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LABOR CONDITIONS IN CUBA.

BY VICTOR S. CLARK, PH. D.

INTRODUCTION.

Cuba has an area of about 44,000 square miles, of which only 3 per cent, or 1,320 square miles, was under cultivation in 1899. Though this amount has since been increased, the new plowings are not more than one-third the previous total, so that at a conservative estimate not more than 4 acres out of every 100 are tilled in Cuba at the present day. In 1899 nearly one-half of the cultivated land was in cane. According to testimony before the Ways and Means Committee in January, 1902, there are about 500 square miles of cane land productive this year. This is the actual crop acreage, without allowing for lands occupied by buildings, roads, and fire lanes, all of which are probably included in the census statistics. Adding 50 per cent to the productive cane area to make up for this margin and for land planted but not producing, for the estimate of acreage in the testimony mentioned is based upon the sugar crop of the island for the present campaign, the nominal cane area is about 750 square miles. Assuming this to be 47.3 per cent of the total cultivated land of Cuba, the same proportion as in 1899, slightly over 1,500 square miles, or less than 3½ per cent of the entire area of the island, is used directly for agricultural purposes. There is no evidence to show that the extension of cane culture has not kept pace with the extension of other crops since 1899. Four per cent of the area is therefore an over rather than an under estimate of the amount of cultivated land in Cuba in 1902.

Yet agriculture is the principal industry of the island, and a larger proportion of the surface is suitable for cultivation than in almost any American State. With extensive tracts of fertile and unused lands

and profitable crops, the capital and labor of Cuba have been best employed and compensated in tilling her fields. Only those manufactures depending directly upon her two great agricultural products, sugar and tobacco, have been developed sufficiently to supply more than local demands. In 1899 there were 207 sugar mills and 218 tobacco factories in Cuba producing for export. Mining is largely confined to Santiago de Cuba, the most eastern province of the island, where 6 iron and 6 manganese mines are worked, and where formerly copper was produced. Some asphalt is also being obtained in Habana province from a mine which has been opened since the American occupation. There are a few tracts of forest of considerable extent, especially in the swamps along the southern coast. The most valuable timbers are mahogany, which is exported in the hewn log, and cedar, which is both exported and used for domestic construction and the manufacture of cigar boxes. There are some 14 sawmills in the island sawing native timber and imported pines. The forest resources of Cuba, however, are not considerable enough to afford a permanent source of employment for a large element of her population. Grazing has always been an important industry. Historically it antedates crop raising of any kind; but where railways or other means of communication have been developed it has become subordinate to sugar and tobacco planting. It still remains predominant in the eastern provinces, especially in Puerto Principe and the eastern zone of Santa Clara. This industry suffered more than any other at the time of the last insurrection, for the cattle were driven off by insurgents and Spaniards alike to prevent their being used as a food supply by their opponents. In 1899 there were but 850,000 head of live stock of all kinds in Cuba, but cattle have been imported to the value of \$9,000,000 a year since then and the ranges are rapidly being restocked. There are 13 hide-curing establishments and 42 tanneries in Cuba, but from lack of skill, the use of inferior materials, and perhaps for climatic reasons, only coarser grades of leather are successfully produced. The food fisheries, both coast and deep sea, merely supply the local market. The sponge fisheries are more important, their annual product being valued at \$400,000; but they have declined through disregard of the closed season and other measures intended to maintain the supply. The military government has recently enforced regulations intended to reestablish this industry.

Cuba has no merchant marine, except some 25 coasting steamers and larger schooners employed entirely in local traffic. The combined mileage of her public railways, including the main line of the Cuban Central, which is practically completed, is about 1,600 miles. There are in addition about 900 miles of narrow-gauge plantation and mining railroads which are not open to general traffic. Two electric lines are in operation in the island.

What manufacturing exists for the purpose of supplying local markets is largely centered at Habana, partly because that city is the principal distributing point as well as the principal consuming market of Cuba, and partly because it is where labor is most congested and where the largest number of Spaniards, many of whom are skilled workmen, is to be found. Not only does nearly one-sixth of the entire population of Cuba reside in Habana, but the purchasing power of that one-sixth is probably fully one-third the purchasing power of the island. The local manufactures include 67 rum distilleries and liqueur factories, 33 soda-water factories, 4 breweries, 10 foundries, 27 cigar box and box factories, 9 cooper shops, 8 trunk factories, 1 cement and 4 tile factories, 10 match factories, 4 gas works, 4 electric-light works, 1 printing-ink factory, 1 oil refinery, 12 sugar refineries, 1 paper mill, 7 flour mills, 27 chocolate factories, 8 candle and soap factories, 18 canneries, 11 ice factories, 2 rope and cordage factories, 2 shoe factories, 10 lithographers' works, besides a number of minor industries and small establishments not using power machinery.

Cuba is therefore entirely dependent upon the products of her fields for her economic prosperity. She does not carry and exchange merchandise for other countries, nor does she manufacture except to supply certain special and local demands or to place her crops most easily and economically upon the market. These conditions determine the character of her industrial life. Her highly skilled workmen have mostly come from beyond the seas. The labor question has not assumed a social aspect. It has simply been a problem of supply and demand of field hands. There is little special skill, little organization, little class spirit among her working people. A tinge of paternalism, prolonged in Cuba by the late continuance of slavery and the Spanish tendency to organize commercial enterprises upon a domestic basis, pervades the relations of employer and employee. Even in urban centers the industrial characteristics of an agricultural community prevail.

HISTORY.

LABOR SUPPLY.

While the labor question has not the same social importance in Cuba that it has in countries where industry is more highly developed, it has played a weighty part in the history of the island. The political problem Spain failed to solve in Cuba was intimately connected with an economic problem, and this in turn depended upon social and industrial conditions closely connected with the labor question. Emancipation was a motive in the ten-years' war, and exiled labor, disciplined by association with organized labor in the States, financed the second insurrection. The first aspect of this question presented in Cuba, however, was one of labor supply.

It is not necessary to go back to the time when the Indian population was exterminated by forced labor in the mines and on the early plantations. So long as Spain retained her South American possessions Cuba was comparatively neglected, and stock raising was a principal industry. Even so late as 1857 special decrees were issued by the governor of the island to prohibit horse breeders and cattlemen from enforcing a sort of prescriptive right to trespass for pasturage upon the private holdings of cultivators. Under such conditions the question of labor supply was not so pressing as it became when agriculture superseded grazing. Although Negroes were imported early, the white population was in the majority until 1774, two and a half centuries after the first settlement of the island. At the same date about one-fourth of the inhabitants were slaves. With the freer trade relations which Spain from time to time granted Cuba early in the last century, the possibility of profitable agriculture increased. This occasioned a new demand for field laborers, which was largely supplied by the slave trade. By a treaty with England Spain agreed to abolish this traffic in 1820, and as this was not effective a subsequent treaty to the same end was signed by the same Governments in 1835. However, though the Madrid authorities seem to have made sincere efforts from this date on to prohibit the importation of slaves and gradually to abolish slavery in Cuba, the keen demand for laborers and the corrupt provincial administration rendered a large contraband traffic possible. It is estimated that between 900,000 and 1,000,000 slaves were imported into Cuba during the hundred years ending with 1880, the date when slavery was finally abolished. The Negroes of Cuba exceeded the whites in number from 1817 until 1841, when the effect of the abolition of the slave trade became apparent in a gradual reduction of the ratio of the black to the white and mulatto population. There was an absolute increase in the number of Negroes in the island until 1861, when they numbered 603,046 out of a total population of 1,396,530. They numbered 505,433, and constituted slightly more than 32 per cent of the whole population of Cuba in 1899, according to the census made by the War Department.

The decrease in the number of Cubans of pure Negro blood is due principally to two causes. The proportion of males to females among the slaves imported was as two to one. The lack of a strong race prejudice, such as exists in the United States, and the presence of a numerous body of alien soldiers for a long period has favored a mixture of blood. While Cuba was being occupied by a large military force, the Spanish private was not received upon terms of social equality by the families of the native whites. As a natural consequence he associated mostly with mulattoes and Negroes during his sojourn in the island. The free Negro received practically the same political and social consideration as the white Cuban from the Spanish Government. Slave and master and black and white fought side by side in the wars for

independence. All these causes have favored the gradual fusion of the two races.

After the year 1847 there existed for a time a system of contract or bound labor, which supplemented the decreasing slave labor of Cuba. The first coolies imported under this law were Chinese. The contractor was bound by treaty to pay for the term of the contract, which was eight years, from 20 to 30 cents (*a*) a day wages, besides a stipulated ration, clothing, lodging, and medical attendance. In 1854 a royal decree was issued regulating the importation of contract labor from Spain, China, and Yucatan. Laborers from this last source proved very satisfactory, but the Mexican Government interfered to prevent their movement to Cuba. There were many abuses under this system, which was so administered as to amount to practical slavery, especially in case of the Chinese, who continued to constitute a large majority of the laborers imported under these regulations. These importations ceased in 1873. The total number of bound laborers who entered Cuba during the twenty-six years this institution continued was probably less than 150,000.

Besides the coolies, contraband slaves confiscated from captured slave vessels were temporarily leased by the authorities to private parties until fully freed, in order that they might not become a public charge. These numbered but 2,101 in 1850, and at no time constituted an appreciable fraction of the laboring population.

The process of emancipation in Cuba was gradual, so that masters retained a partial control over their freedmen for a period after liberation. By the decree of May 8, 1880, slaves were to remain under the patronage of their former masters for five years. During this time they were to render their usual services, receiving in return board, clothing, medical attendance, and a wage of from \$1 to \$3 a month, according to age and ability. They might redeem this time by arrangement with their masters. The latter forfeited rights of patronage by neglecting to care for their slaves. After five years one-third of the slave population was to be freed by lot annually. However, within four years after the date of this decree, or one year before emancipation by lot began, 40 per cent of the slaves of the island had been fully emancipated. The statistics are as follows:

NUMBER OF SLAVES EMANCIPATED IN CUBA FROM 1880 TO 1884.

How emancipated.	Slaves emancipated in—			
	1880-81.	1881-82.	1882-83.	1883-84.
Mutual agreement.....	(b)	3,476	6,954	9,453
Ceding patronage.....	(b)	3,229	3,714	3,925
Purchase of services.....	(b)	2,001	3,341	3,452
Neglect of patron.....	(b)	406	1,596	1,764
Other causes.....	(b)	1,137	1,813	7,923
Total.....	6,366	10,249	17,418	26,517

a The value of money fluctuated so much during earlier years that no attempt has been made to give the equivalent in American currency.

b Not reported.

The total number emancipated to June 30, 1884, was 60,550, and the number under patronage November 8, 1883, was 99,566.

Therefore, until less than twenty years ago the labor of Cuba was broadly divided into three classes—slave, contract, and free.

A brief calculation has been made to show the interchange of labor among these three classes. In 1899 about 40 per cent of the population of Cuba was engaged in gainful occupations. Though this is a somewhat larger proportion than in the United States, it is probably smaller than when slavery and other forms of forced labor existed. According to the census of 1861, there were 690,577 persons in Cuba engaged in gainful pursuits out of a total population of 1,396,530. This would make the proportion of workers 47 per cent, excluding soldiers and government officials. We may assume this as the average of the employed population of a partially developed tropical agricultural colony like Cuba during the existence of slavery.

Under the regulations governing the leasing of confiscated contraband slaves to private parties, a money compensation was paid for boys and girls over 8 years of age, besides maintenance. We may, therefore, assume that slaves above this age were customarily employed, however slight their contribution to the industrial capacity of the people. There were doubtless some superannuated slaves. But the small proportion of women imported rendered the number of births among the slave population below the normal, and most imported slaves were in the prime of life. These two factors, reducing the percentage of those below working age, more than compensate for those too old for labor in estimating the employed slave population. Seventy-seven per cent of the inhabitants of Cuba in 1899 were over 8 years of age. We may reasonably assume, therefore, that 80 per cent of the slave population of Cuba were engaged in active labor.

Chinese coolies imported under contract are to be reckoned as practically all employed in the fields and in domestic service.

Where slavery exists it is evident that the proportion of the free population engaged in gainful occupations will be less than the proportion of the total population so engaged where all labor is voluntary; for the leisure class, which remains approximately the same in both instances, will constitute a considerably larger fraction of a free population where 30 per cent of the people are slaves or bound servants than of a total population where all have equal civil status. The number of free persons in the following table is determined by subtracting the whole number of coolies in Cuba at the date given, plus 80 per cent of the slave population, from 47 per cent of the total population, which is the assumed proportion of employed people in the island in slavery times.

ESTIMATED NUMBER OF FREE, CONTRACT, AND SLAVE PERSONS EMPLOYED IN CUBA,
1841, 1861, AND 1877.

Class of labor.	1841.		1861.		1877.	
	Number em- ployed.	Per cent.	Number em- ployed.	Per cent.	Number em- ployed.	Per cent.
Free	105,000	22.2	316,000	48.5	511,000	71.5
Contract			35,000	5.4	44,000	6.1
Slave	369,000	77.8	301,000	46.1	160,000	22.4

While these figures are only approximate, they are sufficiently accurate to show in a broad way the movement of labor in Cuba from compulsory to voluntary service. The relative proportions of free and slave labor were about reversed in thirty-six years. When the next census was taken, in 1887, all labor was classified as free.

There were evidently many free field hands, who were probably in some instances native whites, employed during the latter part of the eighteenth century; for in the first annual report of the Economic Society, in the year 1793, we find mention of the fact that the section of agriculture of that organization was considering means of preventing or arbitrating the many disputes arising between plantation owners and managers and their agricultural laborers. At that time grazing was an important industry in all parts of the island, and most of the herders have always been whites. Comparatively few Negroes are found in the grazing sections of the island at the present day.

There is reason to believe that the proportion of the labor of Cuba performed by white people decreased rapidly during the early part of the nineteenth century. The importation of slaves when the sugar crop became profitable drove most of the whites out of field service for a time, and also from other manual occupations. During the early decades of that century vagrancy greatly increased in Cuba and became a problem requiring the serious consideration of public authorities. In a memorial upon this subject, presented to the Economic Society in 1839, the complaint is made that agriculture has fallen into the hands of slaves and that the Negroes have monopolized many of the mechanic trades, so that most manual occupations have become dishonorable and whites will no longer engage in them. A reverse of this process took place fifty years later, during the movement from slave to free labor. Vagrancy is no longer a serious problem in Cuba.

During the nineteenth century the free labor of Cuba was supplied from two main sources—emancipated slaves and their descendants and European immigration. The European element has come almost entirely from Spain and her dependencies. Early in the century a few German capitalists began to invest in Cuban plantations. Some established themselves in coffee culture in Pinar del Rio. Occasional French settlers were to be found in the principal coast towns. English capitalists were interested in the copper mines near Santiago, and

a few English, Scotch, and American plantation owners were scattered throughout the island. During the early railway development a small number of American and European mechanics found their way into Cuba. But none of these influences occasioned an extensive immigration of working people from those nations. Except in some special instances, such as the construction of the Habana street railways in the seventies, Spaniards have been the only white laborers immigrating into Cuba. They are the only laborers who have remained in the island permanently.

The importance of the Spanish immigrants in the labor market has been much greater than their numbers would seem to justify. The white Cuban of the poorer class and the free Negro are usually peasant proprietors. Therefore they do not possess the same mobility as the Spaniard, are only available as laborers in the vicinity of their homes, and have not the same incentive to work for wages as the man who has come from a distant land to make his fortune, and who has no palm hut to shelter him and no banana patch to stay his hunger at a pinch.

In an agricultural community, where only unskilled labor is employed and industries have been shaped to conform to the local supply, a slight excess of working people sometimes occasions a very great depression of wages. In 1841 the arrival of 200 Catalan immigrants at Puerto Principe lowered the price of labor so that many accepted work at \$6 and \$7 a month. This was about one-fourth the prevailing wage in Cuba at that date. These conditions have tended to concentrate Spanish labor in the vicinity of the larger cities and along the railways in the western provinces, where it is easier to adjust the supply of workmen to the market demand.

Corresponding to the movement from slave to free labor, there was an increase in the proportion of white to black labor employed on the plantations of Cuba during the middle and latter part of the last century. As early as 1845 a Cuban writer reports that nothing is more common than to see white men employed in the fields, exposing themselves to the full effects of the climate. In 1844 the pay roll of a mining company at Santiago shows, out of 2,389 employees, 169 English and 133 Spanish and native white workmen. From 1840, at least, white labor was chiefly employed in the Vedado quarries, the principal source of lime and building stone for Habana, and in 1880 it is known that 12 of these were Galicians. According to official statistics there were in 1861 thirteen sugar plantations in the municipal district of Holguin worked entirely by white labor. In 1885 it was estimated that 45,000 white field hands were employed in Cuba during the crop season. It was noticed at this time that whites were supplanting Negroes as coachmen, carters, and domestic servants. White labor had always predominated in the tobacco districts, where during the crop gathering

wages often range as high as they do on the harvest fields of the northwestern part of the United States.

The small landholders or peasant proprietors of Cuba date from the early history of the island, though they possessed their holdings on rather precarious tenure until the beginning of the last century. For three hundred years the people of Cuba were land poor, and little attention was given to the matter of titles and the demarcation of boundaries. During the first colonization of the island the land around the settlements was divided among the colonists or remained common property. Until 1729 the *cabildo*, or city council, of each coast town issued grants of unoccupied territory in their *hinterland*. The petitioners usually asked for tracts measured by a radius from some central point. Many of these were several leagues in diameter. When title was granted it was subject to conflicting possession or prior title under some previous grant. Where interstices existed between these circular tracts—and many such remained after authority to make grants was taken from the *cabildos*—the unappropriated land was the King's property until disposed of by sale or grant by crown officers. Moreover, large estates frequently remained undivided for several generations, until title was vested in a large number of heirs, who cultivated small tracts of land selected at will from the estate and shared the pasturage rights of the remainder. There are many of these undivided estates in Cuba at the present time, practically in chancery so far as ability to transfer them is concerned, and undeveloped because of the difficulty of clearing title. When the subdivision of these common estates became so minute that it was difficult to estimate each man's share in fractions, ordinances were passed for the appraising of the property, so that shares could be valued in pesos (dollars), and it was required that an heir should have an interest of at least \$125 in an estate to acquire the right of building on it, and that all house sites should be at the center of the property. These 125 pesos thus became known as "pesos of possession," because they gave a right to occupancy.

Under such loose methods of acquiring title and delimiting the boundaries of landed property many disputes naturally arose and there was much going to the court by the proprietors; but suits were expensive and protracted, and under the civil law a claimant in possession had a great advantage. The cost of dispossessing a squatter where land was cheap and a suit might reveal a questionable title on the part of the plaintiff prevented proceedings in many instances where there was just cause, and the litigation among large proprietors prevented their giving attention to petty offenders. So there came to be small holdings by squatters and by remote heirs in common estates. To these must be added the holdings of emancipated slaves, who were frequently given a hut, yard, and garden plot by their former masters.

The census enumerators in 1899 found many unauthorized occupiers holding parcels of uncertain extent. In these ways the peasant class, so numerous in Cuba at the present day, was created. It has comprised whites, mulattoes, and blacks from the earliest times. In 1761 there were mulatto and Negro militia companies raised in the jurisdiction of Sancti Spiritus to oppose an anticipated English invasion. In 1853 there were some municipalities in Cuba where a majority of the small proprietors and renters were of the black race. But as a rule whites constitute from 60 to 90 per cent of the population of this class, the proportion varying widely in different parts of the island.

Until toward the middle of the nineteenth century simple customs and an exceedingly primitive manner of living prevailed among the rural population of Cuba without much distinction of wealth and rank. In this regard there has been little change to the present day in the central and eastern provinces. There were no great differences of culture or social status separating the large landowner from the poorer white laborer. In the narrative of a trip through the province of Pinar del Rio, in 1839, a Cuban writer gives the history of a peasant family with whom he took refuge during a storm, as recounted by the old countryman himself. This man's hut was no better or worse than that of the average farm laborer in Cuba to-day, and it was furnished with the same simple utensils and homemade furniture. The owner's father had been a laborer in the tobacco fields, but the son, chancing to fall into the employ of a stockman who was driving a herd to Habana for market, remained in the service of his new master as a cowboy, and a little later married his daughter, received a portion of the land and stock, and thus in turn became a proprietor. The same writer relates another conversation, held with a countryman of the same class—an old man who tilled, with the help of his two sons, a small tract of land which he held in constant fear of being ejected on account of contested title. The sons did not, like the other boys of the vicinity, hire out as field hands, but with their assistance the father was able to turn an extra penny or so making rude country plows for his neighbors.

At this period the poor white countryman had three possible careers before him. He might become a herdsman, a tobacco hand, or a small renter or squatter. The herdsman seldom accumulated other property than a horse and mountings, an expensive machete, and perhaps a game cock. Tobacco hands were more prosperous and thrifty, and probably handled more money than either herdsmen or squatters. The renter or squatter, having no marketable crop, simply lived off the land that he tilled, consuming its products and confining his wants to what it was able to supply. With the development of sugar planting an opening was afforded for the most intelligent and enterprising country people to become managers, foremen, and sugarhouse hands.

During the eighteenth century there was a limited field for skilled labor in Cuba, confined to the building trades and to the manufacture of shoes and garments and of the simple furniture and agricultural implements of the time. Methods of construction were exceedingly crude. Even in the larger towns the church was often the only masonry building, and private dwellings were built of thatch and palm bark. The rebuilding of the towns in brick and mortar, outside of Habana and one or two port cities, was the work of a single generation.

In 1774 the trades are reported to have been largely in the hands of mulattoes and free Negroes. Tailors, shoemakers, and blacksmiths possessed ordinary skill, such as would be expected in a farming country, but the cabinetmakers turned out unusually fine work, equal to the best of England and France. This is a reputation the latter maintain to the present day, and there are occasional fine old pieces of Cuban-made furniture remaining in the provincial towns that confirm the tradition of their earlier skill. While tailors were mostly of Negro blood, most of the sewing women, even at this date, were whites. Orchestras were composed of both white and black musicians, who served together in this profession without distinction of race.

When labor of that kind was abundant, slaves were employed in constructing the massive buildings of brick or rubble masonry erected some fifty years ago in the Cuban cities. They also built the long stone walls, extending sometimes for many miles across the country, that mark the limits of the old estates. But master masons were men of skill and consideration, and the demand for their services was so great at times that municipal authorities felt constrained to limit their compensation by special ordinances.

Even while slavery remained at its height, however, white workmen began to crowd the Negroes out of many occupations requiring special skill, especially in those parts of the island receiving a large share of the Spanish immigration. The following table shows the relative number of free laborers of the two races in various occupations in the municipality of Pinar del Rio in the year 1853:

WHITE AND BLACK FREE LABORERS IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS IN PINAR DEL RIO, 1853.

Occupations.	Male.		Female.	
	White.	Black.	White.	Black.
Bakers	13			
Carpenters	31	17		
Carters	20	6		
Cigar makers	46	13		
Cooks				4
Herders	26	5		
Laborers	54	52		
Masons	6	12		
Sewing women			47	22
Shoemakers	13	9		
Peasants	1,676	559		
Tailors	11	14		
Washerwomen			21	72

LABOR UNIONS.

The earliest organizations of workingmen in Cuba were suggested by higher authority, with the object of perfecting and protecting the mechanic trades, in accordance with the policy and methods of the mediæval guilds. In 1793 the Economic Society, which was the body having supervision of matters of this sort, resolved to propose a simple plan for forming in Habana *gremios* (guilds) of the mechanic trades, with due regard to distinctions of race and civil status, similar so far as possible to those already existing in Barcelona and other Spanish cities. Either this or some subsequent attempt to attain the same object was more or less successful, for such organizations existed in Habana, and have had an influence upon the later grouping of labor along trade-union lines.

These *gremios* consisted of both employers and employees and of members of both races. They never acquired much property or became established on so secure and permanent a basis as the Spanish guilds. They were Spanish rather than Cuban in conception and character, and their main functions, aside from regulating trade skill and requirements, have been assumed by the various clubs and semibenevolent organizations of Habana to be mentioned later.

The trade-union movement in Cuba began about 1878, at the close of the ten years' war, and was indirectly a result of that conflict. During the insurrection many Cuban cigar makers emigrated to the United States, where new factories were opened and tobacco manufacture received a great impetus. Many of these operatives eventually returned to Cuba, bringing back trade-union ideas acquired in their new home. These extended first among the tobacco trades, which have always been the best organized of Cuba, but were rapidly adopted by the working people in other occupations. Many radical theories were promulgated at first and unwise policies were adopted. The early organizations were therefore short lived, but the movement had come to stay.

The earliest labor periodical in Cuba was *La Razon* (Reason), founded in July, 1876, and published weekly until 1884. This paper did not represent any special labor organization or movement, but its title stated that it was "dedicated to workingmen." There was nothing in the least radical or revolutionary about its utterances, and its columns contain only casual references to meetings of unions, strikes, or other matters relating directly to organized labor. Most of the articles were rather academic, but contained much sensible advice to the working people. The policy of the paper seems to have been to conduct an educational campaign for the elevation of labor as a class, deprecating strikes and other conflicts between labor and capital, and confining its efforts to the advocacy of positive measures, such as the exten-

sion of the common schools and the formation of cooperative societies. One gathers the impression from scanning its files that *La Razon* preached the ideals of a group of men who were in education and culture considerably superior to the average workingman. The labor papers published in Cuba at present, while much more closely in touch with practical labor interests, are far below their predecessor in breadth of view and general literary excellence.

The following scattered data as to the early history of trade unions in Cuba have been gathered mostly from the columns of this paper. This source of information has been supplemented from oral statements by the present leaders in the principal Cuban labor organizations. The material gathered is simply sufficient to indicate the fact that there was considerable activity in the labor circles of the island during the fifteen years preceding the last insurrection.

The cigar makers were already organized in Habana in 1876, for they were at that time fighting a reduction of wages to \$30 paper (\$12.30 American currency) a thousand for certain grades of cigars. The same year there was a complaint as to high rents in Habana, and *La Razon* printed an account of the ejecting of a workingman in one of the wharf districts from his home because he was unable to pay the \$15 paper (\$6.15 American) monthly rent demanded by his landlord for the single room occupied by himself and his eight children. There was reported to be great destitution in the suburbs of Habana that year.

In 1877 the typographers were organized. "No work and great suffering among the laboring people" was still the cry. During the three succeeding years there was constant complaint that the poorer class suffered at every turn on account of the fluctuating currency, both in wages and in the price paid for commodities. In 1880 many working people were reported to be emigrating to the United States. During that year, however, there seems to have been an improvement in the condition of labor. Several cooperative societies were formed. These included a shoe and leather store, which was conducted successfully for several years, and a large hotel or boarding house, which is still in existence in Habana. A cooperative cigar factory with a capital of \$250,000, to be raised in six months by a weekly contribution of 50 cents from 10,000 workingmen, was planned, but for some reason this project was never realized. A smaller factory of this sort was opened and worked for a time at Guanabacoa. Some of the labor organizations formed at this time were more particularly social and benefit societies. The *Recreo de Artisanos*, founded in 1877, and a sister society of the same name in the suburb of Jesus del Monte, were prospering. They were conducted partly as clubs, giving entertainments and affording centers for social intercourse. Schools were also maintained under their auspices.

In 1882 there was a tailors' strike in Habana. Business was prospering and prices and wages were high. The strike was to resist an attempt to cut down wages, and was partly successful. Employers tried to get workmen from New York, and did secure some seventeen nonunion hands, but the New York unions cooperated with the Habana union to prevent skilled workmen from emigrating to Cuba. In 1883 the typographical union made a demand for higher wages, but does not seem to have succeeded in enforcing it. The union tariff of the cigar and cigarette makers appears to have been maintained, though a strike of the latter operatives in some factories failed because not supported by the Chinese employees. At that time the cigar makers' union of Habana numbered 4,000 members. In May of the same year the coachmen and omnibus drivers formed a union, and later there was a carters' strike that tied up local commerce for several days. This crisis was attended by considerable disorder, and the troops were called out. The bakers struck for higher wages, and a number who signed a petition for increased pay were imprisoned by the Government. A fund of over \$800 was raised for their support by the other unions, fifteen employers were persuaded to sign the new tariff, and a cooperative bakery was opened, apparently by discharged employees. At the same time the carpenters formed a union.

During this period trade-union ideas are said to have become disseminated among the rural population, which was becoming restless. The recently freed Negroes began to flock into the cities, where many of them lived in dependence and idleness.

The constant labor agitation and rapid formation of new unions in 1883 was partly occasioned by a monetary crisis. Wages were being paid in a depreciated paper currency to the constant disadvantage of the working people. At last the situation became so bad that a concerted effort was made by all the labor organizations of Habana to remedy the evil. The second day of December the federated unions held a mass meeting at Albisu Theater, strengthened their organization, and resolved to demand that their wages be paid in gold. But labor has never been strong enough in Cuba to enforce such a demand as this, and the movement seems not to have got beyond the resolution stage.

