SEARS BROTHERS. (Mr. Sears or Mr. Stilgenbauer)  
328  
Brawley office.  
349  
Brawley shed.

SKYDER RACKING CO. (Harry Snyder)  
31 Centro office, Barbara North Hotel.  
304  
Brawley Shed.  
103  
Imperial shed.

STANDARD PRODUCE CO.  
552  
El Centro office & shed.

STANDEE & BRYANT. (Mr. Standlee)  
369  
Brawley office & shed.

LEE STEVENS & PEARSON BROS. (Mr. Stevens)  
757  
El Centro office & shed.

STILZ & PARKER. (Mr. Parker)  
434  
El Centro office & shed.  
(Sakamoto shed)

STROBEL & VOOT. (Jack Strobel)  
364-6  
Holtville (Meloland shed)  
365-W  
El Centro office.

SWASTICA PACKING CO.  
7-J-5  
Heber office & shed.

A TAKAHASH.  
238  
Brawley (Tanakawa shed)

J. L. TAYLOR. (Mr. Wachter)  
116  
Brawley shed.  
183-P-14  
Westmorland shed.

UNION FRUIT CO.  
611  
El Centro office & shed.  
301  
Brawley shed.

URICK & HOLLIS. (W. E. Urick)  
303  
El Centro office & shed.

VALLEY PRODUCE CO. (P. Biancolana)  
El Centro office & shed.

M. C. WAHL  
635  
El Centro office & shed.

WARD FRUIT CO. (Mr. Eac.)  
13-J-22  
Heber office & shed.

C. H. WEAVER CO. (Clyde Fluke)  
178  
Brawley office.  
186  
Brawley shed.  
98-P-13  
Westmorland shed.

E. E. WHITTLE.  
315  
Calexico office & shed.

YAXEL & RICE.  
157  
Brawley office & shed.

M. YOURMAN & CO. (Mike Ennis)  
537  
Calexico office & shed.

ZAPETIS BROS. & CO. (Mr. Whoon)  
726  
El Centro office & shed.

J. ZENOS & E. E. HARDEN.  
64-J-4  
Holtville (Meloland office & shed)  
(Same as Meloland Shippers & Growers)

FEDERAL-STATE SHIPPING POINT INSPECTION SERVICE.  
689  
El Centro office.  
Brawley office.

MOOREHEAD INSPECTION SERVICE.  
706  
El Centro office.

MARKET NEWS SERVICE, U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.  
635  
El Centro office.

C. E. Schultz,  
Local Representative.
Annual Review of Rural Life

It has been a "big year" in rural life. There are more events of significance to record than in any year since this annual review was inaugurated (see Information Service of January 9, 1926, and January 3, 1925). There is more information available on the subject than ever before.

The year was marked by a growing interest on the part of rural agencies in international relations and in international influence affecting agriculture, spectacular struggles within the cooperatives, stirrings within the churches, important developments in education, expansion of research, widespread political agitation and an unfavorable economic trend.

The International Emphasis

The rural communities in the United States have been brought into touch with the world with a rapidity that has startled them. Better transportation and communication (particularly the radio) have played a part, but new knowledge of the economic situation has probably been the chief factor. There is discussion of the war debts and of the question whether cancellation or collection will benefit agriculture. There is a sustained interest in the tariff. Into a part of the farm press has crept the notion that "the post war reversal of trade balances" is one of the chief reasons for the difficulties of agriculture. One of the chief concerns of the rural group is how to sell abroad the surplus of our agricultural producers, who, it is estimated, are now actually producing six times more per worker than the farmers of the rest of the world. For example, although they are about four per cent of the world's total of agricultural workers, American farmers produce about 25 per cent of the world's supply of cereal crops.

A group of fifteen rural life leaders visited rural districts of Europe during the summer. They assisted in the preliminary organization of the International Country Life Commission and the holding of the first international country life conference in Brussels in July. The second meeting of the International Commission will be held in East Lansing, Michigan, early in August, 1927.

The Responsibility of the City

"It is now pretty generally recognized that the rural problems will not be solved without the aid of the city," said the board of directors of the American Country Life Association in their annual report published in November. The Rural Education Division of the United States Bureau of Education has called attention to an effort that is being made to arouse interest in the rural school situation on the part of city people who are visiting, motoring or "vacationing" in the country.

There is now a score of city Young Men's Christian Associations which employ secretaries who serve the country boys in nearby areas. It is interesting to know that the city "Y's," in taking up this service, are looking upon it as an opportunity to "pay their debt" to the country. They do not regard such expenditure as a mere benevolence. This development within the Y. M. C. A. is one of the outstanding instances of rural-urban cooperation. It has taken place entirely within the past five years.

The urbanization of rural life is everywhere apparent, especially in the external changes, such as housing. Adaptations of urban developments in trade are in evidence. Better communication and transportation are resulting in more numerous contacts with the cities. A group considering community organization at the national country life conference stated its belief that the rural communities are changing more rapidly than ever before; that they are now parts of or satellites of larger urban communities.

The Struggles of the Cooperatives

If only statistics of gross membership are considered, one might say that the cooperative marketing movement is making great progress. The Division of Cooperative Marketing of the United States Department of Agriculture reported in its news-sheet Agricultural Cooperation on June 21, that the total membership in farmers' cooperative organizations had increased 300 per cent between 1915 and 1925. But, as is true in estimating the work and influence of the churches, statistics of gross membership have little significance. The important thing is what is going on within the organizations.

During the year the large Tri-State Cooperative [Tobacco] Marketing Association operating in North and South Carolina and having over 100,000 members went into receivers' hands. Several others of the regional or centralized type are stated by close observers to be "on the rocks." The Tri-State organization received a severe blow when the Federal Trade Commission report upon the activities of members of its board of directors was published early in the year (see Information Service of January 23, 1926). There was much internal dissension.

The regional associations have had much difficulty with contract-breaking by members. A study of the Staple-Cotton Cooperative Association of Mississippi, made by the Cooperative Marketing Division of the United States
Department of Agriculture, revealed that in the year 1921-22, the first year of organization, 82.3 per cent of the members made the deliveries promised in their contracts but that in 1924-25 only 46.3 per cent did so. During the intervening years there was a fairly steady decline in the proportion of members making the promised deliveries. Only 37 per cent of the members made deliveries constantly during the four year period 1921-25. The testimony of well-informed students indicates that other cooperatives have had similar experiences. In last year’s review we noted the testimony of a high official of the American Cotton Growers Exchange, which is the central agency of the state cotton marketing associations, that only half of the quarter million who had become members had ever delivered any cotton.

This condition has led to two results: more democracy in management and in a reliance upon non-legal means of control. It appears that six regional associations which formerly had long-term “iron bound” (non-cancellable) contracts, now give withdrawal privileges to members at a certain fixed time during each year. They have either changed existing membership agreements or have adopted new forms on the expiration of the original contracts. A definite trend seems to have set in among the centralized associations to use the methods of the older federations, which have always had short-term or cancellable membership contracts and have relied upon other than legal methods to secure group cohesion. The whole experience of these organizations is of tremendous interest from an ethical point of view. It is certain that great numbers of legally enforceable contracts have been broken. Rapid-fire organization, with widespread misunderstanding of the purposes of the organization, are given as two of the important reasons for contract breaking.

