From Lighthouses to Laserbeams

A History of the U.S. Department of Commerce
From Lighthouses to Laserbeams
A History of the U.S. Department of Commerce

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
Office of the Secretary
1995
Acknowledgments

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Editor, Helen Bowers
Project Director, Malcolm Barr

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TO THE MEMORY OF
MALCOLM BALDRIGE
"What do we expect to accomplish by creating a Department of Commerce? The name of the new Department answers the question. We hope to develop new fields of profitable trade and foster old ones. We hope to facilitate industrial development and promote commerce at home and abroad....We will look to this Department to give direction to the energetic campaign that has for its object the conquest of the markets of the world by American merchants and manufacturers."

Congressman Charles F. Cochran
Congressional Record
January 15, 1903
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Introduction

The Department of Commerce has grown up with our Nation. In the early 20th century when the United States came of age as a serious industrial power, the U.S. Congress established a Department of Commerce dedicated to promoting and developing "new fields of trade and industry" and, in Congressman Charles F. Cochran's words, "(giving) direction...to the conquest of the markets of the world." It has.

The idea of a Department of Commerce truly began earlier in our history, however. Expanding commerce was one of the first goals of the nation and an essential motivation in the founding of the United States. It was one of the strongest links binding the independent states. Above a door at Commerce reads Thomas Jefferson's words: "Cultivate peace and commerce with all."

In the 1990s under President Clinton, and looking toward the next century, the Department of Commerce has focused on its key mission of economic growth. With its cross-cutting responsibilities in the areas of trade, technology, economic development, sustainable development and statistical research and analysis, Commerce provides expertise and advocacy which gives American businesses and workers an advantage in the international marketplace. Through its focus on expanding markets, providing a resource base, being a voice for American business at the highest levels, and keeping America at the technological cutting edge, millions of jobs have been created at home, while giving America a heightened economic leadership presence abroad.

Economic security is inextricably tied to national security in the post-Cold War world. Commercial engagement and expansion have been key to a successful, growing economy at home while meeting challenges abroad. Commerce programs are essential for all Americans—whether it is the services of the National Weather Service or the Census Bureau or the Patent Office or the National Institute of Standards and Technology or the Commercial Service.

"From Lighthouses to Laserbeams: A History of the Department of Commerce" takes us from the earliest days of our Republic, to the formation of the Department of Commerce, to today's global economy and the challenges we face, domestically and internationally, as a Nation and as a Department. The central focus of the Department remains as relevant today as when the Department was established nearly a century ago: "To foster, promote and develop the foreign and domestic commerce...of the United States." Now is the time to build on our successes to embrace the future with confidence.

June 20, 1995

Ronald H. Brown
Secretary of Commerce
We the People

of the United States, in order to form a more perfect Union, ensure domestic tranquility, provide for the common defense, promote the general Welfare, and secure the Blessings of Liberty to ourselves and our Posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

Article I

Section 1. All legislative Powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of

Section 2. The House of Representatives shall be composed of Members chosen every second Year by the People of the several States, and the Electors therein returned in such Manner as the several States may esteem most convenient. A Representation shall in all Cases, have the Right of Voting for their own Members. No Person shall be a Representative who shall not have attained to the Age of thirty Years, and been a Citizen of the United States for seven Years; and who shall not, at the Time of his Incumbency of that Office, have been at least three Years a Resident in that State which he shall represent.

Representatives and direct Taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective Numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole Number of free Persons, including those bound to Service for a Term of Years, and excluding Indians not taxed; all other Persons shall be three fifths of the whole. This Article shall be in Force ten Years from the Time this Constitution shall be ratified by the Legislatures of three Quarters of the several States, yet shall not affect the right of any State to[^...^]e in Congress, in any Manner, superior to the Representation of States, in the Congress of the United States.

Section 3. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof for a Term of six Years.

Immediately after they shall be assembled in Consequence of the first Election, they shall be divided into two Classes. The first Class shall consist of those Senators chosen in the first Year of their Session. The second Class shall consist of those Senators chosen in the fifth Year, and each succeeding Year of their Session. The Term ofSenators of the second Class, shall be for six Years; and that of the first Class, for nine Years. So that the Senate shall be composed of those Senators which shall be chosen in the second and third Years of each Election. The Senators then elected shall serve for the Remainder of the Term for which they were elected, and the Vacancies that may happen by Death, Removal, Inability, Incapacity, Disqualification, or otherwise, shall be filled by the Senate, during the Pleasure of the Senate.

Section 4. The Times, Places and Manner of holding Elections for Senators and Representatives, shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by Law make or alter such Regulations, except as to the Places of holding the first Election. The Congress shall assemble at least once in every Year, and such Meeting shall be on the first Monday in December.

Section 5. Each House shall keep a Journal of its Proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such Parts as may relate to Foreign Affairs. The Members of both Houses shall be responsible to their Respective Electors. A Majority of each House shall constitute a quorum for the purpose of deliberation and decision. Each House may determine the Rules of its Proceedings, punish its Members for disorderly Behavior, and, with the Consent of two thirds, expel a Member.

Each House shall choose its Speaker, and such other Officers as they think proper, and may at any time, during the Session of Congress, remove such of them as they think requisite, with the Concurrence of a Majority of each House.

Section 6. The Senate shall have the sole Power to try all Controversies arising between States under this Article, with such Exceptions as may be prescribed in the Constitution; but the Trial of Controversies as to the Territory beyond the Limits of the United States, shall be held in such Manner as the Congress shall prescribe. In all other Controversies between two or more States, the high Court shall have Jurisdiction. No State shall be deprived of its equal Suffrage in the Congress. No Person held to服ice in another State shall, without the Consent of the Person held to服ice, be discharged from such service, unless for Non-payment of his Wages.

Section 7. All Bills for raising Revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives, but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments, as may be thought proper, and return it, if not agreeable to the House of Representatives. When the Senate shall return it, the House of Representatives shall again consider it, and, if they shall think fit, shall add other Amendments, and then shall return it to the Senate, who shall likewise consider it, and report the Amendments, if any, which they think proper. If the Senate shall agree to it, the Bill shall be passed as the Law of the United States. If not, it shall be laid, during the Session of Congress, upon the Table of the other House, who shall likewise consider it, and if they agree to it, shall add their Amendments to it, and return it to the first House; who shall likewise consider it, and report it with such Amendments, if any, as they think proper. If the first House shall agree to them, the Bill shall be passed as the Law of the United States. If not, it shall be returned to the President of the United States, who may approve or disapprove it, and return it to the House of Congress which shall have first passed it; if he disapprove it, he shall return it, with his Objections, to that House, in which it shall originally have passed; and it shall there lie, upon its own Journals, for ten Days, which Days shall be excluded from the Time during which it is to lie upon the Journals, if it be not passed during the Session of Congress, it shall not be a Law.
I. From the Revolution to the Department of Commerce

Origins: 1776-1913

We the People of the United States, in order to form a more perfect Union, establish Justice, insure domestic Tranquility, provide for the common Defence, promote the general Welfare, and secure the Blessings of Liberty to ourselves and our Posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

Preamble to the Constitution of the United States
1787

On March 4, 1913, nearly 125 years after the Constitution established promotion of the general welfare as one of the great goals of government, President William Taft signed legislation creating the Department of Commerce.

It was the desire to promote the general welfare through expansion of commerce and industry that had brought the delegates to the fateful meeting in Philadelphia and made the Union possible.

The period between the Declaration of Independence in 1776 and the Constitutional Convention in 1787 had been tumultuous, marked by discord among the newly independent states. Trade had become particularly troublesome. At the time, much of the commerce between states was conducted along the Atlantic seaboard and via the waterways flowing into the Atlantic or the inland rivers. The Articles of Confederation allowed each state the freedom to create regulations, tariffs, and currency and to tax neighboring states using their ports and throughways for interstate or foreign commerce.

In 1785, legislators from Virginia and Maryland recognized the need to work together to ensure mutually profitable commerce on the shared waterways of the Potomac River and agreed to meet. George Washington, interested in plans to finance navigational improvements that would push the Potomac route westward to the Shenandoah and Ohio Valleys, offered the hospitality of Mount Vernon for the conference. A 13-point agreement, covering tidewater navigational rights, toll duties, commerce regulations, fishing rights and debt collections, was drawn.

Mt. Vernon Conference
The success of the Mount Vernon Conference led James Madison to write Washington about a proposal for a meeting with commissioners from other states to discuss matters of interstate commerce. A resolution appointing commissioners was introduced in the Virginia House of Delegates. The Virginia commissioners were to meet with other state delegates "to consider how far a uniform system in their
Resolve of the Virginia General Assembly Appointing Commissioners to the Annapolis Convention, January 21, 1786. No longer united in a war effort, the states exercised their commercial freedoms—in conflict with the Confederation Congress and with one another. The resulting trade crisis prompted the call for the 1786 Annapolis Convention. Among the Virginia delegates was James Madison, later described as the "Father of the Constitution." (From National Archives Exhibit, "Tis Done! We Have Become a Nation.")

commercial regulations may be necessary to their common interest and their permanent harmony."

In 1786, representatives from five states convened in Annapolis "to take into consideration the trade and commerce of the United States."

At this meeting, Alexander Hamilton, in a proposal cosigned by James Madison and Edmund Randolph, recommended a general meeting of all the states at a future convention. The mandate was to be broader than that of the Annapolis meeting, because, as Hamilton said, the delegates had been "induced to think that the power to regulate trade is of such comprehensive extent and will enter so far into the general system of the federal government, that to give it efficacy, and to obviate questions and doubts concerning its precise nature and limits, may require a correspondent adjustment of other parts of the federal system."

U.S. Constitution

This third meeting, which was held in Philadelphia in May, 1787, and presided over by George Washington, resulted in the replacement of the Articles of Confederation with a new United States Constitution, which was adopted on September 17, 1787.

As Hamilton had foreseen, an "adjustment" was made, a profound adjustment that fundamentally restructured the government. A national executive was authorized and new powers were given to the Congress. These included the power to
"regulate commerce with foreign nations and among the several states."

Among the proposals which were considered at the Constitutional Convention was one by Gouverneur Morris on August 20, 1787, to create a council of state "to assist the President in conducting the public affairs". Morris recommended that the third member be a "Secretary of Commerce and Finance, whose responsibilities would include recommending " such things as may in his judgment promote the commercial interests of the United States."

The Constitution, however, made no provision for a council of state, although soon after Washington took office, the Department of Foreign Affairs (July 27, 1789), renamed the Department of State (September 15, 1789), the War Department (August 7, 1789) and the Treasury Department (September 2, 1789) were created to help administer the new government. Treasury was given responsibility for business and commerce. The Secretaries of these departments and the Attorney General, who had been appointed under the act of September 24, 1789, became members of the first Cabinet.

Two States

With the new government in place, North Carolina and Rhode Island, the only two states yet to ratify the Constitution, found that their commerce and manufactures were to be treated in the same manner as those of any foreign country if they were not part of the United States. North Carolina joined on November 21, 1789; Rhode Island on May 29, 1790.

Commercial and industrial interests thus provided the vital key needed to open the door to the drafting of the Constitution and to its final acceptance by the 13 existing states.

George Washington, in his first address as President, said: "The advance of agriculture, commerce and manufactures by all proper means will not, I trust, need recommendation."

Congress in 1789 authorized the maintenance of lighthouses, still part of the contemporary landscape. More than 100 years later, in 1918, under auspices of the Department of Commerce, lighthouse keepers became the beneficiaries of Congress's first civil service retirement plan. Compensation for those reaching age 65 with 30 years service was one-fortieth of the average annual pay for the previous five years. Retirement at age 70 was compulsory.
Clara Barton, who later founded the American Red Cross, was among the first women clerks hired by the Patent Office, which opened Government office employment to women in 1853. Prior to this time, women had been employed to do clerical work in their own homes. (American Red Cross photo)

In December 1795, the House of Representatives created a Committee of Commerce and Manufactures as a third standing committee. (The Senate established a Commerce Committee in 1816.)

Navy Department
Before the turn of the 19th century, another executive department was added. The Navy Department was created on April 30, 1798, because of the impending war with France. In 1829, the Postmaster General was officially invited by President Andrew Jackson to join the Cabinet. The Department of the Interior came into being in 1849, and although broader duties had been proposed its focus became land and Indian affairs. In 1870, the Department of Justice was created.

In 1884, Congress established a Bureau of Labor in response to the urgings of labor. It was constituted as a separate department in 1888, but without Cabinet status.

Agriculture was the first industry of the country to be accorded an executive department by the Congress. The Department of Agriculture was authorized by the act of February 9, 1889.

Panic of 1893
By the mid-1890s, depression conditions which followed the "Panic of 1893" had caused the newly formed National Association of Manufacturers to set as a principal goal the formation of a Department of Commerce and Industry, which would include the independent Department of Labor and other agencies. Instead, in 1898, Congress created a U.S. Industrial Commission to investigate a number of economic and social problems, including the growing impact of corporate trusts on the national welfare.

Even when the Twelfth Census in 1900 showed that the aggregate value of manufacturing products of the United States exceeded $13 billion, approximately four times the value of all the products of agriculture, Congress did not respond to the pleas of business for a Cabinet agency for commerce and industry.

By this time, the enormous growth of business, industry, commerce and banking between 1850 and 1900 had resulted in an increase of the national wealth from under $5 billion to $88 billion, 20 percent of which was in the hands of fewer than 4,000 men.

Great Wealth
Some of these were among Theodore Roosevelt's "malefactors of great wealth," who had benefitted from the nation's rapid change from an agrarian society to an industrial one powered by steam engines, gasoline automobiles, electricity, telegraphs, and other inventions ranging from crude washing machines to zippers. Problems with transportation of increased volumes of materials and goods had already led to the establishment of an Interstate Commerce Commission in 1887 to regulate railroad rates and access.
At the end of the 1890s, with the assistance of President William McKinley's "Open Door" policy of actively promoting exports, the value of American manufactured goods sold abroad had almost tripled, and total foreign commerce had passed the $1 billion mark as exports exceeded imports for the first time. What was to be called the great commercial invasion of Europe had begun.

Still, Congress did not act on proposals for a Cabinet department for commerce until Roosevelt succeeded to the Presidency and recommended creation of a combined Department of Commerce and Labor in his first State of the Union message in 1901. Roosevelt wanted the new department to have the power to investigate corporate earnings and to guard the rights of the workingman.

Spurred by the President, once again Congress considered a proposal for a Department of Commerce. When the debate in Congress concluded, the advocates of a Department of Commerce agreed to a compromise with those seeking a Cabinet voice for labor. For the first time in the Nation's history, a vote was scheduled on the creation of a new executive department with a dual title, the Department of Commerce and Labor.

**Years: 1903-1913**

On February 14, 1903, Congress approved legislation (S.359) creating a Department of Commerce and Labor and President Theodore Roosevelt signed the bill (32 Statute 825) that same day. Two days later, Roosevelt nominated his personal secretary, George B. Cortelyou, to be the first Secretary. He was sworn in on February 18, 1903.

The new Department of Commerce and Labor was one of the largest and most complicated in Government. It included a Bureau of Corporations, Bureau of Immigration, Bureau of Navigation, Light-
The Act creating the Department of Commerce and Labor on February 14, 1903, provided that "The said Secretary shall cause a seal of the office to be made for the said Department of such device as the President shall approve, and judicial notice shall be taken of the said seal." On April 14, 1913, after the separation of Commerce and Labor into two departments, the President approved a Department of Commerce seal of the following device:

"Arms: Per fesse azure and or a ship in full sail on waves of the sea, in chief proper; and in base a lighthouse illumined proper.

Crest: The American Eagle displayed.

Around the Arms, between two concentric circles, are the words:

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA"

The original symbolism described in the approved document stated that:

"The ship is a symbol of Commerce, and the blue denotes uprightness and constancy. The lighthouse illustrates one of the principal functions of the Department—the illumination is a symbol of its duty in commercial enlightenment. The gold denotes purity and sterling worth. The crest is the eagle of the American arms and denotes the national scope of the Department."
Promoting Commerce

Charged with fostering, promoting and developing foreign and domestic commerce, the mining, manufacturing, shipping and fishery industries, the labor interests, and the transportation facilities of the United States, the Department's work was to include:

- investigating management of corporations (except railroads) engaged in interstate commerce;
- administering the Lighthouse Service, including the establishment and maintenance of aids to navigation;
- taking the census;
- making coast and geodetic surveys;
- collecting and publishing statistics on foreign and domestic commerce;
- investigating markets for American products;
- inspecting steamboats and enforcing laws pertaining thereto for the protection of life and property;
- supervising Alaskan fur-seal and salmon fisheries;
- monitoring merchant vessels, including their registry, measurement, licensing, entry, and clearance;
- applying immigration law; and
- collecting information on hours of labor, earnings, and means of promoting material, social, intellectual and moral prosperity.

The Secretary also was required to make special investigations as requested and to report annually to the President on Department activities.

The youngest department had responsibility for some of the oldest programs in government: The maintenance of lighthouses was authorized by Congress in 1789. The first census was conducted in 1790. Thomas Jefferson signed legislation creating a “Survey of the Coast” in 1807. The Treasury Department started keeping statistics on waterborne foreign commerce in 1820 and organized an Office of Weights and Measures in 1836.

Within five months, when all transfers were complete, the Department of Commerce and Labor grew from one official, the Secretary, to a total of 10,125 people in Washington and the country at large.