Early attempts were made to combine the different unions into a central organization. There was a Centro de Artisanos, which was a social club admitting all classes of workingmen, in existence some years before 1883. In the autumn of that year a central committee—how appointed is not known—issued a prospectus of a plan to federate all labor of Cuba, leaving each trade complete autonomy. Probably the machinery of the proposed organization was to be copied from similar bodies in the United States. The program calls for the abolition of all fixed salaries, so far as possible, and for payment of

labor upon a piecework system according to schedules to be determined by contract with the unions. This clause sufficiently indicates the predominance of tobacco workers in the proposed federation. The traditions of this committee were taken up by several general organizations, known as *Circulo de Trabajadores*, *Sociedad General de Trabajadores*, etc., which succeeded each other in rapid succession during the early eighties. *La Razon* was followed by *El Obrero*, *El Trabajo*, *El Productor*, and other short-lived periodicals. The pioneer work done by these organizations and publications is said to have resulted finally in the formation of a federation of the principal unions of western Cuba under a *Junta Central de Trabajadores* (Central Workingmen's Committee), which is reported to have been a body of considerable authority and influence. During its existence labor was better organized and more powerful than at any previous or subsequent period. This *Junta Central* was dissolved by order of the governor about the year 1888. It was followed by a less important federation, known as the *Congreso Regional de Obreros Cubanos*, which continued in existence until the close of the Spanish-American war. This has been succeeded by a number of local federations to be mentioned later.

WAGES AND PRICES.

In considering the history of wages and prices in Cuba one is met by many difficulties. In the first place there are no government statistics and few private publications touching either directly or indirectly upon the labor question from the standpoint of wages. If any government archives existed that might have thrown light upon this subject, they disappeared at the time the Spaniards evacuated the island. Besides this, Cuba has been cursed at periods with several kinds of bad money, and even were nominal wages known it would be almost impossible to reduce them to a fixed and definite basis. Finally, as the Cuban laborer subsists largely upon imported food and wears entirely imported clothing, and as with shifting tariff and tax regulations the prices of these articles sometimes quadrupled within a single decade, the purchasing power of wages, even had they been paid in a stable currency, must have been subject to the widest variations.

In addition, there are social considerations that tend to make labor compensation an elusive quantity in Cuba. The moral effect of slavery and of the system of patronage which followed it still remains in parts of the island. The rural laborer possesses a true peasant's attachment for his home. He is either too ignorant and too unenterprising or too devoted to the place of his birth to leave the locality where Providence has placed him. The store system prevails on many plantations and is often so manipulated as to keep the field laborer in debt to his employer. All these conditions tend to make him dependent upon

some landed proprietor. He relapses into, or rather he never evolved from, a state of peonage. For him labor compensation is a subsistence. Rated in money it is simply another version of local provision prices.

Under such circumstances the nominal wages of rural labor vary widely. Near a railway or seaport, where most food is imported, they will be reckoned higher in silver currency than at a remote interior point, where much of the food is of necessity raised upon the plantations.

While the wages of city workmen are less affected by the conditions just mentioned, they are subject to certain factors of uncertainty that are not found in countries where industry is more highly organized. In many factories and commercial establishments employees enter service with a semi-domestic status, and receive board and lodging, laundry, and certain small personal perquisites in addition to their regular pay. While this method of conducting a manufacturing or commercial enterprise has some advantages, especially in the way of giving stability and permanence to the relations of employer and employee, it is prejudicial to the progress of labor as a class. It further renders difficult any attempt to ascertain or estimate the real compensation such employees receive for their services.

An attempt, therefore, to determine the general trend of wages and their special fluctuations in Cuba can reach only approximate results. What specific information has been obtained comes mostly from old files of the Habana dailies, where occasional advertisements for labor or the leasing of slaves are found, with wages given. Data of this character have been supplemented from statements by plantation managers of long experience and other large employers of labor, and by material collected from official and semiofficial publications, and from articles of general interest touching incidentally upon this topic.

In 1805 the city council of Sancti Spiritus issued an order reducing the wages of masons to the old price of \$1 a day. Under freedom of contract the wages of these workmen had risen to \$3 a day. Twenty-four years later the same authorities fixed the following tariff for a day's work in certain kinds of skilled labor in that municipality:

Master masons and carpenters.....	\$2. 00
Journeymen masons and carpenters	1. 25
Laborers.....	. 75
Tailors (for cutting coats).....	. 75
Tailors (for cutting trousers).....	1. 00

These prices are nearly as high as those prevailing in Habana at the present time, as they were paid in gold.

In 1843, at the copper mines near Santiago, \$19 a month, with board, lodging, and clothing, was being paid for unskilled Negro slaves leased from their owners. It has already been mentioned that two years earlier a local congestion of labor reduced the wages of white field hands near Puerto Principe to \$7 a month and board.

De la Concha, who was twice governor of Cuba between 1850 and 1860, speaking in his Memoria of abuses that had crept into the system of leasing contraband slaves confiscated from captured slave ships and illegal traders, estimates the value of their services for ordinary field work at \$15 a month and maintenance throughout the year, though they were actually leased for much less than that sum. He states that experienced workers were worth more than this. As these slaves were unskilled and unacclimated Negroes, ignorant of Spanish, it is not probable that they were considered worth the year round more than half as much as free laborers commanded during the crop season, which would make the wages of the latter \$30 a month and maintenance.

During the first six months of 1860 there appeared in the *Diario de la Marina*, of Habana, two advertisements calling for a number of unskilled laborers and field hands. Masters leasing slaves were offered \$28 gold a month and board for their services. The slaves were guaranteed good maintenance, and one advertisement further promises that they shall not be worked more than eleven hours a day. As owners letting out their slaves on contract were doubtless careful to provide that their chattels should be returned in good condition, these were probably as well protected from abuse and overwork as were free laborers, and their leasing price was about equivalent to the wages of the latter. .

In the same paper during the first semester of 1870—that is, during the crop season—an offer of \$24 a month and board is made by advertisement for an Asiatic laborer. The coolies were not considered equal to white and Negro field hands. The editor of a Habana sugar journal, who was interested in plantations at that date, states that about 1870 a good Negro field laborer commanded \$30 gold a month and maintenance.

In an article that appeared in the *Revista de Cuba* in 1877, the following estimate of monthly plantation wages in Spanish gold is given: Chemist, \$333; manager, \$250; engineer, \$166; firemen, \$45; sugar-house men, \$30; field hands, \$30.

Presumably in this estimate the \$30 a month is intended to include the total cost of the laborer to the planter, or both wages and board. In the report of the British consul-general for the same year there is a memorandum of the cost of labor in Spanish gold upon a plantation employing 3,000 hands, distributed as follows: 2,000 slaves at an annual cost of \$200 each; 400 Chinese at an annual cost of \$250 each; 600 free blacks at an annual cost of \$300 each.

In 1880 the conditions seem to have been very uneven in different parts of the island. During the crop season \$25 gold without board was offered for unskilled laborers near Habana. An American plantation manager who was in charge of an estate during this season reports that it was customary in his vicinity to hire the hands needed, mostly

coolies, from a Chinese contractor who received \$25 gold a month for each laborer. This contractor boarded his workmen without cost to the planter. But it is stated in a contemporary pamphlet that the scarcity of labor this year was so great on some plantations that \$34 gold a month and board was paid to Negro field hands, which was estimated to make a total labor cost of \$40 a month for each employee. In Puerto Principe, on the other hand, labor was abundant. Many small cane planters were working in the fields assisted by four or five hands hired at low wages. Field laborers were plentiful at from \$15 to \$25 in paper currency a month and board, or \$30 and \$40 without board. The paper dollar was at this time worth about forty cents in gold, so the minimum wages in Puerto Principe was \$6 a month with board, or \$12 without board. In the years immediately following, especially in 1886, the dearth of labor was such as to create an agricultural crisis in some parts of the island. But this was not a general condition, apparently, for F. A. Conté, an exceptionally well-informed writer, states in the contemporary volume of the *Revista de Cuba* that the complaints of high wages made by planters are not justified, and that allowing for variations due to local causes the average pay of field hands does not exceed \$15 a month for the entire year. All of the wages hitherto quoted have been for the crop season only.

According to testimony printed in Mr. Robert P. Porter's Report upon Industrial Conditions in Cuba, the price of field labor about 1890, or during the years immediately before the last insurrection, ranged from \$14 to \$21 in Spanish gold a month and maintenance. This would indicate a considerable fall from the previous years, and a standard of wages not much higher than those prevailing at present. During the war, laborers worked for whatever they could get—\$6 and \$7 silver a month at times.

The wages offered by advertisement for domestic servants in Habana were \$20 and \$25 a month in 1860; \$25 in 1870; \$25 to \$30 paper, or \$10 to \$12 gold, in 1880 and 1890. Servants could be hired in Puerto Principe in 1880 for \$3 and \$4 gold a month. These are about the wages paid in provincial towns at present. In Cuba, as elsewhere, board and lodging are given with this class of service.

The compensation of skilled labor varied greatly in different localities, being naturally higher as a rule in Habana than elsewhere. Competent mechanics have never been numerous in Cuba, and a good man was usually able to command a fair price for his services. There are traditions among the Habana workmen of a good old time when every skilled artificer received his gold piece (\$5) for a day's work. But this is probably a tradition and nothing more. Still wages were undoubtedly higher during the prosperous years of the sugar trade than they are at present. There were conditions somewhat similar to those during a boom in a Western camp. The higher wages more than

compensated for the heavier taxation and greater cost of living of that period. But if there ever was a golden age of labor, such as is sometimes described in Cuba, it antedates any time of which we have definite information.

In 1882, in connection with the tailors' strike in Habana, we learn that a good cutter earned \$70 gold a month. The cost of a \$50 suit was divided about as follows: Material, \$12; labor, \$17.35; profit, \$20.65. In 1883 the salaries of composers ranged from \$25 to over \$100 a month in gold, according to the importance of the office in which they worked. The space rate was 50 cents a thousand ens, which is about equivalent to \$1 a thousand ems. When the bakers struck, the same year, it was reported that journeymen received only \$30 paper (\$12 gold) a month and board. Their hours of work were unusually long, including most of the day and nights from 8 p. m. to 2 a. m. Cigar makers could earn from \$2 to \$3 gold a day. Cigarette makers received somewhat less, as they suffered from Chinese competition, which has since disappeared.

Cuban workingmen have felt the depressing effects of three monetary crises, due in each case to a depreciated currency. In the latter part of the eighteenth century local exchanges were affected by means of a coin of base metal known as *macuquina* money. This was redeemed for about 5 cents on the dollar in 1781, and for ten or fifteen years later there was a scarcity of currency on the island. The conditions were somewhat similar to those occasionally prevailing in the English colonies during the same and the previous century. Labor suffered both because there was no medium of exchange with which to pay workmen, and because property owners were appalled by the apparent shrinking of their cash assets to a twentieth of their former value.

During the ten years' war bank paper was extensively circulated in Habana and vicinity and in some of the interior provinces. There was a good deal of legalized dishonesty in connection with the various emissions, and gold rapidly rose to a premium of about 140. These bills were accepted for a time as a necessary expedient, for they had driven other currency out of use; but they became practically valueless and ceased to circulate soon after 1890. Recently the Spanish silver which was substituted for them has depreciated, so that Spanish gold is now at a premium of above 20 and American currency is at premium of 38 and 40. Wages have always been reckoned in the depreciated money. Most Cuban workingmen are paid in silver at the present time. Nominal wages have never risen as fast as the gold premium, and when there has been a great depreciation, as in 1883, they have remained permanently lower. This is a matter of special importance in Cuba, because the working classes use imported food and clothing, and the market price of these is based ultimately upon gold values.

American fractional silver, especially our old half dimes, once circulated extensively in Cuba, and still are current in some parts of the island. These coins are all punched, partly to facilitate their being attached to christening cards, and partly perhaps to prevent their leaving the country.

In estimating the approximate purchasing power of wages at different periods, a comparison has been made of the wholesale price of staple commodities quoted by the Habana Produce Exchange. Cuba imports most of her food in the form of a few staples that have not varied materially either in character or in producing market for half a century. In walking along the sample counters of the Exchange to-day one sees displayed, with little to vary the monotony, Indian and Valencian rice, black and white beans and garabanzas, garlic, salt cod, lard, bacon, and occasionally jerked beef, imported from South America, and known locally as *tasajo*. During the last fiscal year the food importations of Cuba were as follows for each inhabitant: Rice, over 100 pounds; wheat flour, 98 pounds; lard, 28 pounds; *tasajo*, 22 pounds; cod, 14 pounds; ham and bacon, 5 pounds. As a unit, the first quotations in January of wheat flour, low-grade rice, white beans, black beans, jerked beef, salt cod, bacon, and lard have been taken, and a comparison has been made of the sum of the pound prices of these commodities, in Spanish gold, for each decade since 1860. The maximum wages of field labor in the Habana market during the crop season are also given.

PRICES AND WAGES IN SPANISH GOLD FOR EACH DECADE, 1860 TO 1890, AND FOR 1902.

Year.	Price per pound.									Per cent of change in prices.	Monthly wages of field laborers.	
	Flour.	Rice.	White beans.	Black beans.	Jerked beef.	Salt cod.	Lard.	Bacon.	Total.		Amount.	Per cent of change.
1860.....	\$0.07½	\$0.06	\$0.06	\$0.07	\$0.07	\$0.07	\$0.17	\$0.13	\$0.70½	\$28
1870.....	.05	.05	.06	.05	.06	.07	.22	.20	.76	+ 8	28
1880.....	.20	.14	.12	.10	.12	.15	.37	.35	1.55	+104	25	-11
1890.....	.04½	.04½	.08	.04	.08	.06	.12	.12	.59	- 62	20	-20
1902.....	.08	.02½	.04	.08	.10	.04½	.12	.10½	.49½	- 16	15	-25

This estimate of wages is for field laborers and is in addition to board. In the testimony before the Ways and Means Committee the rate for 1902 is made somewhat higher, but information gathered personally from a number of plantations failed to reveal a single instance where more than \$25 silver (\$17.50 American) was being paid even where no board was given. Eighteen dollars silver (\$12.60 American) was the highest wage actually encountered where board was given. Therefore the average wages during the present year are considerably below the amount quoted. It is probable, however, that the percentage of variation is approximately accurate.

The sudden and extreme rise of prices between 1870 and 1880 occurred during the first insurrection, and was due to tariff changes. Its effect upon real wages was probably modified to a considerable extent by a larger consumption of home products. In any case the field laborer, whether slave or free, received rations in addition to wages, so that the extra expense fell principally upon the planters. Sugar was selling for 7 and 8 cents gold a pound in the Habana market, and the employer could stand some increase in labor cost.

The working people of the cities, however, felt the effect of high prices more keenly. Bread was selling at Cardenas in July, 1880, for over 20 cents gold a pound. It must have been a luxury seldom indulged in by the ordinary laborer, who was, it must be remembered, receiving his wages in a depreciated currency. Speaking of the earnings of skilled workmen the present secretary of public works of Cuba says: "From 1860 to 1871 only Spanish gold and silver were in use, and wages were nominally the same as now, but were really higher because silver was not at a discount. In the year 1871 the Government authorized an emission of bank notes, which soon depreciated to a fraction of their nominal value. They remained in circulation from 1871 until 1892 and 1893, when they were withdrawn at an immense discount by the Government that had issued them at par with gold. During the time they were in circulation wages fell about 45 per cent, because they were paid in this depreciated currency." There are some repetitions of facts already mentioned in this statement, but it sums up the wage situation at the period mentioned.

This unfortunate crisis for labor followed what is still remembered as an epoch of unusual prosperity of the working classes. During the early seventies both employment and money seem to have been abundant in Cuba. In a report to the colonial minister at Madrid, presented by the insular superintendent of finance in 1874, the satisfactory condition of trade and agriculture is commented upon. "One can not visit a plantation today," says the writer, "without being impressed by the air of prosperous content that characterizes the working people." Again, after the crisis of the early eighties, there appears to have been a gradual return to better conditions. But the old prosperity did not come back. According to a writer of the period, Cuba was becoming "Europeanized." New economies were being practiced by all classes. Restaurants and shops found it necessary to sell at reduced prices and diminished profits in order to reach their customers. Ladies, for the first time in the history of the island, were to be seen doing their own marketing. The prosperous mechanic, who formerly indulged in a clean shirt every day, was advertising the badness of the times by his neglected linen.

The insurrection, the late war, and the subsequent change of government in Cuba have introduced many abnormal conditions. The

military authorities have exercised an influence favorable to a rise of wages by paying the large force of men employed on public works in American currency. The demand for men to construct the new Cuban Central Railway, and the change from a depreciated silver currency to American money in the eastern provinces, have also increased wages. But in the western provinces, especially in the sugar districts, these influences have not been sufficient to counteract trade uncertainties and other depressing influences. A depreciated currency still remains in use, and *nominal* wages are lower than ever before in times of peace. The situation, however, is a complex one, and features to be dwelt upon later must be taken into consideration in judging the present condition of labor in Cuba as a whole.

SUPPLY AND DISTRIBUTION OF LABOR.

PRESENT LABOR SUPPLY.

It has been seen that the cultivated area of Cuba is a very small proportion of the entire surface of the island. Probably there are considerable timber and mineral resources yet unexploited. The development of the mining industries already established has been constantly checked by lack of laborers. Therefore the field of employment is large. Meantime petty merchandising and uneconomic methods of exchange and transportation absorb the attention of a large element of the population. The semi-idleness of city life withdraws many more from the ranks of effective producers; for urban industries are not developed in Cuba, and the number of city workers essential to her economic welfare is relatively small. But this fact has not reduced the urban population. Many country people relapse into the *dolce far niente* of peasant-life in the Tropics and contribute little to the industrial progress of the country. Census statistics are deceptive to one trying to get an insight into these conditions. The proportion of the whole population engaged in gainful occupations is reported larger than in the United States. It was probably still greater in slavery times. But the effectiveness of labor is far less. In manual occupations the Cuban accomplishes but a fraction of what the American or European can do in a day. He is, man for man, less efficient. In addition, his labor is often crudely organized and applied. Besides these people who are really producers, though often in a primitive way, there are multitudes in Cuba busily engaged in occupations of little public utility, that are rendered valueless or impossible by our more modern methods of distribution and exchange. They are really tax-gatherers upon the rest of the community. And yet they all figure in the employment statistics.

The real labor supply of Cuba, therefore, is inadequate to the needs of the island. It does not permit the exploitation of resources already in sight, much less does it afford a social motive for developing new

industries. The intelligent people of the island appreciate this condition. They have tried to remedy it by encouraging the importation of labor from abroad. Now that their national aspirations appear to be realized, they desire that this labor shall be composed, so far as possible, of permanent settlers, who will become identified with Cuban sentiments and interests and raise the prevailing standard of intelligence and citizenship.

Tradition and both social and economic ties point to Spain to supply this demand. During the three years ending December 31, 1901, the total immigration into Cuba was 69,420, of whom 54,410 were Spaniards, 1,926 were Chinese, and 13,084 came from other countries. Ninety-eight per cent of the third-class immigrants are said to be Spaniards. During the year 1901 the passengers of this class entering the island numbered 16,091. This immigration, however, does not represent an equal increase in the permanent population of Cuba; for many Galicians and Canary Islanders come over each year for the harvest season and return to Spain as soon as the crop is gathered. Their passage both ways costs about \$40, and their net savings from a season's work are in general slightly more than this sum. These workmen find employment principally in the tobacco districts.

Statistics for the year 1901 show that 22,894 immigrants entered the island, of whom 17,330 were Spaniards, 756 Chinese, 781 Porto Ricans, and 650 Americans. Among these there were 10,556 laborers, 2,374 mechanics, and 1,468 farmers. Of the Spaniards alone 14,808 were males and 2,522 females, 12,477 were not married, 6,363 were illiterate, and 5,577 had been in Cuba before; 10,336 had less than \$30 in their possession upon entering the island.

The mining companies of Santiago import much of their labor from Spain under contract, giving a sufficient bonus to men who remain in their employ for a specified period to compensate them for their traveling expenses in addition to their wages. Some of these laborers are trained miners, but most are ordinary peasants—youths and single men—who sell their scanty property of tools and utensils at home to pay their passage to Cuba. Under the former government these companies sometimes employed Spanish soldiers in the mines. The soldiers kept their wages and the regimental officers appropriated their pay as soldiers. As a man could earn considerably more mining than soldiering, and the miners had better rations, all parties were satisfied with this arrangement.

Of the Spanish immigrants the Galicians are the most numerous, and as a rule find employment as common laborers. Next in number are the Asturians, who usually enter clerical service. Most of the Canary Islanders become field laborers and small renters, though some find their way into mercantile pursuits. The Catalans generally are skilled workmen and engage in mechanical employments.

About two-thirds of the total immigration is absorbed by the rural districts and nearly 30 per cent remains in Habana. Many of the latter class come to take positions already assured them by family connections or because of business relations existing between commercial houses in Habana and Spain. Besides labor going to the mining districts, several thousand immigrants have found employment in eastern Cuba during the past year upon the construction crews of the Central Railway.

There is an official bureau of immigration at Habana which receives, inspects, and quarantines all third-class immigrants. Those who come to the island for the first time are given board and lodging by the Government for 20 cents a day until they find employment. Employers are required to give security that they will furnish necessary medical attendance and care to employees received through the bureau, so that in case of illness the latter may not again become a charge upon the public authorities. Special care is also taken of minors. The general policy of the Government is to encourage and facilitate white immigration, especially of families and those likely to remain as permanent residents of the island.

Immigration usually enters Cuba at Habana, and several causes have combined to make that city a more congested labor market than other parts of the island. There has been no railway or other convenient land communication with the half of Cuba that lies east of Santa Clara, and passage on the coast steamers is exceedingly costly. Eastern Cuba is less developed than western Cuba. There is reported to be a greater prejudice against Spaniards and other immigrants in that part of the island. The cultivation and manufacture of tobacco is centered in the territory tributary to Habana, and with its dependent industries affords the most immediate and convenient source of cash income to new arrivals. Finally, the Spanish interests and their various social and benefit societies have their headquarters at Habana.

The Spanish immigrants are reported to be steady, industrious, and regular workers. Some American employers consider them the best unskilled laborers of Europe. They are physically robust and not addicted to many of the vices of laborers of the same class in the United States. They are more docile than the latter, and fully as intelligent for many kinds of service. Unlike the Cuban, they are frugal, seldom gamble, and often allow their savings to accumulate in the hands of their employers. They are not quarrelsome, and do not usually carry concealed weapons.

The newly arrived laborers have no small holdings like the Cuban peasant to relieve them from the necessity of steady labor, and their standard of living, while low, is of a character to require the expenditure of ready money. This renders competition among immigrants and between immigrants and natives sharper at Habana than elsewhere.

As depreciated silver is still in use in the same vicinity, the two causes combine to render wages lower in western than in eastern Cuba.

The oversupply of labor at Habana has doubtless been rendered greater than usual by the tendency of the country people—unsettled by the war—to drift cityward. Cuban officials state that there was an impression, slow to be corrected, that all soldiers of the insurrection and their dependents would be provided for by the Government. The action of the authorities in paying higher wages to common laborers than formerly prevailed, and in granting an eight-hour day to Government workmen, strengthened this impression, and created a still further influx of laborers to points where political influence could be brought to bear in securing employment on public works.

DISTRIBUTION BY LOCALITIES.

A more general view of the local distribution of labor in Cuba and of the inequalities this presents is to be secured from a study of recent population statistics. According to the last census, the relative density of population in different provinces and the distribution of the inhabitants as urban and rural in each of these divisions is as shown in the following table:

DENSITY OF TOTAL AND OF RURAL POPULATION, BY PROVINCES, 1899.

Province.	Area (square miles).	Total population.	Urban population.	Total population per square mile.	Rural population per square mile.
Pinar del Rio.....	5,000	173,082	8,880	34.6	32.8
Habana.....	2,772	424,811	277,636	153.3	55.3
Matanzas.....	3,700	202,462	58,314	54.7	39.0
Santa Clara.....	9,560	356,537	80,345	37.3	28.5
Puerto Principe.....	10,500	88,237	25,102	8.4	6.0
Santiago.....	12,468	327,716	57,554	26.3	21.7
Total.....	44,000	1,572,345	507,831	35.7	24.2

The urban population includes only those in cities having 8,000 inhabitants and over. Three-fourths of the inhabitants of Cuba reside in the western half of the island. The population is three times as dense there as in the eastern provinces. While the rural population averages 34.6 to the square mile west of Puerto Principe, it averages only 14.5 to the square mile in that province and Santiago. In Puerto Principe itself, a province with an area larger than that of Massachusetts and Rhode Island combined, the rural population provides only about one family to the section. When we add that all but two cities of over 8,000 inhabitants, and that all the continuous, inter-connecting railway mileage is in the western half of Cuba, it will be seen that, so far as population and industrial development are concerned, the two portions of the island are as diverse as are an Eastern and a Western State of the Union.

Cities of 8,000 inhabitants or over contain 32.3 per cent of the total population of Cuba. Nearly six-sevenths of the urban population is in seaport towns.

The following table shows the territorial distribution of crops and of agricultural labor by provinces:

ACRES OF LAND CULTIVATED FOR PRINCIPAL CROPS, AND AGRICULTURAL LABORERS EMPLOYED, BY PROVINCES, 1899.

[Measurements of land in Cuba are usually given in caballerias, but in this case were given in cordels. According to the census of 1899 a caballeria is equal to 33 $\frac{1}{2}$ acres or 324 cordels, on which basis one acre equals 9.72 cordels. This equivalent has been used in converting the figures to acres.]

Province.	Acres cultivated.					Total acres for 16 principal crops.	Propri- etors.	Rent- ers.	Agri- cul- tural labor- ers.	Acres culti- vated per la- borer.	
	Sugar.	Tobac- co.	Sweet pota- toes.	Bana- nas.	Indian corn.						Total.
Pinar del Rio....	8, 793	60, 736	26, 562	6, 549	9, 356	111, 996	141, 526	1, 446	8, 962	38, 000	3. 7
Habana	28, 749	10, 970	18, 773	9, 559	13, 953	32, 004	96, 325	2, 074	4, 085	24, 000	4. 0
Matanzas	128, 138	481	9, 842	11, 926	3, 994	154, 381	160, 374	1, 955	2, 128	46, 000	3. 5
Santa Clara.....	178, 498	10, 633	18, 889	12, 011	10, 500	230, 531	241, 135	4, 570	11, 559	65, 000	3. 7
Puerto Principe.	10, 854	98	4, 260	5, 475	3, 090	23, 777	28, 113	679	1, 703	14, 500	1. 9
Santiago.....	71, 101	1, 182	21, 842	32, 014	24, 852	150, 991	202, 260	6, 266	15, 284	35, 000	5. 8
Total	426, 133	84, 100	100, 168	77, 534	65, 745	753, 680	869, 733	16, 990	43, 721	222, 500	3. 9

Sugar therefore occupies about one-half the cultivated area of Cuba and tobacco 10 per cent. The export value of the two crops, however, is about equal. The five crops mentioned in the table occupy 87 per cent of the area planted in the 16 principal crops reported by the census enumerators. No other individual crop is cultivated to the extent of more than 30,000 acres for the whole island, and this area is distributed into a multitude of small tracts and garden patches, as in case of yucca and other root crops raised for domestic food supply.

Many proprietors and most of the renters do some field work or are directly engaged in the administration of their estates. Two-thirds of the owners and renters of Cuba cultivate small holdings of less than 8 acres. But the combined extent of these small farms is only one-seventh the cultivated area of the island. They include the garden plots that surround the homes of the rural laborers and are found in the suburbs of the smaller towns. Except in the tobacco country they do not produce export crops. These small cultivators do not employ hired labor. Even in the tobacco districts most of their assistance comes from members of their own families. If we include these 38,500 peasant proprietors and tenants among the actual tillers of the fields, the area cultivated for every agricultural laborer in Cuba would be reduced to about 3.3 acres. The amount is still less if we assume, as is very probable, that the census returns include as cultivated lands ground occupied by farm buildings, yards, field roads, and the fire lanes on the sugar plantations.

In 1899 there were 314 estates of more than 320 acres in Cuba. Probably they were nearly all sugar plantations grouped around the

207 sugar mills of the island. As their combined area was only about one-half of the total area devoted to the cultivation of cane, it is evident that considerable sugar is raised by owners and tenants occupying farms not much larger than the average wheat farm of the Western States.

In considering the ratio of area cultivated to laboring population, there are certain special conditions to be taken into consideration in Puerto Principe and Santiago and in certain portions of Santa Clara province. The plains of Puerto Principe and eastern Santa Clara are largely devoted to stock raising. Grazing statistics are not given by the census and are not available from other sources. At the time the census was taken there was little live stock remaining in the island on account of the losses during the insurrection, but the pasture lands had not been placed under cultivation. Deducting the idle stock-farm employees from other farm hands in these districts, it is probable that the area cultivated per laborer would be increased. In Santiago, as might be surmised from the large proportion of the cultivated land devoted to sweet potatoes, bananas, and corn, the small farmer or renter is more common than in other provinces. There are over 17,000 proprietors or tenants in that province cultivating farms less than eight acres in extent. Adding these to the laborers as actual tillers of the soil, the average amount of land cultivated for each worker in that province is reduced to 3.9 acres.