During the year the National Council of Farmers’ Cooperative Marketing Associations which had held four annual conferences and which constituted a service agency of many of the largest cooperatives closed its offices. Plans are being made, however, for its resuscitation. Differences among the leaders over the policy to be pursued in regard to national legislation played an important part in the closing.

The American Institute of Cooperation, which is an educational agency supported by cooperative marketing associations and by the large educational organizations, held its second annual session during the summer at the University of Minnesota. This is really a summer school with a one month term. The attendance at Minnesota was larger than that at the first session at the University of Pennsylvania, in 1925.

A NEW BATTLEGROUND OF IDEAS

The new and rapidly developing field of rural social work presents many phases that are of interest to those concerned in the development of rural life. The yearly report on the extent of rural public health service, issued by the United States Public Health Service, indicates that there are now 307 counties, or districts comparable with counties, which are organized under a full-time director. This was an increase of 27 counties over the previous year. Only about one-tenth of the counties of the nation have this service and at the present rate of progress it will take eighty-five years for the entire rural population to have adequate public health service. The cost for all rural counties of the nation would be about $20,000,000 a year. The expense of the service is borne mainly by local voluntary groups and by county governments, though small subsidies from state and national agencies, both public and private, usually give a stimulus to the establishment of the service.

The sessions on rural social work at the National Conference of Social Work at Cleveland were well attended. There was a frank discussion of the opportunities and difficulties of rural social work. There appeared to be a disposition on the part of the social workers present to inquire what farm people think of social workers and their methods. A discussion of “What Has Social Work to Offer the Rural Community?” is planned for the National Conference of Social Work at Des Moines in 1927.

The best description of the status of rural social work appears as the conclusion of the chapter on this topic written by LeRoy Ramsdell of the New York School of Social Work for the Handbook of Rural Social Resources, referred to later. Mr. Ramsdell is chairman of the Committee on Rural Social Work of the American Country Life Association. He wrote: “Rural social work is a battlefield of ideas and sentiments. Social work leaders themselves hold widely different theories as to the objectives which should be set up and as to the best methods of reaching the objectives. Social workers are divided into legions each following its own banner, and conflicts between these groups, if not the rule, are at least very common. Social agencies, for the most part, do not think of establishing rural social work except at the level of urban standards. They are imbued with the expert’s intolerance. Rural people, on the other hand, are almost determined to have nothing to do with these new fangled city notions. Social work, along with most of the other expert services, is being drawn into the rising urban-rural conflict, instead of being, as it should, the adjusting agency which integrates the conflict. Rural social work is chaotic and the order which is to come of it is, as yet, scarcely discernible.”

THE WORK OF THE EDUCATORS

The federal Bureau of Education reports that the number of consolidated schools in 1924 (the latest year for which figures are available) in 46 states was 14,913, “which is an increase of 2,603 over the number reported from 43 states in 1922. The rate of increase in number of consolidated schools has been approximately 1,000 a year during the period from 1918 to 1924 and the decrease in the number of one-teacher schools during this same period has been more than 4,500 a year.”1 During the year Georgia and Tennessee were added to the growing number of states which provide state equalization funds to assist poor school districts. School authorities, legislators and citizens are beginning to see that there are many rural school districts in the United States—some indeed in every state—in which there is not enough taxable wealth to give the children even a decent education, if local sources of income are the sole support of the schools.

It appears that the rural organizations and papers which gave consideration to the federal education bill, when hearings were held by a congressional committee, were opposed to it. Anti-federalism seems to be prevalent in rural districts when a national department of education is proposed, just as it was when the Child Labor Amendment was agitated.

The important Journal of Rural Education published by the National Education Association’s Department of Rural Education ceased publication during the year because of insufficient patronage. It was a high grade pro-
fessional publication and its absence will undoubtedly be severely felt by educators.

The first rural folk school, modeled after the Danish folk schools, is being established in North Carolina. The director is Olive D. Campbell, and the school is named after John C. Campbell, her husband, who spent his life in the service of the southern highlanders.

That eighty-three per cent of the rural population of the United States, as compared with forty-five per cent of the total population, is without access to libraries, is the conclusion of the American Library Association, which has recently made a study of the matter. There are now 200 counties which have organized traveling libraries or branches for the service of rural residents. This is one of the significant developments in rural life during the past ten years.

A summary of ten years of agricultural extension work of the United States Department of Agriculture was issued during the year. The report covered the years 1914 to 1924. During 1924, 49,464 community programs were conducted, led by 182,971 local leaders, and involving 1,134,750 demonstrations. The extension service includes projects in the farm business, home-making and boys' and girls' club work.

The National Education Association's committee on agricultural cooperation (described in the review of 1926) is continuing its work. The policy of providing trained supervisors of rural teachers is steadily being adopted. Steady progress is being made in providing special instruction for rural teachers in the training institutions. Experiments in the reorganization of the one-teacher school are going on. Curricular changes are being much discussed.

At the ninth national country life conference a resolution was adopted asking the American Country Life Association to call a national conference of all agencies concerned, to consider the problems of rural education. Such a conference would bring together particularly the leaders of the United States Department of Agriculture Extension Service and those with responsibilities for the administration of public schools.

Stirrings Within the Churches

This was "country church year" in missionary education. The study course upon country church conditions and methods by Professor Ralph Felton, entitled Our Temples Hills, has had a wide reception. There is undoubtedly a growing interest on the part of the stronger city churches in the country church. During the year the Home Missions Council announced that at its annual meeting on January 4-7, 1927, the country church would be given the chief emphasis.

The National Catholic Welfare Conference announced an addition to the staff of the Rural Life Bureau, in the person of Rev. William P. McDermott, of Racine, Wisconsin. Father McDermott becomes assistant director of the Bureau. He was for many years pastor at Evansville, Wisconsin, where he became well-known as a director of religious drama. He has also served as instructor in dramatics at summer schools for pastors of all religious groups at the Colleges of Agriculture in New York and Wisconsin. Dr. E. V. O'Hara, known as one of the outstanding rural statesmen, who has formulated a philosophy for the rounded out development of rural life, is the director of the Bureau. The program of the Rural Life Bureau, described in last year's review, January 9, 1926, is more comprehensive than that of any other religious body. The fourth Catholic Rural Life Conference was in many ways the most notable session the Catholic group has held.

The Country Life Association

No development during the past few years has been more significant for rural social institutions than the work of the American Country Life Association. The Association aims, in the words of its last annual report, to be a "cooperative agency for rural social enterprise." It has held two important conferences during the past year. In cooperation with the Farmer's Wife it brought together fifteen picked farm women who issued a remarkable set of findings upon "What the Farm Woman Wants." The ninth annual conference upon the topic of "Farm Youth" was the best attended and probably the most noteworthy which the Association has yet held. The Association maintains the National Council of Agencies Engaged in Rural Social Work, which has an organization "on paper" and has talked about cooperation between agencies but has not yet accomplished much in the way of cooperative behavior. The agencies engaged in the various kinds of rural endeavor are for the most part too busy promoting their own programs to cooperate. The most important cooperation has been in the promotion of the American Country Life Association's annual conferences and in the publication of the Handbook of Rural Social Resources.

The Economic Trend

The trend of the index of prices of agricultural products and of their purchasing power has changed again. From 1922 to 1925 it was upward. Now, due to the surplus of cotton and declining prices for other commodities, the trend is downward. Prices of non-agricultural commodities are declining too but not so rapidly as those for the products of the farm. Therefore the purchasing power of agricultural products is decreased and the situation is made extremely difficult. (The report of the Federal Farm Loan Board issued in 1926 states that the Federal Land Banks foreclosed as many farm mortgages because of defaults in the year 1925 as in the years 1918 to 1924 combined.)

