steps, including group sessions and supervisor observation of practice interviews. Several times each year refresher courses are given to both interviewers and supervisors. Once each month written examinations are sent to interviewers to be completed and returned for grading.

The Survey also includes, as a continuing procedure, re-interviews by the supervisors at about one-sixth of all households. A final evaluation of interview quality is made at the data processing stage where errors and omissions by each interviewer are routinely tabulated and transmitted to regional supervisors. During other steps of data processing, further controls take place. For example, all coding of medical conditions is independently duplicated. The codes are then compared and differences are corrected.

The Questionnaire

Interviews are conducted with a responsible adult in the home, with the requirements that all adults present at the time must be interviewed for themselves and that no one may be the respondent for any unrelated person. The interviewer does not ask about deceased members of the household. Therefore we do not obtain data on injuries from which the person died within a few days after the accident.

Let me assume that an interviewer has called at a dwelling place. She has asked about the composition of the household, and obtained for each member, such personal characteristics as relationship, age, sex, race, marital status and education. She now asks a series of questions to obtain information about the presence of current illnesses, injuries, chronic diseases, or impairments.

Among these questions there are three which are most likely to reveal an injury condition. "Last week or the week before, did you have any accidents or injuries, either at home or away from home? Last week or the week before did you feel any ill effects from an earlier accident or injury? Does anyone in the family have any of these conditions?" Following the last of these questions the interviewer slowly reads a list which includes permanent impairments such as deafness, serious trouble with vision, amputations, paralysis, stiffness, or deformities.

These questions result in two types of measurement of accidental injury. One type consists of the prevalence of impairments or aftereffects of accidents that occurred at some time in the past. The other is the incidence or rate of occurrence of new accidental injuries within the preceding two weeks. To measure the incidence of injury a two-week recall period is used. Two weeks was selected as a reasonable time interval for which people could remember the occurrence of acute conditions or injuries. Studies have indicated that longer recall periods result in loss of information. On the other hand *within* a two-week period there appears to be very little memory loss for injuries, since about half of the tabulated injuries were reported as having occurred "last week" and half the "week before."

Let me assume that the respondent has reported some sort of accidental injury. Our interviewer records the condition and then asks additional questions to further define the *nature* of the injury. She asks, "Did you ever talk to a doctor about it? What did the doctor say it was—did he use any medical terms? What kind of injury was it? What part of the body was hurt?"

Having defined the kind of injury, the interviewer now asks about the time and place of the accident. "When did it happen? Where did it happen? Was a car, truck, bus or other motor vehicle involved in any way? Were you at your job or business when the accident happened?" These questions permit us to separate accidents which happened in or about the home from other types. They further define whether the accident itself occurred in the preceding two weeks or whether the condition reported is an aftereffect which resulted from an earlier accident.

Information is not obtained as to how the accident happened. We know at this point,

for example, whether it resulted in a burn or a fracture or an amputation, but we do not know whether the immediate cause was an explosion, a fall or a collision. The kind of information needed to classify accidents by type cannot be accurately obtained from a few brief questions. In our aim to provide a panorama which includes many areas of health and medical care we have had to sacrifice even some rather basic information on each topic. The type of accident is one of these sacrifices.

How Do We Measure The Effects of Injuries?

The principal advantage of the household survey method is that certain types of information can best be obtained from the people themselves. This is true with respect to how the lives of people are affected by illness or injury, and what actions they take in relation to these conditions.

Our hypothetical interviewer has already asked about one kind of action that has been taken—whether the person has consulted a doctor. She is now ready to find out about other actions taken, and she proceeds with several questions. "Last week or the week before did this injury cause you to cut down on your usual activities for as much as a day? How many days? How many of these days were you in bed all or most of the day? How many days did the injury keep you from going to work?" In the case of a child, "How many days did it keep him from going to school?" Our interviewer then asks whether the person has any of several types of permanent or long-lasting limitations of activity or of mobility. Finally she inquires about the person's hospital experience.

We consider a positive response to any of these questions as a form of disability. In other words, we define "disability" as a general term used to describe any temporary or long-term reduction of a person's activity. The least severe criterion of disability in our data would be full day of restriction of usual activity which did not involve confinement to bed. From this point further degrees of severity of disability can be defined, depending upon whether there were bed days, hospital days, or some type of chronic limitation. School loss days or work loss days are special cases which refer to the population of children or of persons who usually work.