Cortelyou served only a year before being called to manage Roosevelt's presidential campaign in June, 1904. But his successor, California congressman Victor H. Metcalf, found that the work of organizing
The following is a complete list of all furniture, equipment, etc., transferred from the Office of the Secretary of Commerce to the Office of the Secretary of Labor:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Articles</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Articles</th>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>House, &quot;Grace&quot; and &quot;Nellie&quot;</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>200.00</td>
<td>Stools, assorted</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.02</td>
</tr>
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<td>2</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>Switchboard, telegraph</td>
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<td>Ladders, step</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>Tables</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>58.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>Linoleum</td>
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<td>2,286.38</td>
<td>Trays</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>10.80</td>
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<td>Lockers, wood</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>Truck, 4-wheel</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16.20</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mats</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>66.55</td>
<td>Tumbler</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12.12</td>
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<td>Mirror, walnut frame</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>Typewriters</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>73.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>Multigraph, Gammeter, No. 4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>300.00</td>
<td>Wardrobes</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>60.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. 4, with type</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>300.00</td>
<td>Weights, paper</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.14</td>
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<td>Numbering machines</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>62.90</td>
<td>Towels</td>
<td>680</td>
<td>117.20</td>
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<tr>
<td>Openers, envelope</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>9,493.54</td>
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</table>


The Department has also transferred to the Department of Labor $39,600 from its contingent fund and $84,000 from its printing allotment for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1914.
the Department had been "as thorough and complete" as was possible.

During Metcalf's tenure, the Bureau of Manufactures, which would be most directly related to the primary function of the Department—the promotion of industry and commerce—was established in 1905 with an $11,020 appropriation and provision for seven employees, including a bureau chief and assistant messenger.

Secretaries

There were two more Secretaries of Commerce and Labor over the combined Department's limited lifespan, Oscar S. Straus, a businessman and former U.S. Minister to Turkey (1906-1909), and Charles Nagel, a politician and Missouri supreme court justice (1909-1913).

The Department became the increasing focus of requests for information of every kind—scientific, sociological, statistical, and commercial.

By 1912, manufactures accounted for 47 percent of exports, up from 32 percent in 1902 and 18 percent in 1892, with a total value exceeding $1 billion for the first time.

In a report to Roosevelt, Straus summarized the climate in these words: "Our age has been very properly called an era of commercial development and expansion, and the United States, by reason of its many exceptional advantages, its boundless natural resources, and possessing a growing, intelligent, energetic, enterprising, and self-reliant population, is reaping a greater share of industrial and commercial prosperity than any of the other nations of the world."

As the need for ever-expanding markets for manufactures intensified and workers moved from farm to factory in greater numbers, labor brought increasing pressure for separation of the Department's functions and independent Cabinet status. President William Taft signed legislation on March 4, 1913, his last day in office, splitting the combined department. Labor was given Cabinet status and the designation of the Department of Commerce and Labor was changed to the Department of Commerce.

It had taken more than a century for the Congress to establish an executive department exclusively devoted to the commercial and manufacturing interests of the Nation.

Evolution: 1913-1995

On March 5, 1913, President Woodrow Wilson appointed manufacturing executive and politician William C. Redfield as first Secretary of Commerce. The Department, with its labor components detached, was composed of the Coast and Geodetic Survey, Steamboat Inspection Service, and Bureaus of Corporations, Census, Lighthouses, Standards, Navigation, Fisheries, and Foreign and Domestic Commerce.

The bureau offices were scattered about Washington in six separate places, some of them miles apart. Redfield complained that Fisheries "occupied an old structure which was a fitting victim for a judicious fire," and the Coast and Geodetic Survey "was placed but not accommodated in a group of ancient habitations near the Capitol."

Fiscal stewardship had become an important responsibility with enactment of the 16th amendment in 1913 giving Congress the power to levy an income tax, and Redfield's report on equipment transferred to Labor included a $5.00 horse blanket, a 50¢ hitching weight, and an 18¢ calendar stand.
This editorial cartoon was printed 100 years after the first U.S. census. Question 19—“Are you able to read?” Question 21—“Able to speak English?” Question 23—“Are you defective in mind, sight, or speech, or crippled, maimed or deformed? State name of defect.” Question 24—“Are you a prisoner, convict, homeless child, or pauper?” (From the census of 1890—Frank Leslie’s Illustrated Newspaper, June 14, 1890)
Congress provided only $60,000 for “promoting commerce” and eliminated funding for domestic statistics. Nonetheless, Redfield undertook three major changes. A new force of commercial attaches, bilingual and with business experience, was created; industry specialists were sent abroad to make market studies; and Branch offices were opened in eight major cities.

**Bureau Expansion**

Redfield also actively supported expansion of the Bureau of Standards, convinced that “on the whole American manufacturers failed to apply science to industry.”

World War I thrust both commercial attaches and scientists into the war effort to provide overseas data and develop strategic materials and equipment. Department vessels also assisted the military, one participating in disabling the German submarine that sank the Lusitania. Census records were used for information on the numbers of draft-eligible males and for data on the nation’s manufacturing capabilities.

Even before the war, the Department of Commerce had initiated a campaign to recycle paper, beginning the first national salvage effort. Such campaigns became crusades with President Warren Harding’s appointment of Herbert Hoover to head the Department in 1921. Known as the “great engineer,” Hoover accepted the job determined to expand foreign commerce through greater productivity and better business methods.

His friend Oscar Straus, a former Secretary of Commerce and Labor, had told him that the office required only a couple of hours of work a day and “no other
The first-known federal pilot's license was issued by the Department of Commerce on an altered Steamboat Inspection Service form in 1914. (National Air and Space Museum photo)

Copper engravings such as this one by draughtsman James A. Whistler, later a famous artist, became collectors' items.
qualification than to be able to put the fish to bed at night and turn on the lights around the coast." However, Hoover, stating that for too long the Department had been a Department of Commerce "in name only," was to make it one of the most powerful in Government.

In 1922, Congress added to Commerce a Building and Housing Division. In 1925, the Bureau of Mines and the Patent Office were transferred from Interior. In 1926, Congress added an Aeronautics Division, forerunner of the Federal Aviation Administration. And in 1927, Commerce gained a Radio Division, which would be incorporated into the Federal Communications Commission.

Convinced that exports were a key to business stability, Hoover emphasized the Department's trade promotion activities. By 1925, American foreign trade had increased by one-third over that of 1913. By 1927, the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce was servicing 2,400,000 inquiries about potential markets. One of the Department's coups, described as the "Coals to Newcastle" miracle, occurred in 1922 when the Department of Commerce found a market in Japan for California's huge rice surplus.

**Balance of Payments**

The Department began balance of payments reporting in 1921 as part of Hoover's program to turn the Census Bureau into a "proper bureau of statistics," publishing the data in the first "Survey of Current Business." This reporting program evolved into the current comprehensive system of basic economic measurements.
President Herbert C. Hoover addresses guests at the 1929 cornerstone laying for the Department of Commerce Building, which was renamed for Hoover in 1982. Hoover used the same trowel George Washington used to lay the Capitol cornerstone.

Sequoia II, a Department of Commerce vessel 1931-1933, was commissioned USS Sequoia and Presidential Yacht by Hoover in one of his last acts as President. Shown here sailing from Washington.
Reference was made in the Department's 1928 annual report to a trend which would appear again in the 1980s, the occupation shift from manufacturing into mercantile, professional and personal service pursuits. The report noted that some 3,000,000 persons, in addition to those directly involved in automobile manufacturing, had jobs connected with motor cars (i.e. selling, servicing, accessories, building roads, and driving trucks, taxicabs and buses).

**Departmental Safety Programs**

During the twenties, the Department also participated in a number of programs to increase public safety. These included the development of national safety codes for protecting the heads and eyes of industrial workers and for the installation and use of electricity. The Department also assisted in the development of traffic signals and rules and standards for safe road and air travel, an expansion of its early responsibility for safe ocean travel.

Hoover's successes were evident in larger budgets for the Department, an increase from $860,000 in 1920 to more than $38 million in 1928, a period when other agencies were being limited.

**Market Collapse**

Hoover was elected President of the United States in 1928, but the Nation's bright economic outlook ended with the collapse of the stock market in 1929. Between 1929 and 1932, the national income declined monetarily by more than 50 percent, from $87.4 billion to $41.7 billion, and more than 40 percent in terms of goods and services. Exports fell 34 percent and imports 37 percent. U.S. foreign trade was at its lowest point since the 1913 creation of the Department.

Franklin Roosevelt's defeat of Hoover brought about a drastic reduction in Department activities. During Roosevelt's first year in office, the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce closed 21 of its 53 offices. Daniel Roper, Roosevelt's appointee as Secretary of Commerce, said that the Department “important under normal conditions, was at this time suffering from the fact that business was in the doghouse.” New Dealers such as Sam G. Bratton, Senator from New Mexico, proposed a joint House and Senate committee “to consider the advisability of abolishing the Department of Commerce and the transfer of its indispensable services to other agencies.”

*Streets were crowded with citizens panicked by the closing of banks all over the Nation following the stock market crash in 1929.*
Interior of a U.S. Fish Commission railroad car used as a water testing laboratory and to transport fish throughout the country. (Library of Congress photo)

Fred D. Fogg, Jr., Director of Air Commerce, (left), and Colonel J. Monroe Johnson, Assistant Secretary of Commerce, at inquiry into crash of the dirigible Hindenburg held by Department of Commerce at Lake Hurst, New Jersey, in 1937.
The Department's main responsibility was administration of the National Industrial Recovery Act, intended to boost business by establishing minimum prices, but the Act was subsequently declared unconstitutional. Other agencies were responsible for the bulk of Roosevelt's business recovery program.

Transfers

Unable to support a Department reorganization in 1938, Roper left. The Bureau of Air Commerce functions were transferred to the Civil Aeronautics Authority, the Bureau of Lighthouses was consolidated with the U.S. Coast Guard at the Treasury Department, the Bureau of Fisheries was transferred to the Department of the Interior, where the Bureau of Mines had been placed in 1934, and the Foreign Commerce Service of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce was transferred to the Department of State.

In 1940, the Weather Service and the Civil Aeronautics Administration became Commerce components. The effects of the war being waged in Europe were evident in U.S. trade figures which showed exports down by some 25 percent and imports by 20 percent.

Pearl Harbor brought the full forces of the Department into the World War II effort. Uniform standards to ensure absolute interchangeability of parts for airplanes, tanks and guns came from the Bureau of Standards working with the Bureau of Domestic and Foreign Commerce to increase war production. Pilot training programs by the Civil Aeronautics Administration were greatly expanded to provide Army and Navy flying cadet recruits. Commerce oversaw the National Inven-

*Image: Weather observation airplane.*
Women being trained to read meteorological instruments and plot maps during World War II.

U.S. military personnel examine documents found hidden in Frankfurt, Germany, in 1946. The papers were among those in 32 boxes weighing 400 pounds each which were dropped into a ravine. The hiding area had been heavily protected by explosives. Many such documents were included in the Department of Commerce Office of Technical Services archives. (National Archives photo)
tors Council to expedite the screening of inventions and suggestions with national defense potential. From the scientists at the Bureau of Standards came the proximity fuze and an early version of the guided missile. Commerce became an essential source of maps, meteorological projections and other data.

War's End
At the war's end, Commerce became guardian to more than 3.5 billion pages of German documents and 300,000 pounds of German equipment and product samples. The National Technical Information Service grew from Government efforts to make the data available to American industry.

By 1949, export controls were being continued not to protect the domestic economy from a drain on important commodities, but for foreign policy and national security reasons. Commerce's Office of International Trade, concerned about the continued surplus of exports over imports, was emphasizing the promotion of imports so that other countries could earn more dollars. Greater foreign travel of U.S. tourists and businessmen also was encouraged as was investment of private capital in "sound foreign enterprises."

The Bureau of Public Roads was moved to Commerce in 1949 and the Maritime Administration in 1950. With these additions to its aeronautical functions, Commerce became the Government's principal transportation agency. Aviation was transferred in 1958, but highways remained and Commerce implemented the Interstate Highway Act in the 1950s. In 1967, highways and other land transportation responsibilities were moved to the new Department of Transportation.

The Korean War turned Department attention primarily to defense production and wartime allocation, while foreign trade was promoted outside the Communist-bloc countries.

Trade Agreement
The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade, the compact policing world trade, was renegotiated in the late 1950s. American manufacturers began to face growing competition from abroad. Also during this period, Commerce assisted the Atomic Energy Commission in the design and production of a nuclear powered ship.

At the beginning of the 1960s, Commerce supervised U.S. participation in two world fairs, the Century 21 Exposition at Seattle and the New York World's Fair.

In 1961, the Department reported that world trade boomed to a record high. U.S. exports peaked at $19.9 billion. Imports declined to $13.9 billion. Two thirds of the decline resulted from curtailed imports of foreign cars. Americans were buying new
Trade promotion activities were expanded with increased emphasis on trade mission and trade fair programs encouraged by the newly organized Bureau of International Programs and Bureau of International Business Operations as international payments' problems increased in the 1960s.

Nuclear Ship (N.S.) Savannah, the world's first experimental atomic-powered merchant ship, was a joint project of the Department of Commerce Maritime Administration and the Atomic Energy Commission. Named for the first ship to use steam on a trans-Atlantic crossing, N.S. Savannah made her maiden voyage in 1962.
U.S. made “compact” automobiles. The $6 billion favorable trade balance was more than double that of the preceding year. Secretary Luther Hodges warned, however, that the United States still faced serious problems in international payments. These included a sharp increase in the outflow of private capital, mainly short-term funds, and a deficit in service transactions, such as tourism and shipping.

There was a sweeping reorganization of the Bureau of Foreign Commerce to concentrate on promoting exports. In June 1961, the first of five American overseas trade centers was opened in London. It recorded $1 million worth of sales within seven days. Department trade specialists participated in scores of trade clinics around the country. An Export Expansion Seminar in Baltimore resulted in $100,000 in international sales for a necktie manufacturer in less than six months. The President’s “E” Award was created to recognize noteworthy export promotion by U.S. manufacturers.

Export Controls

The Soviet-bloc countries began to express interest in acquiring technical know-how from the United States. Most of the requests were for chemical and petrochemical technical data. Commerce was responsible for export controls pertaining to U.S. national security and foreign policy objectives.

Through the National Defense Executive Reserve, consisting of more than 1,000 businessmen trained to keep industry and transportation systems operating in a national emergency, Commerce monitored industrial preparedness.

The early 1960s were a time of acceleration for the Interstate Highway program being managed by the Department’s Bureau of Public Roads. With a 1972 target date, the Bureau reported that 25,724 miles of the planned 41,000 mile system had been improved or were being worked on. The Bureau also reported on the National Driver Register Service for participating states. The register, operated on a voluntary basis, was a file on motor-vehicle operators whose driving privileges had been withdrawn for driving while intoxicated or for conviction of a violation involving a traffic fatality. Forty-seven States were in the program.

Highway Safety

Highway safety was another function of the Bureau, which sponsored studies on highway design and the physical and psychological aspects of driving. A report on accidents on rural roads showed that young drivers had high accident involvement rates. Less expected was the finding that low travel speeds were directly correlated with high accident involvement.

Two new programs began in Commerce in 1961, a pilot project for economic development below the national level and the promotion of foreign tourism to the United States. The pilot project became permanent with the establishment of the Economic Development Administration in 1965. The U.S. Travel Service was a forerunner of the U.S. Travel and Tourism Administration created in 1981.
The Department of Commerce Community Relations Service, established in 1964 following passage of the Civil Rights Act, worked with local leaders to settle disputes arising out of discriminatory practices. In 1966, the Service was transferred to the Department of Justice.

Department of Commerce International Trade Administration officials meet with Russian representatives at the Soviet International Food Processing Equipment Trade Show in 1986, marking the resumption of formal U.S. trade promotion in the U.S.S.R.
Passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 brought the Community Relations Service to the Department of Commerce. The agency was transferred to the Department of Justice two years later.

In 1966, the Maritime Administration reported that 101 ships had been withdrawn from the National Defense Reserve Fleets to carry supplies to American military forces in Vietnam. In 1968, by Presidential directive, the Secretary of Commerce was charged with reducing foreign direct investments by $1 billion.

Four Percent for Trade

The Department in 1969 was composed of 16 agencies with 25,400 employees. Less than four percent of the budget was directed toward the stimulation and regulation of international trade.

With the change of administration, Commerce initiated a minority business enterprise program, an ombudsman for business was established, an Office of Telecommunications was added, and the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, consolidating Commerce programs and those of five other agencies, was created.

These changes increased the size and scope of the Department for the first time in many years. By 1972, there were 35,000 employees.

In 1971, the U.S. suffered its first negative balance of trade since statistics had been kept.

East-West trade was promoted during the early seventies, as trade barriers against the Soviet Union were relaxed. There were also overtures to the People's Republic of China and to portions of Eastern Europe.

In 1974, the National Fire Prevention and Control Administration became a Department of Commerce agency. In 1979, it was transferred to the Federal Emergency Management Administration.

By the end of the decade, the United States had imposed trade sanctions on the Soviet Union.

Leadership

In the 1980s, under the leadership of Secretary Malcolm Baldrige, the Department of Commerce again became a major force in national policy making. The International Trade Administration was strengthened with new trade promotion and policing powers. The Commerce Secretary was named by the President to chair a Cabinet-level Trade Strike Force to search out unfair trading practices and recommend corrective measures.

Commerce took a lead role in supporting passage of the Export Trading Company Act of 1982 to provide new export-related jobs by allowing small- and medium-sized businesses to enter exporting.

In one six-day stretch in June 1985, Secretary Baldrige held trade conferences with General Secretary Gorbachev of the Soviet Union, Prime Minister Gandhi of India, and Premier Zhao Ziyang of the People's Republic of China.

Modernization Program

At the mid-1980s, the Department's modernization programs included automating the patent process, updating the weather service with advanced spacecraft for the nation's civil satellite systems, and developing the factory of the future.

In October 1987, a Bureau of Export Administration was added by Congress to handle licensing and export enforcement. Of the agencies originally assigned to the Department, three, the Coast and Geodetic Survey, renamed the National Ocean Service, the National Bureau of Standards, now the National Institute of Standards and Technology, and the Census Bureau remained.