The trend of prices and purchasing power of agricultural prices is indicated by the data in the following tables taken from The Agricultural Situation published by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics of the United States Department of Agriculture December 1, 1926:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year or Month</th>
<th>Wholesale Prices of 30 Agricultural Products</th>
<th>Relative Purchasing Power of Farmers' Products</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1919</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1920</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1922</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1923</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1924</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1925</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>January 1926</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>February 1926</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March 1926</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April 1926</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May 1926</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June  1926</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July   1926</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>August 1926</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>September 1926</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>October 1926</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In these computations, the average figures for the five years of August, 1909, to July, 1914, equal 100. The term "relative purchasing power of the farmers' products" expresses the value of a
unit of the farmers' products in exchange for non-agricultural products.

Other important data were released by the Department of Agriculture in the July 1926 monthly supplement of Crops and Markets. These indicate that the net return upon all capital invested in agriculture in the year 1925-26 was 4.6 per cent, as compared with 4.4 per cent during 1924-25, 3.5 per cent for 1923-24, 3.2 per cent for 1922-23, 1.2 per cent for 1921-22, 0.5 per cent for 1920-21, 6.3 per cent for 1919-20.

In this connection the following statement is made: "Comparable rates for other industries are not available for the years shown here, except for 1923, when all corporations reporting to the Treasury Department showed net incomes for capital and management aggregating $11,224,000,000 (before deducting interest and compensation to officers), on an investment of $102,000,000,000, as recently estimated by the Federal Trade Commission. This is equivalent to 11.0 per cent on all corporate capital investment including reward for management, and compares with approximately 3.3 per cent for all agricultural capital and management for the same calendar year."

The following table presents data upon the labor incomes per farm. The labor income represents gross receipts, minus expenses of operating the farm and interest at 5 per cent upon the capital invested by the operator.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Amount in Dollars</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1919-20</td>
<td>$917</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1920-21</td>
<td>397</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921-22</td>
<td>270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1922-23</td>
<td>440</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1923-24</td>
<td>533</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1924-25</td>
<td>624</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1925-26</td>
<td>648</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It must be borne in mind that there are available for family living, products furnished by the farm usually amounting to between $400 to $600 annually per farm. The interest upon the operator's capital, which is arbitrarily deducted from net income in order to figure the labor income, is also usually spent by the operator. As reported in last year's review 2,880 representative farm families had an average of about $1,500 or its equivalent for family living during 1923.

Another study of interest is one comparing the relative purchasing power of the net income per farm family, of wages per farm laborer and of factory wage earnings per employee. This indicates that since 1919-20, which is taken as the base, the purchasing power of the net income per farm family has decreased more rapidly than the purchasing power of the wages of farm workers, while the purchasing power of factory wage earnings is sixteen per cent higher in 1925-26 than it was in 1919-20.

**The Chief Political Issue**

During the first six months of the year Congress was the scene of considerable maneuvering to secure special agricultural legislation. The efforts of senators from the West and the South culminated, on June 24, in a vote in the Senate defeating the now famous McNary-Haugen bill. The bill has been frequently modified and as finally voted upon would have established a federal board in Washington with certain powers to regulate surpluses of six staple crops. An effort was made to win votes of southern senators by giving cotton preferential treatment, exempting its producers from paying an equalization fee, but not enough votes were secured.

Within the last few months tremendous efforts have been made to bring about an alliance between the South and the West. The large surplus of cotton this year seems to be swinging more southern leaders into line in support of governmental assistance for the export of agricultural surpluses. Former Governor Frank O. Lowden of Illinois and Carl S. Vrooman, former assistant secretary of agriculture, are throwing their influence into this movement. Of unusual significance, too, is the fact that some of the leaders of the southern cooperative marketing associations are supporting the plan. An important meeting was held in St. Louis on November 16-17, addressed by Senator Caraway of Arkansas and Governor Lowden. A large number of southern leaders were present. A midwestern farm paper says that they were there is such numbers that it may now be said that the "South takes the lead in the export fight."

The annual meeting of the Grange went on record as favoring an export bounty. This would differ from the plan of those who have supported the McNary-Haugen bill. The move of the Grange is hailed in the Midwest, however, as the first time a large agricultural organization with considerable eastern influence has gone on record as favoring a subsidy from the Treasury of the United States to the producer of agricultural products for export.

**A Few Publications**

During the year there appeared the Book of Rural Life, a reference work of 10 volumes, published by the Bellows-Durham Company, Chicago, $79.50 per set. It is the first encyclopedia of rural life.

Two handbooks were issued:

The Handbook of Rural Social Resources, edited by Henry Israel and Benson Y. Landis, gathering and interpreting hitherto scattered data concerning all aspects of rural life. (University of Chicago Press, $2.00.)

The Rural Organizations Handbook, by J. H. Kolb and A. F. Welden, with concise information and practical suggestions for a variety of community organizations. (University of Wisconsin, Bulletin 384.)

Pamphlets from the agricultural colleges, presenting social research, appear to be increasing, though "Purnell funds" of the federal government are going mostly for other projects.

A useful bulletin for those interested in social organization is J. H. Kolb's Service Institutions for Town and Country, in which he works out minimum standards for efficient service for high schools, libraries and hospitals.

The discovery of American agricultural villages has been hastened by publication of part of the study of the Institute of Religious Research, New York, particularly American Villagers by C. Luther Fry.

The Farmer's Standard of Living, by E. L. Kirkpatrick, has been published as Department Bulletin 1466 by the United States Department of Agriculture.

**The Increase in Fiction**

It is worth noting here that fiction with a rural setting and of social significance is appearing in considerable volume. Mary K. Reely of the Wisconsin State Library Commission has made a brief study of the most important books entitled "Rural Life in American Fiction" which was published in the journal of the Wisconsin Commission and in the September and October numbers of Rural America.

Printed in U. S. A.
GENERAL SUMMARY of the ORIENTAL SITUATION in CALIFORNIA AGRICULTURE.

The question of the economic status of the Oriental peoples in California is primarily a question of economic competition. Are the Japanese, Chinese, and Hindus actually superior to other racial groups in the agricultural industries in which they have become an important factor? If so, will it be advantageously possible to replace them with other racial groups who can satisfactorily carry on the kind of work now being done by the Orientals? If this is not possible, would it be better to produce other crops which could be produced by white labor or to tolerate the Oriental peoples who constitute the predominant factor in the production of such intensive crops as require a great deal of hand labor? From an economic point of view, that course should be followed which would make for the greatest welfare and prosperity of the entire State.

The primary factors, which have made a study of the economic status of the Oriental peoples engaged in agriculture a really important study, are: (1) the increasing Oriental population; (2) the contributions the Oriental peoples have made toward the development of California's agricultural resources; and (3) the fact that there will continue to be a considerable Oriental element in our population in the future, no matter what legislative steps may be taken by our Government.

There are four outstanding points of controversy between the anti-Oriental and pro-Oriental forces. These are: (1) competition, that is, do the Orientals hold the upper hand in their particular agricultural undertakings through natural advantages such as a lower standard of living, an ability to work longer hours, the practice of working the women and children, and similar points; (2) conflict, that is, has the large producer an advantage over the small producer in such things as the ability to employ large crews of labor, better methods of harvesting, and an advantageous marketing position; (3) accommodations, that is, will
the Orientals live under conditions that are not suitable for white people; and (4) assimilation, that is, can the Oriental become a worth-while citizen of this country and be absorbed by the community in which he lives.