Information on disability is of primary interest to many people. It is around some concept of disability that programs are often defined and that the economic consequences of ill health or injury are often measured. The word "disability" is not only widely used, but has taken on a wide variety of meanings for the purposes of different kinds of programs. I do not want to describe the many different ways by which disability is classified. It is important to note, however, that tabulations which include, or exclude, injuries on the basis of different definitions of disability are almost certain to lead to different estimates of the rate of occurrence of injuries. Reports of injuries by various organizations may all be reliable reports, but still may differ because of the sources of data and the definitions employed.

In the National Health Survey interviews, respondents report all degrees of injury to us. However, we tabulate and publish information only on injuries for which the person had consulted a doctor or which caused the person to cut down on his usual activities for at least one full day. Injuries of this degree amount to about 56 per cent of all injuries, or 51 per cent of the home injuries, that the respondents have told us about. We, as well as others, have been surprised at the large volume of injuries shown in publications from the National Health Survey. Yet these figures include little more than half of the injuries originally reported to us in the household interviews.

What The National Health Survey Program Can and Cannot Do.

From this account of the way in which the survey is conducted, and how we measure injuries, it is apparent that there are many questions that cannot be effectively answered by the household survey of the National Health Survey Program.

First of all, we cannot estimate the number of *accidents* because we have no way of connecting together several people who may have been injured in the same accident. We can estimate the number of injuries or the average number of persons injured.

Because we use a two-week recall period we cannot count the number of people who had any given number of accidents during a period of say one year. We cannot, therefore, study the question of accident-prone individuals.

The National Health Survey cannot provide any detailed epidemiological information such as the circumstances that led up to the accident, or the kinds of equipment, or names of products that were involved. Epidemiological research of these types can be, and should be, made by smaller, more intensive studies which might employ sources of data other than a household survey.

The survey covers only the experience in the preceding two weeks for people who were *living* at the time of the interview. For this reason the survey cannot furnish information about injuries that result in death within a few days of the accident. The kinds of fatal injuries, the amount of hospital and physician care required and the circumstances of the fatal accident must be obtained from other sources of data.

We cannot provide clinical or detailed diagnostic data. A respondent probably could not tell us that he had a Colles' fracture of the radius, but he could tell us that he broke his lower arm. Yet detailed diagnostic information might be needed, for example, in a program which aims to develop protective equipment.

Finally, within its present scope, the National Health Survey is unable to obtain estimates of injuries for individual states, counties or communities. A city which desired to obtain illness or injury information from its own population sample could, however, employ methods of interviewing and of questionnaire design similar to those of the National Health Survey.

It is evident that there are many things about home injuries which we are not prepared to answer and which should be answered by other methods or by local research projects. However, there are some types of information that can be more effectively obtained by this survey than from any other present sources or methods.

THROUGH A LOCAL SURVEY

By DR. GEORGE W. STARBUCK
Medical Chairman, Greater New Bedford Children's Accident Prevention Program
New Bedford, Mass.

The evolution of accident prevention in New Bedford, Mass., has probably been very similar to that of other communities.

Our overall accident prevention program at New Bedford has led us to develop a survey questionnaire covering many aspects of any given accident. From this questionnaire we were able to learn that there are certain factors, such as emotional instability, discipline and attitude, which are of vital importance to prevention, but we didn't have any real information pertinent to these factors.

From the study of these surveys we boiled down the points that were most pertinent, and are now drawing up an application for an N.I.H. grant to study the one we consider to be most important. There are many other points which we would like to pursue, but if one considers all the ramifications that would come, say, from undertaking a study of just emotional instability alone in relation to accidents, one realizes it is obviously impossible to study all the points.

We hope that by attacking the problem this way it will be possible to come up with some answers needed in accident prevention work, especially from the standpoint of education and understanding the family. Then we can ascertain which social agencies and other community resources, including police, welfare, etc. ought to be brought into a more active part in solving these problems.

Our group in New Bedford feels that the answer to the problem is much deeper than we were able to reveal during the first four years of the community program. We were unable to give specific leads and specific accident information that might prevent future accidents. We felt that since we didn't have this information—and it doesn't seem to be available anywhere—the normal step would be to investigate what bothered us most. Therefore, we have gone over into the research aspect of accident prevention.

It is conceivable that other studies may utilize to advantage some of our survey material. As a result of this, research in accident prevention probably will increase.