In 1995, the Department of Commerce, with programs newly created and streamlined and others as resilient as the Constitution, was helping the Nation, its communities, businesses and individual citizens meet the challenges of economic growth and a new global economy.
A BILL
To establish the Department of Commerce.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representa-
tives of the United States of America in Congress assembled,

That there shall be at the seat of government an executive
department to be known as the Department of Commerce, and
a secretary of commerce who shall be the head thereof, who
shall be appointed by the President, by and with the advice
and consent of the Senate, who shall receive a salary of eight
thousand dollars per annum, and whose term and tenure of
office shall be like that of the heads of the other Executive
Departments; and section one hundred and fifty-eight of the
Revised Statutes is hereby amended to include such depart-
ment, and the provisions of title four of the Revised Statutes,
II. Legislative Overview

It is simply a transfer of these bureaus from one department to another more in harmony with the general purpose for which the new Department is created.

Senator John Spooner
Congressional Record
January 22, 1902

The organization and programs of the Department of Commerce were changed over the years to reflect new national needs and priorities. The most significant of these changes are included below:

1903 The Department of Commerce and Labor was created by the Act of February 14 (32 Stat. 826; 5 U.S.C. 591).

1905 The Bureau of Manufactures was established.

1906 The Bureau of Immigration was changed to the Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization by the Act of June 29 (34 Stat. 596).

1913 The Department of Labor was created by the Act of March 4 (37 Stat. 737; 5 U.S.C. 616). The designation Department of Commerce and Labor was changed to the Department of Commerce.

1915 The Bureau of Corporations was merged March 16 with the Federal Trade Commission.

1925 The Patent Office was transferred from the Department of the Interior to the Department of Commerce by Executive Order of April 1 in accordance with the Act of February 14, 1903 (32 Stat. 830).

The Bureau of Mines was transferred from the Department of Interior to the Department of Commerce (Executive Order 4239 of June 4).

1926 A Federal policy on commercial aeronautics was established by the Act of May 20 (44 Stat. 568) placing the administration of commercial aeronautics under the Department of Commerce. The Aeronautics Branch was created within the Department.
1927 Creation of the Federal Radio commission (which after one year's operation would have some of its powers transferred to the Department of Commerce) was provided for by the Act of February 23 (44 Stat. 1162).

The Radio Division of the Department of Commerce was created February 26 in the Office of the Secretary.

1931 The Federal Employment Stabilization Board was created February 10 to plan and regulate construction of public works to assist in preventing unemployment during business depressions.

1932 The Radio Division was abolished and its functions transferred to the Federal Radio Commission (Executive Order 5892 of July 20).

1934 The Federal Employment Stabilization Board was abolished and the Federal Employment Stabilization Office established in the Department of Commerce (Executive Order 6623 of March 23).

Transfer of the Bureau of Mines to the Department of the Interior was authorized effective April 23 (Executive Order 6611 of February 22).

The Aeronautics Branch was renamed the Bureau of Air Commerce July 1.

1936 The Bureau of Air Commerce assumed entire responsibility for air traffic control July 6.

1938 The Bureau of Air Commerce was transferred August 22 to the Civil Aeronautics Authority, created under the Civil Aeronautics Act of 1938 (52 Stat. 973; 49 U.S.C. 401).

1939 The Federal Employment Stabilization Office was abolished by section 4 of Reorganization Plan No. 1 (53 Stat. 1423).

The Bureau of Lighthouses (Lighthouse Service) was transferred to the Department of the Treasury by section 2 of Reorganization Plan No. II (53 Stat. 1431). This Plan also transferred the Inland Waterways Corporation to the Department of Commerce (sec.6), the Bureau of Fisheries to the Department of the Interior (sec. 4E), and the Foreign Commerce Service to the Department of State (sec. 1).

1940 The Weather Bureau was transferred June 30 from the Department of Agriculture to the Department of Commerce. The Civil Aeronautics Authority was transferred from its independent status to the Department of Commerce. The Authority was comprised of the Administrator of Civil Aeronautics and the Civil Aeronautics Board. The Board's management functions only were to be Department responsibilities. These actions were authorized by sections 7 and 8 of Reorganization Plan IV (54 Stat. 1234). That part of the Civil Aeronautics Authority under the direction of the Administrator of Civil Aeronautics was designated as the Civil Aeronautics Administration. (Department of Commerce Order No. 52 of August 29).
1942 The Bureau of Marine Inspection and Navigation was transferred to the Department of the Treasury (Executive Order 9083 of March 1).

1945 Reorganization of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce resulted in the establishment of the Office of International Trade, Office of Small Business, Office of Domestic Commerce, Office of Field Operations, and Office of Business Economics, all within the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce (Department Order 10 of December 18).

The Office of Declassification and Technical Services was established in the Office of the Secretary.

1946 The Office of Declassification and Technical Services was redesignated as the Office of Technical Services.

1948 The Office of Industry Cooperation was established to administer the voluntary agreements program pursuant to Public Law 395, 80th Congress (Department Order 96 of January 22).

1949 The Hoover Commission reported March 1 to the Congress its recommendation on reorganization of the Department of Commerce.

The Public Roads Administration was transferred August 20 from the Federal Works Agency to the Department of Commerce by Reorganization Plan No. 7 (5 U.S.C. 630b). (Department Order 117 of May 24).

The Office of Transportation and the Transportation Council were established (Department Order 128 of November).

1950 The Federal Maritime Board was established in the Department of Commerce, the Maritime Administration created as an agency in the Department, and the United States Maritime Commission abolished by Reorganization Plan No. 21 (5 U.S.C. 170) (Department Order 117 of May 24).

1951 The Defense Air Transportation Administration was created pursuant to Executive Order 10219 of February 28 (Department Order 137 of November 12).

1953 The Office of Transportation was abolished (Department Order 128, Amended, Amendment 1 of March 30) and its work thereafter focused directly in the Office of the Under Secretary for Transportation.

The Inland Waterways Corporation was sold July 1 to the Federal Barge Lines, Inc.

Four weaponry divisions and the Corona Laboratories of the National Bureau of Standards were transferred to the Department of Defense pursuant to a memorandum of understanding between the Secretary of Commerce and the Secretary of Defense (18 F.R. 5713, September 23).

The Office of Business Economics was established as a primary organization unit of the Department (Department Order 15, Amended, of December 1).

1955 The Office of International Trade Fairs was established (Department Order 15, Amended, of December 1).
1956 Appropriations for major expansion of the Federal highway system, administered by the Bureau of Public Roads, were authorized June 29 by the Federal Highway Act of 1956 (70 Stat. 374).

1958 Saint Lawrence Seaway Development Corporation's operations were placed under the direction and supervision of the Secretary of Commerce by Executive Order 10771 of June 20.

The Civil Aeronautics Administration was abolished December 31 and its functions and authorities were transferred to the Federal Aviation Agency by the Federal Aviation Act of 1956 (70 Stat. 374).

1961 The United States Travel Service was established by the International Travel Act of 1961 (22 U.S.C. 2121-2126).

1965 The Economic Development Administration (EDA) was established under the Public Works and Economic Development Act of 1965 (42 U.S.C. 3121). EDA succeeded the Area Redevelopment Administration which was added to Commerce in 1961.

The Coast and Geodetic Survey and the Weather Bureau were consolidated to form the Environmental Science Services Administration by Reorganization Plan No. 2 of 1965.

The Office of State Technical Services was established pursuant to the State Technical Services Act of 1965 (15 U.S.C. 1351).

1966 The Community Relations Service was transferred from Commerce to the Department of Justice by Reorganization Plan No. 1, effective April 22, 1966.

Congress transferred the Office of the Under Secretary for Transportation, the Bureau of Public Roads, the Great Lakes Pilotage Administration, and the St. Lawrence Seaway Development Corporation to the newly created Department of Transportation by the Act of October 15, 1966 (40 U.S.C. 1651).

1969 The Office of Minority Business Enterprise was established by the Secretary under authority of Executive Order 11458.

1970 The Office of Telecommunications was established by the Secretary pursuant to Reorganization Plan No. 1 of 1970.

The National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) was formed on October 3, 1970 by Reorganization Plan No. 4 of 1970. NOAA succeeded the Environmental Science Services Administration which was created by a reorganization in 1965.

The National Technical Information Service was established by the Secretary September 2, 1970, under authority of 15 U.S.C. 1151.

The Office of State Technical Services was phased out in June 1970.
1971 Executive Order 11625 expanded the programs and activities of the Office of Minority Business Enterprise.

1972 The Office of Business Economics was renamed the Bureau of Economic Analysis because of a reorganization of the Department’s principal statistical agencies.


1977 Realignment of some of the bureaus of the Domestic and International Business Administration resulted in the establishment of the Industry and Trade Administration by the Secretary.


1978 The National Telecommunications and Information Administration (NTIA) was established in 1978 in response to Executive Order 12046 of March 27, 1978. Commerce’s Office of Telecommunications and the Office of Telecommunications Policy of the Executive Office of the President were merged.


The name of the Office of Minority Business Enterprise was changed to the Minority Business Development Agency by Department Order 25-4A.

1980 The International Trade Administration was established on January 2, 1980, by the Secretary.

1981 The United States Travel and Tourism Administration was established by the National Tourism Policy Act of 1981 (22 U.S.C. 2121).


1987 The United States Export Administration was created pursuant to the Export Administration Amendments of 1985, which transferred the export licensing and export enforcement functions of the Commerce Department from the International Trade Administration to the Export Administration. The Act established an effective date of October 1, 1986, which was later extended to October 1, 1987. January 1988 the name was changed to the Bureau of Export Administration.

1988 The Technology Administration was established by Congress to work with U.S. industry to promote the Nation’s economic competitiveness (15 U.S.C. 3704).
III. Building for the 21st Century

THE American journey has not ended. America is never accomplished. America is always to build.

Archibald MacLeish
Entrance to U.S. Pavilion
New York's World Fair 1964

The Department of Commerce promotes the Nation's economic growth. It fosters business and industry, stimulates international trade, measures and analyzes social development and economic activity, and advances scientific and technological progress.

Central to the Department's mission to foster, promote and develop foreign and domestic commerce and the manufacturing industries of the United States are services to the business community.

The Department of Commerce provides business with basic economic research data necessary to make sound decisions on industrial growth. It promotes the increased use of science and technology in the development of U.S. industrial capacity and the production of civilian goods. Through offices in major U.S. cities and more than 100 posts in scores of foreign countries, the Department develops international trade opportunities. It also administers legislation that helps U.S. industry and labor counter unfair foreign trade practices.

Commerce programs promote long-term, job-producing enterprises among minority groups and in areas across the United States. Commerce resources include reports, publications, projections and expertise on the full gamut of business activity.

The Department's oceanic and atmospheric programs further the Nation's safety, welfare, security and commerce through increasing knowledge and rational use of the natural environment. Predicting the weather, charting the seas and skies, protecting ocean resources and collecting data on oceans, space and sun are Commerce functions.

Partnership

The Department of Commerce has been in partnership with U.S. business for 75 years to maintain a prosperous, productive America, committed to consumer safety, protective of natural resources and militarily strong. This partnership has resulted in innovative programs and scientific breakthroughs in manufacturing, transportation, communications, measurement and materials which continue to ensure the United States a leadership role in the international marketplace.

New challenges, however, demand new responses. In agencies throughout the Department, the step beyond lighthouses to laserbeams is being anticipated in modernization programs that will probe deeper into the ocean, higher into the sky, and bring world markets closer in the years ahead.

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The International Trade Administration (ITA) is the Commerce agency most closely identified with the Department's primary mission: "to foster, promote and develop the commerce and industry" of the United States.

Created in 1980 in response to highly-charged international trade competition, ITA little resembles in numbers or responsibilities the country's first trade office, whose sole function was the collection of trade statistics.

In 1820, Congress passed a law calling for the compilation and publication of statistics on the nation's waterborne foreign commerce. These were gathered by local customs agents, and a Division of Commerce and Navigation was organized in the Treasury Department to publish the data. In 1866, with expanded information gathering duties, this became the Bureau of Statistics.

New Department

The Bureau remained in the Treasury Department until February 1903, when it moved to the newly created Department of Commerce and Labor. Its first report as a Commerce Department component documented the rise of U.S. foreign trade to its greatest height—$2.45 billion—with exports exceeding imports by some $470 million. In addition to publishing international trade figures, the Bureau also published figures on domestic commerce. Initially, figures came primarily from the Great Lakes ports or from seaports, but the Bureau gradually included U.S. cities in its statistical data.

To meet the growing demands of world trade, Congress appropriated funds for the Bureau of Manufactures in 1905. The new Bureau immediately began to identify U.S. firms interested in foreign trade and sought, from the Bureau of Statistics data on what products were the most marketable overseas.

A rapid growth in world trade—with the exception of the depression year of 1907—placed increasingly heavy demands on the Bureau. Special agents were sent abroad to collect market intelligence and display samples and to seek bids for U.S. manufacturers. The agents also gathered data on foreign climates, habits, spending power, product preferences, and other information.

Successive Secretaries sensed two deficiencies in the Department's efforts to promote trade. First, no national association of business existed through which the bureaus could learn of industry's needs or transmit the intelligence they collected. Second, the separation of the Bureau of Statistics and the Bureau of Manufactures resulted in organizational problems that interfered with the dissemination of information.

The creation of the U.S. Chamber of Commerce in 1912 and the amalgamation of the two Government bureaus into the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce helped eliminate these problems. Although funding was eliminated for the collection of domestic data, the new Bureau placed commercial attaches in 14 foreign countries. It also placed numerous commercial agents who specialized in promoting specific products in appropriate countries.

District Offices

Shortly before World War I, the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce began creating a network of district offices which still exists today. As a pilot project, it established an office in New York in 1914. By the end of that year, eight offices had been established, and applications had been submitted for additional offices.
Business America, the Government's oldest magazine, originated in 1880 as Reports From the Consuls of the United States.
In 1915, the State Department transferred responsibility for its publication, *The Daily Consular and Trade Reports*, to the Department of Commerce where it was renamed *Commerce Reports*. It originated in 1880 as *Reports From the Consuls of the United States*. Still in circulation in 1988 and called *Business America*, the publication was the oldest U.S. Government magazine.

**War Needs**

During World War I, the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce continued to maintain agents abroad, seek new or foreign sources of raw materials, and aggressively solicit new outlets for U.S. products. Nevertheless, war needs came first. The Bureau was called on to license exports of strategic materials, draft legislation dealing with enemy trade, administer such legislation when passed, and audit costs on Government contracts.

A confluence of circumstances in the post World War I years—worldwide demands, disruptions of foreign productivity capacity, and an aggressive search for markets—catapulted American foreign trade to unprecedented levels. In 1919, imports climbed to $3 billion, exports to more than $7 billion. The trade surplus was $4 billion, a figure never approached in the commerce of any nation up to that time.

Though the surplus dipped somewhat in 1920, total trade continued to soar, reaching $13.2 billion. Automobile manufacturers, accessory suppliers, trust companies and exporters were lavish in their praise of the Bureau for uncovering trade opportunities and helping them to obtain foreign contracts.

Motion pictures as a trade promotion device were introduced by the Department. The Chinese were especially interested in films showing quantity production in American industry. However, Congress would provide no additional funds for the project.

To meet growing and varied demands, the Bureau formed separate divisions for the Far East, South America, and Europe. Its research division increasingly turned its attention to considerations of foreign investment. The Bureau’s director observed in 1920 that:

One of the outstanding facts in the foreign commerce of the great exporting nations has been the way in which such trade has been enlarged and stimulated by the investment capital in the countries to which the goods are sold. Enterprises that owe their existence to foreign capital are naturally inclined to purchase equipment and supplies in the land of their financial origin. The attendant industrial expansion increases the consuming capacity of the people.

The refrain of this position, as well as its opposite, would be heard many times, with the merits of direct foreign investment still being debated.

The buoyant atmosphere that characterized most of the postwar period through 1929 was interrupted during 1921-22. All economic indicators turned downward, international trade plummeted, and unemployment soared. Secretary Herbert Hoover said the industrial slump "presented the most difficult unemployment crisis that the country has ever faced" and that it was "the most violent commodity slump in our history."

**Market Forces**

Fiscal year 1923 could be characterized as a vindication of Secretary Hoover’s belief that self-adjusting market forces would correct the economic malady. The volume of international trade moved forward, but the demands of the prosperous domestic market lured producers away from their overseas selling efforts. In response, the Bureau undertook a campaign cautioning against the neglect of foreign outlets.

In July 1923, the Bureau established a Division of Domestic Commerce to coordinate domestic commerce studies and to conduct research on such general problems as plant location, warehousing and distribution.
The business picture following the 1929 stock market crash was bleak.

By 1933, industrial production dropped 33 percent, manufacturing production 34 percent, minerals production 27 percent, railroad freight handling 48 percent, department store sales 36 percent, factory employment 40 percent, and factory payrolls 60 percent. Worse still, at the close of 1932, the Department's index of world stock inventories was 200 percent above the 1923-1925 average. Huge inventories blunted the incentives to produce.

The Bureau's challenges resulting from the depression were, first, how to help American businesses improve their efficiency, and, second, how to cope with artificial or destructive trade barriers.

Three Challenges

In foreign commerce, the Bureau faced three principal challenges: 1) how to uncover or develop trade opportunities in a world of plunging trade activity; 2) how to cope with proliferating quotas, tariffs and other trade barriers; and 3) how to stem the flow of U.S. production facilities to foreign countries, especially Canada. Rather than try to overcome high tariff rates, U.S. companies found it easier simply to open branch manufacturing units abroad. High Canadian tariffs, for example, brought 74 American branch plants to Canada, according to a statement by the Canadian Prime Minister in 1931.