According to the United States Census Reports there were 36,248 Chinese in California in 1910 and only 28,812 in 1920. While the Chinese population declined by more than 20 per cent in the ten-year period, the Japanese population increased by nearly 75 per cent over the same period of time. The figures for the Japanese population are given as 41,356 in 1910 and 71,952 in 1920. No separate figures are given for the Hindu population in 1910, but in 1920 they numbered 1,723. Figuring on a basis of the decrease and increase respectively of the Chinese and Japanese population between 1910 and 1920, there are at present (January 1925) 25,838 Chinese and 84,190 Japanese in California. In the Report of the State Board of Control of California the figures given for December 31, 1919 are 33,271 Chinese and 87,279 Japanese. This shows a decrease of only 8.2 per cent for the Chinese and an increase of 111 per cent in the Japanese population. On this basis the present population is 32,080 Chinese and 105,648 Japanese. The figure for the Hindu population at the close of 1919 is given as 2,600.

Thus we see that the Oriental population, with a minimum total in excess of 110,000, is a considerable factor in the population of California. Of this total more than 50 per cent are engaged in agriculture. The exact figures as given by various sources range upwards of 50 per cent, so it is safe to assume that at least one-half of the Oriental population is engaged in agricultural pursuits.

The general attitude of the white population toward the Oriental may be divided into three classes: (1) those who like the Oriental for what he is and who consider him honest, industrious and efficient; (2) those who have an inherent dislike for the Oriental, but who consider him to be a very efficient producer and worker; and thus tolerate his presence because it is a matter of dollars and cents; and (3) those who have a deep hatred for the Oriental, resulting in complete condemnation of every move he may make. The second classification
seems to be by far in the majority, while the anti-Oriental forces have the upper hand on their adversaries.

There are but two phases of the subject which seem to command the unanimous support of the white agricultural interests: (1) a general liking and respect for the old school of Chinese laborers, whose number is rapidly decreasing and will soon pass out of existence; and (2) a firm stand against Oriental ownership of land. Two additional points fall but a few notches short of being in the same category. These are: (1) a general dislike and distrust of the second-generation Chinese; and (2) a general dislike and distrust for the Hindus.

The old school of Chinese are held in the highest esteem. Condemned in the early days as being very undesirable, thus resulting in the enactment of the Chinese Exclusion Law of 1882, the foreign-born Chinese laborers gradually overturned public opinion and won the respect of the agricultural interests. They were originally cheap labor, but they soon came to realize that their services could command a higher wage. Never demanding an excessive wage, they did demand a return in proportion to their worth. They were slow in their actions, but they were plodders and they worked without interruption. As someone once said: "It is the steady dripping of the water that wears away the rock." No one has ever questioned the honesty of this group. In many instances they would be left in full charge of a place for weeks at a time and their trust was never broken. Many of the older white producers regret the passing of this class of alien labor.

Numerous proposals and several attempts have been made to bring in a large number of Chinese laborers, under bond for a limited number of years, as the best possible solution of the labor situation, thus showing the widespread confidence the agricultural interests have in this type of labor. However, these attempts have met only with failure since such a proposal is in violation of our immigration laws.

Oriental control of agricultural lands has always been a bone of contention, and was one of the chief arguments resulting in the enactment of the Alien Land Law of 1920. Oriental ownership of land is unanimously condemned, but the agri-
cultural interests are not in unison in their opinion regarding the right to lease land or to operate under a crop-share contract. The effect of the Alien Land Law of 1920, resulting in the recent discontinuation of leasing and crop-share contracting with aliens ineligible to citizenship, will be discussed later. Suffice it to say that the general attitude toward the measure is a camp divided against itself. Some interests and localities are very favorably inclined toward the new legislation, while others unhesitatingly condemn it.

The second-generation Chinese, in so far as they are engaged in agriculture, are generally believed to be worthless. While the large majority of them prefer to try their hand at some easy means of making a livelihood in the cities, those who do follow agriculture are considered to be very poor workers. To this assumption there are exceptions, but the bulk of the second-generation Chinese farmers and farm laborers are rather unscrupulous. Their contracts are more likely to be broken than fulfilled and they fall easy victims for labor agitators. Many have even gone so far as to build up a feeling of unrest among some of the older type of Chinese. Their main trend of thought seems to be to get something for nothing and they are ardent disciples of this doctrine among others.

The Hindus have been generally disliked. Not only because of the prejudice caused by their uncleanness, but for the economic reason that they are poor growers and have a habit of fouling the soil. The Hindus are apparently in this country solely for the purpose of accumulating sufficient funds to return to India with a little capital. They have no respect for the future welfare of a community. They plant their crop as cheaply as possible and then await the crop yield. They allow weeds to grow with their crop, which makes the soil unsuitable for further production until the weeds can be eliminated. As laborers the Hindus are considered to be fairly satisfactory. They will at least stick out a job, which is more than can be said of the great bulk of available white labor.

Another cause of the unfavorable attitude toward the Hindu is his dishonesty.
With but a few noticeable exceptions, a Hindu will take advantage of every available opportunity to "beat" anyone. In the rice growing districts, where the bulk of the Hindu population has been employed in the past, a great many bankers, land-owners, and merchants are still suffering from the losses entailed in 1920. In that year credit was extended to anyone who even entertained the idea of planting rice, because the two previous years had been more than successful. Anyone could borrow anything he wanted as long as he was going to plant rice. As a result, when the heavy rains caught the rice crop before it was harvested, a great loss was inevitable. Rice is a crop which cannot be harvested commercially in this country by hand; and when the rains beat it flat to the ground it cannot be harvested by machinery. That was exactly the situation in 1920. The greatest blow, to those who had extended credit, came when the great bulk of the Hindus simply changed their names and ignored any responsibility for their indebtedness. With good crop yields since that disastrous year the rice growing regions have not as yet fully recovered, economically. This dishonesty on the part of the great bulk of the Hindu tenants and crop-contractors has, undoubtedly, been an important factor in the general dislike they have incurred among the white people who have been in contact with them.

The lack of bodily cleanliness, on the part of the Hindus, can apparently be overcome if properly handled. In several cases, where Hindus are employed, the growers have obtained wonderful results by installing bath-houses and demanding that they be used. It is interesting to note that in one instance sheets were found in the beds of several Hindu laborers, after the grower had been firm in his stand for cleanliness.

The Japanese constitute by far the greatest element in our Oriental population and as a result of this predominance it is in behalf of or in condemnation of the Japanese that the bulk of the arguments with respect to Orientals are directed. On December 31, 1919 the Japanese owned 74,769 acres, the Chinese 12,076 acres, and the Hindus 2,099 acres of improved land. At the same time the Japanese operated 383,287 acres under lease or crop contract, the Chinese 65,181
acres, and the Hindus 86,340 acres. This brings the total of the lands occupied by Orientals to 623,752 acres, or 5.5 per cent of the 11,389,894 acres of improved farm lands of the State. Thus we see that the Japanese control 87 per cent of the lands controlled by the Orientals; and it is plain to see why the bulk of the anti-Oriental criticism is directed against the Japanese.