THROUGH A SAMPLE SURVEY

By EMIL A. TIBONI
Chief, Community Hygiene Section, Division of Environmental Health, Department of Public Health of Philadelphia

The desire to collect data as a foundation for program development seems to have been an almost universal urge among persons developing accident prevention programs as evidenced by a review of the history of many accident control programs across the country. This is no doubt the way we should proceed since data collection represents the accepted first step in the classic approach to solving any problem.

Those of us responsible for the accident prevention program of the Philadelphia Department of Public Health desired to seek what is probably the most difficult type of data to obtain in the accident prevention field, namely a measurement of the incidence of all types of injuries occurring in the community.

To achieve this end we began a household survey in October of 1956. This survey was planned to continue for two years, one year in each of two health districts. One of the districts, District 1, has a population of about 130,000 persons and covers an area in center city which is mostly of poor quality row house construction with small yards, or none at all, and considerable intermixture of nonresidential uses. The population is predominantly of a lower socio-economic-educational level, with some marked exceptions.

The other district, District 10, has a population of over 150,000 persons and is located in the extreme northeastern end of the city about 15 to 17 miles from the center. It is largely suburban to rural in nature with a generally middle class socio-economic-educational level of population. Housing is largely single detached or twin type construction in good condition and with reasonably large yards.

We did not feel that these districts represented the city as a whole. Rather, they represented the approximate extremes of environment and population characteristics.

We have completed field work and preliminary analysis of data in District 1 and are currently completing field work in District 10.

The survey had three objectives. They were: (1) To establish the incidence of all types of accidental injuries in two areas of contrasting socio-economic-educational levels of population; (2) to provide data to guide the development of a general accident prevention program and the design of specific measures for preventing accidental injuries in the home; (3) to establish a base line for evaluating the effectiveness of the general program and the specific control measures.

In view of our limited resources, it was decided to conduct the survey on the basis of a rather thin sample approximating six per cent. Since we have not yet completed the field work of District 10, discussion of the survey results will be in terms of experience and findings in District 1, the center city district.

Methods and Procedures

After reviewing the available information, it was decided to use the census block as the sampling unit. The block was used as the basis for selecting the sample because the information to identify each block was readily available. In contrast, it was felt that the gathering of the information necessary to identify each household or person in the health district would prove to be too costly for our resources.

The choice of the block as the basic unit of the sample also reduced the travel time of the interviewers since they were responsible for completing interviews in all of the households of the blocks selected.

The blocks were identified by use of the numbers assigned to them by the 1950 census. They were then selected through the use of a table of random numbers. The selected blocks were assigned to the interviewers at random in the order of selection. In all, a total of 104 blocks was selected by this method, of which 36 were reported as nonresidential.

Interviewing

Interviews were conducted by two of our entering level sanitarians with college de-

grees and appreciable field experience. These men received special training in interview techniques which were especially developed for this survey.

Each block assignment was accompanied by duplicate copies of a map of the block. The interviewer investigated the block and made corrections as to presence or absence of structures. In addition, he noted structures which were nonresidential.

An introductory letter was left at each household announcing the coming visit of the interviewer and describing the survey. This was the only advance information provided since it was felt that additional information might temporarily affect the injury experience and reporting of the population surveyed.

An attempt was made to interview a responsible member of every household in the block. If necessary, call-backs were made until the interview was completed, the interview was refused or the dwelling was found to be vacant. The number of occupied households where no contact was made was very small.

In each of the households surveyed, the respondent answered for all of the other members of the household. In most cases the respondent was either the wife or the female head of the house.

Forms

Two forms were used in the survey. The first of these was the Household Schedule. This form was completed for each household by asking the various questions as they appear in the schedule. Subjective evaluations of the structure and premises by the interviewer were also recorded in this form.

The second form, the Home Injury Schedule, was completed for each injury reported as having been sustained in the home. This form employed both pre-coded and narrative responses to a series of questions designed to ascertain the nature, circumstances and outcome of the injury.

Procedures

Procedures were controlled by direct supervision of field and office personnel and by detailed manuals.

Summary of Data

Data have been coded and transferred to IBM cards. From them a large number of tables has been prepared. Discussion here will be concerned with the general characteristics of the surveyed population in Health District I and examination of some of the significant findings.

Since the same methods and procedures are being used in Health District 10, we are delaying final interpretation of the detailed findings until comparison of the data from the two districts can be made.