The change in national leadership in 1933 was followed by marked changes in the structure and duties of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Deep cuts in the Department of Commerce budget by the Roosevelt administration caused Bureau funds to be reduced by 62 percent. The Foreign Service felt the greatest pinch; it lost two-thirds of its employees. The nature of the Foreign Service duties also changed. According to the new Secretary, foreign-based officers were to collect and analyze marketing intelligence, not act as "salesmen for American products abroad." Twenty-one of the 53 foreign offices were closed.

At home, the economic ax fell on the district offices. Ten offices were closed, and expenditures and activities reduced in the 24 offices that remained. However, the domestic service did fare better than the foreign, principally because of its assistance to the many new recovery agencies, especially the National Recovery Administration (NRA). Created to set trade practice and pricing codes for industry, the NRA tried to eliminate "cutthroat" competition which allegedly kept prices at levels too low for business to make reasonable profits. To establish the codes, the NRA called on the Bureau's commodity division. Its marketing services division handled thousands of letters requesting information on proposed codes, and it provided NRA with daily information from its index of commercial and industrial organizations.

Foreign Officers Transfer

The Foreign Commerce Service began working with the Consular Service of the Department of State, an alignment that proved to be a forerunner of the transfer of the Bureau's foreign officers to the State Department. This move occurred in 1939 and was reversed some 40 years later. The transfer constituted a recognition that trade had moved from a relatively free basis conducted on its own merits to one increasingly tied to foreign policy.

World War II and the decade which followed was a period of monumental industrial activity, unparalleled productivity, and general economic prosperity. The Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce underwent numerous realignments. Within 10 years, it had to shape and adjust its policies to a total war effort, a peacetime reconversion and then a limited war demanding an expanded, but not total, commitment of the economy to military enterprise. Although all activity was subservient to the emergency, the Bureau continued to promote the interests of American business, especially in Latin America and areas not involved in armed conflict.
Veterans Assisted

With the transition to a peacetime economy in 1945, the Bureau increased the number of its district offices to 75 to help the private sector during the reconversion period and to house counselors assigned to assist returning veterans with housing, schools and jobs. A prerequisite for the reopening of foreign trade after the war was the establishment of credit for nations short of foreign funds, and the Bureau provided data to determine whether such credit was justifiable.

By the middle of 1948, half of all U.S. exports required Government licenses. The expansion was prompted by the increasing use of export controls as an instrument of U.S. foreign policy and by growing foreign pressure to supply materials and equipment already in short supply domestically. To handle the surge in licensing activity, Congress authorized a Bureau export staff of 500. The licensing program, together with the dollar shortage, were the primary ingredients in cutting U.S. exports in fiscal 1948 by about 7 percent to $13.9 billion.

The Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce was abolished in 1953. Two new agencies were created in its place, the Business and Defense Services Administration and the Bureau of Foreign Commerce. With the creation of the Bureau of Foreign Commerce, old programs were revamped and new services, particularly trade promotion, introduced to capture and recapture international markets.

World Trade is more darn Fun!

Americans spent $11,000,000 in overseas travel in 1946, averaging $10 per diem in Europe and 80-day stays, according to the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce.
Aggressive export-expansion policies were not enough to banish the Nation's balance of payments problems. In 1965, President Lyndon B. Johnson instructed Secretary of Commerce John Connor to construct a plan, with the cooperation of the business community, to help stem the deficit. Some 4,000 American firms were called on to help expand exports, repatriate profits from overseas affiliates, and avoid or postpone direct investment in marginal projects overseas.

The creation of the Office of Foreign Direct Investment in 1968 was designed to help curtail capital transfers by U.S. companies to overseas affiliates. Although the rate of capital flowing out of the United States slowed, the payments problem persisted. The U.S. balance of trade continued to dip. In 1971, the United States suffered its first adverse balance of trade since statistics had been kept.

The balance of payments deficit rose from $3.8 billion to $10.6 billion from 1970 to 1971, and from $9.8 billion to $29.8 billion on the reverse transaction balance. While solutions were being sought to the payments problem, U.S. trade with the Eastern bloc countries was gradually expanding. In 1969, the Export Administration Act replaced the Export Control Act of 1949. It included a specific endorsement of trade in peaceful goods between U.S. firms and all countries with which the United States had commercial relations. The Act signified a new U.S. policy of support for East-West trade.

**East-West Trade**

Because the American business community was relatively inexperienced in doing business with centrally planned economies (e.g., the Soviet Union, the socialist countries of Eastern Europe, and the Peoples Republic of China), a new Bureau of East-West Trade was established to promote and foster U.S. trade with these areas of the world. By the end of 1974, two-way trade had grown to more than $3.2 billion.

A general reorganization took place in 1972. A Bureau of Resources and Trade Assistance was created to handle special import problems and to administer the Trade Adjustment Assistance Program for U.S. industries experiencing difficulties caused by international competition and disrupted markets. In addition, the Bureau took charge of the Department's programs to encourage business to conserve energy. Together with a Bureau of Domestic Commerce and a Bureau of International Commerce, these bureaus formed the Domestic and International Business Administration. An international economic policy and research staff was also established.

By the late 1970s, the U.S. merchandise trade deficit had soared. In 1980, Congress passed the Trade Reorganization Act establishing a new national export policy. From the Domestic and International Business Administration, the International Trade Administration (ITA) was created in 1980. For the first time, responsibility for the promotion of exports and the policing of imports were under one agency. In 1978, commercial attaches had returned to
Commerce from the State Department, and supervision of the Trigger Pricing Mechanism and unfair trade practices was moved from Treasury to Commerce as part of the 1980 reorganization.

Four Divisions

ITA operations were run by four divisions:

1) Trade development, which comprised seven major industry units plus two other groups to cover broader industry issues. Trade development provided business advice on trade and investment abroad and promoted U.S. exports.

2) The Commercial Service, formerly the U.S. Foreign and Commercial Service, the eyes and ears of the Department of Commerce in 47 district offices located in major American cities and 124 posts in 68 foreign countries. The Commercial Service provided liaison between the U.S. business community and global markets, including the emerging markets of Asia, Africa, and Latin America. The title change occurred in 1995.

3) International Economic Policy, staffed by country desk officers to promote U.S. exports geographically, much as trade development did by industry for Americans doing business overseas.

4) Trade Administration, responsible for licensing exports of "dual" use manufactured goods and commodities which could be converted to military purposes; and for investigating complaints of unfair trade practices such as dumping, the sale of foreign goods in the United States at less than fair value, and countervailing duties, the subsidization of exports to the United States by foreign governments.

As each division introduced new programs and strengthened those which had been retained, forces contributing to the U.S. trade deficit and foreign borrowing continued to push the Nation toward debtor status.

New policies were implemented. Licensing procedures were balanced to serve national security and foreign policy objectives while minimizing the adverse effect on U.S. exports and the balance of trade. Processing time was reduced as the number of applications increased. Strict enforcement of export controls resulted in more criminal and administrative cases and fines against violators.

In 1982, Secretary Malcolm Baldrige led the Administration's effort to pass the Export Trading Company Act to provide new export-related jobs by allowing small- and medium-sized businesses to enter exporting for the first time.

Trade Strike Force

In September 1985, President Ronald Reagan named Baldrige to chair a new Cabinet-level Trade Strike Force created to identify foreign unfair trade practices and to propose ways to eliminate them. Based on Strike Force recommendations, the United States established a comprehensive action plan to deal with Japanese unfair trade practices affecting U.S. semiconductors, including the first ever self-initiation of an anti-dumping case; initiated actions to deal with European subsidies for Airbus; established an overall program to deal with lack of intellectual property rights in other countries; and, initiated a section 305 investigation of Japanese trade practices in supercomputers which led to the Government of Japan adopting a new procurement system for supercomputers, giving U.S. manufacturers equal and fair access to the Japanese market.

Open Markets

Steps also were taken to eliminate barriers U.S. firms faced in foreign markets. In 1986, United States lawyers could not practice in Japan, Spain would not buy U.S. corn and Taiwan would not buy U.S. wine, beer or cigarettes. As a result of negotiations and vigorous application of U.S. trade laws, these markets were open to U.S. firms by the end of 1987.

In 1988 with export control functions transferred to a separate Commerce agency, trade advocacy became ITA's primary mission.
The Bureau of Export Administration was created on October 1, 1987, to establish and monitor a high technology export control policy for the United States.

Separated from the International Trade Administration in accordance with the provisions of the Export Administration Amendments Act of 1985, the Bureau of Export Administration was charged with analyzing, negotiating, formulating and implementing export control policy to prevent the loss of commodities and technologies that would harm U.S. national security and enhance the military capabilities of adversaries.

The agency, with nearly 500 employees, was responsible for obtaining voluntary compliance and support from the business community, preventing violations of the export control laws through close scrutiny of license applications, and deterring violators by aggressive use of criminal and administrative sanctions.

The first Export Control Act was passed in 1949, the same year that the United States joined with Belgium, France, Italy, the Netherlands, Luxembourg, and the United Kingdom to form the Coordinating Committee (COCOM) on Multilateral Export Controls. In 1951, the Battle Act was passed, denying aid to any nation permitting exports of strategic materials to Eastern bloc countries.

Eighteen years later, in 1969, the Export Administration Act imposed controls on exports of dual-use high technology products and commodities. In 1985, Congress separated export control functions from the export promotion functions of the International Trade Administration and established the new agency.

Computerized export licensing, inaugurated by Secretary C. William Verity in January 1988, more than doubled the daily processing capacity of the Bureau of Export Administration, permitting the agency to handle 1,000 applications a day.
The U. S. Travel and Tourism Administration (USTTA) is the Federal Government's national tourism office. Its mission is to expand export earnings and job opportunities by promoting business and pleasure travel to this country.

Created by the National Tourism Policy Act of 1981, USTTA replaced the U. S. Travel Service (USTS), which had been established in 1961 to counter a $1.2 billion travel deficit in the Nation's balance of payments.

In response to a 1958 study prepared for President Dwight Eisenhower which concluded that travel was a unique instrument of friendly, peaceful relations among nations, a small Office of International Travel was created in the Department of Commerce. It was directed to serve as the government spokesman for the travel industry and to provide liaison between the industry and the U.S. Government agencies whose functions affect the industry's operations.

Two years later, with the government increasingly aware of the diplomatic and monetary value of tourism, President John Kennedy recommended a major new program of promotion of foreign travel to the United States. USTS began operations in the Department of Commerce on June 29, 1961. In 1965, USTS celebrated a national benchmark with the arrival in December of America's 1,000,000th overseas visitor in the first single year that the United States had tallied a million guests. Between 1961 and 1966, the number of foreign visitors doubled. In 1981, USTS was succeeded by USTTA.

The new agency's mandate included:

- enlisting the support of private and public sector partners in promotional programs and projects;
- coordinating foreign media coverage of U.S. tourism attractions and events;
- eliminating barriers to international travel;
- encouraging U.S. travel suppliers to promote and sell products, facilities and services to foreign travel buyers at wholesale, retail and consumer levels;
- providing training and technical assistance to travel agents, tour operators, tourism officials and other travel industry entities; and
- compiling and publishing statistical and technical information.

In 1994, 45.5 million international visitors spent nearly $60 billion in the United States. The visitor total was 17 million higher than visited the U.S. in the mid-1980's.

USTTA's "America. Catch the Spirit" cooperative advertising program promotes America under a central theme to millions of potential foreign travelers to this country.
President Richard Nixon marks the first trillion dollar annual national production figure in ceremonies introducing the Department of Commerce's GNP clock in 1970.
Economics

Economics and Statistics Administration

The Economics and Statistics Administration develops domestic and international economic policy based on the analytical and statistical information provided by two of its components: the Bureau of Economic Analysis and the Census Bureau.

Created by President John F. Kennedy in 1961 to coordinate the formulation of U.S. economic policy, the office provides broad and targeted economic data, analyses and forecasts for use by Government agencies, businesses and others.

The name changed in the 1990s, from the Office of Economic Affairs to the encompassing Economics and Statistics Administration, reflecting its broader mission.

Bureau of Economic Analysis

The Bureau of Economic Analysis (BEA) measures and analyzes U.S. economic activity to provide basic information on economic growth, inflation, regional development, and the Nation's role in the world economy. The Bureau uses a wide variety of data from public and private sources, including the Census Bureau and other Commerce Department agencies, to prepare a system of national, regional, and international economic accounts.

The national accounts consist of the national income and product accounts, of which gross national product (GNP), a measure of the Nation's production of goods and services, is the cornerstone, and the input-output accounts, which show how industries interact to produce GNP. The regional accounts provide information such as estimates of personal income for States and counties.

The international accounts consist of the international transactions accounts (balance of payments accounts), which record U.S. merchandise trade, services, and financial transactions with foreign residents, and a statement of the U.S. international investment position.

In addition, BEA tracks business cycles, conducts surveys of capital spending by U.S. businesses, and uses national and regional econometric models to forecast changes in economic activity and to analyze the effects of alternative economic policies.

Balance of payments accounting was started in 1921, at the initiative of Secretary Herbert Hoover, to provide information on the role of the United States in the world economy. In the same year, the Survey of Current Business began publication.

The Great Depression of the 1930s led to recognition of the need for more information about the Nation's economy. The first official continuing series on national income in the United States was completed by the Commerce Department in 1934 under the direction of Simon Kuznets, Nobel laureate in economics, and summarized in the Survey of Current Business.

Income Estimates

During the 1940s, the need to determine World War II's effect on the U.S. economy saw the introduction of estimates of GNP in 1942 by the National Income unit, then in the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Five years later, the first complete set of national income and product estimates, in the form of a set of accounts, was published.

In 1946, the Office of Business Economics, BEA's predecessor, supplemented the annual estimates of the U.S. balance of payments accounts with quarterly estimates.
These estimates included a geographical breakdown to provide data needed to implement the Marshall Plan for the rebuilding of war-torn areas of Europe and Asia. Also, as industry cut war-related production, a regular quarterly survey of business plans for capital spending was begun.

In the 1950s, the first estimates of constant dollar GNP (i.e. adjusted for inflation) were introduced to provide better measures of the Nation's economic growth. State annual income estimates, begun in the 1930s, were supplemented in 1956 by estimates of State disposable (i.e., after-tax) personal income. In 1957, the Bureau conducted a census of U.S. business investments abroad, followed in 1960 by the first postwar survey of U.S. business enterprises under foreign ownership.

Quarterly Estimates

The 1960s saw the more timely provision of GNP estimates and expansion of the regional and international programs. Quarterly estimates of State personal income and annual estimates of personal income at the sub-State level were published for the first time, and a consistent set of regional and demographic projections were developed. BEA adopted a new format for the presentation of balance of payments statistics and undertook a new “benchmark” survey to improve estimates of U.S. direct investment in foreign countries.

The Bureau also assumed complete responsibility for a quarterly model of the U.S. economy developed by Lawrence R. Klein, Nobel laureate in economics.
New Work

The emphases and new work undertaken by BEA in the 1970s mirrored developments in the economy—rapid inflation, structural change, new international considerations, and concern with the environment. During the decade, BEA improved and expanded information on prices in the national accounts, accelerated work on capital stocks and depreciation, took over business cycle indicators and overhauled them to facilitate analysis in inflation-adjusted terms, and assumed responsibility for and expanded the scope of the survey of business capital spending.

Estimates of personal income for all counties were published for the first time in 1975. The Regional Economic Information System User Group was established to help distribute regional estimates, and two econometric models were developed to measure the impact on States and local areas of government programs and private sector developments.

An increase in foreign investment in the United States led to legislation in the mid-1970s mandating periodic benchmark surveys of U.S. direct investment abroad and foreign direct investment in the United States as well as data collection between benchmark surveys.

By the mid-1970s, environmental legislation had led to significant levels of spending for pollution abatement and control, and BEA began publishing estimates of this spending.

To keep up with rapid changes in the U.S. economy and economic globalization, BEA has continued to initiate improvements in the national economic accounts. In the 1980s, BEA developed a new price index for computers, new estimates of gross state products, and a new survey of U.S. international transactions in services. In the first half of the 1990s, BEA developed supplemental accounts on environmental resources and on investment in research and development, switched from GNP to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) as the featured measure of U.S. production, and began publishing alternative measures of output and prices.
The U.S. Bureau of the Census is the world's largest and most advanced statistical agency. Best known for its 10-year population counts, Census also is the primary source of data on the nation's economic and social life.

The first census ever held in what is now the United States took place in Virginia in 1624-25. There were 37 more counts in various parts of the country before 1787, when Congress, for the first time in the history of any nation, wrote a requirement for a census into the Constitution:

Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several states which may be included within this Union according to their respective numbers... The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years in such manner as they shall by law direct. (Article I, Section 2, of the U.S. Constitution.)

Congress entrusted the taking of the census to the U.S. marshals under the supervision of Secretary of State Thomas Jefferson. Results were posted publicly so that those who had been missed could add themselves to the list, as Jefferson did following the 1790 census.

In 1810, faced with the possibility of war with Great Britain, Congress instituted the first census of manufactures. However, in the absence of any provision for confidentiality, manufacturers were reluctant to give information that might come to a competitor's attention.

It was not until 1840 that Congress expanded the census schedule significantly beyond the bare population inquiries of 1790. The 1840 census marked the introduction of two new censuses, agriculture and mineral industries. Because technical skill at collecting a census had not progressed enough to keep up with the Nation's growing curiosity about itself, the 1840 census was extensively criticized for its many errors.

A series of so-called "social questions" added in 1850 covered taxes and the public debt. This series later became a full-scale census, the census of governments. Other additions during 1850-1870 reflected a growing concern with education (a question on school attendance), with social problems (detailed questions about the handicapped), and with economic progress (a question about the value of real estate).

Major Reform

In 1880, Congress enacted a major reform of the census structure, replacing U.S. marshals with a civilian census office headed by a presidentially appointed superintendent of the census. Even this new structure, however, was unable to cope with the record number of inquiries. Some 200 different schedules containing 13,000 separate questions were used in 1880, and the office was still publishing the 1880 data when it became time to conduct the 1890 census.