The fear that the Japanese would come to dominate the agricultural lands of California was one of the most important factors that brought about the enactment of the Alien Land Law in 1920. That such a fear was justified may be rightly disputed. The Report of the State Board of Control of California points out that the acreage controlled by the Japanese increased 412.9 per cent between 1909 and 1919. On the other hand it must be remembered that the Japanese tenants and crop-contractors did not have actual control of the land. In the fruit growing districts of Placer County, where nearly 80 per cent of the improved acreage was operated by Japanese, the real control of the land remained in the hands of the land-owner. While the Japanese performed the work of growing and preparing the crop for shipment, all consignments were made in the name of the land-owner and no advances were made by the fruit exchanges to the Japanese tenant directly. In most cases the owner maintained his household on the place and the Japanese was merely the means through which the actual work was performed. That the Japanese were actually gaining a considerable foothold in some sections cannot be denied, but that the actual increase of control was as realistic as it appears in print is a point to be disputed.

The Japanese are primarily engaged in the production of intensive crops that require a great amount of hand labor. It is a question as to whether some other racial groups (such as Mexicans, Portuguese, Italians, Negroes, or others) can be successfully substituted for the Japanese in the production of crops requiring such intensive cultivation. It is quite generally conceded that white men will not do the type of work required to produce such crops as berries, asparagus, celery, onions, tomatoes, and the like. Therefore, unless some other racial group can be substituted for the Japanese it is a question of either tol-
establishing the Japanese or discontinuing the production of the greater proportion of these crops. The following table shows the crops in which the Japanese are engaged in producing, the acreage cultivated, and its relation to the total production; (1920)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Acreage</th>
<th>Total by All</th>
<th>Percentage of Japanese</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Berries</td>
<td>5,968</td>
<td>6,500</td>
<td>91.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Celery</td>
<td>3,568</td>
<td>4,000</td>
<td>89.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asparagus</td>
<td>9,927</td>
<td>12,000</td>
<td>82.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeds</td>
<td>15,847</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>79.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Onions</td>
<td>9,251</td>
<td>12,112</td>
<td>76.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tomatoes</td>
<td>10,616</td>
<td>16,000</td>
<td>66.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cantaloupes</td>
<td>9,581</td>
<td>15,000</td>
<td>63.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sugar beets</td>
<td>51,604</td>
<td>102,949</td>
<td>50.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green vegetables</td>
<td>17,852</td>
<td>75,000</td>
<td>23.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potatoes</td>
<td>18,830</td>
<td>90,175</td>
<td>20.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hops</td>
<td>1,260</td>
<td>8,000</td>
<td>15.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grapes</td>
<td>47,439</td>
<td>360,000</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peas</td>
<td>77,107</td>
<td>592,000</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rice</td>
<td>10,640</td>
<td>106,220</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cotton</td>
<td>18,000</td>
<td>179,860</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corn</td>
<td>7,845</td>
<td>35,000</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fruits and Nuts</td>
<td>29,310</td>
<td>715,000</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hay and grain</td>
<td>15,753</td>
<td>2,200,000</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Mexican is the most logical substitute for the Japanese since he has the advantage of having been placed in the non-quota class under the Immigration Act of July 1, 1924, but it is doubtful if he will prove himself to be as industrious or as efficient. Of course it must be remembered that the Japanese were inexperienced in their respective lines when they first came to this country, but it must be admitted that they have proven themselves to be very efficient in the types of agriculture they have chosen to follow. 87,648 Mexicans entered the United States in the twelve months ending June 30, 1924, which is nearly five times the number that entered in 1922. A large proportion of this number entered California; and they now constitute a considerable part of the labor supply in the counties lying south of Stanislaus County, in the San Joaquin Valley.
A few have penetrated into the Delta region and into the Sacramento Valley; and there is little reason to doubt but that their numbers will steadily increase and eventually be scattered throughout the entire State. As a laborer the Mexican is fairly acceptable, with the primary fault of being very irregular in his working habits. As soon as he gets a small sum together he is content to remain idle until necessity forces him to again go to work. Another serious ground for complaint is the tendency to drink and gamble among the Mexicans. It is also questionable as to whether or not the Mexicans will become an asset to a community. The majority of Mexicans who come to this country are of the peon class, which constitutes the bottom of the Mexican social ladder; and thus it may be possible that they will create even a greater social problem than that created by the Orientals.

The most efficient substitution that could possibly be made for the Japanese seems to be the development and use of machinery. It has been found that women, operating machines in the fruit packing houses, can now pack a greater quantity with less expense than was previously packed by expert Japanese hand packers. Thus at least one phase of the fruit industry has passed completely out of the hands of the Japanese. Mr. F. H. Rindge, a potato grower in the Delta region, has had remarkable success with a potato-digging machine, which supplants from 15 to 20 Orientals. Thus, in these examples, we see the possibilities of machinery in the future; and it is safe to assume that the future will see still greater advances in this direction.

The Japanese have played an important roll in the agricultural development of California. They are generally condemned for demanding only the best lands available. While this is not true in every case, there is not any real basis for condemnation because a person desires only the best land. The better the land the better the possibilities of producing a greater yield. In some sections of the State the Japanese have been true pioneers. At Florin they levelled the land and planted it to grapes for the land-owners, in exchange for which services they were allowed to raise strawberries between the vines until the grapes began
to bear. At Livingston they made a fertile district from a wind-swept waste which had previously been the scene of several unsuccessful attempts at colonization. In the Delta region they were the only people, in conjunction with the Chinese, who would undertake to work the newly reclaimed areas of what had formerly been a great swamp. In this section malaria and typhoid were prevalent; and the lack of roads and bridges, the lack of suitable drinking water, and the peat dust in the air made it a very undesirable district to live in. Yet the Japanese and Chinese are responsible for "breaking" every island in this fertile section of more than 250,000 acres. Realizing the possibilities of greater returns from new lands than from land that had been worked, the Japanese preferred to "break" new land, rather than to remain too long in one place. This led to a belief that the Orientals ruined the soil. While this is true in a good many cases, due to careless growing and harvesting methods caused by the fact that they were limited by short-term leases, there are numerous instances where a Japanese or Chinese has worked the same tract of land, year in and year out, for upwards of twenty years.

That the advent of Japanese into a community tends to lower land values is, for the most part, an erroneous supposition. The development of any section of land tends to enhance the value of the adjacent land, whether the improvements are made by Japanese or white people. Possibly land values do not advance as much as they might under the development by white people, but it is foolish to suppose that land values are decreased by improvement. For the most part there is little serious objection to Japanese as neighbors. While not desired or encouraged by the white people they are complacently tolerated.

As has been previously stated, there is no common attitude, on the part of the white people, regarding the Japanese. Some of the white growers consider them far superior to any other class of labor; and have come to believe that they are actually dependent upon them to move their crops. Some consider them to be far more efficient workers and producers, but distrust them in any and all business transactions. Others believe the Japanese are absolutely worthless as farm
workers and would prefer to see them all deported. It is safe to assume that all the Japanese will bear watching, but there are some among them who have proven themselves extremely honest, having deprived themselves everything in order to meet their obligations. No one questions their ambitious and industrious nature, but some doubt the true purpose of their efforts. As a race they are very proud and they will do anything they can to appear on an equal footing with the white people. They are great gamblers in agriculture; and will undertake any proposition which shows a possibility of netting them a large return. When they undertook the development of the Delta region they took a risk that would have been considered foolish on the part of a white man. Hundreds of thousands of dollars in seed were planted in a section that was liable to be flooded any minute. The second-generation Japanese are not inclined toward the hard work that has been done by their fathers. Even some of the fathers now prefer to hire white men to do the plowing and cultivating.