There is probably no form of farm labor in Cuba more arduous than cane cultivation. Proprietors consider that one man for every eight acres is sufficient for this work. While the amount of tobacco a man can keep in condition is less than this, averaging all crops usually produced in the island, eight acres is not an excessive amount for one man to cultivate. It appears, therefore, that either from lack of employment or disinclination to work the rural laborer of Cuba spends less than half his working time in the fields.

DISTRIBUTION BY OCCUPATIONS.

The distribution of labor according to occupations, race, and sex is shown by the following table:

RACE AND SEX OF WORKING POPULATION, BY GROUPS OF OCCUPATIONS, 1899.

Groups of occupations.	White.	Colored.	Male.	Female.	Under 15 years of age.
Agriculture, fisheries, and mining	198, 230	100, 967	292, 331	6, 366	37, 074
Manufacturing and mechanical industries.....	54, 387	38, 647	82, 012	11, 022	4, 669
Trade and transportation	71, 802	7, 625	78, 766	661	2, 491
Professional service	8, 182	554	7, 096	1, 640	32
Domestic and personal service	70, 458	71, 478	95, 769	46, 167	11, 976
Total	408, 059	219, 271	555, 974	66, 356	56, 242

About an equal proportion of the working population of whites and of colored is engaged in agriculture, fishing, and mining. In each case this is slightly less than one-half the number of the race employed in gainful occupations. The absolute number of whites and of colored engaged in domestic service is about equal, but relatively to the whole number of workers of each class the number of colored in this occupation is as two to one. There are more than twice as many male as female servants in Cuba. There are relatively more colored than whites engaged in trades and manufactures, while the whites greatly preponderate in commerce, transportation, and professional services. Of the 11,022 women whose occupations fall under manufacturing and mechanical industries, 8,329 are sewing women. In proportion to the population, nearly three times as many children under 15 years of age are employed in gainful occupations as in the United States.

The statistics of women engaged in farming, fishing, and mining probably include only paid field hands. Females formerly worked in the Santiago mines. Out of 2,389 miners employed in 1844, 349 were free black women and 284 were female slaves. However, this is a condition of the past. In recent years about 10 per cent of the field workers on some of the plantations have been women and children. Of the 6,866 women engaged in this class of occupations, 4,308 were from the province of Matanzas, where cane planting is the principal industry. As only 145 are reported from Pinar del Rio, the great tobacco province, where the whole family of the small planter is busy in the fields during the weeding and worming season, it is evident that only hired labor has been uniformly included in these statistics.

Considering those occupations which are not necessarily rural, we find the classes distributed about as follows between the city and country population:

URBAN AND RURAL POPULATION IN SELECTED GROUPS OF OCCUPATIONS, 1899.

Groups of occupations.	City of Habana.	Urban.	Rural.	Total.
Manufacturing and mechanical industries.....	31,913	61,540	31,490	93,034
Trade and transportation.....	31,351	52,003	27,424	79,427
Professional service.....	3,655	6,210	2,526	8,736
Domestic and personal service.....	40,366	79,367	62,569	141,936

Habana has 46.5 per cent of the urban population of Cuba and has more than 60 per cent of those employed in trade and transportation, and more than 50 per cent of those employed in manufacturing and mechanical industries in Cuban cities. So it is evident that the proportion of the total population engaged in those pursuits is larger in Habana than elsewhere. So far as manufactures are concerned, this is partly due to the concentration of tobacco manufacture at that city. As 60 per cent of the foreign trade of Cuba passes through Habana, it is natural that the proportion of the population engaged in trade and transportation should be large.

While one-third of the population of Cuba is urban, two-thirds of the skilled workmen reside in the cities. With the exception of two or three suburban villages near Habana, there are no small factory towns in the island. On account of the primitive construction of many houses and the permanent character of more pretentious buildings, the current demand for skilled men in the building trades is small outside the larger cities. Minor domestic industries, like hat, mat, and basket weaving, probably do not appear in these statistics.

An attempt has been made in the following tables to distribute the population engaged in manufacture, trades, and transportation under specific occupations. These figures are only approximate and have a relative rather than an absolute value. They are compiled from occupation tables given in the census of 1899, the only available source of statistics of this character, but for reasons which will be explained later these statistics were necessarily defective and incomplete. Nevertheless, the tables are sufficiently accurate to give an acceptable bird's-eye view of the distribution of skilled labor in Cuba.

NUMBER OF PERSONS IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONS, BY RACE AND SEX, 1899.

Occupations.	Total.	White.	Colored.	Males.	Females.	Under 15 years of age.
Building trades:						
Carpenters.....	14,204	7,878	6,326	14,204	429
Masons.....	6,557	2,071	4,486	6,557	156
Painters.....	1,531	1,134	397	1,531	27
Plumbers.....	43	33	10	43	1
Total.....	22,335	11,116	11,219	22,335	613
Clothing trades:						
Dressmakers.....	419	168	251	419	12
Laundrers.....	22,218	4,248	17,970	1,238	20,980	312
Seamstresses.....	8,329	3,043	5,286	8,329	411
Shirtmakers.....	105	97	8	102	3	3
Shoemakers.....	6,320	2,869	3,451	6,280	40	376
Tailors.....	3,481	1,531	1,950	3,481	129
Total.....	40,872	11,956	28,916	11,101	29,771	1,243
Foods and liquors:						
Bakers.....	5,444	3,336	2,108	5,426	18	243
Butchers.....	481	335	146	481	7
Confectioners.....	116	68	48	113	3	3
Dairy men.....	125	112	13	125	13
Saloon keepers.....	73	62	11	73
Total.....	6,239	3,913	2,326	6,213	21	266
Metal workers:						
Blacksmiths.....	2,328	1,513	815	2,328	75
Boiler makers (a).....	479	445	34	479	8
Gold and silver workers.....	554	364	190	554	22
Gunsmiths.....	59	52	7	59
Machinists (b).....	958	765	193	958	4
Mechanics.....	4,672	4,021	651	4,672	67
Molders.....	242	207	35	242	11
Tinners.....	712	474	238	712	23
Watch and clock makers.....	255	228	27	255	3
Total.....	10,259	8,069	2,190	10,259	218
Mining, etc.:						
Brick makers.....	109	76	33	109	1
Miners and quarrymen.....	854	732	122	854	5
Potters.....	277	201	76	277	12
Stone cutters.....	240	190	50	240	2
Total.....	1,480	1,199	281	1,480	20

a Probably includes coppersmiths.

b Probably includes engineers.

NUMBER OF PERSONS IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONS, BY RACE AND SEX, 1899—Concluded.

Occupations.	Total.	White.	Colored.	Males.	Females.	Under 15 years of age.
Printing trades:						
Bookbinders.....	53	51	2	53		
Printers, lithographers, etc.....	1,499	1,425	74	1,481	18	92
Total.....	1,552	1,476	76	1,534	18	92
Tobacco trades:						
Operatives (cigar factories).....	24,169	15,773	8,396	22,589	1,580	1,027
Transportation:						
Draymen and hackmen.....	5,363	3,961	1,402	5,363		52
Sailors and boatmen.....	4,820	4,332	488	4,820		154
Steam-railroad employees.....	678	549	129	678		3
Total.....	10,861	8,842	2,019	10,861		209
Wood workers:						
Broom and brush makers.....	20	12	8	20		4
Cabinetmakers.....	207	144	63	207		4
Coopers.....	949	428	521	949		7
Ship and boat builders.....	84	84		84		3
Total.....	1,260	668	592	1,260		18
Leather workers:						
Harness makers.....	1,397	817	580	1,397		32
Tanners.....	343	300	43	343		3
Total.....	1,740	1,117	623	1,740		35

These tables do not report the full number engaged in many occupations. There is nothing to show that the figures are not reasonably complete for the building and clothing trades. Many men who spend part of their time as shirt cutters are probably reported upon the census schedules as clerks. Under saloon keepers are included only keepers of "American bars," and not the thousands of café waiters and venders of rum and other liquors in small mercantile establishments. This is proved by their small number and by the fact that 54 of the 73 reported are foreign whites. Butchers do not include meat venders and retail-shop cutters and clerks. Among confectioners are not included venders and ordinary operatives in chocolate and confectionery factories. The title of boiler maker and coppersmith is the same from the time when the copper kettle of the sugar boiler was the only apparatus of this kind in the island. In Spanish times all engineers were supposed to be machinists.

The number of miners appears to be much understated. There are nearly 5,000 men working in the iron, manganese, and asphalt mines of Cuba at present. Probably most of these are reported on the census schedules as laborers. Men employed in this kind of work in Cuba are accustomed to change off to some other occupation for a part of the year, especially during the crop season, and they doubtless stated their regular employment to be field labor. For some reason the number of railway employees is equally understated. The pay roll of one of the five principal public railways of Cuba carries the names of 1,100 regular employees. The entire railway service of the island, including train and track crews on the plantation roads, gives employment

to nearly 5,000 men during the busiest season. Probably in the census figures engineers are reported as machinists, road mechanics under their individual trades, and section men as common laborers. The street railways of Habana, which are not adequately reported, also employ several hundred men.

There are many reasons that excuse the incompleteness of these statistics. When they were gathered, in 1899, industrial conditions were still unsettled as a result of the insurrection and recent war. To a certain extent they were pioneer statistics in this particular line for Cuba, though the previous Spanish enumerations included some data with reference to occupations. A principal reason, however, why any classification of employments must be exceedingly inexact is that trades and occupations are not differentiated in Cuba. The Cuban mechanic is often a jack-at-all-trades, and all classes of salaried men and wage-earners are constantly changing their business. With a varied list of occupations in which he considered himself equally expert, the Cuban workingman probably returned upon the schedule the one which best suited his tastes or seemed to him most dignified.

These tables contain the most accurate information available, however, and allowing for all errors they still remain valuable for purposes of comparison. They show that the trades whose object it is to shelter men employ nearly two-thirds of the skilled labor of Cuba. Nearly one-fourth of her trained workmen are employed in building, and not quite one-half are engaged in the preparation of clothing. Even omitting launderers, as perhaps we should, from this class of occupations the pursuits mentioned engage 44 per cent of those employed in manufacturing and mechanical industries. The only industry that gives work to a considerable number of factory operatives is the manufacture of cigars. The tobacco industry employs more men than any other group of skilled occupations. Leaving out of account the quasi-domestic occupations of laundry and sewing women, which are conducted largely in private homes, the cigar factories use the services of more female help than any other business. It is in this industry also that the largest percentage of children are employed.

Over one-half of the tobacco workers are native whites, about one-eighth are foreign whites, and the rest are colored. Foreign whites constitute more than one-half of the mercantile population, and also of the sailors and miners. They furnish about one-fourth of the bakers, tailors, blacksmiths, machinists, and cabinetmakers of the island. In proportion to their numbers they contribute a much larger percentage to the population of skilled workmen than do either the Negroes or the native whites.

Few new industries have been introduced into Cuba during the last 50 years. Those that already existed have undergone little development, if we except sugar and tobacco, and there has been less improvement in processes and machinery than elsewhere. Specialization and

division of labor have not been introduced. So the condition of skilled labor has been almost stationary. Occupations have not multiplied as they have in other countries. Therefore the classification of employments given above is practically exhaustive.

INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS.

AGRICULTURE.

The condition of agricultural labor in Cuba, so far as hours of labor, standard of living, and methods of culture are concerned, does not vary greatly throughout the island. But there is a considerable variation of wages in different localities and at different seasons of the year. The question of labor supply is the most important problem that the rural proprietor has to meet. He is faced by two embarrassing conditions. His profits will not justify him in employing permanently more than a fraction of the field hands required during the crop season. There are no other local industries to carry the labor supply needed over the dull period of the year and leave it free for employment in the fields during the time of high wages. He is therefore obliged to pay a higher price for these temporary employees than the general conditions and the standard of living prevailing in the island demand. In addition, the fact that plantation hands are not assured permanent employment throughout the year leads them to depend upon the products of garden patches and other small holdings for their subsistence and to limit their needs to what these can supply. They thereby become in a measure independent of the landed proprietors in the matter of employment, and so afford a less reliable source of labor. Wages are determined by custom and tradition, and do not adjust themselves readily to economic necessities. Moreover, this tendency of rural labor to become attached to the land lessens its mobility. It does not respond to general market demands. An over and an under supply of workmen may exist permanently in two adjacent districts. So, wide variation of wages, accompanied by great uniformity of social conditions, characterizes the rural labor of Cuba.

There is no trait more marked in the Cuban workman in every employment than his preference for contract or piece work over a regular wage. The former seems to appeal to a speculative tendency in his nature that adds interest to his occupation. It also flatters a certain sentiment of self-esteem. He feels himself more independent, more his own master in the former instance. Perhaps there is a prejudice against hired service that has come down from the days of slavery and contract labor. There are few workmen harder to drive and easier to lead than the Cubans. Whatever the reason, employers all emphasize the preference of the people for contract work.

This predilection of the Cuban for independent employment, combined with the peculiar conditions of agricultural service already mentioned, have favored the *colonia* system of farming on shares. In reality this is not so very different from the store-credit system of our Southern States, by which the capitalist takes a mortgage on the land and crops for the supplies advanced to the cultivator, except that in Cuba the title to the land rests with the former party. In other words, the land owner stocks a small farm and supports the tenant until a crop can be raised, taking a share of the crop in repayment. Theoretically this ought to be more favorable to the cultivator than the store-credit system, for he is not bound to repay any fixed amount upon which interest runs until the obligation is met. But if we are to take the word of the small tobacco planters working under this system, the net outcome to the laborer is about the same. However, it ought to be added that in Cuba, as in the South, the industrious and intelligent laborer can accumulate savings and acquire property under this sort of a contract.

Tenancy on shares works rather better in the tobacco than in the sugar country. The labor is lighter and in time of need the entire family can be employed in the fields; no heavy carts and oxen are needed to transport the crop; the tenant is not confined to a single buyer in disposing of his interest in the product of his fields, and he does not have to wait so long for his first plantings to yield him an income. Of late years he has had a more assured and profitable market for his crop than has the sugar planter.

In the vicinity of Habana, where there is a varied market, agriculture is more diversified. Here a tenant receives the use of 4 or 5 acres and of a yoke of oxen in return for half of the crop. Upon such a piece of land, to take a specific instance, from four to six crops of fodder corn can be raised in a year, averaging 10 tons to an acre. This, when cut green in the tassel, sells for \$4.50 gold (\$4.05 American) a ton. The laborer's share in the proceeds from such a piece of land is, therefore, nearly \$300 gold (\$270 American) a year besides any garden truck he may raise, and his work is much less arduous and exacting than that on a large plantation. His profits from potato planting in the vicinity of Güines, in Habana province, may be equally great, though more labor is required in cultivating and marketing this crop.

The tenant on shares who raises cane exclusively has one advantage over those planting other crops. During several months of the year his land requires little or no attention and he is free to give his time to other employments. But as this period of leisure coincides with the dull season for agricultural labor, he derives little practical benefit from this advantage.

Coffee planting was once a considerable industry in Cuba, until it was displaced by the more profitable sugar culture. At the present

time some tenant farmers are being stocked in Santiago province, but this crop is not being rapidly extended, for lack of an export market. In some contracts of which specific information is available, each tenant is given a caballeria (33½ acres) of ground and paid \$50 American a year for three years for getting in a stand of coffee and cacao, the latter serving to shade the young coffee plants. At the end of the period a six-year contract is made, by which the owner and tenant share the crop equally, the tenant delivering the coffee at the drying place. Coffee pickers are paid 20 centavos silver (14 cents American currency) (*a*) for picking five gallons, the petroleum cans used by importers having become a standard of measure in this as in many other lines of business. It is only in connection with cacao that coffee can be made to pay in Cuba at present.

It has already been stated that the wages of field laborers vary with locality and season. As a rule they are higher in the tobacco country, where white labor is largely employed, than in districts devoted exclusively to cane raising. Because of the competition between the mines and the plantations, the large number of small proprietors, and a general undersupply of labor, and, more recently, because of the introduction of American currency and the demand for workmen on the Cuban Central Railway, labor prices are higher in Santiago than in the central provinces. Taking Pinar del Rio, the most western and tobacco-raising province; Matanzas, the central and sugar-raising province, and Santiago, in the extreme east, wages have varied as follows in the last two years, according to statistics furnished by the secretary of agriculture and the provincial agricultural committees:

DAILY WAGES OF FIELD LABORERS IN PINAR DEL RIO, MATANZAS, AND SANTIAGO.

[These prices are in American currency and do not include board.]

Province.	Highest.	Lowest.	Usual.
Pinar del Rio.....	\$3.10	\$0.60	\$1.00 to \$1.50
Matanzas.....	1.50	.60	.65
Santiago.....	1.00	.50	.70

Wages during the crop season of 1902 hardly afford a fair idea of the prevailing cost of labor in Cuba during average years, because they were affected by many special and unusual conditions. The low price of sugar, the uncertainty as to tariff regulations, the use of three kinds of currency, and an impending economic crisis due to all these causes had a depressing effect upon wages which was not entirely counteracted by other favorable conditions, such as the employment of an unusual number of men in railway building and upon public

a The silver peso (100 centavos) is equal to 70 cents American currency in commercial exchange in Habana, and this equivalent has been used in this article.

works. On the other hand, the prices of provisions and many other necessities of life were lower than ever before. The price of rice at retail in the Mercado del Vapor, at Habana, in April, 1902, was less than one-half the wholesale price on the produce exchange of the same city in the corresponding month of 1890.

In February, 1902, employment agents in Habana were offering wages equivalent to \$10.50, American currency, and board, or \$17.50 without board, for field hands and sugar-mill men for plantations in that province and Matanzas. Personal conversation with laborers in Pinar del Rio established the fact that 1 peso silver, or about 70 cents in American currency, was the usual wage for tobacco hands in the more accessible parts of that province. This did not include board. In some parts of the province of Matanzas the following April cane cutters and loaders were working for 40 cents in Spanish gold or 36 cents in American currency.^(a) In Santa Clara province, along the Damuji River, field laborers were receiving the equivalent of \$12.50 in American currency a month and board. The laborers who reported these wages were members of a night crew, but they stated that they were paid the same for day work. In the vicinity of Trinidad plantation hands were said to be receiving only 50 cents a day silver, or 35 cents in American currency, without board; but this rumor could not be verified. A little farther east, near Sancti Spiritus, where the new railway was employing many laborers, daily wages ranged from 70 cents to \$1 in American currency. In the vicinity of Santiago city 90 cents and \$1 in American currency were being paid for unskilled labor in general.

Grades of skill are recognized among agricultural laborers, and influence the scale of wages paid. The latter is more especially true during the dull season. At plowing time in Pinar del Rio a good plowman is worth 80 cents silver (56 cents American) a day. His two assistants, or the driver and leader—for it takes three men in Cuba to plow with a yoke of oxen—receive 40 and 30 cents silver (28 and 21 cents American) a day, respectively. Women are paid the same wages as men in the cane fields.

While the store system is in existence on many plantations, it is difficult to ascertain just how universal this institution is and how it affects the wages of agricultural labor. A railway manager said: "In looking over a plantation with a view to purchase, I found the plantation store reckoned in as a source of profit. The planter made about 50 per cent upon supplies sold, and most of the money spent by him for labor came back over his own counters." A fruit exporter remarked: "I have noticed that planters often have an interest in some

^aThe gold peso or Spanish dollar is equal to 90 cents American currency in commercial exchange in Habana, and this equivalent has been used in this article.

store in a neighboring village, and that their hands are paid in orders upon this establishment." Stores actually conducted upon plantations were seen, but no one seemed to know just how much interest the planters had in them. The itemized schedules accompanying claims for losses during the insurrection, presented by Cuban planters to the Spanish Treaty Claims Commission at Washington, include plantation stores with stocks of supplies usually consumed by laborers.

The working day upon the plantation is from sunrise to sunset, with one or two hours' rest at midday. During the busiest season the sugar mills run night and day and mill hands and train crews, including loaders, work in two shifts, putting in altogether nearly a twelve-hour day. Ten or eleven hours effective work, however, is all that is usually demanded, except in special emergencies.

There are particular conditions and divisions of occupations peculiar to the raising of each of the staple crops of Cuba. Most important from an industrial point of view is sugar. This is sometimes planted in fallow lands simply by laying the cane in a trench or inserting it in sloping holes made with a pointed stick. It grows vigorously under such conditions, and with a little attention at first will soon kill out weeds and other competing plants. The cane is perennial, requiring some eighteen months to come to maturity for the first time, and can be recut in some instances for twenty or thirty seasons without replanting. Humboldt records one instance where cane was cut from the same settings for forty years, and small patches can now be found in Santa Clara which are said to have run for thirty years. Usually, however, especially on the old plantations, the lands have to be prepared with the same care as for other crops, and require regular retilling for two or three years after planting in order to keep out weeds. Labor-saving machinery is being introduced to do part of this work, but it still continues to employ a large number of hands. This part of plantation labor, with the care of the oxen and other stock used for plowing and field transportation and carried over from season to season, and the minor labor in the vegetable gardens and around the sugarhouse, makes it necessary for the planter to retain on his pay rolls the year around about half the maximum force employed.

When cane is approaching maturity it is exceedingly combustible, and special watchmen are employed as fire guards.

During the grinding season the variety of occupations upon a large plantation rapidly increases. The production of sugar, even before it is refined, is as much a manufacturing as an agricultural industry. The number of field employees is enlarged by the addition of a large force of cutters and loaders. As in the hemp fields of Kentucky, the best men for the heavy labor of the cane harvest are the Negroes. These men either work at a fixed wage or receive so much a load for cane cut, trimmed, and ready for the rollers. Then come the loaders,

who heap the ponderous ox wains, and the carters—who are often white men and receive a somewhat higher wage than ordinary field hands—who conduct the cane to the mill or the nearest railway siding. With these men the labor of the field ceases. There are switchmen, engineers, and trainmen on the larger plantations—for some of the more important mills are fed by 50 or 60 miles of private railroad—and mill hands, who are really factory operatives. The three main classes of the latter are the feeders, the boilers (including the men who watch the clarifiers), and the centrifugal tenders. As a whole or in certain groups they are sometimes supplied by a contractor. Frequently they are paid by the crop and not according to the time they serve. At one plantation visited the centrifugal machines were tended by a party of Chinamen who had contracted to do this work by the crop for many successive seasons. The mill labor as a rule is not particularly difficult and does not require high technical training. But there is always an expert in charge of each factory, who receives a generous salary and whose work comes within the category of professional service.

During the grinding season upon a plantation employing 767 men, 428 laborers were required to cut and haul cane, 264 were employed in the mill, 61 were engaged in railway service, and 14 attended to the stock.

The small cane planter who sells to the mills conducts a strictly agricultural business, though he often contracts to cut and deliver cane for the central plantation. For his own cane he usually receives a price based upon a percentage of the run in sugar. The value naturally varies at different seasons.

The cultivation of tobacco is a more democratic occupation than sugar planting. It can be conducted successfully by the small proprietor and the tenant farmer. Skill counts for more and brute force for less in making a crop. It is an employment that attracts a large per cent of white labor and gives occupation to the workman the year around.

While tobacco can be raised in every province of Cuba, the industry is principally centered in Pinar del Rio in the *vuelta abajo*, or down-country district, where the leaf is produced that has made Habana famous. Here the ground to be planted is selected with great care; and as that best suited to a high-grade crop does not lie in large contiguous areas, but is divided naturally into small separate parcels, the character of the country favors the creation of small farms. Moreover, the care of a tobacco crop demands the solicitous attention of an owner, or of one who has a direct interest in the product. In the *vuelta arriba*, or up-country district, especially in the province of Santa Clara, where lower grades of tobacco are grown and a reasonably uniform product can be obtained over a large area, there are

extensive vegas, or tobacco flats, where planting is done on a wholesale scale and with hired labor. But this method of production is not characteristic of Cuba.

The tenant farmer usually takes from 2 to 15 acres of land, stocked by the owner, and receives one-half of the crop for his labor. He hires little help except during the harvest season. Women assist their husbands in the field, but are not usually employed as hired hands. During the time when salaried help is employed wages are often higher than in other parts of the island, for the class of men who usually supply the demand for day workmen are busy gathering their own small crops. Moreover, the competition of a number of employers for the same amount of labor makes wages better than when hiring is done by a single planter. As tobacco can not be allowed to stand in the field when mature enough for cutting, there are exceptional occasions when the price paid for crop gatherers rises to \$4 gold (\$3.60 American) a day for very short periods. From \$1 to \$2 American currency is as high a rate as is usually paid during the busiest season.

The operations of tobacco raising are sowing, transplanting, weeding, worming, budding, cutting, curing, bunching, and baling. The ground has to be prepared as for other crops. Raising seed plants for resetting is sometimes conducted, as a separate business, upon highlands unsuited for cultivating the plant to maturity. One man can attend to 10,000 plants. These are transplanted from seeding beds to rows 2 or 3 feet apart and 1 or 2 feet apart in the row, and 10,000 plants do not usually represent more than an acre of ground. Allowing for the assistance rendered by his family, 5 acres is probably all that any farmer can cultivate without hired labor. In 1899 there were $1\frac{1}{2}$ acres of tobacco in cultivation in Pinar del Rio for every person engaged in agriculture in that province, or probably about 2 acres for every proprietor, renter, or hired laborer engaged in tobacco raising.

Some field work is paid for on a piecework basis. A man receives about \$5 in gold (\$4.50 American) for setting a thousand plants. During the baling season farmers and laborers receive from \$7 to \$10 gold (\$6.30 to \$9 American) a bale for packing.

Two-thirds of the tobacco produced in Pinar del Rio is raised by white tenant farmers. On one farm, rented on shares by two brothers and stocked by the landlord, where four or five additional hands are employed during the busiest season, the combined net profits of the two tenants vary from \$1,500 to \$2,000 gold (\$1,350 to \$1,800 American) per annum.

Subsidiary to tobacco cultivation is the gathering of palm bark, with which the bales are covered. The poorer tenants and laborers collect and store this throughout the year to sell during the packing season and thus secure a small and variable addition to their income.

While many small plots of yucca, sweet potatoes, and corn are scat-

tered among the tobacco fields, agriculture is less diversified in these districts than would be desirable. This is due partly to the fact that tobacco soil is not well suited to other crops and partly because the peasantry lack initiative and an intelligent appreciation of the advantage of varying their products. The same condition prevails in other parts of the island. Except in the immediate vicinity of the larger towns, there is little market gardening, and this is mostly in the hands of the Chinese. There is practically no fruit raising for export. Speaking of actual conditions, no demand for hired labor exists outside of the cane and tobacco fields.

GRAZING.

This industry was destroyed by the insurrection, but is rapidly being reestablished. In the central part of Cuba there are large ranges of natural and artificial pasture, the latter in Guinea and Paraná grass. There are no statistics of the number of men employed on the stock farms of the island. Wages have always been about the same as those of field laborers, ranging from \$20 silver (\$14 American) to \$25 gold (\$22.50 American) a month and board. Most cowboys were whites, even during slavery. Young unmarried men are usually employed in this class of work, but on the large ranges many of the herders occupy shacks and cultivate small plots of ground allowed them by the proprietor as incidental to their employment. These men usually have families. As an occupation grazing is not sufficiently differentiated from other farm work to offer any peculiar features from the point of view of labor. This industry is mostly carried on in a part of the island where there is temporarily a special demand for railroad workers, and thus wages have suffered less depression than might otherwise have been occasioned by the recent depopulating of the ranges.

LUMBERING.

While there are few large continuous tracts of timber in Cuba, and some woods, like the native pine, have been practically exhausted for industrial purposes, woodcutting and lumbering afford employment to a number of people. Much of the timber used for rough construction is imported from Maine and the Southern States, either as unplanned lumber or as squared beams, which are sawed in the local mills. Native woods are employed for interior finishing, cabinet-work, and box making. Cedar and mahogany are the most extensively used, though there are many other hard woods suitable for furniture, vehicles, and articles where high finish or durability is desired. The cedar is mostly consumed in the island, especially in the manufacture of cigar boxes. The mahogany is largely exported. Hiké, quebracha, and other hard woods are used for railroad ties, bridges, ox carts, native plows, and similar implements. As the consumption is

almost entirely local, these woods are not extensively marketed, and little hired labor is employed in getting them out of the forest.

The market for cedar and mahogany logs comes from two sources—the local mills, most of which are at the coast towns, and the buyers for export. Cuba annually sends timber abroad to the value of more than \$1,500,000 American. Native contractors usually buy standing timber of the landowner and sell it at tide water. In the country near the railroads there is little left that can be marketed, but some is received in Habana by rail from Pinar del Rio, the rest being floated to the coast by small streams during high water. When land is cleared remote from either of these means of transportation the logs, even of the most valuable timber, are burned with the brush.