Although a device, which involved a set of wooden rollers over which a long roll of paper passed and was marked, was used to expedite counting in the 1870 and 1880 censuses (the developer, Charles Seaton, became Census Superintendent in 1881), it was not until almost the last census of the century that a major mechanical breakthrough was made.

In the 1890 census, America took her first step toward the computer age with the use of a punch card system of mechanical tabulation. According to popular accounts, the idea had been suggested by John Billings, who was in charge of the Division of Vital Statistics, and developed by Herman Hollerith, a young engineer employed as a special agent. With minor modifications, the system was used again in the 1900 census and for a part of the work in 1910. Hollerith's tabulating machine company
eventually became the International Business Machines Corporation.

Congress enacted the Permanent Census Act in 1902, making the Census Bureau a permanent organization charged not only with the taking of the decennial population censuses, but also with five-year censuses of manufactures, an annual compilation of vital statistics, and other reports the Government deemed necessary for national planning.

In 1903, the Bureau became part of the new Department of Commerce and Labor. Ten years later, responsibility for the Statistical Abstract of the United States was moved to Commerce from the Department of the Treasury. This publication grew into one of the Nation's most popular statistical references on social, political and economic developments.

Over the years, compliance was a problem. The first census act in 1790 provided penalties for failure or refusal on the part of any person more than 16 years old to respond to census questions about members of the family. Later, the law added penalties for any officer or agent of a corporation who did not furnish answers required by any census schedule. By 1880, with so much more detail in the censuses, confidentiality became an issue. The census act of that year specified a $500 fine for field workers who communicated statistics about property or business to an unauthorized person.

**Strict Confidentiality**

From this beginning, confidentiality developed into the strict legal guarantee it is today. In 1900, the law first dealt with the danger that individual data might sometimes be identifiable from published aggregate reports (e.g. one firm dominated a given industry in a given area). And in 1929, Congress enacted most of what is now Title 13 of the U.S. Code, setting the standards of confidentiality which were codified in 1954 and which govern the Census Bureau today.
During World War I, the Bureau was asked to provide information on the consumption and availability of such materials as iron and steel and woolen goods and leather boots. With the exception of wartime demands, however, much of the work of the Bureau for the first three decades of the 20th century was isolated from that of the rest of the Government.

This changed with President Franklin Roosevelt. The New Deal era brought unprecedented demands for information on employment, hours worked, wages, age and sex distribution of the population, employment and more. Census responded to the new demands with sampling, a recently developed statistical technique of choosing a small number of individuals in such a way that the responses provide an accurate indication of the responses of the whole population.

Sampling then was used in Bureau contracts for the Work Projects Administration's Sample Survey of Unemployment and the Bureau of Labor Statistics' Survey of Family Spending and Saving in Wartime. In 1942, the Monthly Report on the Labor Force was transferred to Census and subsequently renamed the Current Population Survey. It became the oldest continuing national survey of an entire country.

The years between 1933 and 1950 saw the amount of data collected again outgrow the Bureau's ability to process it mechanically. It was not until 1947 that a way appeared to enlarge that capacity dramatically. While electronic computers were being developed for scientific use during the 1940s, the idea of adapting a computer for use in data processing was a radically new one. The Census Bureau turned for advice about its feasibility to the National Bureau of Standards. In 1948, the Bureau of Standards contracted for such a computer. UNIVAC 1 was delivered to the Census Bureau in March 1951, in time to work 24 hours a day every day for 14 months on tabulations from the 1950 censuses. The verdict on computer tabulation after this trial was distinctly favorable, and new and better computer systems have been developed for each of the censuses since 1950.

In the 1960s Census expanded a system of self-enumeration, which was being used in economic censuses. This was further refined in the 1970 decennial census with the distribution of mail-out, mail-back forms to 65 percent of the households in the United States.

The procedure had a number of advantages, including more accurate answers because the respondent had more time to think, a greater feeling of privacy because an enumerator did not have to be answered, and the concentration of enumerators in difficult areas as fewer were needed in easy, high response areas.

It was for the 1970 census that computer mapping and the compilation and classification of addresses were developed.
On the economic front, Census also responded to the growing need for data to compare domestic output with imports and exports. Product detail was expanded for the censuses of manufactures and mineral industries following passage of the 1974 Trade Act.

In 1976, the Bureau conducted a record-keeping practices survey to provide information the Bureau of Economic Analysis needed to improve estimates of the gross national product, the measurement of the output of the Nation's goods and services. Soon after, publication of the *State and Metropolitan Area Data Book* began.

By 1982, economic censuses covered approximately 7.4 million establishments operated by about 6.6 million firms and other organizations.

While the information-gathering function of the Census Bureau expanded most dramatically, the other and constitutionally-mandated function, the provision of a simple head count for direct Government use, also grew. After the one-man, one-vote Supreme Court ruling (Baker v. Carr) in 1962, Census data helped set local representation in State legislatures as well as being used to determine State representation in Congress.

In 1990, the Census Bureau completed the largest peacetime civilian undertaking in the Nation's history, the 1990 decennial census which commemorated the 200th anniversary of the world's first constitutionally-mandated census. As the only Federal Agency required to contact every household in the nation—a responsibility not even shared by the Postal Service or the Internal Revenue Service—the Bureau's task was clearly defined:

In its best interest, a civilized nation counts and profiles its people and institutions. Doing so ably and objectively is the abiding mission of the United States Census Bureau. We honor privacy, shun partisanship, invite scrutiny and share our expertise globally. Striving to excel, we chronicle the Nation's past, describe its present and illuminate its future.

Dog sleds were used to get Census enumerators to residents outside Fairbanks, Alaska, during the 16th Decennial Census.
Technology Administration

The Technology Administration was established by Congress in 1988 to lead civilian technology for the Commerce Department and work in partnership with U.S. industry to promote the Nation's economic competitiveness.

As one of the Department's youngest agencies, the Technology Administration assumed direction of the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST), one of the Department's oldest bureaus, the National Technical Information Service, and a few years later, the Office of Technology Policy. NIST was originally the National Bureau of Standards.

In the 1990s, the Technology Administration, headed by an Under Secretary, targeted four goals:

- The development of advanced technologies in partnership with the private sector.
- The rapid commercialization and development of new technologies.
- Leadership in industry and government initiatives to improve U.S. technological competitiveness.
- The building of a 21st century technological infrastructure.

In 1993, President Bill Clinton and Vice President Al Gore joined with the CEOs of the Big 3 U.S. automakers to announce formation of a historic new partnership aimed at strengthening U.S. competitiveness by developing technologies for a generation of vehicles. The Technology Administration coordinated Federal participation in the partnership.

As the principal Federal agency working with industry to improve U.S. industrial competitiveness and industry's advocate on Federal technology policymaking, the Technology Administration helps to ensure that U.S. firms and workers remain world leaders in the development and deployment of advanced technologies that generate new products, new industries and new jobs.

National Institute of Standards and Technology

Since the beginning of the 20th century, the National Institute of Standards and Technology has advanced the Nation’s industrial, scientific and technological progress and contributed to U.S. competitiveness by providing uniform and accurate measurements.

In 1900, the United States was the only great commercial nation without a national standards laboratory. The powers granted Congress by the Constitution to “fix the Standard of Weight and Measures . . .” had been little exercised.

An Office of Weights and Measures had been established in the Treasury Department’s Coast Survey in 1836, but it was ill-equipped to meet the growing needs of science and industry as factory production grew late in the century.

The House Committee on Coinage, Weights and Measures held hearings on a bill to establish a national standardizing bureau and concluded that “no more essential aid could be given to manufacturing, commerce, the makers of scientific apparatus, the scientific work of the Government, of schools, colleges and universities . . . .”

In 1901, Congress created a National Bureau of Standards, which was charged with custody, comparison and, where necessary, the construction of standards. The Bureau also was responsible for the testing and calibration of standard measuring appa-
ratus, the solutions of problems which arise in connection with standards, and the determination of physical constants and the properties of materials. It was domiciled in the Department of the Treasury.

Transferred to the Department of Commerce and Labor in 1903, the Bureau's earliest responsibilities were the acquisition of instruments necessary for basic and applied research; establishing standards for electricity—a new part of American industry; introducing scientific methods to manufacturers; and protecting the public interest through the testing of scales, weights, and dry and liquid measures.

In 1905, the Bureau also undertook the creation of standard samples to determine the physical constants and properties of materials. The service began at the request of the American Foundrymen's Association which contacted the Bureau to prepare and distribute samples of standardized irons to its member industries. By 1987, the Bureau was selling more than 40,000 standard reference materials and calibrating some 5,000 devices to help customers improve the quality and reliability of products.

The capabilities developed during the formative years provided the foundation for advances in machinery, transportation, communications, materials, consumer protection and public safety. In 1904, Bureau researchers created the first neon tube, subsequently commercialized into a major industry; in 1915, the radio direction finder adapted for use by all commercial airlines was developed; and in 1922, the first alternating current radio set was produced, paving the way for the introduction of radios into virtually every American home.

Bureau services proved invaluable during times of war. In World War I, the Director reported that, for the month of December 1917, demands for scientific work had come from the military at the rate of one every twenty minutes. All equipment including blankets, shoe strings and identification tags was tested. An antenna enabling submarines to transmit and receive messages was developed. Aeronautical designs were improved. Again in World War II, Bureau research led to major breakthroughs. Large-scale production of synthetic rubber; a radio proximity fuze used with devastating effect against the enemy; and the determination of the purity of graphite, uranium oxide and uranium metal, essential to production of the first atomic bomb, were among the Bureau's contributions.

*NBS scientists in 1972 achieved what was then the highest frequency measurement ever made by measuring the frequency of an infrared helium-neon laser.*
Automated Manufacturing Research Facility at NBS established in the 1980s as a research testbed to study fundamental questions on factory automation.

The Bureau’s military research also brought about a closer relationship with industry, creating a new awareness of what scientific methods could contribute to industrial technology.

In the mid 1950s, a Bureau reorganization strengthened programs in basic sciences and research and expanded the cooperative relationships with industry. This was marked by a steady increase in the number of industrial research associates and new projects.

These and subsequent changes were crucial elements in positioning the Bureau to be responsive to the accelerated demands made upon American industry in the 1980s to improve productivity and international competitiveness. Each year more than 700 guest researchers, including university, industry and Government representatives were working in NBS laboratories, side by side with NBS researchers. Congress changed the name of the National Bureau of Standards in October 1988. Through the 1990s, the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) managed a quality outreach program associated with the annual Malcolm Baldrige Quality Award.

Bureau research programs covered the entire range of physical and engineering and computer sciences: The National Measurement Laboratory was responsible for the development and dissemination of the country’s physical and chemical standards of measurement. The National Engineering Laboratory conducted programs in electronics and electrical engineering, building and fire research, chemical and manufacturing engineering, and applied mathematics. The Institute for Computer Sciences and Technology provided technical products and support to help industry and Government agencies manage and use computers effectively. The Institute for Materials Science conducted research fundamental to the development of high-performance materials and to advances in materials processing.
The National Technical Information Service (NTIS) had its beginnings in the offices created to handle the release of thousands of technical reports to American industry following World War II.

Documents captured from Germany and other U.S. Government materials became available in such overwhelming numbers that it was necessary to develop a mechanism to handle their dissemination efficiently.

In 1945, President Harry Truman signed Executive Order 9568 creating a Publications Board to collect and declassify World War II technical data and release it to industry. A year later, the Commerce Department established the Office of Technical Services, absorbing functions of the Publications Board and those of the Director of War Mobilization.

The launching of the first space satellite by the Soviet Union in the 1960s triggered a second "information explosion" as U.S. scientists moved to develop and maintain a technological edge, thereby increasing the production of and demand for data.

In September 1970, Congress created NTIS with full authority to establish and monitor a clearinghouse for scientific, technical, and engineering information and analyses. It was also to expedite the dissemination of business and statistical information to stimulate U.S. productivity and innovation.

A self-supporting, central source of data, NTIS recovered costs through the sale of items from its huge family of information products and services. The agency by the 1990s had developed into the primary source for some 2.5 million foreign and domestic technical reports, and Federally generated machine processable data files and software.

In 1992, NTIS introduced FedWorld (Tm), an electronic marketplace for U.S. Government information. Within a year, FedWorld became a widely recognized tool for information retrieval. FedWorld offers a gateway that allows customers to seamlessly connect to more than 300 on-line services throughout the Government. This "one-stop shop" offers a broad range of time-sensitive information and documents on White House policy actions, foreign trade, scientific research, small business resources, job opportunities and much more.

In February 1994, the American Technology Preeminence Act (ATPA) included provisions requiring Federal agencies to transfer results of unclassified scientific, technical, engineering and related business information to NTIS within 15 days of public release of the document. This greatly increased NTIS's inventory and enabled it to make additional information available to the public in both electronic and paper formats.
NOAA's Aquarius Undersea Research Habitat, with a 6,300-feet depth capacity, was put into operation in 1987.
National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration

The National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) carries out programs designed to further the nation's safety, welfare, security and commerce through increasing knowledge and rational use of the natural environment.

With 13,000 employees, including the NOAA Corps, which is the Nation's seventh uniformed service, NOAA is the largest agency in the Department of Commerce. It was established in 1970 in response to what President Richard Nixon described as "immediate and compelling needs for better protection of life and property from natural hazards... for a better understanding of the total environment..." and "for exploration and development leading to the intelligent use of... marine resources..." NOAA was charged with predicting the weather, charting the seas and skies, protecting ocean resources, and collecting data on the oceans, space and sun.

Several agencies were brought into the unified national oceanic and atmospheric program which had been recommended in the Stratton Commission report, "Our Nation and the Sea."

National Ocean Service

Senior was the National Ocean Service, formerly the Coast and Geodetic Survey, or before 1871, the Coast Survey, considered the nation's first scientific agency. Legislation providing for a "Survey of the Coast" was approved by President Thomas Jefferson on February 10, 1807. Because of the War of 1812, however, fieldwork did not begin until 1816 after Ferdinand R. Hassler, an engineer and the first superintendent of the new agency, returned from Europe with the instruments and equipment necessary for the massive task. (In 1836, Hassler became first director of the Office of Weights and Measures, predecessor to the National Bureau of Standards.)

An 1871 act of Congress made the Survey responsible for providing geodetic control, a network of surveyors' baselines and benchmarks for the country's interior.

The aeronautical charting program began with the passage of the Air Commerce Act of 1926. The first charts published were in strip form that followed the newly lighted airways between the major air terminals. World War II saw the production of nautical charts increase by 10-fold and aeronautical chart production increase a phenomenal 25-fold.

Technological advances in the 1950s made possible the first automatically processed and machine-plotted hydrographic smooth sheet produced in 1962. This work culminated in development of the Hydroplot System, used until the mid 1980s when new multibeam swath technology became available. By then the Survey's responsibilities had grown to include geodesy, seismology, geomagnetism, nautical charting, oceanography, and aeronautical charting.

Astronomer Maria Mitchell, the first female professional scientist to be employed by the federal government, was hired by the U.S. Coast Survey in 1845.
The largest scientific agency to become a component of NOAA was the Weather Bureau, now the National Weather Service. Recorded weather observation started 24 years after the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth Rock when Reverend John Campanius Holm began systematic weather diaries. His 1644 and 1645 notations are the first continuous weather records in what is now the United States.

Although many individuals, including Thomas Jefferson and Benjamin Franklin kept weather diaries, the first government collection of weather reports did not begin until 1812 when the Surgeon-General of the Army initiated a program to determine the effects of weather on health.

In 1870, Congress created a weather service under the Secretary of War. The first daily weather maps appeared in January 1871. Weather predictions began to be published regularly in February.

The civilian weather service was established on July 1, 1891, when Congress transferred the Weather Bureau from the Army Signal Corps to the Department of Agriculture. In 1914, an aerological section was added to meet the aviation needs.

The Weather Bureau remained in Agriculture until 1940 when it was moved to the Department of Commerce to "permit better coordination of government activities relating to aviation and commerce generally, without in any way lessening the Bureau's contribution to agriculture." Five-day forecasting was initiated.

During the 1950s, the Weather Service established a severe storm forecast center and began the National Hurricane Research Project.

In 1960, the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) launched the first weather satellite, and in 1961 the Weather Bureau, in cooperation with the Defense Department, NASA, and the private sector, formally undertook development and operation of a global weather satellite observing system. By the 1980s, NOAA had the nation's only civilian operational satellite system.

Approaching its 125th anniversary in 1995, the Weather Service launched a modernization program to provide forecasters with advanced tools for forecasting costly small-scale, fast-breaking weather events like tornadoes, severe thunderstorms and flash floods. The $4 billion program is continuing.
The National Marine Fisheries Service, by that name, came into being on October 3, 1970, but the federal fishery agency celebrated its “de facto” centennial on February 9, 1971. A hundred years earlier President Ulysses S. Grant signed a bill recognizing a national interest in fisheries conservation by creating an Office of Commissioner of Fish and Fisheries.

Because fish was an important source of food, fisheries were the first renewable resource to receive public attention in our Nation. Headquarters were established at Woods Hole, Massachusetts, now a world-famous oceanographic and marine research center.

The Fish Commission became part of the newly created Department of Commerce and Labor on July 1, 1903, and renamed the Bureau of Fisheries. By 1920, the Bureau’s responsibilities included promoting the preparation and preservation of fish, fish hatchery maintenance, and the conversion of waste fish and fish waste into productive commercial use such as paint and varnish oil, stock feed meal and fertilizer.

Transferred to the Department of the Interior in 1939, the Bureau of Fisheries did not return to Commerce until NOAA was created.