The Japanese are perfectly willing to work 14 or 16 hours a day, if necessary, when they are working for themselves or have an interest in the undertaking, but they do not hesitate to work only 8½ to 9 hours when they are working for wages. This is one of the problems now confronting the growers who previously leased to Japanese, that is, will they be able to get the same results on a wage basis as was formerly obtained under lease or on a crop-share basis?

The Japanese have always been content to live under conditions which white people would not tolerate. While the Japanese are very cleanly, both in their homes and in their personal appearance, they have never demanded the most suitable living conditions and accommodations. This has caused another problem that confronts the growers who must now turn to white tenants, that is, providing adequate living facilities.

In the rice, fruit, grapes, and sugar beet industries the Japanese have undoubtedly been a serious competitor of the white grower, because of their lower standard of living and their ability to pay excessive rentals, but in the crops requiring intensive cultivation, in which the Japanese have been the predominant
factor, they can hardly be considered serious competitors, because they are crops which a white man is not willing to produce. The Japanese do pay excessive rentals and crop-shares, but the blame for this should be equally divided with the land-owners. Thanks to their lower standard of living the Japanese can successfully pay a greater rental than could be paid by a white tenant. The Japanese desire the better lands and they are willing to pay excessively for them. The Japanese cannot be blamed for this since the difference is entirely their own loss; and the land-owner cannot be blamed for accepting a greater return on his property than the real value of the property merits. With the elimination of leasing and crop-contracting with aliens ineligible to citizenship under the Alien Land Law, the adjustment will have to be made at the expense of the owner, because white tenants cannot operate under such exhorbitant rentals as have been paid by the Japanese. If the new tenants are less efficient, even if this be in the form of a greater expenditure for the necessities of life, it will be necessary to make an adjustment in the land rentals or the production costs will make it impossible to operate at a profit.

Effect of the Alien Land Law. At the present time the actual effect of the Alien Land Law, as enacted in California in 1920, prohibiting aliens ineligible to citizenship to lease or operate land on a crop-share basis, cannot be definitely determined. The law is too recent, having become effective October 1, 1924, to make it possible to definitely trace the effects. At the present time the majority of the Oriental peoples seem to be "standing by," partly in hopes of arranging some means of procuring more than mere wages for their services and partly because they have no other alternative.

As to whether the Japanese will be content to remain as laborers is another question which must temporarily hang in the balance. It is the present policy of the local Japanese Associations to instruct their members to continue on a wage basis, under an accounting system between employer and employee which has been prepared for that purpose. This accounting method keeps account of all services rendered on a monthly basis, the wage to be paid, and all advances made
by either the employer or the employee.

It has been generally believed that the Japanese would not be content to remain as laborers on a straight wage basis, because of their inherent desire to own or operate farm lands for themselves. They have been considered as believing themselves above mere wages. While it is true that the Japanese as a whole have an ardent desire to operate for themselves, rather than to work for someone else, it must be remembered that the great majority of the Japanese are only laborers at their best. Those who own land or operate as tenants or under a crop-share arrangement are by far in the minority. Owing to the gambling nature of all Japanese farmers, it being a fact that a Japanese is willing to undertake any agricultural proposition which shows a reasonable possibility of netting a greater return than mere wages, a great many Japanese operators have been forced to become laborers after a disastrous season.

The rice growing sections of California have alone been definitely affected by the Alien Land Law, resulting in a great decrease in the number of Oriental operators. However, it is interesting to note that the Oriental influence was never as great in the rice industry as has been popularly supposed. The thought of rice industry generally carried with it the idea of Orientals, whereas, in reality, the acreage owned, leased, and operated by Orientals never exceeded 33 percent of the total acreage devoted to rice culture.

This reduction in the acreage operated by Orientals has met with widespread approval among the white rice growers and, especially, the Rice Growers Association of California. The latter organization not only objected to the Oriental practice of under-selling the market price and thus making it practically impossible for the Association to maintain a favorable price level, but it contends that white rice growers can and do produce a better grade of rice at a cost ranging from 10 to 20 per cent less than that grown by Orientals. This divergence in production costs does not result from superior methods of sowing, cultivating, or irrigating, but is the result of superior methods of harvesting on the part of the white growers. No matter what the industry may be the Japanese, Chinese,
and Hindus are unable to successfully operate machinery. Their superiority is tracable only to such industries as require a great amount of hand labor.

Throughout the fruit and field crop industries there has been little change in the number or status of the Oriental workers. While there has been a noticeable movement of Japanese from the Sacramento and San Joaquin Valleys to Southern California; and a small migration to other states and to Mexico, the great bulk of the Japanese population is apparently content to remain as laborers. Their willingness to remain is undoubtedly influenced by their inability or lack of preparation for making a profitable livelihood in the cities and their lack of the financial requisites needed to go to other localities. It must be remembered that the bulk of the Japanese engaged in agricultural pursuits are employed as laborers and have little, if any, capital.

It was generally feared that the Orientals would be forced into the cities as a result of the Alien Land Law. There is a slight movement in this direction, but it is by no means as astonishing as was anticipated. If such a movement really took place on a large scale the social problem, caused by the Orientals, would be far more serious in the cities than in the rural districts. In the country the Japanese have created little or no social problem. They are content to remain very much to themselves and their only wish is to be left alone in return. Even in such a locality as Florin, which has been the hot-bed of a great deal of the anti-Japanese agitation, there is no prevailing prejudice against the Japanese as neighbors. Some of the Japanese seem more than willing to mix socially with the white people, but the white people do not afford them the opportunity and as a result the Japanese are forced to keep very much to themselves. In Placer County, where nearly 80 per cent of the orchard lands were operated by Japanese, there is no prevailing objection to the Japanese as neighbors. It is also an interesting fact that crime is almost a negligible factor among the Japanese in the agricultural communities.

If forced into the cities, the Orientals would not only increase to Oriental sections of the city to which they moved, but this would also result in a
still greater increase in the area of undesirable white people, which invariably surrounds an Oriental quarter. Property values in the adjacent sections would decrease, because the advent of Orientals in urban districts invariably tends to decrease property values. In addition the Orientals would begin to compete seriously with organized labor in the trades. Already there are a great many second-generation Chinese and Japanese who have become barbers, carpenters, and artisans of other trades. The amount of crime would undoubtedly increase at least in proportion to the increased population. The second-generation, which has already manifested its intention to make a livelihood, if possible, without doing manual labor, would rapidly become decadent. The traffic in drugs, liquor, gambling, and slaves would be increased.

It seems to be a question of which is the greater evil; allowing the Orientals to remain in the agricultural communities and operate under lease or crop contract, or forcing them into the cities to increase vice and crime, decrease property values, and come into competition with organized labor.

Things being so unsettled at the present time in is not possible to draw any definite conclusions, but from all outward appearances there will not be any serious influx of Orientals into the cities. In some sections of the State the Alien Land Law has not been as yet put into effect. In other sections it is being evaded on every side. There are numerous ways in which to beat the purpose of the law. One grower, who purports to hire a Japanese on a monthly basis, pays the Japanese by check each month. The latter cashes it at the bank and then returns the cash to the owner, who can redeposit the money. The cancelled check serves as proof the relation between employer and employee, whereas, in reality, the Japanese will receive a sum at the end of the year equivalent to a certain percentage of the crop. This is just one of a hundred ways in which the new law is being evaded; and it will be a long time before the law will become universally enforced in California.