The most extensive lumbering operations are conducted in the central and eastern provinces, where labor is not plentiful and American currency is in use. Wages are therefore relatively high. The lowest price reported by contractors for unskilled men in the vicinity of Santiago and Manzanillo is \$1 a day. In the vicinity of Habana equally good workmen can be secured for two-thirds that amount.

The irregular habits of the native Cuban make it more profitable to pay cutters and hewers by the piece. The customary price for felling and barking a tree giving a 30-foot log 48 inches in diameter is 50 cents. For larger trees 80 cents is paid. Rates for hauling and river driving vary with the character of the country and the distance of the standing timber from water, but contractors usually estimate the labor cost of getting a log from stump to sea at about 50 cents. Where it greatly exceeds this the timber is not apt to be utilized.

Mahogany is exported in the hewn log because in this form it enters foreign countries at a lower duty. It so happened that all the men who were seen hewing—that is, in several gangs in different parts of the island—were Spaniards or white Cubans. They seemed to be an exceptionally prosperous lot of workmen. The usual price paid for mahogany hewing is from \$5 to \$7 American currency a thousand superficial feet.

Most of the large mills are at Habana. They not only saw and plane lumber and veneering, but make molding, sashes, doors, and boxes. In all departments of the establishments at Habana between one and two thousand men are employed. A good sawyer cuts from 3,000 to 10,000 feet a day, according to the kind of timber and whether he is sawing boards or veneer. He receives from \$60 to \$100 Spanish gold (\$54 to \$90 American) a month. The men listed as carpenters in these mills are usually highly skilled workmen, employed in manufacturing furniture, store fixtures, paneling, doors, and blinds for the local market. This class of work is usually done to order, no large stock of finished product being kept in store, and power machinery is less extensively used than in similar establishments in the United

States. These carpenters receive the equivalent of \$2 and \$3 a day in American currency. Carters, pilers, and other unskilled or partially skilled workmen receive from \$1 silver to \$1.50 in Spanish gold a day, or from 70 cents to \$1.35 in American currency. Wages are paid in the local money and their purchasing power is slightly greater than if paid in American money at ruling rates of exchange.

In what is probably the largest mill in the island sawing native timber, situated at Manzanillo, in the province of Santiago, and employing over 100 men in the plant itself, engineers are paid \$100 a month, head sawyers, \$3.50 a day, and planers and helpers, \$1.50 a day. These wages are in American currency. The salesmen of this company in Habana and Cienfuegos receive \$100 and \$80 a month, respectively. Men are paid weekly and the working day is ten hours.

Most sawmill machinery is imported from the United States. Large band saws, cutting through the log, are not used successfully for want of sawyers sufficiently skilled to work them. Smaller saws of this kind are found in many of the Habana mills.

Wood choppers and charcoal burners are paid from \$12 to \$17 silver (\$8.40 to \$11.90 American) a month and board when employed at regular salary. But the method of paying by contract is also preferred in this industry. No fuel is used for house heating in Cuba and only charcoal is employed for domestic purposes. Firewood, cut into yard or 4-foot length, is used in the bakeries. For felling, chopping, and piling this, about \$2.50 silver or \$1 75 American money a cord is paid.

Gathering mangley bark for use in the tanneries is another woodman's industry. This work is not usually done by hired labor and compensation varies with the price of the bark. During part of the year a man can make about \$1 silver (70 cents American) a day at this business.

MINING, QUARRYING, AND CLAY WORKING.

While there are probably large undeveloped mineral resources in other provinces of Cuba, mining as an employing industry is practically confined to Santiago. The copper mines once so successfully exploited are being reopened, but do not yet appear in labor statistics. Manganese mines have been developed since the American occupation, about 125 men being regularly employed, at 85 cents American money for a ten-hour day. This is surface working, and the mines are some distance from the city of Santiago. Both Cubans and Spaniards are employed. Mechanics are paid \$2 American money a day.

The iron mines of this province employ over 4,000 men when sufficient labor can be obtained. The miners are Spaniards, Cubans, and Porto Ricans. The first of these are preferred when they can be secured. Paying the same wage, it costs about 5 cents a ton less to

get out ore with Spanish labor than with the other workmen employed. The wages were formerly \$1 silver (70 cents American); now they are the same amount in American currency. A ten-hour day is the rule. The men are boarded by the companies for 25 cents a day, and are given a 63-ounce ration, including fresh meat. Men are paid by contract whenever this is feasible, especially for transportation and wharf work.

Mining is not a popular occupation, though the men are better paid and cared for than in most other work of a similar character. This is probably due to the fact that a considerable amount of sustained physical exertion is required to shovel ore. The men are in gangs, and there is less opportunity for conversation and the other minor relaxations in which the Cuban laborer delights than in field labor, and altogether it is a less cheerful employment from his point of view. For this reason it is hard to keep men for any length of time. They take a vacation every pay day. The number dropped from the pay rolls each month averages 30 per cent of the total number employed. Under such circumstances special inducements are offered to keep the men for longer periods, the manganese mines giving \$2 American money a month premium to all laborers working twenty days or more. The iron mines import men from Spain through Spanish employment agents, and give these laborers a premium of \$15 American money if they remain steadily in their employ for ninety days and \$30 if they remain one hundred and fifty days. This addition to his regular wages is sufficient to pay a man's passage from Spain to Cuba.

During the present year the problem of labor supply has been more easily solved in the mining districts, in spite of the competition of the railroad, because the low price of sugar lessened employment on the plantations. This condition is reflected in the monthly output of the mines of one company, which was 20,000 tons of ore in January, 1901, and 37,000 tons the same month of the present year. This increased output was due to the fact that the supply of labor has recently been more nearly adequate to meet the demand.

The mining of asphalt has been begun in Habana province since the American occupation, and during the ten months ending October 31, 1901, nearly 1,800 tons, to the value of more than \$39,000 American money, were exported. These mines employ about 100 men, and pay 80 cents American currency a day for common laborers.

One of the materials most commonly employed in the construction of the larger buildings in Cuban cities is a soft, friable limestone, which can be quarried almost anywhere in the island. This stone is dressed with a large, double-bladed broadax, and it weathers considerably on long exposure. Fragments and boulder-like concretions are used in making the rubble walls of dwellings and the commoner sort of buildings, and are burned for lime. Only unskilled labor is needed

to dig out rock of the latter kind, and this work does not figure as a special occupation; but quarrymen getting out squared stone in the quarries near Habana earn about \$2 in Spanish gold (\$1.80 American) a day. They are frequently paid by the block or the cart load. This stone is so soft that it usually receives its final dressing immediately before being placed in the wall.

In the quarries and kiln yards that supply Habana with lime laborers receive \$1.50 silver (\$1.05 American) a day, without meals. This is a higher wage than prevails near Matanzas and Cienfuegos, where workmen of this class are paid \$1 silver (70 cents American) or even less. Stonebreakers near Matanzas reported that they were getting but 55 cents silver—the equivalent of 38½ cents in American money—for a day's work, without board. At other quarries limestone diggers getting out the broken stone burned in the kilns were being paid 7½ cents silver (5 cents American) a cart load. Ten or twelve cart loads were considered a fair day's work for one man, so he could earn the equivalent of 55 or 65 cents in American currency.

These wages apply also to common laborers employed in brickyards. Brickmakers in the vicinity of Habana are paid \$1.25 silver (87½ cents American), without meals. This is an industry of considerable extent, for many brick are used in Cuba in the course of a year, and they are practically all of native manufacture. Cement and tile are also manufactured near Habana, and pottery is made in a crude way at Campo Florido and some of the smaller towns, but no special conditions worthy of note characterize the condition of labor employed in these industries.

FISHERIES.

There are coast and deep-sea fisheries in Cuba sufficient to supply the local market. One Habana firm keeps 342 men employed, 50 of whom are engaged in shore fishing and the remainder are boatmen. No fish are cured, and all are kept alive until marketed, so no special establishment except for the actual taking and storing of the fish is required.

The larger schooners carry a crew of eight men, and make cruises of from ten to forty days, according to the catch. These cruises extend to the Florida coast and Yucatan. The boat owners purchase from the crew all the catch at a customary price, deducting one-third from the total for rent and victualing of the vessel—or occasionally more or less for the latter item, according to the extent of the cruise and the cost of the supplies furnished. It is usual, however, for the owner to speculate on both rent and victualing, receiving no more than one-third, no matter how long the cruise or how small the catch. The captain receives 10 per cent of the remainder before any deductions are made, and his pro rata per capita share of the balance. The crew share their portion of the proceeds of the catch equally.

Upon the small sloops used to carry fish to Habana from the shore stations there is usually a crew of three men. The captain receives \$30 Spanish gold (\$27 American) a month and maintenance, and the crew \$17 (\$15.30 American) and maintenance. The share fishers who go on the longer cruises are supposed to do somewhat better, their income averaging about \$25 a month in Spanish gold (\$22.50 American) and maintenance while at sea.

The total fleet employed by the firm giving these data, which practically monopolizes this industry for Habana, consists of 32 long-cruise schooners and 4 short-cruise boats, besides 5 coasting boats for bringing in the catch from the shore stations. The total number of fishing boats clearing from Habana harbor is 54.

In the other coast towns the business is not so well organized and there is less long cruising, but the profits of those who make a profession of fishing are about the same. In the smaller ports the pilot frequently combines fishing with his professional employment or owns an interest in the fishing boats of the harbor.

While there are no accurate statistics at hand, it is probable that about 1,000 men make their living in Cuba by supplying the market with food fish.

The sponge fisheries were once of considerable importance and even now supply an annual catch valued at about \$400,000. This industry is organized much like that of the food fishers. Boats sail principally from the four ports of Caibarien, Nuevitas, Santa Cruz del Sur, and Batabano, the former two on the north and the others on the south coast of the island. The sponges are sold in mixed lots and bring from 30 to 50 cents American currency a dozen at the landing. There is a statement of the condition of this industry in the annual report of the Economic Society for 1899. The number of men employed in this business is not given, but it varies greatly at different seasons of the year and with the profit of the daily catch. It is not the exclusive occupation of a large part of the population of any of the towns mentioned, though at one time and another it probably engages as many men as the food fisheries. The average earnings in the two occupations during a normal season are reported to be about the same.

Turtle fishing in Cuba is not an important industry, the value of the annual catch averaging but a few hundred dollars.

BUILDING TRADES.

Most house construction in Cuba requiring skilled labor is of brick or of a cement and rubble composition called *mamposteria*. Stone is used in some of the more pretentious city edifices. Frame buildings are to be found occasionally in the suburbs of the larger cities, especially in the summer resorts near Cienfuegos, Santiago, and other coast towns. While of modest dimensions, these are frequently well

built. The wooden buildings common in the country and in the smaller towns are usually of very crude construction. In a few of the older and less progressive towns adobe or wattle construction is being used, even in buildings erected at the present time, but no skilled labor is required for this purpose. Most of the country people of Cuba reside in palm-bark huts, which are made and repaired by the occupant without the employment of hired labor. The kind of construction requiring skilled mechanics is therefore of a durable and permanent character, though Cuban masonry requires more frequent repairs than its appearance of solidity might indicate. A large proportion of the people are housed in buildings which, though temporary in character, require for their construction only the talent of the country laborer. Consequently the number of men engaged professionally in the building trades is not relatively a large percentage of the population of the island.

While the two occupations are not distinguished from each other by special designations in the native speech, the trade of the rough carpenter employed in frame construction and outdoor work in general should be treated as a quite different occupation from that of the cabinetmaker and the carpenter employed in interior finishing. The two trades connote an entirely different degree of skill and general efficiency in Cuba. For this reason only rough carpenters are considered under the present heading. The higher class workmen may be employed occasionally upon houses, but it is only in a subsidiary capacity. They make the doors, panels, and finer interior finishing of masonry buildings, but are not employed on work that involves a knowledge of structural questions. They are therefore considered under woodworking trades.

As a rule the Cuban rough carpenter or the skilled carpenter employed upon work that requires a knowledge of framing is a peculiarly inept and inefficient workman. The men are not well enough educated to be handy with the practical application of figures to the problems of their trade, and all work is done by rule of thumb. This does not matter so much, in fact it may lead in the end to more careful work, in constructing a piece of furniture. But the Cuban workman is more apt to slide his finger to the proper point on his rule and hold it there in making a number of measurements than to take his distances from the readings. In putting a small piece of wood into position he cuts it a trifle too large and then patiently works it down to exactly the required dimensions, until it fits almost with the exactness of a fragment of marble in a mosaic. But he can not apply these methods of work to erecting a building, and in attempting to do so resorts to extraordinarily awkward and time-consuming expedients. Timbers for rafters will be taken to the top of a building, placed in

approximate position and marked, and then taken down or even brought back to the ground for sawing. Another method of securing the same result is to construct the roof frame entirely upon the ground and then take it to pieces and reerect it in its proper position. Frame posts and timber beams are not set square or exactly in line, siding boards are not sawed squarely across so as to make close joints, and it would sometimes be a matter of difficulty to find in any door or window frame or any room corner of a building a single right angle.

This lack of mathematical accuracy is characteristic of all the mechanical trades in Cuba, though it is perhaps most obvious in carpentering. It is accompanied by a want of the knack of applying work so as to make it count in results. There is a great waste of energy due to a failure to organize and direct effort economically. Men work as if their minds were not upon what they were doing. It is this, perhaps, rather than inherent indolence that makes the Cuban mechanic worth less than an American to his employer.

The number of carpenters in Cuba, according to the occupation tables, is over 14,000. A majority are whites. The wages of a skilled mechanic in this trade vary widely in different parts of the island. Men in government employ are better paid than others. In the engineering department they receive \$2 in American currency for an eight-hour day. This department has had several hundred men on its rolls at times. The department of public works pays from \$1.50 to \$2.50 in American currency. The latter is probably the maximum wage paid for this kind of work in Cuba. In Habana, Matanzas, and Cienfuegos ordinary carpenters receive \$2 and \$2.50 in silver (\$1.40 and \$1.75 American) for a ten-hour day, which falls within the range of wages paid by the public works department, except that the day is two hours longer. In the smaller towns wages vary with demand, and in the winter of 1901-02 men could be found working at this trade for a peso silver (70 cents American currency) a day. In most rural districts and small towns the wages paid in silver are equivalent to \$1 or \$1.50 in American money.

According to the census statistics there are less than half as many masons as carpenters in Cuba. This is due partly to the fact already mentioned, that woodworkers of all kinds are often spoken of as *carpinteros*. There are also many men employed on buildings as masons' helpers who do not rank as members of the trade. The Negroes engaged in this occupation are more than double the number of the whites. The trade is partly local; that is, the members work under conditions and with materials that are peculiar to Cuba and Spanish-American countries. Its traditions come down from the time when slave laborers, under the direction of one or two specially trained workmen, were the ones usually employed to erect a masonry building. A house was built something like a fortification, by unskilled

men under the direction of a few officers. The best trained workman in a community is therefore often a black man who has inherited the trade from ancestors working under these conditions. In several places where houses were being erected or repairs were being made in Habana and vicinity the foreman in charge of the work was a full-blooded Negro, while many of the men under him were whites or mulattoes. Some branches of this trade require an exceptional amount of skill and command higher than the average wages. Tile layers and stone masons are better paid than ordinary bricklayers.

Construction is not accurate and traditional methods, forms, plans, and design are used to such an extent as to make one Cuban building appear very much like another. The massiveness of the masonry, while often explained as necessary to withstand tropical storms or earthquakes, is really due to the inferiority of the materials employed, the lack of knowledge of structural economies on the part of builders, and an unevenness in the skill of mechanics that makes it necessary to allow a large margin for possible errors or slighting in the work. The lack of accuracy in measurements is sufficiently indicated by a mere glance at a room floored with tiles or other regular pavement. The tiles will usually run away from and encroach upon opposite sides of the room, necessitating the use of cement to even out the flooring material. Floor beams and the rafters that support the tile roofs are put in by the masons or carpenters; and so in large buildings recently constructed in Habana where considerable steel framework was employed, the latter was set up by the same gangs of workmen that made the walls. The trades are not sharply differentiated from each other, and the amount of technical skill involved in their practice is not sufficiently great to prevent a handy man from following several of them at different times while employed upon the same job.

The best paid men among the masons are the stone cutters and tile layers, if we leave out of account wages paid for supervision. A native stonecutter can do more with the soft limestone used in Cuban buildings than an American versed only in working the harder stones used in the United States. He can earn about \$3 in Spanish gold (\$2.70 American) a day. A tile layer can do even better, earning \$4 and \$5 a day at times, if he does work on contract. This applies only to flooring tiles, for roof tiles are laid by ordinary masons and bricklayers. If employed at a wage the floor layers receive \$3 Spanish gold (\$2.70 American) a day in Habana, and if they do piecework they are paid 40 cents a square meter (10.764 square feet) for laying. From 8 to 10 meters (86.111 to 107.639 square feet) is a good day's task. Where they work on contract and furnish the tiles they receive about \$5 a square meter (10.764 square feet) for high-grade work. But there are many workmen, in fact a majority of those employed in this branch of their trade, who do more common kinds of work, such as laying court

flagging and cheap floor tiles, and do not earn more than a third or a half of the wage just mentioned. It is the same with the different kinds of stonecutting. While, as said above, men employed on a large public edifice, like the trade-school building now being erected at Habana, can earn \$3 gold (\$2.70 American) or over a day, marble cutters who represent a trade requiring equal skill are paid but \$2.50 for lettering, and \$1.50 for polishing. In a small Habana shop where most of the work was polishing tops for café tables the workmen were paid \$1.50 silver (\$1.05 American). There are no fine stone carvers or sculptors in Cuba, and the best monument trade of Habana is in the hands of an Italian. The statues frequently used to adorn the interior courts of fine dwellings are imported, as the duty charges upon statuary do not countervail the extra freight of importing the marble uncut.

Skilled bricklayers receive from \$2 to \$3 a day in Spanish silver (\$1.40 to \$2.10 American). Apprentices are paid about half that amount. A good man can lay—parallel or in any of the imperfect bonds in common use—300 to 350 of the large brick of the country in a day. These brick measure $11\frac{1}{2}$ by $5\frac{1}{2}$ by $3\frac{1}{4}$ inches, so that about 40 cubic feet of wall is considered a normal day's task. Hod carriers and other helpers receive \$1 silver (70 cents American) a day. Contractors sometimes employ skilled masons by the month.

The laying of roof tiles is not considered a separate branch of the trade—unfortunately for the people who live under them—and is usually done by the same men who make the walls. Plastering over lath is not practiced in Cuba, and there is little or no hard finishing or calcimining. Exterior brickwork is always cemented over, so that the brick walls in the United States look raw and unfinished to the Cuban seeing them for the first time. In most cases this plastering directly against the brick is done by the men who lay the walls. Where it is a separate occupation wages are about the same as those of bricklayers, with a tendency to be somewhat lower where there is any difference.

Painters rank all the way from common laborers to men of some taste and training employed upon sign work and interior decoration. The whitewashers and brush men who lay on the exterior colors used to protect the cement surfacing of Cuban houses from the weather receive from \$1 silver (70 cents American) to \$1 American money a day. The latter wage is paid by the engineering department. The average pay of skilled painters is \$1.50 silver (\$1.05 American). The best men receive \$2 American currency in Government employ. A sign painter or decorator working at Habana is able to command \$12 to \$15 silver (\$8.40 to \$10.50 American) a week. Some of these men are very skillful workmen. A large majority of them are whites.

Until the American occupation, and at the present time outside of Habana, plumbing was not considered a separate trade from gas and

electric fitting. There is no steam fitting for heating purposes in Cuba except in a special way in some canneries and other industrial establishments. For many years a number of Cuban towns have been supplied with water and gas, and some have nominally had sewer systems. A Cuban pipe fitter was therefore supposed to be able to install any piece of apparatus connecting with a tube. Much of the apparatus used was rather primitive, but as there was no freezing, less demand was made on the skill of the plumber or fitter than in the United States. Water was also delivered under very low pressure and was seldom carried, and few connections of any sort were made, above the first floor. Few plumbers were familiar with modern forms of flushing apparatus. There was not such a thing as a wiped joint in Cuba. On the other hand, ground connections had to be permanent on account of local methods of construction. The tile floors are laid in concrete, and it is an expensive matter to tear them up for repairs. For this reason simple connections and cast-iron joints were used wherever possible, even at the surface, where no allowance has to be made for frost expansion. Interior plumbing is practically the same as street work and exterior connections.

With the American occupation, when many public buildings came under the charge of army officers and other officials from the United States, American apparatus and methods of installation were introduced. The military government has done much renovating, repairing, and new building, and private owners have followed the lead of public authorities in purchasing and putting in sanitary supplies. This movement has been further stimulated by stricter government inspection. The native plumbers were not usually qualified to do the work required, and as a consequence a number of plumbers from the United States found employment in Cuba, especially in Habana. These men are organized, and the union wage of \$5 a day is maintained. Cubans are eligible to membership in the American union, but none have qualified. They are learning the new methods so far as these are applicable in Cuba, however, and continue to do a large part of the regular plumbing in private buildings and practically all the gas fitting. But they have been trained under a government that did not conduct regular sanitary inspections or enforce a high standard of work. As a consequence, there is a general leakiness about water connections in private houses in Cuba and a lack of thorough workmanship about all pipe fitting that creates distrust in the competence of the workingmen. American flushing apparatus fails to give satisfaction in many instances for want of an adequate water supply. And as a Habana plumber drolly remarked apropos to the sewers: "Its hard to make a good connection with nowhere." Native workmen receive from \$2.50 to \$3 in Spanish gold (\$2.25 to \$2.70 American) a day, but do not have regular employment. Apprentices are paid 50 cents a day and meals. Gas

fitters in company employ are paid \$60 and \$75 a month in Spanish gold (\$54 and \$67.50 American), and helpers, who are listed in the rolls as *plomeros* or plumbers, are paid \$37 a month in the same currency (\$33.30 American). Electric fitters receive \$3 a day in Spanish gold (\$2.70 American).

An American firm dealing in electrical supplies and doing a general contracting business in both New York and Habana reports that about as much and as satisfactory work can be got out of a Cuban electric fitter in a nine-hour day as from an American workman in New York in an eight-hour day. Young Cubans trained as riveters in iron construction master the business in a few weeks and do as well as Americans at the same wages. But in spite of the prevailing lower price of labor, the cost of construction in Cuba is much greater than in the United States. According to estimates made by the engineering department of the military government for the express purpose of establishing the facts, the labor cost of erecting a building is 40 per cent greater in Habana than in any city of equal population in the United States. Masonry construction costs about 30 cents American money a cubic foot. Why Cuban labor is relatively so expensive is indicated by an experiment made by the Palatino Brewing Company of Habana. As this company chanced to be conducting building operations in that city and in the United States at the same time, they transferred a gang of American bricklayers to Habana and put them to work by the side of the Cubans already employed, so that the conditions of labor were the same. Upon actual measurement the maximum number of brick laid by a Cuban workman was 500 a day, and by an American workman 1,800, nine hours constituting a day's labor. This proved the average ratio between the amount of work done by the two gangs. Although the Cuban bricklayers were paid only \$2.50 silver a day, which at current exchange amounted to \$1.75 in American money, and the Americans received the union rate of 55 cents an hour, or \$4.95 for a nine-hour day, the cost of laying a thousand brick with American labor was but \$2.75, while with Cuban labor the cost was \$3.50, estimating upon the maximum number of brick laid by a workman.

CLOTHING TRADES.

Until recently there has been little ready-made clothing sold in Cuba, and factory production does not exist in the island. Underclothing and furnishings are mostly imported, and European countries control this trade. But outer garments for both sexes—shirts, many shoes, and some light hats—are of domestic manufacture. There are more than 18,000 working people, aside from launderers, engaged in the clothing trades. This does not include the many thousands of women who make their own garments and part of those for the male members

of their families in their own homes. In the remote interior of Cuba, 30 or 40 miles from any better means of communication than a pony trail, the palm-leaf hut of the countryman often contains an American sewing machine as its only piece of purchased furniture, and Spanish editions of American fashion magazines are to be found in these humble dwellings 30 miles from any post-office.

Partly because the climate forbids the use of heavy materials for outer garments the ladies' tailor has not established himself in Cuba. Dressmaking as a profession is entirely in the hands of women. There are more colored than whites reported in the census statistics of this trade, but the fashionable shops in Habana and elsewhere are run by white women, and in some instances by foreigners. Where dressmakers or milliners are employed as such, and not as salesladies or managers, they receive a salary of from \$30 to \$60 gold (\$27 to \$54 American) a month, according to the grade of the establishment. But a large majority of those engaged in this occupation work privately, and their earnings vary with their skill and the amount of custom they receive. It is probably rare for a good dressmaker to earn more than \$50 gold (\$45 American) a month, and the average earnings in this business are less than half that amount.

Most of the tailors in Cuba are Negroes, but, as in case of dressmaking, fashionable work is in the hands of the whites. Most sewing is done by women outside of the shops, though there is nothing in Cuba exactly corresponding to the sweat shop in the United States. As already stated, there is no factory production, but some of the larger shops make up ready-made clothing during the dull season in order to keep their hands employed. This industry, however, is not important. A tailor, therefore, is chiefly a cutter and fitter, though he usually occupies himself with sewing during the time he is not otherwise engaged. Cloth is not shaped out after cutting, so it is unusual for a Cuban, though following the same patterns, to get the same effect as an American tailor. Gum is not used at the bottom of trousers' legs, but instead lining is sewed in with a fine seam. This is considered work requiring exceptional skill, and is usually done by the tailor himself. The salary of a good cutter ranges from \$30 gold (\$27 American) a month in small establishments to \$100 in the more fashionable Habana shops. Meals are often given in addition. Sewing is done in private families by the piece. In Habana the rates are 75 cents silver (52½ cents American) for sewing a pair of trousers, except the bottom seam just mentioned. About 30 cents is paid for bottom seams and lining in case this work is done outside the shop. For sewing a coat from \$3 to \$5 silver (\$2.10 to \$3.50 American) is paid, according to the quality of goods and the amount of fine work required. The skill of Cuban sewing women, especially in finer grades of work, is exceptional, and they earn from \$20 to \$40 in

Habana, or from \$14 to \$28 a month in American money. In small towns, when they work full time, their earnings are 20 or 30 per cent less than that amount.

Many shirts and blouses are made in Cuba, either in special establishments or by clerks in stores dealing in furnishing goods. Male workers do the cutting and sew in bosoms and collar and cuff bands. Women sewers do the remainder of the work, receiving from 15 to 17 cents silver (10½ to 12 cents American) a shirt. Cutters and finishers are usually boarded in the establishment, whether it be a special shop or a general store manufacturing its own stock, and are paid in addition a salary of from \$20 to \$50 gold (\$18 to \$45 American) a month.

Considerable leather is tanned in Cuba, and the Spanish and Cuban foot—or the local taste—requires a peculiar last, short and thick in the instep, so that there are conditions favorable to the home manufacture of shoes. There are nearly twice as many shoemakers as tailors in the island. A majority of these also are Negroes. But many of the shoemakers reported in the statistics are cobblers, who set their small bench and chest of tools in a public arcade or in a corner of some retail shop, plying their trade at irregular intervals and shifting their location whenever business grows dull. These men do little else than repairing, though one can see shoes being made for the custom trade literally in the public highways of Cuba. The earnings of this class of petty and irregular workmen are hard to compute. Probably they do not average more than a peso or so, silver, a day, or from \$20 to \$30 a month in American currency. Skilled workmen in Habana receive a wage of \$2 silver (\$1.40 American) a day. In the suburban town of Marianao two men employed in making stock for a store were being paid, respectively, \$26.50 and \$30 a month in Spanish gold (\$23.85 and \$27 American), besides board and lodging. They worked from nine to ten hours. In the interior town of Colon shoemakers doing the same kind of work were receiving but \$1.20 silver (84 cents American) a day without board. Most of the shoemaking of Cuba is done by hand, without other special conveniences than a foot-power sewing machine. There are two factories using power machinery in the island, both of them at Habana. They employ about 50 men, 20 women, and 15 children. The working day is from 7 to 10 a. m., and from 11 a. m. to 5.30 p. m. Male operatives receive \$1.50 silver (\$1.05 American) a day, and women and children, who are employed mostly in packing, earn about two-thirds that amount. The average wages do not exceed \$20 or \$25 a month in American currency, without board.

No hats are manufactured in Cuba except some made from imported straw braid and a cheap palm hat, or low-grade Panama, similar to the Arecibo hats of Porto Rico, which are woven by peasant families. The weavers engaged in this industry at Trinidad reported that they

could earn about 50 cents silver (35 cents American) a day by working steadily. In Habana hat cleaners and ironers receive about \$30 Spanish gold (\$27 American) a month, with board and lodging.