In the early 1970s, the Service was given responsibility for the protection of marine mammals and endangered marine species. In 1976, perhaps the most significant piece of fishery legislation in U.S. history was passed, the Magnuson Act, establishing an exclusive U.S. Fishery Conservation Zone between 3 and 200 miles off the U.S. coast and charged Commerce with management of the Zone’s commercial and recreational fish stocks. By 1986, American fishermen were catching 12 billion pounds of fish, valued at more than $3 billion.

Other Offices

NOAA also includes a National Environmental Satellite, Data and Information Service, which operates satellite systems to help provide weather and flood forecasts, crop conditions, and ocean information for fishermen and sailors, and an Office of Oceanic and Atmospheric Research, which investigates oceans, the atmosphere, and sun-earth relationships vital to understanding of the environment.

Fishing for menhaden, the most important industrial fish in the United States.
The National Telecommunications and Information Administration was created in 1978 in response to the explosive growth in communications technology.

Established by Executive Order merging the Office of Telecommunications Policy of the Executive Office of the President with the Commerce Department's Office of Telecommunications, the agency was charged with developing policy on the advancement and use of new technologies. Its mandate included common carrier, telephone, broadcast and satellite communications systems.

Since early in the century, Commerce has had a role in the progress of U.S. communications systems. The Department's first major responsibilities in the communications area began on April 24, 1912, when the ill-fated liner Titanic struck an iceberg.

The disaster caused Congress to strengthen legislation requiring passenger steamers to have radio apparatus. It also alerted Congress to the imminent importance of wireless communication. The amended law included provisions for more efficient radiotelegraphic service, restrictions on the free use of wave lengths, and the licensing of commercial and amateur radio stations.

Because radio was used almost exclusively by ships, responsibility for implementing the law was given to Commerce's Bureau of Navigation. In 1915, the Department's Bureau of Standards received $10,000 "for the investigation and standardization of methods and instruments employed in radio communication." A year later, $50,000 was appropriated for construction of a radio laboratory building.

With the advent of commercial radio broadcasting, Commerce assumed another communications role in the 1920s. Secretary Herbert Hoover, sensing both the potential and the problems inherent in the new medium, convened a series of national radio conferences to discuss the need for regulation to control the rapidly growing congestion of the nation's airwaves. He also helped found the Interdepartment Radio Advisory Committee to coordinate the Government's own frequency needs. During this period, Commerce began studies of radio wave propagation.

Commerce responsibilities include promotion of public and children's television programming which in the 1960s helped foster the creation of the award-winning Sesame Street series featuring Big Bird. By the mid 1990s, NTIA was directly funding the production of quality television programming for children.
On February 23, 1927, the 1912 radio act was repealed and a Federal Radio Commission created to issue broadcast licenses, allocate frequencies and control power output. At the same time, the radio service in Commerce was separated from the Bureau of Navigation and a new Radio Division was authorized to ensure compliance with Commission decisions. In 1932, the Radio Division was transferred to what is now the Federal Communications Commission. Commerce, however, continued technical research.

During and after World War II, there was enormous growth in the variety, complexity and use of telecommunications, and it became evident that the Federal Government's telecommunications structure had to be reorganized to cope with it. Following a series of executive studies and initiatives in the 1960s and early 1970s, an Office of Telecommunications Policy was established in the White House and new telecommunications responsibilities were assigned to the Secretary of Commerce.

Establishment of NTIA in 1978 brought authority for the Secretary of Commerce to "serve as the President's principal adviser on telecommunications policies pertaining to the nation's economic and technological advancement and to the regulation of the telecommunications industry."

By the mid-1990s, the agency was composed of six departments:

- The Office of Policy Coordination and Management to provide support services to the agency head, including budget preparation, strategic plans and personnel management;
- The Office of International Affairs to provide policy analyses, technical guidance and to represent the United States in international telecommunications policy;
- The Office of Policy Analysis and Development to develop domestic communications policy;
- The Office of Spectrum Management to authorize radio frequency assignments for the Federal Government and to manage use of the radio spectrum;
- The Institute for Telecommunications Sciences to conduct the principal research for telecommunications science and engineering for the Federal government; and
- The Federal Assistance Programs, including Telecommunications Infrastructure Assistance and the National Endowment for Children's Educational Television.

A Department of Commerce Radio Division test car used to monitor air wave usage for the newly established Federal Radio Commission in the late 1920s.
The Patent and Trademark Office is one of the oldest and most unusual agencies in the Federal Government.

Protection for inventors was part of the debate at the Constitutional Convention. Although the delegates had a widespread fear of "monopolies" of the kind granted by European monarchs, they recognized that the granting of a limited patent would be of greater benefit to society than to the individual inventor.

Article I, Section 8, of the Constitution states: "Congress shall have power . . . to promote the progress of science and useful arts by securing for limited times to . . . inventors the exclusive right to their . . . discoveries."

On January 8, 1790, President George Washington urged the Congress to give "effectual encouragement . . . to the exertion of skill and genius at home." Three months later, on April 10, 1790, he signed the bill which laid the foundations of the modern American patent system.

**Patent Board**

An invention or discovery which would warrant a patent was defined as "any useful art, manufacture, engine, machine or device, or any improvement thereon not before known or used." Thomas Jefferson, Secretary of State; Henry Knox, Secretary of War; and Edmund Randolph, Attorney General, comprised the "Patent Board," which was charged with administering patent law and examining inventions. On July 31, 1790, the first U.S. patent was granted to Samuel Hopkins of Pittsford, Vermont, for an improvement in the "making of Pot ash and Pearl ash." The grant, for a period not to exceed 14 years, was signed by Washington, Jefferson, and Randolph. The original document is in the collection of the Chicago Historical Society.

The workload was so heavy on the Patent Board that its members had little time for other important duties. In 1793, Congress revised the Patent Act and the Patent Board was abolished. The Secretary of State was given responsibility for the granting of patents. A registration system was established wherein patents could be issued without an examination. In 1802, a full-time Patent Office was created in the Department of State. Dr. William Thornton, designer of the original plans for the Capitol, was appointed Superintendent.

**Woman Inventor**

In 1809, Mary Kies of Connecticut became the first woman to obtain a patent for an invention for "weaving straw with silk or thread."

Dissatisfaction with the registration procedure led to the Patent Act of 1836, which reestablished the examination system. Once again, inventions had to show novelty and usefulness. Another provision of the law stipulated that patent models be displayed to the public. These models, which were required to accompany patent applications until 1870, were a major tourist attraction in Washington. The Patent Office also was custodian to the Declaration of Independence and other historic documents and in conjunction with the Smithsonian Institution collected meteorological data.

Between 1790 and 1870, the Patent Office issued 129,086 patents, but the years between 1870 and 1900 are considered perhaps the greatest period of invention in history. The telephone, trolley car, electric light, cash register, dynamo, pneumatic tire, smokeless gun powder, transparent photographic film, and steam turbine were patented during this period. At the turn of the century, U. S. patent holders included such creative giants as Thomas Edison (light bulb, phonograph), Alexander Bell (telephone), Nikola Tesla (electric motor), Ottmar Mergenthaler (linotype), Guglielmo Marconi (wireless telegraphy), Rudolph Diesel (an internal combustion engine), and Henry Ford (improved carburetors and...
motor carriages), as well as those more well known for accomplishments in other fields such as Abraham Lincoln, Mark Twain (Samuel Clemens) and Louis Pasteur.

In 1922, patent depository libraries were established to provide access to patent information to those who could not search files at the Patent Office. By 1987, there were 62 in 40 locations across the nation. In 1925, the Patent Office was transferred to the Department of Commerce. In 1930, Congress added plants as a third category of patentable subjects, joining inventions (1790) and designs (1842). The bill was supported by Luther Burbank and Thomas Edison.

The Patent Office had begun registering trademarks in 1870. In 1975, one year after the 1,000,000th trademark was registered, the name of the Patent Office was officially changed to the “Patent and Trademark Office.”

Automated Files

In 1980, Congress issued a mandate for the Office to begin automating its search files of more than 27 million documents to make them available through electronic search. By the late 1980s, these files included more than 4.5 million utility patents. In 1987, the Office announced that it would accept applications for patents on new types of animals produced by human intervention.

In the more than 200 years between 1790 and 1995, the Patent Office had grown from three Cabinet officers to a staff of more than 3,000. Half of these were examiners with degrees in science and engineering. Many were lawyers. Their basic task, however, remained that of the first Patent Board members, Jefferson, Knox and Randolph—to reward through the grant of a patent the inventor of any new and useful process, machine, manufacture or composition of matter, or any improvement thereof.

The Old Patent Office Building, where patent models were once displayed, now houses the National Portrait Gallery. (National Portrait Gallery photo)
Department of Commerce programs foster productive employment through economic growth.
Development

Economic Development Administration

The Economic Development Administration (EDA) generates and preserves private sector jobs in economically depressed areas through the use of public works funds, business loans, loan guarantees, technical assistance, long-range economic planning, and economic research.

The authorizing legislation, the Public Works and Economic Development Act of 1965, also called for the establishment of regional commissions to address economic problems on a multistate basis and the formation of multicounty economic development districts.

During the early years, EDA organized district and regional commissions, established project selection criteria, and explored effective responses to geographically diverse problems. In 1969, regional commissions were given separate administrative offices.

The EDA budget during the first 10 years ranged from $230 million to $330 million, sums which Secretary Maurice Stans described as "not enough resources to perform the miracles its sponsors desired."

Emergency assistance became an official EDA responsibility in June 1972 when Hurricane Agnes devastated the eastern seaboard and Congress designated $55 million for public works and technical assistance for injured communities.

In September 1974, despite budget reductions, EDA was given new program authorities. The new mandate included development aid for States and economic adjustment assistance to respond to actual or threatened sudden economic dislocations such as plant closings. Subsequently, assistance to areas experiencing long-term economic deterioration also was included.

In 1975, EDA was given responsibility for the Job Opportunities Program, a $500 million spending measure designed to provide emergency financial assistance for job creating activities in high unemployment areas. In 1976, Congress charged EDA with another demanding assignment, administration of the $2 billion antirecessionary Local Public Works Program. In 1977, while EDA was processing 2,000 local public works projects selected for funding, another $4 billion was appropriated for the program. The result was approval of 8,500 additional projects.

Other special assignments followed. These included a $175 million Community Emergency Drought Relief Program to help communities mitigate drought-related public health and safety problems; responsibility for the Trade Adjustment Assistance Program, which was instituted to help firms adversely affected by import competition; funding for facilities for the Winter Olympic Games at Lake Placid, New York; aid to troubled steel firms; and a $10 million program to increase energy efficiency in public buildings. The Agency also initiated programs to provide temporary jobs for unemployed youth and aid to communities hurt by problems in the automobile industry.

In 1981, the EDA budget again was sharply reduced, and the business loan program phased out.

In the mid 1980s, EDA leadership adopted a "return to roots" policy. Priority was given to helping distressed rural areas, which had been the primary target of program expenditures in the early years. The EDA enjoyed a renaissance in the 1990s under the Clinton Administration which markedly increased grants to alleviate unemployment and under-employment in economically distressed areas and to stimulate their rebirth.

Trade Adjustment Assistance Centers were opened around the Nation; Native-American communities were helped; and northeastern fishing communities affected by the collapse of fish stocks were aided.
Minority Business Development Agency

At a White House meeting on March 5, 1969, President Richard Nixon signed Executive Order 11458 creating the Office of Minority Business Enterprise. It marked the first time an American president had issued such a directive to increase the participation of disproportionately represented ethnic minorities in the free enterprise system.

"What we are doing," Nixon said, "is recognizing that in addition to the basic problems of poverty itself, there is an additional need to stimulate those enterprises that can give members of minority groups confidence that avenues of opportunity are neither closed nor limited...."

Secretary Maurice Stans was directed to establish a program to coordinate the plans, programs and operations of the Federal Government affecting minority business enterprises; to promote activities of State and local governments and private and independent sector institutions that promoted the growth of minority business; and to develop and disseminate information helpful to those who would assist in minority business.

The Office began operations with the basic premise that four ingredients were necessary for successful business ownership—a qualified or qualifiable entrepreneur, a sound business idea or opportunity, adequate financing through a reasonable mix of equity and debt capital, and managerial and technical know-how.

New Directories

Among its first projects were the compilation of directories of Federal and private assistance programs for minority business enterprise and the creation of an information clearinghouse.

The Office also turned attention toward increasing Government purchases from minority firms. In addition, it undertook programs with the General Services Administration and the Small Business Administration which resulted in the placement of minority-owned concessions in 140 federal installations across the country by the mid-1970s.

To generate capital resources for minority firms, Minority Enterprise Small Business

President Richard Nixon signed Executive Order 11458 creating the Office of Minority Business Enterprise in the Department of Commerce at ceremony on March 5, 1969.
Investment Companies were created. Twenty of these companies were established in 1970, providing up to $90 million in financing for investments in minority firms.

However, it became increasingly clear that the agency's effectiveness was severely hampered by the inability to finance projects and organizations which could more directly benefit minority businesses. In late 1971, Congress authorized $40 million for Federal contracts and grants to nonprofit development organizations and trade associations to assist minority entrepreneurs. The Office initially funded 123 business development organizations located in 76 cities. The organizations provided business counseling, financial planning and management and technical assistance.

Expanded Opportunities

By 1972 federal contracts, loans and loan guarantees, and grants to minority firms had risen from approximately $200 million in fiscal 1969 to $800 million. A Commerce Department report three years later showed that while minority firms were still highly concentrated in retail trade and selected services, there were encouraging signs of expanded business opportunities for minorities in manufacturing, transportation, wholesale trade, and construction. Receipts of minority manufacturers in 1972 were 95 percent ahead of 1969 levels; those of wholesalers, 91 percent more; construction contractors, 84 percent; and firms engaged in transportation and public utilities, 79 percent.

In 1976, the Office began a program to increase minority participation in telecommunications, computers, manufacturing, construction and energy-related enterprises.

Renamed the Minority Business Development Agency in 1979, the Agency began the 1980s with a mandate to join the Small Business Administration in assisting in the formation of 60,000 new minority businesses and expanding an additional 60,000 firms by 1990.

A national campaign was launched to increase the involvement of private industry and educational institutions in minority business development activities, and minority business owners were invited to participate in international trade missions.

MBDA also originated agreements between the Federal Government and the private sector improving access to traditional and non-traditional sources of capital for minority companies.

By the early 1990s, there were more than 1.2 million minority owned firms in the United States, up from an estimated 100,000 a quarter century earlier.

Office of Business Liaison

The Office of Business Liaison (OBL) serves as a central source of information and assistance for people interested in doing business overseas or with the Federal Government, the world's largest customer.

It is the outgrowth of the Ombudsman for Business program established in 1971. A Special Assistant to the Secretary, the ombudsman was responsible for responding to inquiries from business, providing a focal point for information, complaints, criticisms and suggestions, arranging conferences with Federal officials, and proposing remedies for problems business encountered in dealing with Government.

In the first 28 months, more than 9,800 cases were handled in the Ombudsman's office.

By the mid 1990s, OBL was the main contact between the Secretary of Commerce and the business community, arranging over 200 briefings and meetings annually and working with companies participating in Commerce-led Presidential Business Development Missions.
U.S. Supreme Court Justice Sandra Day O'Connor swears in C. William Verity as Secretary of Commerce on October 19, 1987, at ceremony attended by President Ronald Reagan. Mrs. Verity holds the Bible.
WHAT should the qualifications be of the chief of this new Department? Above everything else, he should be a man of affairs, acquainted with the vast subject with which he must deal; vigilant, enterprising, resourceful, and possessed of the sagacity which distinguishes the American man of business from all others....

Congressman Charles F. Cochran
Congressional Record
January 15, 1903
On December 12, 1992, President-elect William Jefferson Clinton nominated Ronald H. Brown to be the 30th Secretary of Commerce.

A lawyer, a negotiator, a pragmatic bridge builder, and a past Chairman of the Democratic National Committee, Brown, unlike many of his predecessors, did not come out of the business community directly.

Brown, the first African American to hold the office, was to become one of the most highly successful Secretaries in the Department's history. His dynamic and successful advocacy of U.S. trade and technology stimulated economic growth and jobs for American workers.

The first Secretary of Commerce, William C. Redfield, was an iron-and-steel executive and recent author of a book entitled "The New Industrial Day." Malcolm Baldrige, the only Secretary to die in office, was chairman and chief executive officer of a metals company which operated 81 plants in the United States and 27 other countries. Roy Chapin was a founder of

President William Jefferson Clinton and Secretary of Commerce Ronald H. Brown participate in a Commerce Department ceremony honoring industry winners of the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award. In naming Brown to the Cabinet Office, President Clinton said, "American business will know that the Department of Commerce has a strong and independent leader and a forceful advocate."
the Hudson Motor Car Company in 1906 and a millionaire by 1910. Peter Peterson at the age of 34 became president and then chief executive officer and chairman of the board of Bell & Howell.

Longest Service

The longest-serving Secretary of Commerce was Herbert Hoover, a mining engineer who directed projects in Australia and for the Chinese before his public service career, which culminated in his election as President of the United States.

Henry Wallace served as Vice President of the United States before his appointment as Secretary of Commerce. Three Secretaries served in the U.S. Congress. Sinclair Weeks served in the U.S. Senate in 1944, and Joshua Alexander served seven terms and Rogers C. B. Morton four terms in the U.S. House of Representatives.

Three others held top state offices. Luther Hodges was elected governor and lieutenant governor of North Carolina. Charles Sawyer was lieutenant governor of Ohio and Eliot Richardson served as lieutenant governor of Massachusetts.

Richardson, an attorney, was Secretary of Health, Education and Welfare, Secretary of Defense, Attorney General and a U.S. Ambassador before becoming Secretary of Commerce.

W. Averell Harriman also held diplomatic posts before becoming Secretary of Commerce. Harriman served as U.S. Ambassador to the U.S.S.R. and to Great Britain.

First Woman

Juanita Kreps, the first woman and the only economist to serve as Secretary, was vice president of Duke University and a labor demographics specialist.