In the Delta region, and especially in the lower Delta, where the majority of the acreage has been worked almost entirely by Orientals, it was felt that
the Alien Land Law would work a very severe hardship on the land-owners. A real hardship has taken place, in that it will necessitate the expenditure of great sums of money to make the Delta a suitable place for white people to live in, but the owners are becoming more and more optimistic of the future. Disease has been practically eliminated and good drinking water is now procured through wells. The peat dust will be eventually eliminated as the soil is worked over and over again. With the advent of good transportation facilities, schools and community development will follow. The Delta is very similar in topography and climate to the lands of Holland; and it is hoped that a large colony of Hollanders can be attracted to the district as soon as facilities permit.

It is almost essential, unless new machinery is developed, to have Oriental labor to produce the crops that require a great deal of hand labor. The Delta is too rich to be devoted to corn, beans, and other field crops that can be raised by white labor. While it is imperative to plant barley or some dry crop about every third year in the Delta to keep the soil from souring, it is not commercially practical to raise these crops continuously, because the bonded indebtedness for levees, pumps and drainage systems is too great. The future of the Delta region will probably be dependent upon the breaking up of the large estates, because labor costs are too excessive to make large scale production of intensive crops commercially profitable.

The fruit growing sections have also been hit by the new legislation. The Japanese, Chinese, and Hindus are considered to be very efficient at pruning, irrigating, and picking. In the past the white labor, that was available, was of the hobo type and was generally considered to be worthless. Some of the growers have come to feel that they are dependent upon Oriental labor to move their crop, but this belief is not justified, because there has been a decided change for the better in the white labor supply during the past two years. A great many tourist laborers have been coming into California from Texas and Oklahoma and from the Northwest; and they have been generally liked wherever they have worked. In several years, when this class of labor has been trained in the
work they are doing, there is little reason to doubt but that they will equal if not surpass the orientals in efficiency and skill.

There is little reason for any serious change in the economic status of California agriculture as a result of the Alien Land Law. As long as the orientals can demand and command a decent wage there will be orientals to do the type of work that is shunned by white men, even if adequate substitutions by other racial groups or by machinery cannot be made. Production costs may be increased as a result of the fact that a laborer will not work as hard for wages as he might if he was working for himself, but this will undoubtedly be offset by a reduction in land rentals. A reduction in land rentals will make it possible for white tenants to make a living wage from the soil and eventually open up new sections of the State, as the population and the demands for agricultural products increase. Better living accommodations for labor will make it possible to attract a decent class of white labor to those industries to which white labor is most suitably adapted. The possible increase in white tenants and white laborers will be welcomed by all the white people of California and should make for a greater welfare and prosperity in the State.
Carbon copies missing Agricultural documents
1-36 inclusive
No single agency can make "California safe for agriculture", but the Agricultural Extension Service, as the name implies, is and has been of material assistance in raising the level of production, not necessarily by all farmers, but by those whose interest and enlightenment impel them to give intelligent thought to their business. Since this is the day of economic competition between farmers, such service offers to the up-and-coming farmer an inspiration and means of keeping his head above water.

With the passing of the Smith-Lever Act by Congress in 1913, California placed the first Farm Advisor in Humboldt County. A rapid growth, especially stimulated during the war period, has resulted in a total present force of some 135, including 41 county farm advisors, 33 assistant farm advisors, 3 club leaders, 33 home demonstration agents (women) and the Berkeley office staff of assistants to the director and specialists. At present the cost to the state is roughly one dollar for every eight or nine hundred dollars of crop and livestock production, a small sum when compared with the uplifting influence of the Service.

Originally, the county farm advisor's duties were largely confined to "trouble-shooting". Following this came the era of test and result and method demonstrations, by which certain tests of improved methods, varieties etc. were instituted on farms and results shown to meetings of farmers in the field. The influence from this type of work is evident throughout the state. Farmers have unconsciously taken up new practices in many cases without knowing where they got them!

One outstanding influence is reflected in a greater willingness on the part of farmers to organize for educational purposes, or economic betterment. The most influential farm organization in the state today, barring the marketing organization, is the Farm Bureau, a direct outgrowth of Extension Service activity. In addition, farmers are more prone today to "get together" for the accomplishment of any task, whether it be a new road or a piece of legislation. Most of this can be traced to a large degree to the influence of the Extension Service on the organization of agriculture.
At present a distinct change is noticed in Extension work, in line with changing aspects of production. While the problem of how to grow quality crops is still fundamental, greater interest is now manifest in economic phases. Hence the development of cost of production studies, industry analyses etc. In 1925 the first projects were started. In 1927 there are 45 analysis projects under way on 14 different commodities, in 27 counties, with approximately 1,350 farmers participating in the record-keeping phase.

It is estimated that the average butter-fat production per cow in the state was raised 40 pounds during the past five years, largely the result of culling associations and purebred bull campaigns waged by the Extension Service. California stands among the leaders in the nation in this kind of improvement.

Cost studies on peaches showed that in Stanislaus County in 1925 it cost $37.55 per ton to raise the average crop; in 1926, $23.58. With grapes, in the Fresno district, it was determined that it cost $65.81 to produce a ton of Thompson Seedless raisins; Muscats $60.15; green Malagas $22.72.

The influence of demonstrations in such matters as pruning, thinning, disease and pest control, culling etc. cannot be calculated.

An interesting phase of Extension work is that done by home demonstration agents among farm women, involving home improvement, nutrition, child care etc; in fact it would appear that as far as it has gone, such work was far more effective, or met a heartier response than has the farm advisor's work among men.

Statistical information regarding 1926 work of the Service follows.

"Nineteen twenty-seven starts off with 45 cost of production or industry analysis studies on 14 different commodities in 27 counties and with 1,350 farmers.

What did these farm advisors do last year? They made 48,331 farm visits to 21,331 different farms, exceeding 1925 by several thousand in each case. Over 80,000 callers visited their offices, 10,000 more than last year. While Farm Centers declined slightly in number, total attendance at meetings increased to 172,912, an average of 51 per meeting, the highest since the Service was organized. With and without the aid of club leaders, they carried 757 boys' and girls' clubs with an enrollment of 5,052, nearly a 70 per cent increase. Attendance at field demonstrations, over 2,000 of them, exceeded 54,000.

But, wait a minute. Think of the ladies. Four thousand, three hundred and fifty two farm homes were visited by home demonstration agents, and 5,883 meetings were held, attended by 126,594 farm wives. Babies are fatter, last year's hat looks better, the old sittin' room is now a living room and the kitchen a scientific workshop since "home demons" got busy." — Pacific Rural Press,

January 15, 1927.
PACIFIC COAST AGRICULTURE AND THE ORIENTAL

(A)

GENERAL PLAN

1. Very important to distinguish attitudes of
   
   (a) Capitalistic or large employer.
   (b) Small employer who makes use of Oriental labor
   (c) Farmer or laborer in direct competition
   (d) General students, including social workers.

2. All Oriental nationalities should be considered. Main attention, however, should be given to the Japanese with the Mexican and the migrant in competition with white laborer.