The 22,000 launderers reported for Cuba do not include more than a few hundred who possess technical skill in this employment or understand modern machinery. About 1,000 are males and 4,000 are white. The women, who do the bulk of the work of this kind, constitute a branch of the servant class, and their earnings approximate those of domestic servants. In Habana and other large towns there are steam laundries and some skilled labor is employed. Starchers and ironers are paid about \$40 silver a month, or \$28 American money, with board and lodging. Working by the piece $6\frac{1}{4}$ cents silver ($4\frac{3}{8}$ cents American) is paid for starching and polishing a stiff-bosom shirt. Work of this kind commands a relatively high salary in Cuba as a factory occupation because of the warm climate.

FOODS AND LIQUORS.

The simple character of the food used by most of the people limits the variety and extent of these trades in Cuba. As kitchens contain no conveniences for baking, no bread is made in private families. The bakers, therefore, constitute the most important class of workmen in this division of occupations. They number over 5,000, and practically all of them are men, the majority being colored. The hours of labor in this employment are long, as much of the baking is done at night. Board and lodging are usually given in addition to wages, and the latter range from \$15 to \$20 silver (\$10.50 to \$14 American) a month in smaller towns and from \$30 to \$40 (\$21 to \$28 American) in the larger cities. Skilled bakers in large towns do not receive on an average more than the equivalent of \$30 American money a month and board. The reason for the relatively low wages prevailing in this trade, considering the amount of labor required, may be that it is considered somewhat similar to domestic service in popular estimation.

In a Habana confectioner's establishment, devoted to making the small cakes and sweetmeats sold on the streets by venders, where 12 men were employed and no board or lodging was given, \$25 and \$30 silver (\$17.50 and \$21 American) a month was being paid for from ten to twelve hours' work a day. In larger establishments wages are about the same, except that in first-class places they are paid in Spanish gold and meals are given.

Professional cooks receive from \$15 to \$40 gold (\$13.50 to \$36 American) a month, besides board. In some Habana hotels \$25 in American currency was being paid. In smaller towns salaries are much less, often not exceeding \$10 gold (\$9 American) a month and board.

There are several chocolate factories of some size in Cuba. Most of them are run by Spaniards and employ Spanish operatives. Male employees are usually lodged and boarded in the establishment, where special quarters are provided for them. Wrapping and packing are done by women and girls in separate rooms, and they are paid upon a piecework basis. In one factory in Habana, where 150 hands were employed, the highest-paid operative received \$75 a month in Spanish gold (\$67.50 American) and board. Machine tenders and apprentices were paid from \$15 to \$45 in the same currency (\$13.50 to \$40.50 American), freighters and carters received from \$30 to \$40, and 22 women packers and labelers were estimated to earn 66 cents each a day. Board was not provided for female employees. The working day was twelve hours, less the time taken for meals. In a smaller factory of the same kind the two master workmen received \$60 gold (\$54 American) and the 13 ordinary hands and helpers \$15 gold (\$13.50 American) a month, besides meals and lodging. This was about the ratio of higher to lower paid labor found in each factory.

Macaroni and soup paste are manufactured in the island. The factories supply only the local market. In an establishment employing 40 hands, and manufacturing by machinery, skilled help received from \$30 to \$40 gold (\$27 to \$36 American) and meals.

There are some factories for canning native fruits, and especially for making guava paste and jelly. This industry could be extended considerably. At present it supplies only the local market. In a cannery in Santa Clara employing 35 hands, including tanners for making cans, wages were from 70 cents to \$1 silver (49 to 70 cents American) a day. The small amount paid workmen was explained to be due to the general depression of business in this cane-growing province on account of the low price of sugar. It was estimated that about 50 persons in Santa Clara were employed in canning and preserving fruit for the market.

The factories for the preparation of food products that were visited in Cuba were clean, well ventilated, and well conducted, and the employees ordinarily presented a neat appearance. An exception must be made of some bakeries and cake shops, where a visit to the center of production took away all inclination to consume their wares, but, as a rule, especially in establishments conducted by Spaniards, there was nothing unappetizing in the conditions surrounding the preparation of Cuban food products under the factory system.

The consumption of fresh meat in Cuba amounts to about 40 pounds a person per annum, as compared with 132 pounds per annum in the United Kingdom. Those listed as butchers in the occupation statistics are slaughterhouse men, and as the number given is only 481, it probably does not include apprentices and helpers. The cattle used in each municipality are killed in a single licensed or public establishment, and

butchers are paid according to the amount of work done. In the vicinity of Habana the usual price for killing, dressing, and preparing cattle for market is \$1.50-silver (\$1.05 American) a head. Butchers also receive certain portions of the slaughtered animal, such as the head, feet, and portions of the entrails. A good cutter in a retail shop receives from \$25 to \$30 a month with board, paid in Spanish gold in the larger cities and in silver in the provincial towns. A few men who are skilled in meat curing and sausage making are paid more than this in the finer Habana shops, though the maximum salary reported does not exceed \$35 American money a month and meals. The hours of labor are longest in the larger towns, where ice is available. In small and remote places meat is necessarily disposed of within a few hours of killing, on account of the climate. Business is not usually heavy in any Cuban meat shop for more than six or seven hours a day, and even in Habana the retailer frequently puts out a card in the late morning or afternoon to indicate whether or not his day's supply has been sold.

Crude salt is ground and refined for table use in a small Habana establishment. The machinery is run by water power. Employees are paid \$30 silver (\$21 American) a month, with board and lodging.

Fruits and vegetables from the market gardens are sorted and packed in Habana for the New York trade. One shipper, who employs 150 men in this work, pays \$1.25 silver (87½ cents American) a day without board. Boys employed in sorting receive about half this amount.

Spanish laws forbade the raising of grapes in Cuba, and there is at present no wine industry. American demand and example and the increased cost and deteriorated quality of Spanish wines since the recent tariff changes have so greatly extended the consumption of beer in the island that there are now two large breweries in Habana and smaller ones in other towns. Ice factories are run by all these establishments, and the sale of ice is an important item in their business. Malt and hops are imported. The plant and machinery of the larger companies is practically new and their business is organized and conducted on modern lines, so there is little to distinguish these establishments from those in the United States. The pay roll of one large brewery in the suburbs of Habana contains 200 names, including some building mechanics employed on repairs and new constructions. No women are employed. All wages are paid in silver except those of the German head brewer, who receives a salary of \$200 a month in gold (\$180 American), besides a house and servant. His assistant, a Cuban, is paid \$45 a month. Ordinary brewery hands regularly employed receive \$25 a month and meals. The head bottler earns \$1 a day, and his 25 boy assistants 60 cents each a day and meals. Common laborers and outside hands are paid \$1.20 without meals, and masons receive \$3 a day. In the ice factory the foreman of the cutting

room receives \$42 a month without meals, and his assistant \$1.25 a day. All the employees mentioned, except the head brewer, are paid double for Sunday and night work. The manager of this establishment, a Cuban educated in the United States, receives a salary of \$1,800 silver (\$1,260 American) a year, with quarters for himself and family. Ice-wagon employees are paid about \$8 silver (\$5.60 American) a week, without meals. Delivery is expensive in Cuba because ice is purchased in small quantities. Men experienced in the business in both countries report that it costs as much to deliver a ton and a half in current custom delivery in Cuba as to deliver five tons in the United States. There are 11 ice factories on the tax lists of the Cuban cities. In Habana competition is said to have made the business unprofitable at present.

A large amount of rum is distilled and consumed in Cuba, and 1,140,000 gallons were exported during the last fiscal year. Cordials and other liqueurs are also manufactured, but only for the domestic market. In the Habana distilleries the employees are usually boarded and receive wages of from \$25 to \$30 a month in Spanish gold (\$22.50 to \$27 American). In some of the smaller towns the same nominal wages are paid in silver. In a factory employing 27 hands, where a specialty was made of cordials, the proprietor retained possession of all the recipes and did the mixing himself. Some of the Cuban products of this kind are said to be of very high quality and have been awarded medals at foreign expositions.

There are between thirty and forty factories for the manufacture of soda water and other aerated drinks in Cuba, of which seven are in Habana. In an establishment in that city, employing about twenty hands, all the factory men are Spaniards. Wages are in Spanish silver, and board and lodging are given in addition. Foremen receive \$35 (\$24.50 American), teamsters \$30 (\$21 American), and other hands from \$15 to \$20 (\$10.50 to \$14 American) a month. The men work nearly twelve hours, less the time taken for meals. The proprietor of this establishment is an American who has been in Cuba many years. He speaks highly of the steadiness and industry of his Spanish employees. The men have few expenses except for clothing, and some of them have several hundred dollars of back wages on deposit with their employer.

DAIRY FARMING.

There is comparatively little dairy business in Cuba. Some milk is supplied to the Habana market from neighboring towns by the ordinary train service, but for climatic reasons and lack of facilities for cooling milk when first drawn, extensive dairy farming has not been made a success. In the larger towns milch cows are stabled in the city itself and fed with green fodder—usually sown corn—brought in from

the country. Milk is often peddled on horseback, from cans carried in the saddlebags. A white, highly salted curd cheese, extremely unpalatable and indigestible, is made by the country people and sold in local stores with other native food products; but it is not an article for which much of a demand could be created in a foreign market. Butter is not successfully made in Cuba. Dairying, therefore, can hardly be said to be established as a separate industry. Milk venders and stable hands in the cities are to be considered as ranking with peddlers and unskilled laborers. They earn from \$10 to \$20 a month in American currency. The Habana dairy stables usually have cement floors and are kept in most commendable condition.

METAL WORKERS.

This class of occupations, embracing in all about 10,000 mechanics, four-fifths of whom are white, enrolls among its numbers the highest-skilled and best-paid manual workers of Cuba. It includes engineers, whether locomotive, marine, or stationary, because until recently these were required to be trained machinists. This requirement, as is stated elsewhere, was the result of certain historical traditions in the railway service, where the earliest engineers were the machinists who accompanied the first locomotives imported into the island. Practically the same conditions surrounded the first introduction of steam machinery on the sugar plantations. On an isolated plantation it was always found convenient to be able to rely upon a single employee to run the engine and to supervise the rest of the machinery and make repairs, and the same was true of the locomotive engineers employed on the plantation railways. Some of the material for this report was gathered riding behind a locomotive constructed upon a plantation. In order to become an engineer a man was supposed to be able to make his engine and all the machinery run by it. Whether he was actually qualified to do it or not, this was the ideal standard, and in most cases he was competent to meet the practical demands of all ordinary emergencies.

The men employed in the metal-working trades of Cuba, however, are not usually engaged in manufacturing. They simply constitute the force necessary to keep the machinery of the island in working condition. Their principal business is making repairs.

Blacksmiths are men who have learned to shoe the stock, iron the wagons, and keep in order the agricultural implements used on the plantations. Theirs is a rural occupation, and is the only one of the metal-working trades in which Negroes predominate. Most blacksmiths own or have an interest in their shops, and earnings do not usually come to them in the form of wages. A good mechanic in this trade earns from \$30 to \$60 silver (\$21 to \$42 American) a month. In large cities he makes more. In Habana skilled horseshoers are

paid \$2.50 silver or \$1.75 American currency a day, and some men in the employ of the Government are paid as much as \$80 a month in American money. This is probably the maximum wage for this kind of work in Cuba.

A kindred employment requiring a higher grade of skill is the manufacture of ornamental ironwork, extensively used for gates and window screens in Cuban houses, the designing of which is often done by the workmen and is usually in excellent taste. In fact, this ironwork is perhaps the most artistic product of native manufacture. Skilled workmen receive \$3.50 a day in Spanish gold (\$3.15 American). Helpers and apprentices are paid from \$1 to \$1.50.

There are machine shops of considerable extent at Habana, Cienfuegos, and one or two other points in Cuba. In an establishment of this kind at Regla, across the bay from Habana, between 100 and 300 men are employed according to the season. No meals are given. The working day is nine hours, and high-class mechanics receive \$4 a day in Spanish gold (\$3.60 American). This wage holds good for pattern makers, molders, foundry men, lathe men, and all highly skilled employees. The supply of really competent men in these lines does not always meet the demand. Helpers and regularly employed laborers are paid \$1.50 a day, and firemen between \$1.50 and \$2. Apprentices are usually full-grown youths and receive a helper's wage. Outside laborers are paid from \$1 to \$1.50 a day. All the wages quoted are in Spanish gold and are about 10 per cent less than corresponding wages in American money. In a machine shop in Matanzas, a city where the effect of the depression in the sugar industry was most severely felt, skilled workmen receive the same nominal wage as in Habana, but in silver. This amounts to about 30 per cent discount at the money changer's, though the purchasing power of silver in the local markets is relatively greater than the rate of exchange would indicate.

The wages of locomotive and marine engineers will be mentioned under Transportation. Compensation for this service in industrial establishments varies with the responsibility of the position. There was formerly a sort of general understanding to the effect that a competent engineer in any line ought to command a monthly salary of 8½ *onzas*, or \$137 in Spanish gold. Upon the plantations house and light were usually given in addition. This is the maximum salary paid at present in prosperous establishments. Upon many plantations, however, not more than \$80 or \$100 a month is paid. The last-mentioned salary also holds good for many large enterprises in Habana, like the gas and electric light works; but in such cases competent mechanical engineers and machinists are employed for extra service, and the responsibility of the man who runs the engine ends with the supervision of the engine-room machinery.

A fireman was not formerly considered on the road to promotion to a position as engineer, and he was classed among unskilled workmen. He received only a slightly higher compensation than the common laborer, and that because his employment was unusually disagreeable in a tropical climate. As a result there is not much special training in this occupation. American employers state that the unnecessary waste through improper firing more than countervails the saving through low wages. A fireman earns from \$25 to \$45 gold (\$22.50 to \$40.50 American), according to the location and importance of the factory where he is employed.

Boiler repairers in Habana engaged in putting in new tubes are paid \$3 silver (\$2.10 American) a day. Dry-dock hands and boat builders are paid as high as \$3 Spanish gold (\$2.70 American) for a nine-hour day. Sail makers and riggers receive about the same wages, though prices hold less firm in this occupation.

In Habana and the provincial towns there are some men employed in making tin pails and cans for preserves, honey, and other local products. Ordinary repair work also occupies a small number. The wages of these workmen are not as high relatively as those of other mechanics in metal-working trades. Many receive but \$1 silver (70 cents American) a day in the smaller towns, which is about the wage of a good field hand. In Habana competent workmen are paid \$2 and \$2.50 silver (\$1.40 and \$1.75 American) a day without meals.

Silversmiths usually own their shops and do not receive their earnings in the form of wages. In Habana an expert at his trade can make from \$3 to \$4 a day in Spanish gold (\$2.70 to \$3.60 American). A good journeyman or apprentice earns from one-fourth to one-half that amount.

Gunsmiths, locksmiths, and watchmakers when working for wages receive a salary that varies widely, according to their skill and the grade of the shop where they are employed. A salary of \$100 gold (\$90 American) a month, even in the finest places in Habana, would be unusual. In ordinary shops and in smaller towns the few workmen who are hired are often content to make a mere living, with the prospect of succeeding to the business or establishing themselves elsewhere in course of time. Their wages are nominal—enough to purchase cigarettes and clothing—and they are boarded by the proprietor. There is always great competition in Cuba in a trade that does not require much physical exertion, especially if there be a certain amount of dignity or refinement attached to its pursuit. Probably these are the reasons why the occupations just mentioned are not more remunerative outside of the large cities.

PRINTING TRADES.

Printing offices are numerous in Cuba, and even unimportant towns usually have a weekly paper. The periodicals representing various interests in the larger cities are almost as numerous as in the United States. But a vast majority of all these publications consists of poorly printed and short-lived little sheets, containing only a modicum of reading matter, and often intended to further the private interests of some leader, clique, or organization. The equipment of these offices is usually scanty and antiquated, and old methods of printing are still employed. Dampened paper was used in the presses of even the most important Habana dailies until after the American occupation. There are no typesetting machines reported in the island.

For over a century the printers of the larger cities of Cuba have had facilities for bookmaking, and some very tasteful and durable work has been done in the binderies of the island. The attempts at illustration were usually rather crude. At present, however, there are Habana houses whose typographical and half-tone work compares favorably with average work of this kind in the United States. American printers and pressmen are employed on some of the more important Habana dailies.

Like many other occupations, the printing trades of Cuba are crowded with inferior workmen, who compete for positions in the small offices and job-printing shops to such an extent that wages are often forced down to a mere pittance; but skilled compositors and pressmen command a fair salary, being better paid than reporters and news writers.

The printing trades are organized, and in Habana the union scale is enforced in 33 of the leading offices. The space rates for composition are 25 cents silver (17½ cents American) a thousand ems for day work in Spanish, 40 cents (28 cents American) for day work in a foreign language, and double rates for night work and for Sundays and holidays. This represents about 35 cents in American money for ordinary day work, reckoning space by the thousand ems, as is usual in the United States. Where salaries are paid, the union wage is \$14 gold (\$12.60 American) a week. In computing salaries three hours night work or work on Sundays or holidays counts for a full day. The working day consists of nine hours, from 7 a. m. to 5 p. m., with an hour for the midday meal. The salaries per month (in gold) for presswork are: Head pressman, \$60 (\$54 American); assistant pressman, \$50 (\$45 American); job pressman (footpower), \$45 (\$40.50 American); feeders, \$40 (\$36 American). Stereotypers are paid \$60 (\$54 American) a month and their helpers \$40 in Spanish gold (\$36 American).

In small offices and in country towns printers' salaries vary from \$20 to \$50 silver a month, or from \$14 to \$35 in American currency.

On account of the demand for cigar and cigarette box labels and advertising posters for the tobacco firms, the lithographing business has attained considerable importance in Habana. Most of the materials used are imported from Germany, and German names appear on the lists of employees of these establishments, but the art has become fully domesticated in Cuba. Skilled lithographers are paid about \$80 gold (\$72 American) a month. Lithographic printers receive from \$40 to \$80 gold (\$36 to \$72 American) a month, according to the amount of skill and responsibility required of them. Apprentices are paid from \$12 to \$18 gold (\$10.80 to \$16.20 American) a month. The hours of work are practically the same as in the other printing trades. There are probably 300 men employed in all departments of the lithographing business in Cuba.

While there are a number of Cuban books published each year, they are usually placed upon the market unbound. Most imported books also come in the paper covers. Nearly all of the binding done, therefore, is on private order, and usually does not involve elaborate cover designing. Another branch of the trade is the manufacture of ledgers and commercial books, where the work is done on a more extensive scale. French rather than American precedents are followed, but there is seldom any departure from conventional patterns, materials, and methods. The larger establishments employ from 30 to 40 men. A skilled binder acting as foreman can earn \$60 gold (\$54 American) a month; assistants receive from \$30 to \$50 (\$27 to \$45 American), and apprentices from \$6 to \$30, according to skill and experience. A number of very young boys were seen doing work that appeared to require long training. In one shop a boy, apparently not more than 13 years old, had charge of the ruling machine. It is probable that the proportion of the total number of employees receiving full salaries, as compared with those who are on an apprentice basis, is much smaller in a Cuban establishment where different grades of skilled labor are employed than in a corresponding establishment in the United States.

TOBACCO TRADES.

These trades represent the only manufacturing industry of Cuba that has reached a high degree of development and exports a large amount of finished product. While the production of sugar is in part a manufacture, it is a rural industry, is carried on only during certain seasons of the year, and requires little manual or technical skill on the part of operatives. On the other hand, the tobacco trades employ a large number of skilled hands in proportion to their product, and they are concentrated at a single point. So labor is more highly organized and there is more of the atmosphere characteristic of modern industry about this business than about any other in the island.

According to data afforded by the Cigar Manufacturers' Union, there are in Habana alone more than 116 large and 111 small cigar and cigarette factories, employing between 18,000 and 20,000 operatives. The usual hours of work are from 6 a. m. to 6 p. m., with an hours' rest at noon. Wages vary according to the competency of workmen, especially among cigar makers, where payment by the thousand is universal. Specially skilled workmen are employed on high-grade stock, and earn relatively more, as the price of making per thousand is usually rated at from 25 to 33 per cent of the wholesale price of the cigar. In this branch of the trade men earn from \$2 to \$3 a day in Spanish gold (\$1.80 to \$2.70 American). A good workman can make from 100 of the highest grade to 200 of the lower or medium grade cigars a day. In the small shops, where the cheap stock sold by street venders is made, cigar makers do not earn more than \$1.50 or \$2 silver a day (\$1.05 or \$1.40 American). In the city of Santa Clara, where a union schedule is observed, workmen receive from \$5 to \$15 silver (\$3.50 to \$10.50 American) a thousand for making, and can average about 200 a day. This would make their earnings equivalent to about \$9 a week in American money, though in an interior town like Santa Clara the purchasing power of silver is higher than the rates of exchange indicate. In small towns in the vicinity of Habana the earnings are about the same as in Santa Clara. This is also true of Cienfuegos, where living expenses are higher and the relative condition of the cigar makers is therefore worse. In Trinidad and some of the remoter towns a workman earns about \$1 silver (70 cents American) a day, his only advantage over the unskilled field laborer being that his work requires less physical exertion and that he is more regularly employed.

Some cigarettes are still rolled by hand for the local trade, but by far the larger part are now manufactured by machinery. Machine tenders receive about the same wages as ordinary cigar makers. The same is true of those employed in hand rolling. In the largest factory in Habana machine tenders are paid \$2.50 silver (\$1.75 American) a day, and hand rollers are supposed to earn the same amount working by the thousand.

The highest paid employees are the sorters, who grade the cigars before packing. Many of these men are Spaniards, and they are frequently family connections of the factory owners. It does not appear to be customary to promote men from the cigar bench to these positions. A good sorter earns \$4 or \$5 gold (\$3.60 or \$4.50 American) a day, about \$100 (\$90 American) a month being the average salary paid in the larger factories. But it is only in establishments having brands of wide reputation that the highest wages are paid for this kind of service. In country towns and small shops where sorters are employed their earnings are not over \$2 or \$3 gold (\$1.80 or \$2.70 American) a day.

Strippers are usually paid by the bundle (*manojo*) of 100 leaves, and many women and girls are engaged in this branch of the business. There is usually one stripper to four cigar makers. Women are employed only in stripping and in packing and labeling, and nearly 25 per cent of the operatives in many of the factories are females. Some of the large leaf-exporting houses have none but women strippers on their pay rolls. A single establishment in Habana employs 400. Evidently this occupation is not included in the census statistics, where only 1,580 women are reported in the tobacco trades. These employees are usually young—probably a majority are 17 or 18 years of age—and they are reported to be mostly self-supporting girls, who leave the occupation after marriage. Many of them work irregularly or only part time, and earn but 40 or 50 cents silver (28 or 35 cents American) a day. In some of the large factories strippers are paid 9 and 10 cents silver (6 and 7 cents American) a bundle, and from 10 to 15 bundles is considered a good day's work. Male strippers earn more, but the average wages in this occupation are not more than \$5 or \$6 a week in American currency.

Labelers and packers are almost entirely women. In the large factories they are sometimes paid a salary and receive breakfast at the factory. In one factory the women are paid for this work \$34 a month in Spanish gold (\$30.60 American). For packing cigarettes 25 cents silver (17½ cents American) a thousand is paid in Bejucal and Santa Clara, and 2,000 is considered a fair day's task. In the large Habana factories women packers reported that they were able to earn about \$12 silver (\$8.40 American) a week. The packages in which cigarettes are wrapped are made outside the factories, usually in the homes of the operatives. Forty cents silver (28 cents American) a thousand is paid for this work. So the earnings of packers and labelers and those employed in making packages vary from \$2 to \$7 a week in American currency.

Men engaged in unbaling tobacco and in sorting and spreading the leaf earn from \$20 to \$60 gold (\$18 to \$54 American) a month, but the latter wages are paid only to expert leaf selectors, who are competent to sample and buy tobacco during the crop season. Porters and cartmen receive \$25 and \$30 gold (\$22.50 to \$27 American) a month.

As the tobacco trades afford a large field for employment in Habana, and almost the only one, aside from sewing and domestic service, in which women are customarily engaged, factory positions are much sought for by girls without means and by women thrown upon their own resources for support. Employers state that their waiting lists usually contain from 50 to 200 names, and that political and personal influence is often brought to bear to secure positions. The sanitary and moral conditions in the more important factories, while not always ideal, are usually better than those surrounding the homes of the

operatives. Meals are often furnished to salaried employees. Women generally work in separate apartments. Boys apparently not more than 10 or 12 years old are sometimes to be seen on the benches learning the trade. In all factories where the number of employees is sufficient to make it practicable each cigar maker contributes a small quota—usually 10 cents silver (7 cents American)—a week to pay for a reader, a man whose profession it is to read the daily papers, novels, and occasionally more serious works to the men while they are engaged at their tasks. The fact that the benches are arranged not unlike the seats in a schoolroom, and that no noise is made in rolling cigars, renders this quite feasible. As the men are paid by the amount of work done, their employer does not suffer because of any decreased output due to this arrangement. Sometimes in a quiet country town the presence of a cigar factory is first indicated to a stranger by the loud voice of the reader sounding behind the half-closed lattice of an adjacent building. At one time in the Habana factories, Bastiat, Say, and some of the older French economists were read, but the works usually selected are of a much more popular character. These readers earn from \$10 to \$20 silver (\$7 to \$14 American) a week, according to the number of employees in the factory. A workman is not obliged to pay the weekly contribution for the reader's services, and some refuse to do so, but judging from conversation with the cigar makers this is not the direct road to popularity with one's fellow-employees.

In small shops no women are employed. Low-grade cigars, manufactured in dark cellar passages and damp court arcades, are produced under anything but wholesome conditions. The Habana health department forbids the employment of consumptives in the factories.

TRANSPORTATION.

The carter is as prominent in all Cuban land transportation as is the government teamster in army transportation. He figures numerously on the pay rolls of every large enterprise where freight is handled. In the country, where his vehicle is a ponderous two-wheeled ox cart, he is usually a salaried employee. In the city, where the lighter mule cart is used, he often works on shares or is proprietor of his equipment. His business is one frequently requiring severe physical exertion. There are more Spaniards than either blacks or native whites engaged in the occupation. Where salaries are paid they are higher than those for ordinary unskilled labor—about 25 per cent more as a rule. When field hands are receiving \$18, carters often are paid \$25 a month. In Habana men working on shares take one-half the gross proceeds for their labor, the owners receiving the remainder in return for all expenses of equipment and maintenance. When business is good a cart can earn about \$4 gold (\$3.60 American) for each working day. Averaging the year through, carters on shares in Habana

thought they earned about \$9 gold (\$8.10 American) a week. A Sevillian carter owning his mule and cart was receiving 4 *onzas*—slightly less than \$60 in American money—a month from a cigar factory. The Habana Gas Company pays its salaried carters \$31.80 gold (\$28.62 American) a month. The Government has been obliged to pay \$5 American currency a day for ox cart and team and carter's services in the country. Though such charges are exceptional, the cost of freight transportation by team is very high in Cuba as compared with the cost of such service in the United States.

Coachmen are not as well paid as carters, partly because their work is easier. In Habana, when employed on a salary in a private family, they rank with the better class of male domestics and receive about \$20 silver (\$14 American) a month in addition to board. The gas company pays its coachman the same salary as its carters, \$31.80 gold (\$28.62 American) a month. The former salary is nearer that paid in livery barns, with lodging and sometimes meals in addition. Coachmen working on shares, as do a vast majority of those driving public vehicles, average hardly \$1 silver (70 cents American) a day. In many cases they are obliged to take coaches at a fixed rental, which must be paid before they are entitled to any share of the receipts. Under this system some Habana coachmen report that they seldom make more than 1 or 2 pesetas (15 or 30 cents American money), except on Sundays and holidays, when they clear \$4 or \$5 silver (\$2.80 or \$3.50 American). This business has been injured in Habana by the introduction of electric traction, but in no city is a coachman's occupation considered a profitable one.

Omnibus drivers in Habana are paid \$40 silver (\$28 American) a month, without meals, for eleven hours' work. They collect fares, but do no stable work. Hostlers and stablemen are paid from \$12 to \$30 silver (\$8.40 to \$21 American) a month and board. The latter salary is paid the foreman in a large Habana livery stable.

Railway employees, exclusive of administrative officers, earn from \$1 silver (70 cents American) a day to \$137 gold (\$123.30 American) a month, according to the kind of service performed. Wages are usually computed, and fares and freights are collected, in Spanish gold, which exchanges for 10 per cent less than American money, and this currency will be understood where no statement is made to the contrary in treating of railway labor. The working day is usually ten hours for service where regular hours can be observed, though during the cane season employees of all classes often work overtime. An extra rate is paid section hands, road mechanics, and shopmen for Sunday and night work. On one of the largest roads this is one and a half times the regular wages. Section hands, crossing guards, and station agents are usually allowed light and quarters.