The age, race and sex distribution was tested by comparing it with the same distribution of the population in this area reported in the 1950 census. The differences for all three characteristics were highly significant. This was not entirely unexpected in view of known changes in population in some portions of the area which have taken place in the seven-year period since the census. At the moment, we are not prepared to say that the data are not representative but we are unable to objectively determine the reliability of the sampling technique used in the survey.

Injuries were classified as major or minor. A major injury was defined as one which met one of the following requirements: (a) Treatment by a trained person from outside the household or by a physician; (b) Loss of time of one hour or more from usual activities; (c) Additional expenses of $1.00 or more.

A minor injury was one which did not meet any of the above criteria.

Respondents were asked to report major injuries which had occurred during the four weeks prior to the interview. Minor injuries were reported for the three days prior to the interview.

A comparison of the major injuries reported with the findings of the National Health Survey indicates apparent "underreporting" by respondents in this survey. If this actually occurred, a possible reason was a suspected lack of communion between the interviewer and the respondent in many cases. This appears to have been associated with the relatively low socio-economic-educational level of so much of the surveyed population.

We also determined an excess of injuries for females of both races over males. This is in contrast to the findings of the National Health Survey where the number of injuries

to males was much larger than to females. It is believed that the possible under-reporting referred to is, for the most part, under-reporting of injuries to males in the surveyed population. Speculation as to the reason for this again led to the social characteristics of the group in which the relatively loose family ties existing in many of the households may have diminished interest and did not provide the usual female respondent with the knowledge necessary to accurately report the injury experience of male members.

There was a relatively high frequency of accidents in the home as compared to other classes. This again may have resulted from the respondents' bias.

Another apparent evidence of bias appears in the fact that although the respondents comprised only one-third of the persons included in the survey, they accounted for more than half of the injuries reported. This is true for both major and minor injuries.

Evaluation of Methods and Procedures

The evaluation of the methods and procedures used in the survey may be done by determining their effectiveness in achieving the objectives of the survey.

The validity of the data gathered in this survey as measures of the true incidence of accidental injuries in the population of the health district is open to question. In addition to the suspected under-reporting explained previously, there is a question as to whether or not the surveyed population comprised a representative sample.

Since the sampling unit was the census block, the random selection of these units implies that the households and the residents within each block selected and surveyed would be representative of the households and the residents of the health district. In addition, the inclusion of nonresidential blocks in the universe from which the sample was chosen implies that the number of these blocks which were included in the sample would not vary significantly from the proportion of nonresidential blocks in the universe total.

Unfortunately, no estimate of the population characteristics of the health district was available for the period in which the survey was made. The only data available were obtained from the 1950 census. These data were not considered completely satisfactory for testing the sample because of the time difference and the known changes of population in the district. A further study of this question will be made when later census data are made available.

The value of the data as guides for the development of a general accident prevention program and for the design of specific measures for preventing accidental injuries in the home is difficult to determine at this time. The significance of the findings in this particular population can not be determined without comparable data from another source. These data will be available from Health District 10.

The effectiveness of this survey in establishing a baseline for evaluating program efforts is subject to the same considerations as those involved in the measurement of incidence previously discussed. The use of these data to evaluate the effectiveness of a program implies that a re-survey will be done after the prevention measures have been put into effect. If this survey has in fact established the true incidence of accidental injuries in this health district, then a later survey conducted in exactly the same manner can indicate the effect of the preventive measures. As long as there is doubt of the accuracy of the incidence figures derived from this survey, any changes shown by a re-survey would be suspect. Final conclusions are being reserved until all the data are at hand.

How Do We Get Our Information In Home Safety?

What conclusions can we draw from our experience to date? Certainly it is apparent that it is very difficult to gather valid data regarding the occurrence of accidental injuries in the general population through the mechanism of direct interviews on a sample basis. The survey which we have conducted was designed with exceeding care, conducted with above average interviewers, carefully supervised and skillfully interpreted. In these efforts we received the assistance of statistical services of the U. S. Public Health Service and a qualified private consultant as well as those of our own department. The combination and level of skills in the field and in the office were

probably beyond the reach of the great majority of localities and yet the data are suspect.

The limitations on the data, if there should prove to be any, may be confined to this health district. It is quite possible that data such as we sought can be obtained in a district of more privileged socio-economic-educational level of population where family life is closer and respondents are more responsible and articulate. We are not yet in a position to make a final judgment but as of this moment we feel that this approach to the collection of accidental injury data is one which should be used primarily, if not exclusively, by organizations capable of supporting highly specialized staffs.

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