3. Typical, distinct localities should be studied as entities: i.e. In California intensive analysis should be made of
   
   (a) Fruit growing in Los Angeles and Orange counties.
   (b) Vegetable growing in Coachella Valley.
   (c) Vegetables and fruits in Imperial Valley.
   (d) Vineyards in Fresno County.
   (e) Melons in the Turlock district.
   (f) Sugar beets, strawberries in Watsonville, Salinas,
   (g) Berries and tomatoes in Santa Clara Valley.
   (h) Vegetables in the Delta district
   (i) Fruits in Sacramento and Placer Counties
   (j) Rice, fruits in Colusa district.

4. First-hand, comparative records are much needed giving -
   
   (a) Labor cost records of employers using different classes and nationalities.
   (b) Profit and loss records of Orientals themselves, in order to determine whether they would have done better as laborers, cash or crop tenants, or owners.
   (c) Individual biographies, well selected by (a) Locality
   (b) farm product, (c) nationality, with as much emphasis on failures as successes.

5. Persons or firms willing to help by providing answers may communicate with the offices of the Survey; or, if preferred, personal letters on all or any phase may be sent direct to Professor Eliot G. Mears, Stanford University, California, who is in charge of the agricultural study of the Survey.
1. What is your general attitude towards these agricultural workers - Chinese, Hindus, Japanese, white casual labor, Mexicans?

2. Do the above mentioned races have peculiar advantages (Write nationality after each query)?
   (a) training abroad?
   (b) stature?
   (c) work no one else will do (specify)?
   (d) work long hours?
   (e) stay on job until finished?

3. Which of the races may be reckoned "cheap labor" on basis of
   (a) wages paid?
   (b) efficiency secured?

4. What figures are there for labor turnover?
5. Can the whites stand the climate as well as Orientals and Mexicans? Please compare the races and also for (a) men, (b) women, (c) children.

6. Are more whites working for Orientals, or more Orientals working for whites? Give examples such as white owner, Japanese tenant, Mexican labor.

7. To what extent is the success or failure of the local grower or shipper tied up with control of distribution?

8. Is any of the local business handled by co-operative marketing associations? Specify. Are the results reasonably satisfactory?

9. What is your attitude towards the importations of

(a) negroes?
(b) Filipinos?
(c) Chinese?
(d) South Europeans?
GENERAL PLAN

1. Very important to distinguish attitudes of:
   (a) Capitalistic or large employer.
   (b) Small employer who makes use of Oriental labor.
   (c) Farmer or laborer in direct competition.
   (d) General students, including social workers.

2. All Oriental nationalities should be considered. Main attention, however, should be given to the Japanese and to the economic importance of the Mexican.

3. Typical, distinct localities should be studied as entities: i.e.
   In the southern part of the state, intensive analysis should be made of
   (a) Fruit growing in Los Angeles and Orange counties.
   (b) Vegetable growing in Coachella Valley.
   (c) Vegetables and fruits in Imperial Valley.
   (d) Vineyards in Fresno county.
   (e) Melons in the Turlock district.
   (f) Sugar beets, strawberries in Watsonville, Salinas.
   (g) Berries and Tomatoes in Santa Clara Valley.
   (h) Vegetables in the Delta district.
   (i) Fruits in Sacramento and Placer Counties.
   (j) Rice, fruits in Colusa district.

4. First-hand, comparative records are much needed giving,
   (a) Labor cost records of employers using different classes and nationalities.
   (b) Profit and loss records of Orientals themselves, in order to determine whether they would have done better as laborers, as crop tenants, or owners.
   (c) Individual biographies, well selected by (a) locality, (b) farm product, (c) nationality, with as much emphasis on failures as successes.

5. Persons or firms willing to help by providing answers may communicate with the offices of the survey; or, if preferred, personal letters on all or any phase may be sent direct to Professor Elliott W. Nears, Stanford University, California, who is in charge of the agricultural study of the survey.
I. LABOR PROBLEMS

1. Comment on the following statement in an official California report: "As a matter of established fact, the Oriental is of no appreciable value as a farm laborer to the American farmer."
2. Are more Orientals working for Whites, or Whites for Orientals? Give examples.
3. Assuming that Chinese, Hindus, Japanese, and Mexicans are available, how does an employer decide which to employ?
4. Do Orientals have any outstanding advantages over Whites because of (a) experience, (b) stature, (c) long hours, (d) work that no one else will undertake, (e) miscellaneous?
5. Are Orientals "cheap" labor, figuring on a comparative basis, on the basis of (a) money outlay, (b) efficiency?
6. Are Orientals permanent or transient workers? Do they form a large percentage of the migrant labor? If so, what nationalities?

II. LAND PROBLEMS

1. Do Orientals starve the soil? Answer for specific industries.
2. Does the presence of Orientals depress or enhance rural land values?
3. What methods are being employed by Orientals or Whites to evade the normal operation of the Alien Land Law? Give actual examples.
4. Can the present Oriental farmers or their second generation be depended upon as future farm laborers?
5. What will probably be the labor situation after this year's products are harvested?

III. COOPERATION

1. Are there any instances of cooperative farming, including the sharing of labor or agricultural implements and machinery?
2. Do Orientals become members of cooperative marketing associations, managed by Whites? What is their attitude regarding membership?
3. Do Orientals have their own cooperative associations for farming, wholesaling, marketing or retailing?
4. Do Oriental producers sell only, or in preference, to Oriental wholesalers, the sale only, or in preference, to Oriental regular retailers or to Oriental chain stores?
5. Do you know of actual instances of Orientals resorting to unfair methods to drive down land values for later purchase by them? Or price cutting in agriculture or in business? Of embargoes or boycotts of any kind?
6. Approximately what percentage, in value, of purchases by Orientals for (a) food, (b) clothing, (c) house furnishings, are made in non-Oriental stores?

Eliza G. Mears.
1. What are the objections to the Oriental as a farm owner and tenant?
2. How far are these objections economic, social, political?
3. What are the objections to the Oriental as a farm laborer?
4. From where do these objections come and on what specific experiences are they based?
5. In what regions is the competition of the Oriental tending to drive the American farmer from the land? Case studies.
6. Are there regions which the American farmer would not occupy even if there were no competition?
7. What other peoples are taking the place of the Orientals and in what regions?
8. Are these people likely to become a social and political problem? Do they assimilate and make good neighbors?
9. Are the Orientals leaving the land in Southern California and if so, where are they going? To the cities or to the lands of other states?
10. Will the gradual withdrawal of the Oriental from the land to the city or their migration or dispersion increase or decrease the value of the land now occupied and tilled by them?
11. How far are the present land laws in regard to Orientals being enforced. In what regions are they being most stringently enforced?
12. To what extent are the large holdings in Southern California being divided and farmed by small farmers?
13. Are there evidences that the large holdings will disappear or will any of the small holdings eventually be reconsolidated? If so, where is this likely to take place, and where will it not take place?
14. Is it desirable from the economic point of view to promote and enforce the same land policy in all agricultural regions of the State?
15. Is it desirable from the social or political point of view to promote and enforce the same land policy in all agricultural regions of state?
16. With the stopping of Oriental immigration will the present antagonism to the Oriental on the land decrease, or will it continue?
17. How far has the Mexican taken the place of the Oriental and in what regions?
18. Is the Mexican likely to become a social and political problem?
19. What measures should be taken to make the Mexican or any other group that takes the place of the Oriental a good citizen?