On account of their light equipment and low rate of speed, Cuban

railroads do not require as much track work as a railroad in the United States except during the rainy season. It is not uncommon to see weeds and grass growing between the rails, and a stretch of new ballasting would be so rare as to attract immediate attention. Fish plates are often entirely wanting on the main track, and still more frequently lack one or two bolts or are entirely unattached at one end. On an excursion train running at about 25 miles an hour over some of the most-used tracks in Cuba passengers were often nearly thrown from their seats by the jolting. As these conditions suggest, the total labor expenditure for track maintenance is not large. Including foremen and section hands, there is about one trackman for every 3 miles of roadbed of the public railways of Cuba. Exclusive of construction gangs, this kind of labor employs about 400 men in the island.

Section foremen receive about \$40 gold (\$36 American) a month and section hands from \$18 to \$20 (\$16.20 to \$18 American). There is one foreman to 20 or 30 hands. Road mechanics employed in station and yard work and on bridges are paid about \$2 (\$1.80 American) a day, and their helpers earn from \$20 to \$25 (\$18 to \$22.50 American) a month. Foremen are paid about \$10 (\$9 American) a month more than ordinary mechanics. Their gangs are smaller than those of the section foremen, not numbering, as a rule, more than 7 or 8 men, including helpers.

Shop mechanics receive about the same pay as road mechanics; that is, \$2 gold (\$1.80 American) a day. This applies to metal workers of all kinds and carpenters. Painters do not earn more than \$1.50 (\$1.35 American) a day. One road pays its pattern maker \$100 a month. Helpers and apprentices are paid \$25 and \$30 (\$22.50 and \$27 American) a month. Shop mechanics and helpers outnumber section hands and road mechanics. The skilled workmen employed in both road and shop work by the Cuban railways number in the neighborhood of 1,000, and their average wages are \$2 (\$1.80 American) a day. There are about 500 helpers and apprentices, whose wages are one-half that amount.

Train crews are made up about the same as in the United States, except that air brakes are not used—so there is more hand braking—and there is no dining and sleeping car service. The number of brakemen employed is not large, however, as trains are light, run at a low rate of speed, and apparently slow into stations with only locomotive brakes applied. Train-crew service on the public railways of Cuba employs about 500 men. Locomotive engineers receive from \$60 to \$137 gold (\$54 to \$123.30 American) a month, firemen are paid from \$35 to \$45 (\$31.50 to \$40.50 American), and oilers and cleaners receive about \$20 (\$18 American). Conductors are paid rather less than engineers, their salaries ranging from \$80 to \$125 (\$72 to \$112.50 American) on passenger trains and from \$55 to \$65 (\$49.50 to \$58.50 American) on

freight and accommodation trains. Brakemen receive about \$30 (\$27 American) a month.

Station agents are paid from \$40 to \$60 (\$36 to \$54 American) a month and quarters. Switchmen and other yard men and watchmen are paid from \$25 to \$30 (\$22.50 to \$27 American), and yard foremen in Habana receive \$45 (\$40.50 American). Much of the water for the road tanks has to be pumped, and for this service \$30 (\$27 American) and house is given on one of the principal lines. Car cleaners and coalers are paid \$20 and \$25 (\$18 and \$22.50 American) a month. Freight handlers and ordinary laborers earn \$1 (90 cents American) a day. Therefore, men employed in traffic service on Cuban railways do not earn more than \$500 or \$600 (\$450 or \$540 American) a year, and a large majority of the yard employees receives much less. It is difficult to estimate the number employed in this branch of railroad service, as there is a great difference between the cane season and the remainder of the year. Probably the average number is between 1,500 and 2,000 and wages range from 70 cents to \$2 a day in American money.

There is little night work on the Cuban railways, except during the cane season. Some roads run no night trains whatever.

Upon the shorter lines, especially those engaged in suburban service, lower wages are paid. One short road operating five trains maintains the following salary schedule: Engineers, \$93 silver (\$65.10 American); firemen, \$24 silver (\$16.80 American); station agents, \$50 silver (\$35 American) and house. Trackmen and freight handlers receive 85 cents and \$1 silver a day, or 59½ and 70 cents in American currency. Conductors are paid \$2.50 silver or \$1.75 in American currency a day.

All fares are collected in silver upon this road. The working day consists of ten hours, except for train crews, who work eighteen hours and a day off, preferring this to a straight nine-hour day.

There is no electric traction service outside Habana and vicinity. Altogether the two roads in operation employ regularly less than 300 men, except in construction. The power-house employees upon the suburban railway are paid as follows for a twelve-hour day:

Engineer	\$80 silver (\$56 American)
Second engineer	\$60 silver (\$42 American)
Firemen	\$40 silver (\$28 American)
Helper	\$30 silver (\$21 American)
Oilers (boys)	\$10 silver (\$7 American)

While the urban tramways were being changed to electric lines, construction gangs were paid at the rate of \$1 or \$1.25 and foremen \$3 a day in American currency. At present labor of this class is paid the same nominal wage, but in silver. The 5-cent fare charged on the lines is silver, and all employees are paid in the same money.

When a change is made in the character of the currency collected, a corresponding change is promised employees in their salaries. The schedule of daily wages is as follows:

Shop foreman.....	\$4. 70 (\$3.29 American)
Armature winder	\$4. 32 (\$3.02 American)
Carpenter, boss	\$3. 00 (\$2.10 American)
Carpenter	\$2. 50 (\$1.75 American)
Blacksmith	\$2. 50 (\$1.75 American)
Car assembler.....	\$2. 25 (\$1.57½ American)
Linemen	\$2. 00 (\$1.40 American)
Yard mechanics.....	\$2. 00 (\$1.40 American)
Painters.....	\$1. 50 (\$1.05 American)
Cleaners.....	\$1. 50 (\$1.05 American)
Helpers	\$1. 25 (\$0.87½ American)
Inspectors	per month.. \$100 (\$70 American)

Motormen and conductors work two shifts a day, of five hours each, with five hours rest between. They are paid according to a contract providing a scale rising with the term of employment. The time clause was made retroactive, so that conductors and drivers who were in the employ of the horse-car company that preceded the electric traction corporation receive the higher and in some instances the maximum wages for long continuous service. This contract contains the following wage schedule and special provisions: First year, \$1.90 silver (\$13.30 American) for ten hours' work; second and third years, \$2 silver (\$1.40 American) for ten hours' work; fourth and fifth years, \$2.10 silver (\$1.47 American) for ten hours' work, and so on by two-year intervals, until a maximum wage of \$2.60 (\$1.82 American) a day is reached at the end of thirteen years' service. It is stipulated that the regular hour rate shall be paid when an emergency makes it necessary for employees to work overtime. Motormen and conductors provide their own uniform and watch, and conductors also provide their own ticket punch. The uniforms and caps are of linen, and the cost of a complete outfit is about \$5 silver (\$3.50 American). This contract contains a pledge not to join any labor union or other organization that might affect the relations of employees with the company.

In April, 1902, the Cuba Company was employing in round numbers 10,500 men upon construction work on the Central Railway. About 40 per cent of these were Cubans, the remainder Spaniards and other imported laborers. Ordinary workmen were paid from 80 cents to \$1 in American currency. The greater number of foremen and engineers were Americans. The shops of the company, which are located at Puerto Principe, will give employment to about 2,500 mechanics and other workmen. Provision has been made for 50 trains, and it is expected that there will be an increase in permanent railway employment corresponding to this equipment as soon as the road is in operation.

The public telegraph lines of Cuba are controlled by the Government, and operators are paid in American currency. Salaries vary from \$40 to \$50 in country offices to a maximum of \$110 in Habana. Linemen are paid \$1 a day. Railway operators receive about the same nominal salaries as those paid by the Government, but in Spanish gold.

Nearly 90 per cent of the 5,000 sailors and boatmen of Cuba are whites, and a majority of them are of foreign birth. In the coasting trade fares and freight charges are collected and wages are paid in Spanish gold. On the larger steamers captains and chief engineers are paid \$137 (\$123.30 American) a month and underofficers are paid from \$70 to \$80 (\$63 to \$72 American). Stewards and cabin employees earn from \$10 to \$20 (\$9 to \$18 American) a month. Only men are employed in this capacity.

Ordinary seamen on steamers and on the larger coasting schooners are paid \$25 and \$30 (\$22.50 and \$27 American) a month and board. A schooner captain, when paid a salary, receives in the neighborhood of \$60 (\$54 American) a month. His mate, who acts also as supercargo, receives \$30 (\$27 American) a month. On the harbor tugs a captain gets \$50 or \$60 (\$45 or \$54 American) a month, an engineer \$45 (\$40.50 American), and sailors and cable men \$30 (\$27 American).

With the possible exception of the cigar makers, the longshoremen are the most thoroughly organized workers in Cuba. They have conducted with more or less success several strikes in different ports, and as a result their pay is regulated by a fixed tariff, established by arbitration between the shippers and harbor men under intervention of the port authorities, which is sanctioned by the military government. The tariff for Habana and Cienfuegos, which is typical for the island, fixes a piece price for lightering and loading and a day wage for unloading. The latter is \$2.50 in American currency for a full day of ten hours, \$1.25 for a half day, \$4 for a full night, \$2 for a half night, and night rates for work on Sundays and holidays. Each person furnishes his own subsistence. No person can be employed continuously for night and day work. At Matanzas stevedore charges for loading average slightly less than at Habana, because they are paid in Spanish gold instead of American currency, but the day wage established for unloading is higher. A stevedore without maintenance receives \$3 (\$2.70 American) for a day of ten hours, or \$2.50 (\$2.25 American) with maintenance. The rates for night work and work on holidays and Sundays are double those for day work, or \$6 (\$5.40 American) for a full night without maintenance instead of \$4 American as at Habana. Lightermen and wharf laborers receive \$1.60 (\$1.44 American) a day. There is much complaint by shippers and consignees that the cost of harbor work is exorbitant in Cuba. The men work in gangs—usually of 15—under a *capataz*, or boss, who is generally an officer of the union. A whole gang must be employed, no matter how

little work is to be done. The amount accomplished per man is said to be less than in the United States. Where maintenance is given and there is competition for men, Spanish ships have the advantage of American or English ships, because the workmen prefer the food and cooking of their own countrymen. In smaller ports the *capataz* usually contracts to unload a cargo for a fixed price, employs the necessary men, and divides the proceeds of the job among them. As a rule the Cuban stevedore will prefer a job and a system of payment by which he can work three or four days a month for \$15 and be in enforced idleness the rest of the time than one by which he can earn \$50 a month and have continuous employment.

Lighter charges are also fixed by a schedule sanctioned by the Government after conference and agreement by all interested parties. Rates are established, based upon the piece, trip, and demurrage. The lighter boss usually has quarters on his boat, and receives a salary of \$30 or \$40 (\$27 or \$36 American) a month in gold. His assistants are paid by the day.

The handling of molasses has been systematized to such an extent that wharf employment in this line has been reduced to a minimum. One firm in Regla, employing six men, now handles as much as five firms formerly did with a force of 700 men. The molasses is brought in from the mills in tank cars of 4,000 or 5,000 gallons capacity, pumped directly into the receiving tanks, and from these passes by gravity pressure to tank barges, which lighter it to the steamers. Each of the six employees mentioned receives \$42 silver (\$29.40 American) a month, without maintenance.

Warehousemen at Regla, Habana Harbor, are paid from \$30 to \$50 gold (\$27 to \$45 American) a month, according to the responsibility and trust of the positions they occupy. At Santiago longshoremen are paid on an average \$1.60 in American currency. Coal heavers in Habana are paid \$2.50 gold (\$2.25 American) for 10 hours' work. Regular employees on the coal docks receive a salary of \$30 gold (\$27 American) a month, and laborers are paid 20 cents silver (14 cents American) an hour.

WOODWORKERS.

It has already been mentioned that the Spanish word for carpenter is used in Cuba to include nearly all classes of woodworkers. Those who make a specialty of fine cabinetwork are sometimes known as *ebanistas*, and 207 of these are reported in the census statistics. They earn more than ordinary carpenters, their wages ranging from \$2.50 in Spanish silver to \$3 in Spanish gold, or approximately from \$1.75 to \$2.70 in American money. The largest furniture factory in the island is at Habana and has about 60 names on its pay roll. Many of these are boys and apprentices, who seem to be occupied chiefly in transferring material from one department to another. They receive

small salaries and do not remain permanently in their positions long enough to become specially valuable to their employers. Some machinery is used for planing, molding, and lathe work, but in the actual manufacture of furniture there is little division of labor and practically everything is done by hand and with bench tools. The product consists mostly of wardrobes, bureaus, tables, and chairs, and is disposed of in the local market. There are twenty benches in the factory, and skilled workmen are paid \$3 a day in gold (\$2.70 American).

Most of the carriages and other vehicles in use in Cuba are of local manufacture. Much of the iron work is imported from France. There are a number of shops in Habana that employ about ten men each. In one of the best establishments a foreman from the United States, who does all the drafting and box making, and a coverer and finisher of fine coaches are each paid \$4.50 gold (\$4.05 American) a day. Ordinary workmen receive the same wages as cabinetmakers. Wages are paid in silver and gold in different shops. The working day is usually ten hours. Apprentices are given board and a small allowance of pocket money, with an increase of wages as they become proficient in their trade.

Brooms and brushes are made in Habana from imported materials. In one shop where ten foot-power machines are in use men are paid 3 centavos silver a broom for attaching, sewing, and trimming brush. An expert can turn out 100 a day, thus earning \$3 in silver, or slightly over \$2 in American currency.

There are a number of box and cigar-box factories in Habana where power machinery is used for sawing, planing, cutting, and stamping. Only men were employed in the factories visited. They work about ten hours and receive their meals in the establishment. Wages range from \$1.25 to \$2.50 a day in gold (\$1.12½ to \$2.25 American).

Trunks are made in Cuba for the local trade and are exported to South America as cases for cigars and cigarettes. The usual method of packing for the interior South American trade is to seal the cigarettes in a tin case the size of the trunk, place them in the trunk, and cover the whole package with burlap, thus securing a bulk easy to handle over mountain passes and containing no unsalable material. So trunk making, like box making, is an industry subordinate to the tobacco business. The metal work is imported from the United States, as is also the pine used for the boxes. Some of the factories employ 30 or 40 hands. Carpenters are paid from 20 to 30 cents silver (14 to 21 cents American) for putting together the woodwork of a trunk, and can earn from \$2 to \$3 (\$1.40 to \$2.10 American) a day in that currency. The total labor cost of a trunk is about 70 cents in American money, and it sells at wholesale for about a dollar more than this price.

In spite of the tank lines, some hogsheads are still used for handling molasses and many casks and barrels are employed in the rum business. These are mostly imported in knock-down form, as are also fruit crates, and are put together in the island. Coopers earn \$2 gold (\$1.80 American) a day in the large cities and \$2 silver (\$1.40 American) in the smaller towns.

Slat curtains and screens are made in Cuba to some extent, and are used as window and door shades, as awnings, and for signs. A finer grade of curtain of this character is imported from Germany in rolls and made into lengths according to order in the local shops. The few hands employed in this industry usually board with their employer's family and receive an additional salary of \$15 in gold (\$13.50 American).

LEATHER TRADES.

Salting, curing, and tanning hides is an industry subordinate to grazing in Cuba. Only local materials are consumed. Little tanned leather is exported, but 2,000,000 hides are shipped to foreign countries from Cuba every year. It is impossible for local tanners to produce the finer and more flexible grades of leather and this is imported for local consumption. The tanneries of the island have a capacity of 40,000 hides a month. They are located principally at Habana, Matanzas, Cardenas, Santa Clara, and Puerto Principe. Employees usually receive board and lodging, the nature of the industry requiring their continuous presence at the works. They are paid from \$30 to \$40 gold (\$27 to \$36 American) a month. Most of the men seen engaged in this occupation were whites.

Aside from shoemaking, which has been mentioned under the clothing trades, the manufacture of harnesses and saddles is the only active industry employing leather in Cuba. The census statistics report 1,397 men engaged in this business. The prevailing wages in Habana are \$2 silver (\$1.40 American), with a maximum of 50 cents (35 cents American) more for men of exceptional skill. In small towns the ordinary hands, who do most of the work, either manufacturing or repairing, are paid from \$1 to \$1.50 in silver (70 cents to \$1.05 American). In American money wages range from 30 cents a day for apprentices to \$1.75 for highly skilled workmen in Habana.

MISCELLANEOUS MANUFACTURES.

There is no textile industry in Cuba, and mills for weaving, even those making the coarse jute bags used by sugar shippers, would not prove profitable under present tariff regulations. Two cordage factories under American control have recently been opened in Habana with modern power machinery. The larger of these employs over 100 operatives, 8 per cent of whom are women. The latter are employed in spinning, but are reported to be less active and efficient than men.

Their wages upon the piecework system, payment by the pound, average \$5 a week in Spanish gold (\$4.50 American). Boys doing the same work earn about \$6 (\$5.40 American). There is a lack of skilled workmen and the labor cost of production is greater than in the United States. A Cuban superintendent, trained in the factory, is paid a salary of \$125 gold (\$112.50 American) a month, and mechanics and engineers receive from \$60 to \$100 gold (\$54 to \$90 American) a month.

There are a few ropewalks in Cuba, but they are small private undertakings. The manufacture of palm rope and of fine palm-fiber bridles is a domestic industry. A man, with the assistance of two members of his family, can make 200 yards of palm rope a day, not including the time taken for gathering the leaves. This sells for \$1.20 silver (84 cents American), but in a limited local market.

Cigarette smoking is so common in Cuba that there is sufficient consumption of the wax or stearin-cord matches made in the country to support several factories. Wicking is imported from Spain, but most of the other materials used come from the United States. In two adjacent factories in Habana, with a combined output of 1,600 gross of boxes a day, wages and labor conditions were found the same. The total number of operatives was 200. In the box department the cardboard is cut and creased by power machinery invented and manufactured in Cuba. The boxes are assembled by hand, by families who do the work in their own homes. The price paid for this work is 40 centavos silver (28 cents American) a thousand. Working regularly, a woman or child can earn the equivalent of 40 cents American currency a day. Boxing and packing are done by women at the factory. They are paid by the gross, and their weekly earnings are equivalent to from \$3.50 to \$7 in American money, according to their skill and the number of hours they work. Waxing the cord, ruling, cutting, dipping, and cardboard cutting are done in separate apartments, where men only are employed. They board and lodge at the factory and receive salaries of from \$17 to \$20 a month in Spanish gold (\$15.30 to \$18 American). The factories are well ventilated and roomy, and all the operatives appear to be cheerful, contented, and in excellent health.

Soap and candles are manufactured for the local market in Habana, most of the materials for goods of finer grade being imported, although domestic tallow is used to some extent. In a factory employing 100 operatives and outside men the highest-paid workmen—engineers, machinists, and master soap boilers—are paid from \$80 to \$100 in gold (\$72 to \$90 American). Ordinary factory hands receive \$15 gold (\$13.50 American) a month, with board and lodging. In the packing department of a soap and perfumery factory the foreman was paid \$30 silver (\$21 American) a month and board. Six other employees (women and boys) were paid from \$12 to \$20 silver (\$8.40 to \$14 American) a month.

There is a single paper mill in Cuba, situated at Puentes Grandes, an incipient factory town near Habana. About 180 operatives are employed, of whom 40 are women. The latter are packers and wrappers and earn about 75 cents silver ($52\frac{1}{2}$ cents American) a day by piecework. A skilled hand can double these wages by working longer hours, as most of the women are irregularly or only half time at the factory. Paper makers are paid by the quintal of product, and earn \$2 and \$3 silver (\$1.40 and \$2.10 American) a day. Skilled mechanics, machinists, and engineers are paid a like amount. Ordinary laborers receive \$1.20 silver (84 cents American) a day. There are more applicants for positions than can be accommodated in the factory.

RESTAURANTS AND STORES.

Cafés and *fondas*, or boarding houses, are an important institution in every Cuban city. From the point of view of child labor, the former present a serious problem to those interested in the social welfare of the country. Young boys are extensively employed as clerks in all retail business in Cuba, to their own detriment from a moral and educational standpoint; but it is in the cafés that the abuse of this custom is most evident. In the larger cities these establishments are open from dawn till midnight, and while the moral environment afforded is not essentially worse than in many other occupations, the young employees are early initiated into a knowledge of all the vice prevalent in a tropical city, and are obliged to live under physical conditions detrimental to their health and bodily development. No young man can grow up to wholesome maturity who has spent seven days a week from boyhood where hours of sleep are short and irregular, meals hurried and unsubstantial, and where his education and ideals have been drawn entirely from the talk of the café tables. The one alleviating circumstance is that these children, even when not relatives of the proprietor, are treated as members of his family. Their scanty earnings are left in his hands until they are ready to go into business for themselves or to purchase an interest in the establishment where they have been employed.

Hotel and restaurant waiters are organized into unions in Habana. Their salaries are naturally in addition to board and lodging, and in some of the smaller places cigars and cigarettes are also furnished them. According to the secretary of the Habana union, salaries vary from \$15 (\$10.50 American) a month in small establishments and cheap boarding houses to \$25 and \$30 (\$22.50 and \$27 American) in the leading hotels. Small places pay in silver and higher-class places in gold. Tipping is not customary. The salaries of cooks average from \$5 to \$10 more than those of waiters.

It is customary for barbers to receive one-half the earnings of their chairs. Naturally the amount varies in different shops. In some places in Habana a salary of \$40 gold (\$36 American) a month is paid ;

but the average income of barbers is reported to be rather less than this in cities, and not over \$20 or \$25 silver (\$14 or \$17.50 American) in smaller towns.

The census statistics report 14,533 salesmen, including street venders, in Cuba, two-thirds of whom are foreign whites. Very many of these are young boys. There are few Jews in the island. The earnings of peddlers and other petty merchants are not large. Frequently they sell goods for some small capitalist or manufacturer for a percentage of the receipts. One can judge of their earnings only by their scale of living, which often is not above that of common laborers.

Salesmen and clerks in retail stores receive from \$10 to \$80 gold (\$9 to \$72 American) a month, usually with board and lodging. A large majority of the merchants and commercial employees are Spaniards. The young men come to the island without families and do not quickly form permanent connections in Cuba, and so conditions are generally favorable, both in the retail and wholesale trade, to a continuance of the old-time custom of making the employees of a house one large family, where all, from the proprietor to the youngest apprentice, gather around one table and sleep under one roof. In a large hotel in one of the principal Cuban cities the whole force of employees, from cook and dishwasher to the proprietor and his wife, have been seen dining at the same table. Of course all these people were whites, and probably all were Spaniards.

In large wholesale houses confidential clerks are paid as high as \$100 gold (\$90 American) a month. Good office men sometimes command \$1,500 or \$2,000 gold (\$1,350 or \$1,800 American) a year. But in proportion to the whole number employed these salaries are less common than in the United States. The more extensive employment of apprentices, young boys, and other low-priced labor makes the average salary on any large pay roll in Cuba much less than the mean salary of the same establishment and very much less than the average salary paid in an establishment of the same grade in an American city of equal size.

MUNICIPAL SERVICE.

The civil service pays higher salaries for equivalent work than private enterprises, a condition opposite to that prevailing in the United States. While \$1,200 gold (\$1,080 American) a year is about the maximum to which a salaried employee of a commercial house in Cuba can aspire, it is but the income of an ordinary clerk in the Government service. Assistant clerks begin at about \$500 a year in American currency. The salary schedules in the insular Government do not vary much from those at Washington. Each municipality controls its own clerical service. Salaries range higher, but conform in a general way to those paid by private enterprises in each community.

Letter carriers are paid \$600 and \$700 a year in American currency in the larger cities of Cuba, \$400 and \$500 in cities of the second class,

and from \$240 to \$300 in the smaller towns. Railway mail clerks receive from \$240 to \$600 a year. Police salaries are about the same. Patrolmen in Habana are paid \$600 a year.

The wages of street cleaners, waterworks men, and other municipal employees of a similar character vary according to the prevailing wages of the locality. Laborers employed by the Habana authorities are paid \$1 a day in American currency. In most of the interior towns in western Cuba \$1 silver (70 cents American) is paid.

The Habana Gas and Electric Company has 250 employees on its pay rolls. All salaries are in Spanish gold. The manager and the chief engineer receive \$5,000 (\$4,500 American), and their assistants each receive \$3,000 (\$2,700 American) per annum. Office men and collectors get from \$45 to \$125 (\$40.50 to \$112.50 American) a month.

In the electric-light plant the following monthly wage schedule is in force:

Chief engineer	\$100 (\$90 American)
Chief machinist	\$68 (\$61.20 American)
Dynamo repairer.....	\$60 (\$54 American)
Carpenter	\$60 (\$54 American)
Lamp and line men.....	\$50 (\$45 American)
Firemen	\$45 (\$40.50 American)
Helpers and oilers.....	\$38 (\$34.20 American)
Coal handlers	\$30 (\$27 American)

In the gas plant the monthly wage schedule is as follows:

Superintendent	\$130.00 (\$117 American)
Engineer	\$108.33 (\$97.50 American)
Timekeeper.....	\$100.00 (\$90 American)
Meter repairer	\$75.00 (\$67.50 American)
Gas fitters.....	\$60 to \$75.00 (\$54 to \$67.50 American)
Mechanics	\$60.00 (\$54 American)
Purifier foreman	\$60.00 (\$54 American)
Gasometer readers.....	\$60.00 (\$54 American)
Oven foremen.....	\$50.00 (\$45 American)
Fireman	\$48.00 (\$43.20 American)
Helpers	\$35 to \$40.00 (\$31.50 to \$36 American)
Lamp lighters.....	\$21.10 (\$18.99 American)

The public works department paid the following daily wages (American currency) in different provinces during the year 1900:

WAGES (AMERICAN CURRENCY) PAID BY PUBLIC WORKS DEPARTMENT IN FIVE PROVINCES, 1900.

Occupations.	Pinar del Rio.	Habana.	Matanzas.	Santa Clara.	Puerto Principe.
Machinists	\$3.50	\$2.50
Firemen	1.75	1.50
Carpenters	2.50
Masons	2.50	1.50
Blacksmiths	\$3.00	1.40
Blacksmiths' helpers	1.50
Carters	1.25
Laborers:					
Highest.....	\$1.20
Lowest.....60
Usual.....	.8070	.80	\$1.00

Reviewing the general situation in Cuba, it is seen that if we make a broad division of labor into urban and rural, the hours of labor are nearly uniform for each class. About ten hours' effective work is expected of paid hands in the cities and about eleven in the country. There is a tendency, partially realized in some occupations, to shorten this period. Women are usually paid by the piece and voluntarily work short time.

Female operatives are employed in the tobacco trades and in match factories, paper mills, and similar establishments, for box making, packing, and labeling light goods. They also strip leaf tobacco. In all of the factory trades there may be 6,000 or 7,000 employed in the island. Their earnings vary from 30 cents to \$1 a day in American currency. Women are also employed as sewing women and in laundry work, and can earn slightly more, as a rule, in these occupations. As dressmakers and saleswomen in fashionable establishments they may earn as much as \$50 a month. White women do not work in the fields for hire. Negro women employed in the cane fields are paid the same wages as men.

Unskilled laborers in Cuba, whether employed on the plantations or in the cities, earn from 50 cents to \$1 a day in American currency. Over half of the workers of Cuba belong to this class. More than two-thirds of these are whites, and 43,000 of them are Spaniards. Conditions in Cuba seem to indicate that white men can sometimes compete with Negroes in the Tropics in work requiring the severest physical exertion and receiving the lowest compensation.

Between unskilled laborers and the highest-paid hand workers are men engaged in occupations that require some skill, but do not demand great physical exertion. Such are painters, tanners, leather workers, and many of the men engaged in the tobacco trades. They can earn a wage of from \$1 to \$1.50 in American currency.

Skilled workmen in trades requiring exceptional intelligence or some physical labor, such as carpenters, masons, blacksmiths, and most high-grade mechanics, can earn a daily wage of from \$1.50 to \$3.50 in American money.

Salesmen, clerks, and many factory operatives live under conditions that enable them to work for an apparently low salary. They become virtually members of the family of their employer. Their money wages are almost net savings, and the personal relations they establish with the head of the establishment where they work assure them permanent positions during good behavior. Most employees of this class are Spaniards. Their nominal wages are about 50 cents a day in American currency, but their real wages are three times that amount.

Outside of the learned professions, the highest income a man can hope to earn in Cuba for personal services—exclusive of profits—is not much over \$1,200 gold (\$1,080 American) a year. Public employment and a very few other occupations may offer higher awards, but they are so rare as not to affect the rule.

In spite of the large proportion of unskilled labor in Cuba, the undersupply seems to be in that particular division of the working people. There is complaint of overcrowding in nearly every trade and profession. But this complaint frequently comes from imperfectly trained men who can not compete with competent workmen in the trade they profess to follow. Employers and foremen report that the oversupply of skilled labor is more apparent than real, and that a master of his craft can always find employment.

The labor cost of all kinds of production is relatively higher in Cuba than in the United States. Men cost less, but work costs more. In considering the total labor supply of the island this is to be taken into account. The ratio of human efficiency to natural wealth in Cuba is smaller than the population statistics indicate. This is why large undeveloped resources and low wages are found side by side.

COST AND STANDARD OF LIVING.