C. William Verity, chairman of the board of Armco, Inc., a diversified steel company, like more than half of his predecessors, came to the office with a business background. Barbara Franklin was among the first women to graduate from Harvard Business School and served in the administrations of four U.S. presidents. In 1971, she directed the first White House program to recruit women for high-level government jobs.

Daniel Roper's 50 year career of government service included positions with the U.S. Tariff Commission, and as Commissioner of Internal Revenue. He also worked for the Census Bureau, which was part of the Department of Commerce when he became Secretary.

Robert Lamont, a civil engineer, supervised the construction of the underwater tunnels into Lake Michigan to furnish Chicago's water supply and the excavation of the Boston subway.

Youngest Appointee

The youngest person to be named Secretary was 38-year-old Alexander Trowbridge, an oil company executive who joined the Department as an assistant secretary. The oldest to be appointed was Philip Klutznick, 72, creator of planned communities to meet the extraordinary housing needs of returning World War II veterans.

Most Secretaries were college graduates, many with degrees from Ivy League universities; but Jesse Jones, the Secretary who directed the Commerce Department's responses to war needs between 1940-1945, received his formal education at a rural school house in Kentucky.

Seven served less than a year. Only one, Hoover, served longer than seven years. Both Redfield and Baldrige served for more than six years.

The challenges that the Secretaries faced over the decades sharply differed. However, the commitment each made was the same: to promote the Nation's prosperity, standard of living, and defense capabilities by strengthening business competitiveness at home and abroad.
Secretaries of Commerce

Ronald H. Brown
January 23, 1993—

Barbara H. Franklin
February 27, 1992—January 20, 1993

Robert A. Mosbacher
January 31, 1989—January 15, 1992

C. William Verity
October 19, 1987—January 30, 1989

Malcolm Baldrige

Philip M. Klutznick

Juanita M. Kreps
January 23, 1977—October 31, 1979

Elliot L. Richardson
February 2, 1976—January 20, 1977

Rogers C. B. Morton
May 1, 1975—February 2, 1976

Frederick B. Dent
February 2, 1973—March 26, 1975

Peter G. Peterson
February 29, 1972—February 1, 1973

Maurice H. Stans
January 21, 1969—February 15, 1972

C. R. Smith
March 6, 1968—January 19, 1969

Alexander B. Trowbridge
June 14, 1967—March 1, 1968

John T. Connor
January 18, 1965—January 31, 1967

Luther H. Hodges
January 21, 1961—January 15, 1965

Frederick H. Mueller
August 10, 1959—January 19, 1961

Lewis L. Strauss*
November 13, 1958—June 30, 1959

Sinclair Weeks
January 21, 1953—November 10, 1958

Charles Sawyer
May 6, 1948—January 20, 1953

W. Averell Harriman
October 7, 1946—April 22, 1948

Henry A. Wallace
March 2, 1945—September 20, 1946

Jesse H. Jones
September 19, 1940—March 1, 1945

Harry L. Hopkins
December 24, 1938—September 18, 1940

Daniel C. Roper
March 4, 1933—December 23, 1938

Roy D. Chapin
August 8, 1932—March 3, 1933

Robert P. Lamont
March 5, 1929—August 7, 1932

William F. Whiting
August 22, 1928—March 4, 1929

Herbert C. Hoover
March 5, 1921—August 21, 1928

Joshua W. Alexander
December 16, 1919—March 4, 1921

William C. Redfield
March 5, 1913—October 31, 1919

*Interim appointee

Secretaries of Commerce and Labor

Charles Nagel
March 6, 1909—March 4, 1913

Oscar S. Straus
December 17, 1906—March 5, 1909

Victor H. Metcalf
July 1, 1904—December 16, 1906

George B. Cortelyou
February 18, 1903—June 30, 1904
RONALD H. BROWN, the first African American to serve as Secretary of Commerce, was born on August 1, 1941, in Washington, D.C., and grew up in New York City. He was graduated from Middlebury College in Vermont and received his law degree from St. John's University, which he attended evenings while working as a welfare caseworker for the City of New York. An Army veteran, Brown was Vice President of the National Urban League, chief counsel for the Senate Judiciary Committee, a partner in the Washington, D.C., law firm of Patton, Boggs and Blow and chairman of the Democratic National Committee. Brown was appointed Secretary of Commerce by President William Clinton.
BARBARA HACKMAN FRANKLIN was born in Lancaster County, Pennsylvania on March 19, 1940. She was graduated from Pennsylvania State University in 1962 and was one of the first women graduates of the Harvard Business School in 1964. President and chief executive officer of Franklin Associates consulting firm and a former executive with the Singer Company and Citibank, Franklin for eight years directed the Government and Business Program of the Wharton School of the University of Pennsylvania. Franklin served in the administrations of four U.S. Presidents, including directing the first White House program to recruit women for high-level government positions in 1971. Franklin was appointed Secretary of Commerce by President George Bush.
Robert Adam Mosbacher
Twenty-Eighth Secretary of Commerce
(January 31, 1989—January 15, 1992)

ROBERT ADAM MOSBACHER was born on March 11, 1927, in White Plains New York. He attended Choate and was graduated from Washington and Lee University in Lexington, Virginia in 1947. Mosbacher began his career in the oil fields of Texas, where he became chief executive officer and chairman of Mosbacher Energy Company. A past chairman of the National Petroleum Council and an Olympic class sailing champion, Mosbacher was appointed Secretary of Commerce by President George Bush.
C. William Verity

Twenty-Seventh Secretary of Commerce

(October 19, 1987—January 30, 1989)

C. William Verity was born on January 26, 1917, in Middletown, Ohio, and graduated from Yale University. Verity joined the predecessor to Armco, Inc., in 1940 and returned to the company following his service in the U.S. Navy, 1942-1946. He was elected president and chief executive officer in 1965 and chairman of the board in 1971. He served as chairman of the U.S. Chamber of Commerce, 1980-81. In 1981, Verity was appointed chairman of the President's Task Force on Private Sector Initiatives. He became a member of the Task Force advisory board after his retirement from Armco in 1982. President Ronald Reagan invited Verity to join his cabinet in 1987.
Malcolm Baldrige
Twenty-Sixth Secretary of Commerce

MALCOLM (MAC) BALDRIGE was born on October 4, 1922, in Omaha, Nebraska, where he worked as a ranch hand during his boyhood. He was graduated from Yale University with a bachelor's degree in 1944. Baldrige began his career in 1947 as a foundry hand at the Eastern Malleable Iron Company in Naugatuck, Connecticut, and rose to president of the firm by 1960. In 1962, he joined Scovill, Inc., and served as chairman and chief executive officer. Invited by President Ronald Regan to become Secretary of Commerce in 1981, Baldrige was named by Reagan to head a cabinet-level Trade Strike Force on unfair trade practices. Baldrige was the only Secretary of Commerce to die in office. A member of the National-Cowboy Hall of Fame, he was fatally injured in a rodeo accident.
PHILIP M. KLUTZNICK was born in Kansas City, Missouri, on July 9, 1907, and earned an LL.B degree in 1929 from Creighton University. A key architect of the plan to provide much-needed housing for World War II veterans and their families, Klutznick served as administrator of the National Housing Agency and Commissioner of the Federal Public Housing Authority in the mid-1940s. He was chairman of the board and chief executive officer of American Community Builders, a senior partner of Klutznick Enterprises, and chairman of the board of directors of Urban Investment and Development Company. Klutznick served as chairman of the governing board of the World Jewish Congress and international president of B'nai B'rith. He was appointed Secretary of Commerce by President Jimmy Carter.
Juanita Morris Kreps

Twenty-Fourth Secretary of Commerce

(January 23, 1977—October 31, 1979)

Juanita M. Kreps, the first woman to serve as Secretary of Commerce, was born in Lynch, Kentucky, on January 11, 1921. She received her A.B. degree from Berea College in 1942, her Master’s Degree from Duke University in 1944 and her Ph.D. in economics from Duke in 1948. An educator, Dr. Kreps joined the faculty at Duke University in 1955 and was appointed vice president in 1973. In 1972, she joined the New York Stock Exchange Board. She also served on the boards of Western Electric, Eastman Kodak and J.C. Penney. A specialist in labor demographics, Dr. Kreps authored books and articles on working women and the aged and served on state and federal advisory committees and councils. Dr. Kreps was also the first economist to be appointed Secretary of Commerce. She joined the cabinet of President Jimmy Carter in 1977.
Elliot Lee Richardson

Twenty-Third Secretary of Commerce

(February 2, 1976—January 20, 1977)

ELLiot L. RICHARDSON was born in Boston, Massachusetts, on July 20, 1920. He graduated from Harvard College in 1941. After completing military service, Richardson attended Harvard Law School and served as a law clerk to Judge Learned Hand and to Justice Felix Frankfurter. He was admitted to the Massachusetts bar in 1950. Richardson served as lieutenant governor and as attorney general of Massachusetts before being appointed Secretary of Health, Education and Welfare by President Richard Nixon in 1970. In January 1973, Richardson was named Secretary of Defense, and in 1974 he was named Attorney General by Nixon. In 1975, Richardson was appointed U.S. Ambassador to the United Kingdom by President Gerald Ford and later that same year Richardson accepted the post of Secretary of Commerce in Ford's cabinet.
Rogers Clark Ballard Morton

Twenty-Second Secretary of Commerce

(May 1, 1975—February 2, 1976)

ROGERS C. B. MORTON was born in Louisville, Kentucky, on September 19, 1914. He attended Woodbury Forest Preparatory School and was graduated from Yale University in 1937. After service in the U.S. Army, Morton joined his father’s milling business, Ballard and Ballard, becoming president in 1947. In 1951, when the company was merged with Pillsbury, Morton became vice president of Pillsbury. Morton served four terms as U.S. Representative from Maryland’s 1st district before accepting appointment as Secretary of the Interior under President Richard Nixon in 1971. Morton resigned his position at Interior to become Secretary of Commerce in 1975 at the request of President Gerald Ford.
Frederick Baily Dent
Twenty-First Secretary of Commerce
(February 2, 1973—March 26, 1975)

Frederick B. Dent was born in Cape May, New Jersey, on August 17, 1922. He graduated from St. Paul’s School in Concord, New Hampshire, in 1940, and received a B.A. from Yale University in 1943. In 1946, Dent joined Joshua L. Baily and Company, Inc., a textile sales firm which had been founded by his great grandfather. In 1947, Dent joined the family-owned Mayfair Mills. He became president of Mayfair Mills in 1958. Dent was appointed Secretary of Commerce by President Richard Nixon.
Peter George Peterson
Twentieth Secretary of Commerce
(February 29, 1972—February 1, 1973)

PETER G. PETERSON was born on June 5, 1926, in Kearny, Nebraska, and educated at Nebraska State Teachers College, Massachusetts Institute of Technology and Northwestern University, where he received his B.S. degree summa cum laude in 1947. He earned a Masters in Business Administration with honors from the University of Chicago. Peterson began his career in 1948 with Market Facts, a Chicago marketing counseling and product research firm. In 1958, he joined Bell & Howell, where at the age of 34 he became president and then chief executive officer and chairman of the board, doubling sales and quadrupling operating earnings. In 1971, Peterson was appointed head of the Council on International Affairs and became a presidential advisor to President Richard Nixon, who named Peterson Secretary of Commerce in 1972.
Maurice Hubert Stans

Nineteenth Secretary of Commerce

(January 21, 1969—February 15, 1972)

MAURICE H. STANS was born in Shakopee, Minnesota, on March 22, 1908. After attending Northwestern and Columbia Universities, he joined the accounting firm of Alexander Grant and Company, where he worked his way up from office boy to executive partner. In 1940, he established the Stans Foundation to assist charitable institutions, and in 1942, he became chairman of the board of the Moore Corporation, stove manufacturers. Stans held positions with the Post Office and served as director of the Bureau of the Budget. Stans was vice chairman and a director of the United California Bank and president and director of Western Bancorporation. In 1965, he became president of the investment banking firm of Glore Forgan, William R. Staats & Company. He was appointed Secretary of Commerce by President Richard Nixon.
Cyrus Rowlett Smith

Eighteenth Secretary of Commerce

Smith (March 6, 1968—January 19, 1969)

CYRUS R. SMITH was born in Minerva, Texas, on September 9, 1899. He received his B.A. degree from the University of Texas in 1924 while he was employed as an accountant with Peat, Marwick, Mitchell and Company. Smith served as vice president, president and chief executive of American Airlines, Inc. From 1942 to 1945, he was deputy commander of Air Transport Command. In 1964, he became chairman of the board of American Airlines. Smith was appointed Secretary of Commerce by President Lyndon Johnson.
Alexander Buel Trowbridge
Seventeenth Secretary of Commerce
(June 14, 1967—March 1, 1968)

Alexander (Sandy) Trowbridge was the youngest person to serve as Secretary of Commerce. Born in Englewood, New Jersey, on December 12, 1929, Trowbridge was graduated from Phillips Academy in 1947 and received his B.A. degree from Princeton University in 1951. Trowbridge was employed by the Central Intelligence Agency before joining the Marine Corps. Following service in Korea, Trowbridge worked for California Texas Oil Company and Esso Standard Oil Company. He joined the Department of Commerce in 1965 as assistant secretary; and, in 1967, at the age of 38, Trowbridge was appointed Secretary of Commerce by President Lyndon Johnson.
John Thomas Connor

Sixteenth Secretary of Commerce

(January 18, 1965—January 31, 1967)

JOHN T. CONNOR was born in Syracuse, New York, on November 3, 1914. He received his A.B. degree, magna cum laude, from Syracuse University and a law degree from Harvard University. Connor was associated with the New York City law firm of Cravath, de Gersdorff, Swaine and Wood, served in the Pacific during World War II and as special assistant to the Secretary of the Navy from 1945-1947. He then joined Merck and Company. In 1965, Connor was appointed Secretary of Commerce by President Lyndon Johnson.
LUTHER H. HODGES, a self-made man who financed his education in part by selling Bibles, was born on March 9, 1898, in Pittsylvania County, Virginia. Hodges attended public schools in North Carolina and was graduated from the University of North Carolina in 1919. A successful textile executive, Hodges was elected lieutenant governor of North Carolina in 1952 and governor in 1956. In 1961, President John Kennedy nominated Hodges to be Secretary of Commerce.
FREDERICK H. MUELLER was born in Grand Rapids, Michigan, on November 22, 1893. Mueller apprenticed at his father's furniture manufacturing company while a teenager and was graduated from Michigan State University with a B.S. in mechanical engineering in 1914. That same year, he became a partner in his father's business, where he remained until his retirement as president in 1955. Mueller joined the Department of Commerce in 1958 and was invited by President Dwight Eisenhower to join the cabinet as Secretary of Commerce in 1959.
Lewis Lichtenstein Strauss  
Acting Secretary  
(November 13, 1958—June 30, 1959)  

LEWIS L. STRAUSS was born in Charleston, West Virginia, on January 31, 1896, and educated in the public schools of Richmond, Virginia. Strauss worked as personal secretary to Herbert Hoover in the U.S. Food Administration and was one of four American delegates to the final Armistice convention at Brussels in 1919 before joining the banking firm of Kuhn, Loeb, and Company of New York City. A member of the U.S. Navy Reserve, Strauss was called to active duty during World War II and served as special assistant to the Secretary of the Navy. In 1946, Strauss was appointed to the Atomic Energy Commission; in 1953, he was named chairman. Strauss served as Acting Secretary of Commerce between 1958 and 1959, but his appointment by President Dwight Eisenhower was not confirmed by the Senate.
Charles Sinclair Weeks
Thirteenth Secretary of Commerce
(January 21, 1953—November 10, 1958)

C. SINCLAIR (SINNY) WEEKS was born in the Boston, Massachusetts, suburb of West Newton on June 15, 1893. Weeks was graduated from Harvard University in 1914, served in World War I, and held executive positions with Reed and Barton Corporation, United Carr Fastener Corporation, Gillette Safety Razor Company, Prellman Company and First National Bank of Boston. He served in the U.S. Senate in 1944. The son of a former Secretary of War, Weeks was appointed Secretary of Commerce by President Dwight Eisenhower.
CHARLES SAWYER was born in Cincinnati, Ohio, on February 10, 1887. After graduating from Oberlin College, he studied law at the University of Cincinnati and was admitted to the bar in 1911. Sawyer was elected lieutenant governor of Ohio in 1934 and served as U.S. ambassador to Belgium and Luxemburg from 1944 to 1946. In 1948, he was named Secretary of Commerce by President Harry Truman.
William Averell Harriman
Eleventh Secretary of Commerce
(October 7, 1946—April 22, 1948)

W. AVERELL HARRIMAN was born in New York, New York, on November 15, 1891, and educated at Groton and Yale. Harriman's career included executive positions in the railroad industry and establishment of W. A. Harriman and Company, a private bank. A director of the Department of Commerce Business Advisory Council, Harriman also served as ambassador to the U.S.S.R and to Great Britain. He was appointed Secretary of Commerce by President Harry Truman. In 1955, he was elected Governor of New York.
Henry Agard Wallace

Tenth Secretary of Commerce

(March 2, 1945—September 20, 1946)

HENRY AGARD Wallace became the 10th Secretary of Commerce after having served as Vice President of the United States from 1941 until 1945. Wallace was born on a farm near Orient, Iowa, on October 17, 1888, and educated in Iowa public schools and graduated from Iowa State College. The son of a former Secretary of Agriculture, Wallace worked on the editorial staff of Wallace's Farmer until his own appointment as Secretary of Agriculture in March, 1933. With Franklin D. Roosevelt at the head of the ticket, Wallace was elected Vice President in 1940 and was director of the Board of Economic Warfare from 1942 to 1944. He was appointed Secretary of Commerce by President Roosevelt in 1945.
Jesse Holman Jones
Ninth Secretary of Commerce
(September 19, 1940—March 1, 1945)