As compared with the United States, the cost of living is high in Cuba and the standard of living is low. The cost of living is higher than in the English islands of the West Indies and about the same as in Porto Rico. The standard of living is higher than in the latter island, as labor commands a better price, but this is evidenced rather in the superior well-being—the better-fed appearance—of the Cuban laborer as compared with the Porto Rican than in increased culture advantages or greater comfort and refinement in the home surroundings.

RURAL AND URBAN.

In visiting the cottage of the country laborer, or even of the small landowner, an American visitor is apt to receive an impression of arrested development. The palm-bark hut and general surroundings are not essentially different—making allowance for another climate—than those of the new settler on our Western frontier. The sod house or the log cabin of the pioneer, especially if he be a foreigner, does not contain many more conveniences than the Cuban homestead. Both are probably surrounded by a large area of undeveloped country inviting the laborer to an assured reward for his toil. But here the resemblance ceases. The condition of the one is dynamic, of the other static. The pioneer regards his present surroundings as merely temporary, the Cuban is settled in his for life or for generations.

For three hundred years the country dweller of Cuba, whether he were laborer or great proprietor, lived in the manner of the earliest colonists. His house was an adaptation of the wigwam of the Indian, and its furnishings such as his own skill and the scanty internal commerce of the island could supply. Landowners with leagues of pasture and hundreds of cattle had few comforts they did not share with

the commonest laborers. Even as late as the middle of the nineteenth century, when sugar was flooding the island with gold, but little improvement had been made in the primitive manner of living. A favorite saying of the people, we are told by one of the governors, was that "nothing is lost by doing nothing." Men who did not care to improve their homes naturally did little for public improvement. In 1850 the city of Trinidad, with 18,000 population, had no city hall, city water, public schools, charities, watchmen, or police. The only municipal enterprise was a few city lights supported by private subscription. In Cardenas, which at that time had 5,000 inhabitants, the only item of municipal expense was for the board of the prisoners. The street lights and night watch of Santiago were paid for by private subscription. Habana itself had no municipal tax for police, education, charities, or public works, except a carriage tax for paving. With these conditions prevailing in the cities, naturally still less was done in the country. Order was maintained by an irregular body of citizen police, who served by turns and seldom were on duty. No provision was made for roads, schools, or other public services and conveniences.

While there has been improvement in the last fifty years, progress has been retarded by a reactionary government, by fifteen years of internal warfare and the consequent unsettled political condition, by social and economic changes attending the emancipation of the slaves, and by a constantly decreasing profit in the cultivation of sugar, the principal crop of the island, which has prevented any increase and at times tended to lower wages. So the Cuban country people have not changed materially in their way of living from the time they first came to the island. They are a sort of permanent pioneers. Except in the immediate vicinity of a large city, or when organized as plantation laborers, they do not make their presence felt, as do American and European settlers, by visible modifications of the landscape. They occupy the land without taking possession of it. They are not home builders, although frequently much attached to the place of their birth, and not a wandering people. Many causes contribute to make the Cubans what they are, but climate and indolence count for less than is popularly supposed. Undisturbed tradition and inherited custom, fixed by long isolation from the modern world, have been important factors in determining their present condition. The Cubans lack initiative, but with opportunities and right suggestions they seem qualified to keep step with the rest of the world in their manner of living.

The home of a countryman on the western borders of Puerto Principe may be described as typical. It chanced to be a little apart from the bridle path, at the edge of a forest. The house had been erected since the war, and contained two rooms and an open shed where

cooking was done. The walls and partitions were of palm bark tied to a framework of poles and the roof was of palm-leaf thatch. There were no floors and ceilings and no sawed lumber was used in the construction of the building. In the shed a raised terrace of earth, about 3 feet high and walled around with small logs, held the fire like some rustic altar. The cooking utensils consisted of a frying pan and a few tin dishes and kettles. The doors were of matting. One of the rooms contained a table of home construction, supported on posts driven into the ground. There were also a sewing machine, a clock (both of American make), and an iron washstand and bowl in this apartment. The chairs were of rural manufacture, of cedar, leather bottomed, and were identical in pattern with the recently revived mission furniture. The sleeping apartment contained iron beds and hammocks.

The yard and garden were fenced, and contained yucca and yams, bananas, sugar cane, and a few fruit trees. A couple of swarms of bees were hived in hollow logs. A small patch of corn occupied a field behind the garden, and with it were grown a few squashlike vegetables. A rude wooden press for crushing cane stood behind the house. The juice of the cane was boiled to a sirup and used for home consumption. A pony and two goats were the only domestic animals, if we except a flock of fowls, a few pigeons, and a tamed *hutia*, or native rat. All the water used was brought on-horseback from a distant spring.

In the morning the boys of the family were up before daybreak and had a bushel of sweet potatoes dug by the time the others put in an appearance. A cup of coffee, sweetened with cane sirup, was drunk, and the men went to the woods, to work till well toward midday clearing land for a new banana patch. They used only machetes in this work, and timber and brush were burned, the new land being thereby further fertilized for its new crop. Breakfast and dinner, the only two meals of the day, consisted of boiled rice, boiled yucca, fried plantains, and fried eggs. Probably this fare varied little from week to week. The head of this family owned 1,200 acres of fertile bottom land in the Jatobonico Valley, probably a fourth of which was cleared. The remainder contained much mahogany timber, worth from \$50 to \$80 a log on the river bank. The standard of living of this proprietor did not differ materially from that of his father or grandfather, or from that of the day laborer who was his neighbor.

The fare upon the sugar plantations is better than that of the peasant cultivator in his own home. The usual rations are a pound of beef, a pound of rice or beans, half a pound of bread, besides coffee and sugar. Salt codfish is also a standard article of diet with the West Indian laborer. Much lard is used, and the frying pan is as perniciously popular as in our own country.

The annual cash expenses of a Cuban countryman with a family of five, if he be a tenant or small cultivator, can be reduced to a

very small amount at need. As a rule, they are probably about as follows, in silver: Clothing, \$30 (\$21 American); food, \$80 (\$56 American); medicine and extras, \$15 (\$10.50 American); total, \$125 (\$87.50 American).

It is assumed that most of the vegetables except beans are produced in the garden. Rent will be nothing if the tenant be a day laborer on a plantation, and if he be a tenant on shares it is included in the landlord's share of the crop. Slaves and contract laborers were allowed two suits of clothing a year. Five dollars in silver (\$3.50 American) will purchase all the wearing apparel a day laborer usually puts on his person. The allowance for his wife and children would be less, while the youngest children wear practically no clothing most of the time. Every Cuban woman knows how to sew, and all the clothing of the female and younger members of the family is made at home. The per capita value of foods imported into Cuba, at wholesale prices, is about \$15 American per annum. But proportionally the urban population consumes more of this than the country people. Assuming the retail price to be double or treble the wholesale price at Habana, and allowing for baker's profits where bread is bought, a peasant family may expend from 20 to 25 cents (14 to 17½ cents American) a day for food. Extras are an uncertain amount. The necessary expenses for keeping up a peasant's house are small, not more than \$2 or \$3 (\$1.40 or \$2.10 American) a year. Medical attendance and church dues are items hard to estimate. In large sections of the island the care of both bodies and souls is left mostly to nature. Farming implements, horse gear, and similar equipment are largely of home manufacture. The allowance of \$125 (\$87.50 American) is, therefore, seen to be ample. In fact, tenants putting in crops that require a long time to yield, like coffee, are paid only \$50 silver (\$35 American) a year for expenses; but they have in addition such cash earnings as they may make when their own land does not require their attention.

The standard of living that it is sought to maintain in Cuban cities is presumably equal or superior to that of Spain. At least it is sufficiently high to induce many Spaniards to emigrate to the island to take up manual occupations and to remain there permanently. The skilled and partially skilled laborer without a family has little difficulty in maintaining himself in comfort, and might, were he so disposed, accumulate savings. Reasonably good table board costs in Habana \$15 a month gold (\$13.50 American), while in the suburbs both board and room can be secured for this price. Laundry, clothing, and other necessary expenses need not average much over \$5 a month. In many establishments at least one meal a day is given to the workmen. In one box factory visited the breakfast for employees was as well served as in a good middle-class hotel, and consisted of bread and wine, fresh meat, rice, and beans. A dollar silver (70 cents

American) a day will pay all the necessary expenses of an unmarried mechanic. Laboring men actually support families on this amount. In smaller cities the cost of living is from 20 to 40 per cent less than in Habana.

The bill of fare in a workingman's restaurant is a combination of creole and Spanish. Fresh meat, stews, rice, beans, bread, and wine are served. Tables are laid with cloths, and while there are tidy and untidy places in Cuba, as elsewhere, the table service is better than in many parts of Europe. The difference between a workingman's restaurant and a first-class café in Habana is not nearly so great as the difference between places of the same grade in the United States. The price of single dishes in places frequented by clerks and business men seldom exceeds 15 cents in American currency. The average cost of meals at the most prepossessing hotels to be found in the island is from 20 to 50 cents in American money.

The man who tries to support a family on a workingman's wages in Habana, Cienfuegos, or any of the larger cities of Cuba has a rather more difficult problem before him. He is competing with Spaniards, who are usually single men. He finds the question of housing his family an unusually hard one to solve, although his other expenses are not necessarily much higher in proportion to his wages than those of a European workingman.

It is evident that where employees are frequently boarded and lodged or are given one or two meals a day by their employers, as happens in most of the large commercial and manufacturing houses of Cuba, a single man has relatively a very great advantage over a married man. He either has no separate establishment or can reduce his outside expenses to a minimum. As a result he can work for less wages and still save a part of his earnings, where a married man exhausts all his income in maintaining his family. For this reason, because it discourages marriage until late in life and creates an aversion to the responsibilities of a family, the Spanish system of organizing a business upon a domestic basis seems to be contrary to private morality and public welfare. In Cuba it certainly has the effect suggested, and the social condition is probably worse and wages lower because it exists. It is a cause contributory to the fact that the percentage of married persons in Cuba is less than one-half what it is in the United States.

TENEMENTS.

In large cities and growing towns rents are very high. They return from 12 to 30 per cent on the investment. While houses of the poorer classes do not present all of the bad conditions found in the crowded quarters of some American cities, and their sanitary condition has been greatly improved since the American occupation, they justify all the

complaints that are made against them by the working people who are obliged to be their occupants. The laborers' tenements of Habana are known locally as *solares*, and usually present a very respectable appearance from the street. There is a one or two story front not unlike that of a middle-class private residence. The difference appears when one passes the main entrance and looks down the long, narrow lane of an interior. This alley may be anywhere from 6 to 15 feet wide and is not roofed, but it sometimes has a tile or cement pavement. Since sanitary inspections have been inaugurated the latter is usually fairly clean, though frequently without visible drainage outlet. On either side is a long row of one or two story buildings of frame or masonry, making a continuous wall, broken only by the doors that face each other at 10 or 12 foot intervals. If the building has a second floor, a balcony runs along the second story on either hand. Behind each door is a room 12 feet square or more, accommodating a family. Fifty or a hundred people live in a single alley of this kind extending back to the end of the lot. There will be but one or possibly two water-closets or privies, and one water faucet for the whole number. Much of the cooking is done in the open air, in the limited space before the dwellings. As the doors are often the only source of light and air, there is absolutely no privacy. Such rooms rent in Habana for 1 *centene*—\$5 gold (\$4.50 American)—a month. The old Roman law right of possession is so respected in the Spanish codes that it takes about two months to evict a tenant. The result is that landlords compel their renters to keep paid up two months in advance or to give bond for payment. In *solares* of the better class—that is, cleaner and in a better part of the city, for accommodations are practically the same—rents are still higher. In a two-story building of this class, occupied in part by Negro tenants, the front rooms facing the street rent for \$10 and \$14 gold (\$9 and \$12.60 American) on the first and second floors, respectively, and interior rooms rent for \$7 gold (\$6.30 American) each. A small, one-story, four-room house in the suburbs of Habana, in a workingman's quarter, rents for \$20 silver a month, or between \$14 and \$15 in American currency. In Cienfuegos small tenements for workingmen rent for \$12 silver (\$8.40 American) a month. In that city water has to be bought at about 1 cent a gallon. Three dollars in American currency will rent a laborer's tenement of two or three rooms in most of the smaller towns of Cuba.

This question of high rents and poor accommodation has been agitated by the workingmen of Habana for several years, and a delegation from some of the organizations recently petitioned the military governor to interfere so as to limit the amount of interest a man might exact from tenement investments. Nothing of this sort could be done, however, and the problem still remains a serious one in that city. With lower interest rates—which may be hoped for after the present reconstruction

period is over—it is probable that more buildings for rental will be erected. The effect of the extensions of the electric railway in broadening out the available building area has not yet been appreciated. As indicated later, the workmen have begun to make an effort at self-help by organizing building associations among themselves.

COST OF PROVISIONS, CLOTHING, ETC.

The cost of provisions varies in different provinces and cities. Matanzas is considered a cheaper place to live than Cienfuegos, though it is the larger city of the two. In Habana the following retail prices (in cents, silver) of provisions were copied from price lists exposed in the market place in April, 1902:

Jerked beef (<i>tasajo</i>).....	pound..	12c. (8½c. American)
Beans (<i>garabanzas</i>).....	do....	3c. (2c. American)
Potatoes.....	do....	3c. (2c. American)
Potatoes.....	25 pounds..	60c. (42c. American)
Garlic.....	pound..	6c. (4c. American)
Rice.....	do....	3c. (2c. American)
Bread.....	do....	8c. (5½c. American)
Milk.....	liter (about 1 quart)..	12c. (8½c. American)

The price of fresh beef ranges from 9 to 26 cents (6 to 18 cents American) a pound in Habana.

The rope-soled canvas slippers universally worn by certain classes of mechanics and laborers sell at wholesale for from \$1.75 to \$2.50 a dozen in silver (\$1.23 to \$1.75 American). Canvas shoes cost from \$1.25 to \$2 (87½ cents to \$1.40 American), underwear from 35 cents to \$1 (24½ to 70 cents American), shirts \$1 (70 cents American), stockings 20 cents (14 cents American) or more, and light goods—prints and muslins—worn by ladies are sold at retail as low as 5 cents silver, or 3 and 4 cents in American currency, a yard. A pair of workingman's trousers costs from \$1 (70 cents American) up. All the prices quoted are in the workingman's currency, silver. A fair tailor-made suit can be bought for from \$15 to \$18 in gold (\$13.50 to \$16.20 American). Taking the clothing and furnishing market in general, prices average about what they do in the United States. Some things, especially American goods, cost more, but there are other articles, like imported cloths, that cost less. Army officers occasionally made it a point to purchase a supply of fine-grade khaki for uniforms in Cuba before returning to the United States.

The system of purchasing in Cuba resembles that in some foreign quarters of large American cities. Goods are bought in very small quantities, and most of the money taken over the counters of retail stores is copper. One result of this is that provisions cost the common people more and that prices do not easily vary from a conventional standard. On a falling market this last feature is an advantage

to the retailer. It is often said that the small shopkeepers are the ones who have benefited most by the reduction in food tariffs made by the American authorities. While this is in a degree true for the reason just mentioned, especially in small towns and the remoter districts of the island, it is only partially true of Habana, as the prices quoted above indicate. The latter had followed closely the fall of prices in the wholesale market occasioned by the stagnation in the sugar trade. They are considerably lower than the prices in the retail shops outside of Habana.

The home of the prosperous Cuban mechanic, if his income is regular and the times are normal, is furnished more simply, but about as comfortably as that of the American workingman. He usually does not have as much room, and greater familiarity with the internal economy of his household reveals differences that do not appear on the surface. His children may attend a public or a cheap private school at intervals, but his daughters do not take music lessons and his sons seldom can aspire to a career higher than that of their father. He is not as liberally supplied with books, periodicals, and other elements of culture as the American; there is no piano, and never a savings account. Only in very exceptional instances does he own a house or have interest-bearing investments. Unless he be a Spaniard and a member of one of the Spanish provincial clubs or prominent in some political organization, he has little access to social advantages that take him outside his trade companionships. The limitations that surround him seem so obvious and so inexorable that he seldom has his ambition awakened to overcome them. He is in temperament more mercurial than the American and less dogged at hammering out his ends. So his family life is apt to be marked by an air of careless content, broken occasionally by abrupt transitions to discouragement, pessimism, and melancholy. He has no constant plan for getting ahead in the world; therefore his personal and family expenditures are usually ill regulated. His economies, when not dictated by absolute necessity, do not count, for what he saves in one place he wastes in another. Because he makes expensive purchases now and then or indulges in some unusual luxury it does not follow that his means justify this. So, judging by surface indications alone, one is often deceived as to a man's real income or standard of living. In one instance a family, whose living room was furnished with fine imported reed furniture, was supported by the wife with her earnings as a cigarette packer.

Though few workmen would admit this, it is probable that the general standard of living is rising in Cuba. Nominal wages are not increasing, but their purchasing power is greater. Houses are larger and better built. There are more conveniences for getting about. All kinds of public services are better, and this is especially true of the

public schools. More care is taken of the public health. Clubs and benefit societies are becoming more efficient agencies for culture and relief. There is a greater variety of occupations, and more and quicker avenues to promotion are open than formerly. The competition of slavery and of slavery-bred workmen has disappeared. In some parts of the island there may not be the rude abundance of former times, but there is a more intelligent utilization of what resources remain. All these influences have advanced the general welfare of the working people. Without necessary statistics, and observing conditions at the very nadir of an economic depression, it is difficult to prove or to get the assent of working people to the general proposition that they are better off than formerly; but, wherever it is possible to make specific inquiries into the household economy and the details of daily life of the laboring people of a generation ago it is shown that there has been a constant progress toward a higher standard of culture and physical well-being.

LEGISLATION.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS AND MEETINGS.

There have been no laws enacted for Cuba, either by the Spanish or by the military government, relating specifically to labor. Indeed, the labor legislation of Spain itself only began with the limited employers' liability act of 1899, which went into effect after the American occupation of Cuba. There are, however, provisions in the civil and penal codes of the island that affect labor and labor organizations, and two acts supplementary to the Spanish constitution of Cuba and Porto Rico remain in force which have more or less directly to do with labor unions, benefit societies, and public assemblies of workingmen.

The first of these is the law of associations, which regulates the method of organization, powers, and liabilities of all associations except the Catholic Church not organized for business purposes. Under this law every association must be registered—for this there is no fee—with the governor of the province where it is organized, and must file with the same authority a copy of its constitution, which shall state its object, place of meeting, funds, if any, and the legal disposition to be made of the latter in case the society dissolves. All amendments must be similarly filed. Branch organizations in other provinces must file duplicate papers with their respective authorities. No association is allowed to assume the name of an existing association. Notice of general sessions must be given the authorities at least twenty-four hours before they are held, and regular or special sessions, if held outside the place of meeting stated in the papers filed with the provincial governor, are subject to the requirements of the public-meetings act referred to below. A roll of the members and the names and titles

of the officers must also be reported after each election. Benefit societies must render a semiannual statement of their finances to the Government. Public officers must be allowed access to the meeting places of societies organized under this law at all times. After being duly authorized an association can be compelled to dissolve only by order of court, rendered after action brought by the public prosecutor for violation either of the law of associations or of the penal code.

The public-meetings act defines every meeting as public which consists of more than twenty persons assembling outside their dwelling, unless such assembly constitutes a regular meeting of an authorized association at its regular meeting place. In case of public meetings notice must be given to the governor of the province in provincial capitals, or to the municipal authorities in other towns, twenty-four hours before the proposed meeting is to be held, stating its purpose and the time and place of assembling. Public streets and squares, where traffic might be impeded, can not be designated as meeting places. At all public meetings Government officers shall be present, and no business not specified in the preliminary notice to the authorities shall be transacted.

PRIVATE RIGHTS.

According to the civil code in force in Cuba and Porto Rico, a contract for service is perfected by mere consent (art. 1258); for any service not forbidden by law (art. 1271); it must be for a lawful consideration (art. 1275); it may be in any form (art. 1278); it may be for a fixed period or not, but can not be for life (art. 1583). A servant dismissed without cause before the expiration of his contract may recover fifteen days' additional salary. In case of a dispute between an employer and an employee as to fact of payment or as to rate of payment, the burden of proof rests with the employee (art. 1584). Field hands, mechanics, artisans, and other laborers hired for a certain period can not leave work or be dismissed without sufficient cause before the fulfillment of the contract.

With the exception of a general order issued by the military governor establishing an eight-hour day for workmen in Government service, there is no legislation in Cuba regulating the hours of labor or the employment of the sexes. There is a special law, amendatory to the penal code, which forbids the employment of children under 16 years of age in perilous acrobatic feats, and forbids the employment, by a manager or owner, of children under 16 years of age of other parents or of his own children under 12 years of age, in a circus or similar exhibition. The school law of Cuba makes attendance compulsory for all children of both sexes between the ages of 6 and 14, but for want of sufficient school accommodations this law is not uniformly enforced. However, arrests have recently been made and fines

imposed for its violation in Habana and Trinidad, and possibly in other towns where the schools are not filled to their full seating capacity.

There is no legislation affecting fines and deductions from wages by employers or company stores and other institutions that are manipulated to lessen the real wages of workingmen. Nor are there special regulations governing sanitary and moral conditions in factories and workshops. In case of unusual abuses the health or police authorities may interfere. As mentioned before, the former have recently forbidden the employment of consumptives in the cigar factories of Habana.

Spanish law does not recognize injunctions as understood in the United States. Their place is taken by special mandates of military or administrative officers. Intimidation is partially provided for by article 515 of the penal code, which provides that: "Whoever without authority of law violently prevents another from doing what is not prohibited by law, or compels him to do something against his will, whether the act be right or not in itself, shall be punished by imprisonment of not less than one nor more than six months, and by a fine of not less than the equivalent of \$46.50 nor more than the equivalent of \$465 in American currency."

No special laws defining employers' liability exist in Cuba. There are provisions relating to criminal negligence. In general, negligence has to be proved to recover damages. Thus, an employee may recover damages from a negligent employer under article 1902 of the civil code, which provides that: "One who by act or omission causes damage to another, when there is fault or negligence, shall be obliged to repair the damage done." A subsequent article of the same code provides for the general liability of proprietors of manufacturing establishments for damages caused by boiler explosions and similar accidents, where there is negligence. By article 1603 of the same code an employer is liable for damages caused by his employees when engaged in his service, and by the following article he is given power to recover in turn damages from negligent employees in such instances.

No laws exist distinguishing the political rights of workingmen from those of other members of society. Alien laborers have the same rights as natives in civil relations under the general laws, and no legal preference is given to veterans. Occasionally in public contracts, as in the proposed Habana sewer contract, there is a disposition to require that a certain per cent of the labor employed shall be Cuban, and practically in all public employment veterans of the insurgent army are given a preference—as Spaniards were under Spanish rule—but there is no special legislation prescribing this.

There are no mechanics', or crop liens, or similar provisions for securing the payment of wages. Unless there is some custom or agreement to the contrary piecework must be paid for on delivery.

Personal property upon which work has been done may be retained as a pledge until payment for the service in question has been made.

In case of decease or bankruptcy of an employer, his employees to whom wages are due can recover against the equity of the estate; that is, against all property not given as legal security for debt, as preferred creditors after the satisfaction of all claims for taxes and court expenses, and in case of death, of funeral expenses, and the expenses of the last illness (civil code, art. 1924).

PROCEDURE.

An action to recover wages must be brought within three years of ceasing the work for which payment is sought (civil code, art. 1967). Where fair trial can be obtained procedure is simple and expeditious in case the sum does not exceed \$140 in American money. The code of procedure provides for oral action before a municipal judge (art. 714). The plaintiff files his complaint upon ordinary (untaxed) paper, giving the name, address, and occupation of himself and the defendant, stating cause, and concluding with date and signature (art. 719). The magistrate must set date for trial, notify plaintiff, and summon defendant within two days (art. 720). The date of trial must be not less than twenty-four hours nor more than six days from date summons was issued (art. 725). If the plaintiff fails to appear he may be adjudged to pay costs, and damages to the defendant not to exceed a sum equivalent to \$17.50 in American money (art. 727). In case the defendant does not appear the case proceeds without him. But one appeal is allowed, to a court of first instance.

Judgment is executed by the municipal court in all instances. In case of appeal, this is on receipt of certificate of final judgment from the higher court (arts. 918, 919). If the judgment is for a definite sum of money—as in case of wages sued for—a writ of attachment is issued against the debtor without previous requisition (art. 920); if judgment is for service, property to its value can be attached or the bond of the debtor can be accepted (art. 922). No attachment can be made against the property of railways necessary for their operation (art. 1446), or against the bed in daily use, necessary clothing, or against tools used in the art or trade of the debtor (art. 1447). The agricultural implements, oxen, and plantings of farmers and the wages of workmen may be attached. (Decree of June 9, 1890.)

STRIKES.

Strikes are affected by article 567 of the penal code, which provides that "Those who associate themselves together for the purpose of raising or lowering unreasonably (*abusivamente*) the price of labor, or to regulate its conditions, shall be punished, if the coercion of the association has become effective, with imprisonment of from one to six

months. The maximum penalty shall be inflicted upon the leaders of the association and those who employ violence or threats to carry out its purpose, without prejudice to the severer penalties for which liability may be incurred."

PAWN SHOPS.

The penal code provides a fine of from \$175 to \$1,750 in American currency for pawnbrokers who fail to keep or who falsify their books. The law requires that these books shall contain a full description of all loans, stating to whom made, the character of the pledge, and the rate of interest. From two to five times the value of a pledge may be recovered if it should not be returned.

RAILROAD LAW.

The new railroad law, promulgated by General Wood in February, 1902, contains specific provisions affecting railway employees. This law creates a railway commission, which, among its other duties, shall examine and approve all rules and regulations made by any company for the government of its employees, and such employees are entitled to a hearing before the commission, either personally or by representative, regarding the same. There is, further, a general provision by which all persons having proceedings before the commission, including employees and their representatives, shall have the right to appeal to the supreme court of the island from the decisions or recommendations of the commission; and the supreme court, sitting as a court of administration, shall review and revise such decisions and recommendations upon the facts as well as upon the law.

Railway corporations are liable for the debts of their contractors to laborers for any number of days' work, not exceeding thirty, upon the laborer's serving notice of the indebtedness within twenty days of ceasing the work for which payment is due. But such liability shall not exceed the liability of the corporation to the contractor.

Among the provisions which limit the operations of strikers against railroads are the following:

Any employee of a railway company who willfully or negligently violates any by-law, rule, or regulation of the company lawfully made and enforced, of which copy has been delivered to him, or which has been posted up or open to inspection in some place where his work or his duties, or any of them, are to be performed, if such violation causes injury to any person or property or exposes any person to the risk of injury, or renders such risk greater than it would have been without such violation, although no actual injury occur, shall, in the discretion of the court before which the conviction is had, and according as the same court considers the offense proved to be more or less grave or the injury or risk of injury to person or property to be more or less great, be punished by a fine or imprisonment, or both; but no such fine shall exceed \$200, and no such imprisonment shall exceed the term of two years.

All railroad employees whose labor is essential to the operation of the railroads who abandon their posts while on train service between stations without notice and without giving sufficient time to have others substituted in their place and duties shall be guilty of a crime, subject to six months' imprisonment; and if by reason of the acts of such employees damage be caused to the trains of the railroad companies or to the property of private individuals, the punishment shall be one year imprisonment; if such acts cause injuries to persons, the punishment shall be five years' imprisonment; if such acts cause death, the punishment shall be imprisonment from twelve to twenty years, if done without intent to kill; and if such acts are done with intent to kill, the punishment shall be death.

There is an important reservation to be made regarding all Spanish legislation regulating the relations of employers and employees, especially when applied in Cuba. Probably no system of law, no matter how equitably administered, will avail to secure the rights of ignorant laborers against an unjust employer. The only protection of the working people lies in being intelligent enough to know what their rights are and how to enforce them. But if to ignorance and the submissiveness that accompanies a consciousness of ignorance there be added a corrupt administration of the law, the most enlightened legislative provisions for his protection will have no practical value whatever for the workingman.

It is the testimony of lawyers, employers, and laborers that it has seldom been possible in the past for an employee in Cuba to get judgment against an employer in court, as the burden of proof in any action brought, whether for wages or damages, lay with the workingman. If it were an action for damages, he had to prove not only the fact of the damage suffered while working for his employer, but that such damage was due to the fault or negligence of the latter. In a suit to recover wages his own direct testimony, even if corroborated by circumstantial evidence, could not prevail against the unsupported testimony of his employer. In an action of either sort he was obliged to advance and to risk on the outcome of the trial costs to the amount of \$5 or \$10, a sum seldom at the disposal of the unpaid laborer.