JESSE H. JONES was born in Robertson County, Tennessee, on April 5, 1874, and educated at a rural school house in Adairsville, Kentucky. Jones became a lumber company executive and organized the Texas Trust Company of Houston. Jones also became editor and publisher of the Houston Chronicle. He was appointed director of the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, served as chairman of the executive committee of the Export-Import Bank of Washington, D. C. and was a member of the War Production Board before being named Secretary of Commerce by President Franklin Roosevelt.
Harry Lloyd Hopkins
Eighth Secretary of Commerce
(December 24, 1938—September 18, 1940)

Harry L. Hopkins was born in Sioux City, Iowa, on August 17, 1890, and received a B.A. degree from Grinnell College in 1912. Hopkins started his career as an investigator and later supervisor of casework for the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor in New York City. He became administrator of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration and directed the Works Progress (later Projects) Administration, where he wrote "Spending to Save." Hopkins also helped to set up the Social Security System. He was appointed Secretary of Commerce by President Franklin Roosevelt.
Daniel Calhoun Roper
Seventh Secretary of Commerce
(March 4, 1933—December 23, 1938)

Daniel C. ROPER was born in Marlboro County, South Carolina, on April 1, 1867. He attended Wofford College in Spartanburg, South Carolina, and was graduated from Trinity College. In 1892, Roper served in the South Carolina House of Representatives. In 1893, he took a job with a U.S. Senate committee in Washington, D. C., where he earned a law degree in 1901. Roper worked for the Census Bureau, the U.S. House of Representatives Ways and Means Committee, and became first assistant postmaster general, vice chairman of the U.S. Tariff Commission, and Commissioner of Internal Revenue. He was appointed Secretary of Commerce by President Franklin Roosevelt.
Roy Dikeman Chapin
Sixth Secretary of Commerce
(August 8, 1932—March 3, 1933)

ROY D. CHAPIN was born on February 23, 1880, in Lansing, Michigan. Chapin attended the University of Michigan before accepting a job with Olds Motor Works. In 1906, Chapin left his position as Oldsmobile sales manager and participated in the formation of three companies, the last being the Hudson Motor Car Company. A millionaire before he was 30, Chapin became chairman of the highways transport committee of the Council of National Defense during World War I. He was instrumental in getting the automobile industry to provide data for the expansion of the Department of Commerce “Survey of Current Business.” Chapin was appointed Secretary of Commerce by President Herbert Hoover.
Robert Patterson Lamont
Fifth Secretary of Commerce
(March 5, 1929—August 7, 1932)

ROBERT P. LAMONT was born in Detroit, Michigan, on December 1, 1867. He received an engineering degree from the University of Michigan. Lamont was a founder and president of the Simplex Railway Appliance Foundries Corporation. A civil engineer, he supervised the construction of the underwater tunnels into Lake Michigan to furnish Chicago's water supply and excavation of the Boston subway. Lamont was a leader in the fight against the Prohibition Amendment. He was invited to join the cabinet as Secretary of Commerce by President Herbert Hoover.
William Fairfield Whiting
Fourth Secretary of Commerce
(August 22, 1928—March 4, 1929)

William Whiting was born in Holyoke, Massachusetts, on July 20, 1864. The son of a U.S. Congressman, Whiting attended the Holyoke schools and Williston Academy. He was graduated from Amherst College in 1886. Whiting worked in his father's paper business and served as president of the Whiting Paper Company before being appointed Secretary of Commerce by President Calvin Coolidge.
Herbert Clark Hoover
Third Secretary of Commerce
(March 5, 1921—August 21, 1928)

HERBERT C. HOOVER was born in West Branch, Iowa, August 10, 1874 and graduated from Stanford University with a degree in engineering. He worked in California gold mines, in Australia, and for the Chinese Engineering and Mining Company. Hoover headed the American Relief Committee in London, the Commission for Relief in Belgium, and the U.S. Food Administration. He was also chairman of the American Relief Administration, chairman of the European Relief Council and vice chairman of the 1920 Industrial Conference. Hoover was appointed Secretary of Commerce by President Warren Harding and served seven years. He was elected President of the United States in 1928.
Joshua Willis Alexander
Second Secretary of Commerce
(December 16, 1919—March 4, 1921)

JOSHUA W. ALEXANDER was born in Cincinnati, Ohio, on January 22, 1852. He was graduated from Christian University (now Culver-Stockton College) in Canton, Missouri, and studied law. Alexander was president of the Gallatin Board of Education, a member of the Missouri House of Representatives, mayor of Gallatin, judge of the 7th Judicial Circuit of Missouri and a U.S. Representative for seven terms. He was appointed Secretary of Commerce by President Woodrow Wilson.
William Cox Redfield

First Secretary of Commerce

(March 5, 1913—October 31, 1919)

WILLIAM C. REDFIELD, the first Secretary of the newly separate Department of Commerce, was born in Albany, New York, on June 18, 1858. He grew up in Pittsfield, Massachusetts, where he attended public schools and received home instruction. After jobs with the Pittsfield Post Office and in sales, Redfield joined J. H. Williams and Company, manufacturers of steel and iron forgings, and became president of the firm. A member of the 62nd Congress and author of "The New Industrial Day," Redfield was appointed Secretary of Commerce by President Woodrow Wilson.
Charles Nagel
Fourth Secretary of Commerce and Labor
(March 6, 1909—March 4, 1913)

CHARLES NAGEL was born on a farm in Colorado County, Texas, on August 9, 1849. He was the fourth and last to hold the office of Secretary of Commerce and Labor. Nagel was graduated from Washington University Law School and traveled to Europe, where he studied Roman law and political economics at the University of Berlin in Germany. He practiced law in St. Louis, Missouri, before entering public service as a member of the Missouri State Legislature and then a Justice of the Supreme Court of Missouri. In 1909, Nagel was appointed a member of the cabinet by President William Taft.

Oscar Solomon Straus
Third Secretary of Commerce and Labor
(December 17, 1906—March 5, 1909)

OSCAR S. STRAUS was born in Otterberg, Rhenist Bavaria, Germany, on December 23, 1850, and emigrated with his family to the United States in 1854. He studied at private schools before his graduation from Columbia College and Columbia Law School in New York City. He practiced law before becoming a partner in L. Straus and Sons, a china and glassware company. Straus served as minister to Turkey under Presidents Grover Cleveland and William McKinley, and he was a member of the permanent court of arbitration at The Hague, Netherlands. He was invited to join the cabinet as Secretary of Commerce and Labor by President Theodore Roosevelt.
Victor Howard Metcalf
Second Secretary of Commerce and Labor
(July 1, 1904—December 16, 1906)

VICTOR H. METCALF was born in Utica, New York, on October 10, 1853. He attended Russell's Military Institute at New Haven, Connecticut, Yale College, and was graduated from Yale Law School in 1876 and from Hamilton College law department in 1877. Metcalf entered private practice before being elected to Congress in 1898, where he served on the House Ways and Means Committee in the 59th and 60th Congresses. He was appointed Secretary of Commerce and Labor by President Theodore Roosevelt.

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George Bruce Cortelyou
First Secretary of Commerce and Labor
(February 18, 1903—June 30, 1904)

GEORGE B. CORTELYOU, born in New York, New York, on July 26, 1862, was the first Secretary of Commerce and Labor. A graduate of the State Normal School of Westfield, Massachusetts, Cortelyou studied music at the New England Conservatory in Boston while teaching at Cambridge, took course work in clinics at New York Hospital while studying shorthand, and received an LL.B from Georgetown University Law School. He began his career as a general law and verbatim reporter before entering government service. He worked in customs and the post office and then joined the White House staff as stenographer to President Grover Cleveland. Cortelyou served as secretary to President William McKinley and to President Theodore Roosevelt. Roosevelt appointed him Secretary of the newly created Department of Commerce and Labor.
A Statement From the Secretary of Commerce

From the reading of the Constitution there will be great advantage and a new economy in having the Executive and Finance of the Government under one roof.

The Department is looking forward with great confidence in completing the new building, appropriate and beautiful new building, in which we hope to be of steady and continuous service to American commerce and industry.

We feel grateful for the support that has been given to us and wish to express our deep appreciation of the Department's support.

ROBERT P. LAVINE, Secretary of Commerce.
WHAT building or what quarters will be the home of this Department? I suppose some time or other, of course, there will be a new building.

Senator George Hoar
Congressional Record
January 20, 1902

Land for the monumental Department of Commerce building was purchased in 1910. The $2,460,000 site, a swampland of snakes, frogs, mosquitoes, flies and an occasional wolf, had been shunned by the original inhabitants of Washington, D.C. The Indians preferred to live in dry and comparatively healthy villages such as those north of Georgetown and on Capitol Hill.

The marshland lay on the edge of a swiftly flowing silver band of water named Goose Creek—later renamed Tiber Creek by city planners. Concern was expressed about Pierre Charles L'Enfant's plans to build the White House so close to the swamp, which would later be blamed for the prevalence of malaria in the city.

L'Enfant's original designs envisioned a great canal draining swamps, checking spring floods, and providing an impressive channel for waterborne passengers and cargo from the Potomac to the foot of Capitol Hill. Instead, poorly built, the canal became a cesspool. In 1871 it was drained and paved over. It is now Constitution Avenue. The only reminder of the canal's history is a lockkeeper's house, still standing at 17th Street and Constitution Avenue.
According to early land records, the land which the Commerce Building is on lay within a 225-acre tract called "Beall's Level," granted in 1703 to Ninian Beall by English royalty. In 1769, James Burnes secured part of the land and had it re-surveyed. In 1774, his son, David Burnes, received the land. He sold it for the proposed Federal city at a price of $67 an acre.

As the city began to develop, people settled in neighborhoods in the southwest, on Capitol Hill, and on the far side of the "President's House."

In the early 1800s, the city had no paving, no water systems and no drainage. Pennsylvania Avenue, then only 32 feet wide, was described as "a deep morass covered with elderbushes." Cows grazed on the mall. By 1850, city population had increased to more than 50,000 people, but there was little development on the south side of Pennsylvania Avenue where the Commerce Building is located. In fact, the low-rent area was known as "Murder Bay" because of the criminal activities centered there.

Not until nearly 1900 did the area around the Commerce building begin to assume its present form. The Post Office Building at 12th and Pennsylvania was completed in 1899 and the District Building, across
from the Commerce site, in 1908. In 1920, the Commerce plot was occupied by the Navy Department and several other structures.

Construction of the unusual Department of Commerce building began on October 4, 1927, more than a decade after the creation of the Department, whose offices were scattered among a number of temporary facilities. On June 10, 1929, President Herbert Clark Hoover laid the cornerstone. A former Secretary of Commerce, Hoover had been a strong advocate for the new facility, which was renamed in his honor in 1982.

When the building was completed in January 1932, the total construction cost was $17,500,000, over $2,000,000 more than the Louisiana Purchase, which brought 10 new states into the Union. At the time, the Commerce building was the largest office building in the world. Its total length of 1,050 feet exceeds that of the United States Capitol by 300 feet. The building contains 3,311 rooms and the net floor area is

Reproduced from a photo lithographic of an original lithographic stone print. Originally printed about 1920.
The Herbert C. Hoover Building, located on a site once used for grazing cattle, was constructed over a five-year period. Land was cleared and work started in 1927. In 1932, Department of Commerce employees moved into the new structure, which is situated between 14th and 15th Streets and Pennsylvania and Constitution Avenues in Washington, D.C. At the time the building was completed, it was the largest office complex in the world.
1,093,000 square feet. More than eleven million bricks were used and 16,400 tons of steel.

The Commerce building is three complete rectangular buildings in one, with the three units joined with accordion-type expansion joints. It was constructed this way because the building sits over Tiber Creek. There was no bed rock into which foundation piles could be driven. Seepage water from this Potomac River tributary at the time excavating was finished created an eight-acre lake, necessitating unusual construction methods to make the building stable and to eliminate seepage in the sub-basement and basement.

The building’s expansion and contraction features are such that on the hottest day in summer the structure may be three inches longer than on the coldest day in winter. The accordion joints thus protect the building from suffering structural damage.

Washington Milestone

When the construction was completed, it marked a milestone in the development of Washington, D. C. The Commerce building forms the base of a planned federal triangle bounded by 14th Street, Pennsylvania Avenue and Constitution Avenue. In August 1987, President Ronald Reagan signed legislation to complete the triangle construction.

Opposite the Department of Commerce, a new structure will replace a parking lot on the site of the proposed plaza and park area, represented by a fountain memorial to Oscar Straus, who was Secretary of Commerce and Labor in 1906 and the first Jewish cabinet officer.

The Commerce building was designed to house all of the Department bureaus except the National Bureau of Standards, which had laboratories north of the center city. Attention was given to the special needs of each agency. Two-to-four story stacks were installed for storage of the Patent Office’s more than three million patents, and the Great Hall became a patent-search room for the public. Stargazing equipment was installed on the roof for the Coast and Geodetic Survey. The Census Bureau, which occupied the south section of the building, was provided with facilities in the basement for intricate computing machinery.

Smaller Agencies

The central section of the building was used for administrative functions. It also housed smaller agencies such as Aeronautics, Radio, and Foreign and Domestic Commerce.

The Secretary's suite was built with non-operating windows and its own air-conditioning system, the only one in the building. It was paneled with walnut, as were the conference room and sections of the main library.

The original overall interior design called for a minimum of walls. Glass partitions were used to provide better light diffusion and to make supervision easier.

Facilities for the Bureau of Fisheries National Aquarium were provided in the basement of the new building. Established in 1873, the aquarium, the oldest public aquarium in the Nation, is now under the direction of a private, nonprofit organization. Displays include more than 1,000 fresh and saltwater specimens, representing 200 species from the United States and around the world.

In 1970, there was a major renovation of the building and central air conditioning was installed.
Building Statistics

**Interior**

- The building covers an area of approximately 8 acres—3 full city blocks.
- Its length is 1,050 feet; width, 325 feet; height, 7 stories and basement, and a subbasement for boiler rooms.
- It contains 27,159,045 cubic feet.
- The total gross floor area is 1,606,066 square feet.
- The net floor area, including offices, laboratories, shops, etc., is 1,092,800 square feet.
- There are 3,311 rooms.
- There are 5,200 windows, containing 250,000 square feet of glass.
- Electric outlets for telephones, power, signals, electric lights, etc., number 31,000.
- There are 15 entrances to the building.
- There are 27 passenger and 5 freight elevators, the passenger cars having a capacity of 18 passengers per car.
- The building is heated from the Government Central Heating Plant.
- The basement floor in some places is approximately 3 feet thick to withstand the pressure of water of Tiber Creek, which flows under the building.
- The building was completed in 1932.

**Construction Materials**

- Structural steel: 16,400 tons.
- Limestone, from Indiana: 2,000 carloads.
- Granite quarried in Connecticut, sawed, cut, and milled in Massachusetts: 150 carloads.
- Marble from Missouri: 900 tons.
- Base marble, from Vermont: 470 tons.
- Mankato stone, from Minnesota: 860 tons.
- Small quantities of domestic travertine from Colorado and Georgia, of which 500 tons of travertine chips from Georgia were used for terrazzo floors.
- Cafeteria, serving rooms, and kitchen floors; tile from West Virginia: 35 tons.

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- Toilet rooms, wall and floor tile, from Ohio: 300 tons.
- Common brick, from the District of Columbia: 10,000,000.
- Face brick, from Pennsylvania: 1,500,000.
- Terra cotta, from North Carolina and West Virginia: 27,000 tons.
- Reinforced concrete piling supporting the building: 80 miles or 14,000 piles.
- Plastering on walls and ceilings: 99 acres.
- Base of building, up to sill of first-floor windows is of granite; balance of walls is of Indiana limestone, except four courts of brick.
- Roof: 95,000 square feet, or 400 tons of promenade tile, and 160,000 square feet, or 1,200 tons of Mission tile. Two tons of copper nails were used in the roof.
- Bronze hardware used: 25 tons.
Building Inscriptions

Constitution Avenue facade: “The Department of Commerce assembles here the forces designed by Congress to advance the interests of industry and trade. Through experimental research, the dissemination of knowledge, and administrative vigilance it stimulates the progress of America upon land and sea and in the air and thereby speeds the Nation in the march of mankind.”

Pennsylvania Avenue facade: “Based upon foundations of devotion and labor, the United States is enriched by other golden threads in the genius of its people. Inventive daring illuminates their diligence. Adventurous ardor invigorates the work of their hands. Under governmental guardianship their ideas and their activities are assured the liberty that is the soul of achievement.”

Fourteenth Street facade: “The inspiration that guided our forefathers led them to secure above all things the unity of our country. We rest upon government by consent of the governed and the political order of the United States is the expression of a patriotic ideal which welds together all the elements of our national energy promoting the organization that fosters individual initiative. Within this edifice are established agencies that have been created to buttress the life of the people, to clarify their problems and coordinate their resources, seeking to lighten burdens without lessening the responsibility of the citizen. In serving one and all, they are dedicated to the purpose of the founders and other highest hopes of the future with their loyal administration given to the integrity and welfare of the Nation.”

Fifteenth Street entrance, north section: “The patent system added the fuel of interest to the fire of genius.”—Lincoln.

Fifteenth Street, north entrance, center section: “Commerce defies every wind, outrides every tempest, and invades every zone.”—Bancroft.

Fifteenth Street, south entrance, center section: “Commerce among nations should be fair and equitable”—Franklin.

Fifteenth Street entrance, south section: “Let us raise a standard to which the wise and honest can repair.”—Washington.
Resources


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In 1995, the Malcolm Baldrige Great Hall at the north end of the Herbert C. Hoover Building was opened as the White House Visitor Center to accommodate tourists, particularly those awaiting public tours of the nearby White House. The new facility was operated by the U.S. Department of the Interior.