A Habana lawyer of prominence stated that he had never known of a workingman's recovering unpaid wages from an employer by legal action. An American corporation manager employing several hundred men expressed the opinion, supported by evidence in his possession, that men then in his employ had been illegally and unjustly deprived of wages by former employers. It was a source of complaint by workingmen upon some plantations that their wages were withheld for long periods, or never paid. Some alleged this as a cause of their leaving the country for the city. In a word, it is quite evident that while the working people of Cuba live under an excellent system of written law, they have often been wronged by their

employers and have not been able to secure justice in court. In almost any group of workmen at least one can be found who is able to relate a specific instance of injustice of this sort. But the root and occasion of these abuses, far deeper than any weakness in the judicial machinery, lies in the ignorance and civil incompetence of the working classes.

EDUCATION.

The public school system of Cuba has been reorganized, improved, and extended by the military government. A number of modern schoolhouses have been erected, school furniture, supplies, and textbooks have been provided, courses of study have been revised, and methods of teaching have been partially reformed. There has been a movement toward an equality of school advantages for all classes of the population. The old system of having the children of well-to-do parents pay fees, thus putting the children of the working people who cared to attend school upon a charity basis and at a very positive disadvantage in the matter of instruction, has been abolished. While there are still many country districts without schools, and city schools have not usually seating capacity for the entire population of school age, a very large majority of the children of Cuba can now, if they wish to do so, acquire at least the elements of an education at public expense.

Only night schools are open to adults. The most important of these are supported by private societies and will be considered in another section of this report.

In the matter of technical instruction Cuba is more backward than in the general field of public education. At the provincial institutes, which are secondary schools, some courses in engineering and agricultural science are given. But far more important than these is the Arts and Crafts School—if we may so translate the Spanish *Artes y Oficios*—for which a new building, one of the finest in Habana, has just been completed. This institution is largely the result of the initiative and enthusiasm of two or three Cuban teachers, one of whom is director of the school. After a beginning had been made the Spanish Government further organized and gave financial assistance to the enterprise. The military government has given special attention to this branch of education, and to this school in particular. The school now occupies a building in the outskirts of Habana, which is largely given over to shops and laboratories. It will utilize the new building just mentioned, which is upon the same grounds, for class rooms, library, and museum. The aim of the school is to be practical, and announcements of the courses and conditions of admission are posted in the more important industrial establishments of Habana. Tuition is free, there are no dormitories, and adults are admitted. The

object of the school is stated in the announcement to be "to give such general education and such instruction in the principles and applications of the mechanic and industrial arts as will form instructed and skillful apprentices, qualified to become good mechanics and shop foremen."

The day courses consist of—(a) A preparatory course: Children able to read and write and over 11 years of age are admitted. Besides the common-school subjects, the elements of geometry and drawing are taught. There is also manual training or shop work. (b) A technical course: Children 12 years of age or over who have completed the subjects of the preparatory course are admitted. This course is for three years, and besides advanced work in some of the common-school subjects includes instruction in secondary-school mathematics and descriptive geometry, theoretical and applied elementary physics, chemistry, and mechanics, bookkeeping and industrial economy, freehand, mechanical, and ornamental drawing, and shop work in the following subjects: Masonry, carpentry and turning, cabinetmaking and carving, mechanics and machine work, boiler making and pipe fitting, and electricity. (c) Special advanced courses in architectural construction, machine construction, and industrial physics and chemistry.

There are three night courses, one covering the common-school subjects and secondary mathematics; the second consisting of physics, chemistry, and mechanics, with industrial applications; the third devoted to freehand, mechanical, and ornamental drawing. The last subject includes design. Some ladies are at present taking the third of these courses.

It would seem that the activity of the Government in extending and improving educational advantages must necessarily precede any effective reform in labor legislation. It is principally by indirect legislation, such as a sound, well-administered savings-bank act, that the working classes can be materially helped at present. The strict enforcing of the compulsory-education law would do much to remedy the evil of child labor in the cafés. Very few dangerous occupations are pursued in Cuba, and the need of an employers' liability act is therefore less felt than it would be in a country where there was more complex industrial development. Even railway employment in Cuba affords few risks to a man of ordinary agility. Mutual aid societies take the place of casualty insurance to some extent. The civil code and code of procedure now in force provide sufficient remedies for the adjustment of wage and damage disputes between employers and employees if the existing laws are justly administered.

COOPERATIVE AND BENEFIT SOCIETIES.

HOTELS.

The history of workingmen's cooperative societies in Cuba during the twenty-two years since they were first organized is not one of uniform harmony in internal administration or success in financial policy. Still, some societies no longer in existence were not unqualified failures, and broke up only after some years of successful operation, while there are at least one or two that have survived all the storms and turmoils of more than twenty years of continuous life, in spite of war, revolution, blockade, currency changes, and change of government. The most important of these is La Reguladora, a cooperative workingmen's hotel, founded in 1881 and still running successfully in Habana. Twenty-one years of conservative management and uniform success in this case seem to prove that under right conditions and with sufficient experience, Cuban workingmen are competent to conduct such enterprises. This institution has gone through the dangerous process of expansion and contraction. Originally only a boarding house, it later added a bakery and tailor shop with the idea of supplying in the course of time all the necessities purchased by workingmen. But when it was found that the administration of a too complex business might imperil the profits and safe management of the society, the clothing branch of the enterprise was abandoned. The members of this organization are mostly cigar makers. There are 2,118 shares, originally of a par value of \$25 in paper currency, which then amounted to about \$10 in gold. The increase in assets has enabled the association to place the par value at \$25 gold (\$22.50 American) without decreasing dividends or making an assessment. No member can own more than 20 shares. There are at present about 220 shareholders, and last year a gold dividend of over 17 per cent was paid. The assets of the society are about \$65,000 gold (\$58,500 American), and include a three-story building in Amistad street, Habana, with 23 furnished rooms, café, dining rooms, and kitchen, besides servants' quarters. The bakery is in another building. This hotel is patronized almost entirely by working people. The rooms are comfortably furnished and well kept, and the table is considered better than the average in Habana.

There is an institution similar to La Reguladora at Cardenas. It is conducted and patronized mostly by railway employees.

BUILDING SOCIETIES.

Another form of cooperative enterprise which is proving successful among Cuban workingmen is the terminating building society for constructing tenements for members. These associations are quite different from the building and loan societies of the United States, and

from the various sanitary improvement companies of our larger cities. Many of them are very young, in fact just perfecting their organization, and from their nature will be of brief duration as individual societies. The method of forming them is for a number of workmen, preferably not less than a hundred, to organize by electing officers, and registering the name and other required data with the provincial governor. There is no official fee charged for registration, and no attorney need be employed. Each member pays weekly into the treasury a certain sum fixed by the constitution or by-laws—usually a dollar, silver. As soon as sufficient money has accumulated a tract of cheap land is purchased in the name of the society, and subdivided into building lots. Thereafter as often as the receipts amount to a sufficient sum, dwellings are erected of a uniform cost, according to contracts and plans approved by a majority of the members. Whenever a cottage is completed members draw lots to decide who shall occupy it. The occupant then pays a stipulated rent to the association in addition to his regular dues. When cottages have thus been provided for all the members, rent ceases, each member receives a clear title to the house he occupies, and the society, having attained its object, dissolves. As the income of the association is increased by rents as fast as dwellings are completed, building usually goes on very rapidly during the last months of the society's existence. There are special provisions to protect heirs in case of the death of members, and to carry along members for a reasonable time when illness or lack of employment prevents their paying dues. A fraternal and cooperative spirit is usually manifested in the way these organizations are organized and conducted.

This plan, however, is not so novel in principle as to deserve especially extended mention had it not already been placed in successful operation in such a way as practically to solve, in one town at least, the problem of housing comfortably the working people. This has been done by the Union and Progress Cooperative Building Society of Bejucal, a small town about 18 miles south of Habana. Most of the operatives in the village are tobacco workers, and these constitute a majority of the members of the society. They are mostly men who earn from \$6 to \$20 silver (\$4.20 to \$14 American) a week. The constitution of the society provides that it shall consist of 115 members, who shall pay weekly dues of \$1 silver (70 cents American). No member may have more than one share. If he wishes to invest more than the amount specified at once, he may pay his dues any number of weeks in advance, but the whole society profits by the interest on his money. When a member can not pay his dues on account of illness, his share is assessed pro rata upon the other members for six months, and this money he is not required to repay to the society. A somewhat similar arrangement is made in case a member can not pay his dues on account

of lack of employment, but the member must reimburse the society for the amount thus advanced to his credit. Membership and past dues are forfeited to the association by default of six successive payments without just cause.

As the traveler approaches Bejucal upon the railway from Habana his attention is attracted by rows of red tile roofs in the outskirts of the town and a general appearance of freshness and prosperity in that quarter quite unusual for a Cuban village. This attractive group consists of 15 or 20 detached cottages of 3 rooms each, with verandas, outhouses, and gardens. All of these have been erected by the society just mentioned during the first year of its existence and land has been purchased for twice as many more. These cottages are undoubtedly the best workingmen's tenements to be found in any Cuban town of equal size. Built under a contract which covers the erection of all the cottages to be built, they each cost \$344 gold (\$309.60 American). Of course there is nothing to prevent a member who receives a cottage on allotment from adding other conveniences and adornments at his own expense. The effect of the success of this society so far has been to reduce rents in the village and thus to benefit all of the working people. Judging from the situation in February, 1902, when Bejucal was visited, it would be difficult to find in Cuba or elsewhere a more successful effort of the working people to better their material condition through self-help.

A more pretentious organization of this sort was founded in Habana in 1901, and is known as the "Union and Savings Cooperative Building Society for Houses for Workingmen." Of the 69 founders but 33 were salaried employees or wage-earners; a number were merchants and brokers, and 5 were members of monastic orders. This society constructs houses of 3 classes, graded according to cost, and has different schedules of dues. There are "active" and "passive" members, the latter having no right to vote or hold office. This is in order to admit married women and minors. There are many places in Habana where cards are posted stating that memberships to this society are received within. The prospectus of the association is a very attractive document, and dissipates any doubt a stranger may have as to the ability of the Cuban promoter to present his projects in a lucid and convincing manner. Whether the directors will be able to carry out their more complicated plan of organization successfully, and win, deserve, and retain the confidence of investors does not seem yet decided

SAVINGS BANKS.

For many years there was a savings bank in Cuba with a considerable sum of deposits, but it failed in the eighties during the financial crisis attending paper inflation. One of the principal officers committed suicide and the depositors lost all their money. Mark Twain

somewhere says that a cat that has sat down on a hot griddle will not sit down even on a cold griddle afterwards, and this has been exactly the attitude of small depositors in Cuba toward all sorts of banks since the event mentioned. Indeed there were no institutions in the island receiving savings deposits until after the American occupation, when the North American Trust Company, or "Cuban National Bank," as it is now named, established a separate department for this purpose. The Royal Bank of Canada later opened a similar department in its Habana branch. The Cuban National Bank receives deposits at Habana and at its Santiago, Manzanillo, and Cardenas branches, the Royal Bank of Canada only at Habana. Three per cent interest is paid, and a minimum deposit of \$5 is required. Most of the depositors have been American Government employees and soldiers. Some laboring men and mechanics have begun to make deposits, however, and though this patronage is very small it doubtless will grow as confidence in the banks becomes established. At present the small savings of the working people are stored away in their homes or in case of clerical employees allowed to accumulate in the hands of their employers. There is no special savings-bank law. The Cuban workman is sometimes blamed for gambling and buying lottery tickets, but these were the only means of investment placed in his reach. To a man looking at the situation through his eyes, it is not at all strange that he staked his small capital in the only place where there was even the promise of a return.

MONTE DE PIEDAD.

Habana has a Monte de Piedad, an old institution similar to those of the same name in European and South American countries, which was founded under the auspices of the Spanish Government and is still more or less under official supervision and direction. The funds with which the institution was started were derived from various lotteries. Its purpose is to loan money upon jewelry, plate, and other articles not likely to depreciate in value. Eight per cent interest is charged. The original charter limited the powers of the governors sufficiently to prevent some of the benefits of such an institution from being realized, but not sufficiently to prevent the funds from leaking away. It is now proposed to reorganize the corporation and authorize it by a new charter to extend its operations so as to receive small savings deposits of 25 cents and upward, to pay interest upon them, and to establish branches in public schools and factories. The scope of its loaning activity would be broadened to cover mortgage loans upon real property, as in the United States. If wisely and honestly conducted, such an institution as has been planned would be a great material help as well as a great educational benefit to the poorer classes of Habana.

There are numerous licensed pawnshops in Habana and other cities. The legal interest rate is 18 per cent per annum, but it is reported that

as high as 10 per cent a month is sometimes charged. Much furniture and wearing apparel are to be found in these establishments, and, judging by the steady supply of unredeemed pledges offered for sale, property that once gets into the hands of the brokers seldom returns to the owner.

RAILWAY EMPLOYEES' AID AND SAVINGS SOCIETY.

There are many mutual benefit societies in Cuba, and they seem to serve their purpose for a short period, but none of them have attained the age, wealth, and dignity of workingmen's mutual aid and fraternal associations in other countries. Leaving the great Spanish clubs for later consideration, the most important of those now in existence is the Railway Employees' Savings and Mutual Aid Society, founded in 1895. The constitution of this society is fairly typical for all similar associations in Cuba. Membership is limited to railway employees, but is not forfeited in case a member in good standing ceases to be in the service of a railway company. The dues consist of an entrance fee of 4 per cent of the monthly salary of the applicant, or the sum nearest to that amount in even dollars, a fixed monthly due of 20 cents (18 cents American), which is equal for all members, and a proportional monthly due of 3 per cent of the member's salary.

The receipts are distributed as follows:

(a) A savings fund, with a permanent capital formed of the entrance fees of the members. One-third of the proportional monthly dues are also destined to this fund. Members may make voluntary deposits in addition if they care to do so.

(b) A mutual aid fund, formed from the accumulations from one-third of the proportional monthly dues devoted to this purpose. This fund is for the assistance of members in case of illness or of their families in case of death.

(c) A pension fund, composed of one-third of the receipts from proportional monthly dues, and devoted to pensioning incapacitated members and the widows and orphans of members.

(d) A burial fund, composed of one-half of the fixed monthly dues of the members. The other half of the fixed monthly dues is appropriated to the support of the official organ of the society.

The amount of money a person may receive from the mutual aid or the pension fund is proportioned to his salary and to the length of time he has been a member of the association.

The savings fund and the permanent capital of the mutual aid and the pension funds—for the accumulation of which special provisions are made—must be invested in first mortgages, interests in estates, certain public and railway securities, or in the purchase of income-bearing real estate.

Loans may also be made from the savings fund to the members of the society, but such loans shall not exceed three months' salary, and, except in special instances, shall not exceed one month's salary, and shall be repayable in monthly installments. Payment of such loans must be guaranteed by one or more members, whose monthly salary or salaries shall exceed the difference between the amount borrowed and the credit of the borrower in the savings fund. These loans are made at an interest of 2 per cent a month.

There is a general meeting of the society twice a year, at which a report of the finances of the association is read and, upon approval, ordered printed. Besides the usual officers there is a board of 10 directors, serving two years, one-half of whom are elected annually. This board has direct charge of the administration of the funds of the society.

Some of the railway companies cooperate with the association to the extent of collecting the monthly dues of the members.

The report for the second semester of 1900 shows 544 members. There are employees of four of the five principal roads and of the Habana electric railway upon the rolls. The cash receipts of the society during this semester were in round numbers \$27,000 gold (\$24,300 American), of which \$6,000 (\$5,400 American) was derived from the various dues, \$16,000 (\$14,400 American) from the repayment of loans and mortgages, \$2,000 (\$1,800 American) from voluntary deposits, and the remainder from various minor sources. The expenditures were in round numbers \$24,000 (\$21,600 American), among the principal items being \$14,000 (\$12,600 American) for loans, \$2,000 (\$1,800 American) for the aid of members, \$1,000 (\$900 American) for pensions, and \$300 (\$270 American) for burial fees. During the semester 231 loans were made to members of the society. In other words, the number of loans was 42 per cent of the number of memberships. The savings fund amounted to over \$12,000 (\$10,800 American). The average credit of each member in this fund was only a little over \$22 (\$19.80 American), the largest single deposit being \$235 (\$211.50 American). Fourteen members had credits ranging from \$100 to \$200 (\$90 to \$180 American); all others were less than \$100 (\$90 American). Interest at the rate of 10 per cent per annum was declared upon deposits in this fund. The mutual aid fund had supplied assistance to 146 sick members during the semester. The average amount received by each person granted help was between \$11 and \$12 (\$9.90 and \$10.80 American). During the five years of the society's existence more than \$10,000 (\$9,000 American) had been distributed in sick benefits. The permanent capital of the pension fund was slightly under \$10,000 (\$9,000 American), and was increasing at the rate of \$3,000 (\$2,700 American) annually. Of this amount \$7,400 (\$6,660 American)

was invested in mortgages. There were 19 pensions being paid, 2 to the orphans and 17 to the widows of deceased members. These pensions varied from a minimum of \$5 (\$4.50 American) to a maximum of \$21 (\$18.90 American) a month.

The typographers have a mutual aid society, connected with the confederation, or labor union, which gives assistance to sick members and provides for burial expenses. Assessments are equal for all members and are only large enough to meet current demands upon the treasury of the association. A fund of between \$75 and \$100 (\$67.50 and \$90 American) is kept on hand for emergencies.

There are other societies of this character, some connected with and some independent of the various unions. One requires that its members shall have been vaccinated. In another the head of a family pays higher dues than an unmarried member, and in case of illness receives assistance proportioned to the number of persons directly dependent upon him for support.

SPANISH CLUBS.

The most important organizations in Cuba that have been formed for the purpose of self-help and mutual assistance are the two great Spanish provincial clubs—the Asturian and the Galician societies—and the Association of Commercial Employees of Habana. These bodies not only fulfill most of the objects of mutual aid societies, but they serve many important social and educational purposes as well. While Spanish in conception and organization, and predominantly Spanish in membership, the color line is the only line drawn in admitting outsiders to their privileges. In the Asturian and Galician societies, which are distinctively national clubs, directors and officers must be natives of the provinces represented. The Association of Commercial Employees also requires that its directors and officers shall be Spaniards. The importance of these clubs will be better understood when it is stated that their combined membership is nearly 30,000 in Habana and vicinity, and is drawn from all ranks and classes of society.

The first of the present year the Galician society had 9,963 members, the Asturian society about 12,000, and the Association of Commercial Employees nearly the same number. The general organization of the three societies is about the same. There are the usual officers and a central board of directors, who are elected by all the members. The directors appoint special boards to look after the different groups of interests subserved by the club. These subordinate bodies are known as sections. All three of the clubs have at least three corresponding sections, supervising, respectively, instruction, charity, and the social activities of the organization. The charity section of the Galician society is named the "section of health and

protection to labor." The Association of Commercial Employees has two additional sections—one of music and one of "moral and material interests," which has charge of the library and of commercial information and instruction.

These three clubs occupy commodious quarters of considerable elegance in the central part of Habana, and each of them also owns an extensive and well-conducted hospital and sanitarium in the suburbs of that city. The Association of Commercial Employees has just appropriated \$250,000 gold (\$225,000 American) for a new building near the Prado. The annual income of the Galician society is more than \$160,000 in gold (\$144,000 American), and its net assets represent \$250,000 in the same currency (\$225,000 American). While the exact assets and income of the Asturian society have not been published, they are supposed to be larger than those of either of the other societies. Both the Asturian and the Galician societies are at present making extensive additions to their hospitals.

The dues of the three clubs are the same, \$1.50 silver (\$1.05 American) a month for each member. These dues entitle members to receive all the advantages offered by any of the sections of the society for themselves and their families. From the general income of the club special appropriations are made to each of the several sections, according to estimates and budgets presented by their respective officers, sufficient to meet the expenses of each during the current year.

It is the special duty of the directors of the social section to provide receptions, balls, theatrical entertainments, and reunions of various kinds for members of the club and their invited guests at such times as custom and convenience may dictate.

The charity section—which is not a "charity" section in the usual sense of the word, but rather, as the Spanish name indicates, a beneficiary department of the club—has supervision of the hospital and sanitarium and of cases where medicinal or financial assistance is granted to members of the society. The Asturian society, for example, pays traveling expenses and gives \$15 silver (\$10.50 American) a month for six months to members whose health requires an immediate change of climate. The funeral expenses of members who leave no means for this purpose are paid by the society.

The educational sections of the three clubs provide free instruction for members and their families. Each club maintains a good library of standard works and the principal periodicals, which is also usually in charge of the educational section. Lectures, both popular and scientific, are provided, and regular day and night schools are conducted. The schools of the Asturian society have nearly 4,000 pupils enrolled, of whom 700 are in the night classes. Both sexes are admitted. The age of pupils ranges from 8 years in the day school to 50 in some of the night classes. The common branches, modern languages, drawing, and commercial subjects are taught. Generally, if 10 or more

pupils desire to form a class in any subject which they are prepared to take and for which a competent instructor can be found, the directors of the school will provide the teacher. The school of the Galician society has a faculty of 13. The total enrollment last year was 2,127, of whom 395 were ladies. Over 1,700 of these passed a satisfactory examination at the close of the year. Common school and commercial branches, music, and drawing were taught. The school of the Association of Commercial Employees contains a proportionally larger enrollment of adults than either of the others, and more attention is given to modern languages and the commercial branches. In the classes of this school gray-haired clerks and young boys were found sitting side by side trying to master the elements of the English language. Recently the Asturian society opened special classes in Spanish for the benefit of American members desiring to learn that language, but these have been closed with the approach of the hot season on account of lack of attendance.

Taken altogether, it is seen that the organizations just described exercise a very important and beneficent social and educational influence in Havana. They are perhaps even more democratic than approximately similar organizations in the United States—the Young Men's Christian Association, for instance. Agents of the provincial societies meet Spanish immigrants when they land, whether they be merchants, mechanics, or ordinary laborers coming over in the steerage, and invite them to become members. At social meetings and in the night classes there seems to be no discrimination against the poor man. There are no evidences of vulgarity or dissipation at the balls and entertainments, though from the promiscuous character of the membership these are decidedly public affairs. Partly, perhaps, because his Government does so little for him in a practical way, the Spaniard is an adept at providing through private associations many of the things that Americans look for from municipal and other public corporations. His charities and his schools are thus conducted in Cuba. Possibly he gets more for his money than the American citizen. In any case, these clubs and other similar, though smaller, organizations have a very important influence in ameliorating the condition of Spanish labor in Cuba.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.

GENERAL CHARACTER.

It has been mentioned that trade unions began to be organized in Cuba at the close of the ten years' insurrection, in the seventies, by emigrants returning from the United States and familiar with the labor movement there, and that later several partially successful attempts were made to federate all the unions of the island. At the present time many of the trades are organized in the larger towns.

The workingmen have formed general groups in the smaller places, associating themselves together without much regard to their special occupations and with rather indefinite objects; and local federations, leagues, or associations of unions have grown up in four or five of the more important cities. But the movement of organized labor has not yet become a well-directed and efficient force in Cuban political or social life. The members confuse labor policy and interests with other kinds of policy and interests and do not concentrate upon any one object. They allow themselves to be distracted by national and political prejudices and diverse social theories from anything like a well-ordered campaign. They are not intelligently disciplined and support personal leaders rather than policies and principles. The rank and file do not back up the demands of their leaders with a firm front, and when the latter have been cowed or influenced their followers give up the struggle. The demands made of employers are often impracticable and shortsighted. Workmen seem to have great faith in manifestoes and other purely atmospheric weapons. In short, Cuban trade unions are still on a rather academic basis and the members are conducting a sham battle rather than a real fight for their interests.

There are at least thirty-two labor organizations registered in the province of Habana. Some of these may no longer be in existence, as such bodies are frequently short lived; but the average number of unions in Habana city is between twenty and thirty. There is an incomplete directory of these published in a Cienfuegos labor periodical, which contains the names and addresses of twenty organizations. These include the various unions of longshoremen and tobacco workers, which are most important in numbers and influence, and those of the various building and clothing trades, coachmen, cooks, restaurant employees, laundrymen, and street venders. In Cienfuegos itself there are sixteen unions forming a local federation known as the "Circle of Workingmen," which has permanent quarters in Colon street and publishes a monthly paper called *La Federacion*. The longshoremen of the city have separate quarters in Santa Clara street. Dairy men and butchers are organized in Cienfuegos and the sponge fishers are organized at Batabano. In the city of Matanzas there is a local federation of ten unions, including the longshoremen, which is called the "Workingmen's Circle." It has quarters in Manzana street and publishes a periodical named *El Tipografo*. There is another "Circle of Workingmen" at Santiago and a "League of Workingmen" at Cardenas, both of which include several unions.

FEDERATION MOVEMENT.

The eastern end of Cuba has been the scene of an active movement during the past year, the object of which was to organize and federate all the labor of the island. In June, 1901, a Mr. Enrique Artola, a representative of the committee of propaganda of the workingmen's

circle of Puerto Principe, started upon a tour of that province, Santiago, and Santa Clara, which later was extended to other parts of the island. His mission was professedly twofold—to organize labor and to bring the influence of workingmen to bear in securing reciprocity with the United States. This confusion of quite different aims in a campaign of this sort is characteristic of such movements in Cuba. The programme of the proposed and partly realized federation is (1) to protect labor interests; (2) to support by its influence in every legitimate manner each individual union of the federation in securing its rights; (3) to avoid all political alliances; (4) to secure tariff concessions in the interest of trade and local industries.

Judging from newspaper reports, Mr. Artola received the support of municipal authorities and employers in his enterprise. In small places the unions often were composed of employers as well as employees. Labor organizations are mentioned as existing at over thirty different towns. Upon visiting some of these places a few months after Mr. Artola, however, these societies appeared to be rather quiescent. In the large cities, where they have been in existence for a longer time, they have greater vitality.

While these unions and leagues of unions have arisen as a result of labor ideas from the United States, filtered into Cuba through the tobacco trades, there has been an older, if less potent, influence at work modifying the effect of the imported tendencies. This is the tradition of the old Spanish *gremios*, or trade guilds, which have already been mentioned. It is doubtful if Spanish authorities and employers realized that anything more than a revival of these associations was intended when the early unions first applied for registration in Habana, for the names of the new bodies were the same, and many of the details of the organization were borrowed from their older namesakes. Guilds had been in existence in Habana and some of the larger cities before this time, and the workingmen themselves were not conscious of any abrupt change of policy and purpose in their organizations. So they have retained features of the older societies in their modern unions, but the main elements of strength and value in the guild system have been lost. There is no regulation of apprenticeship and no attempt to set standards of skill for qualified workmen. No communal property is held. But, on the other hand, there is not the sharp division of class consciousness and interests recognized between employer and employee that characterizes the modern trade-union movement. The degree to which this is true varies in different trades. Among longshoremen, where the nature of the business compels it, and among tobacco workers, where the industry is highly organized and conducted under the factory system, a pretty close line of separation between capitalist and laborer is drawn; but in the bakers' unions many employees and shopowners are found, and the

same is true of several other trades. The president of the typographical union of Cienfuegos during 1901 was the owner of a printing establishment. The present year his employees have struck on account of the presence of a nonunion workman in the office. In the smaller and remoter towns, where there is a single organization of all the workingmen—as in case of many of the places visited by Mr. Artola—the societies are formed only in part of wage-earners. There are many proprietors of shops and independent workmen among the members. Thus, while there is more or less organization among working classes throughout Cuba, trade unionism, in the strict sense of the word, exists only in certain crafts and in the larger cities.

The working people as a class have not yet taken an active part in politics, nor have the unions been aggressive in demanding special legislation in behalf of labor interests. In the city of Santa Clara there was a municipal labor ticket in the field this year, but the candidate for alcalde was a landed proprietor, and there appears to have been no sharp class division in the campaign.

STRENGTH OF UNIONS.

The numerical strength of the unions in Habana and one or two other cities is considerable. In both Cienfuegos and Matanzas the number of men belonging to the organizations included in the local federation is about 2,000. These men or their leaders could wield much influence in local affairs if they were so minded, and there is a disposition to conciliate them on the part of politicians, employers, and merchants. In fact, the unions have been aggressively opposed principally by American and English managers and capitalists.

The Habana unions, while not federated, are individually stronger than those of other cities. The cigar sorters have 320 members; the compositors, 400; the restaurant employees, 300; the bakers, 296, and the cigar makers' unions are much larger than these. There are several places in the city which are labor centers. One of them is at the corner of Monte and Amistad streets, where several of the tobacco workers' unions and the cooks and restaurant men have quarters; another is in the Café Diana, in Reina street, where several other tobacco workers' unions meet. The halls are usually rather bare and not particularly sumptuous places from any point of view. A few cheap desks contain the literature and the books of the secretaries of the different organizations occupying the room, and there are ordinary wooden chairs and a battered table or two to serve at meetings.

Quite an exception in this respect are the rooms of the compositors' union, in O'Reilly street, which are well furnished and have the air of comfortable club apartments. This union publishes its own paper, the *Memorandum Tipográfico*. Several Americans are members of the organization. There is also an American plumbers' union of some

20 members, which has its own quarters and is not connected with the local labor associations. The railway engineers and mechanics are organized into a society known as the Knights of Labor. Membership is open to all engineers and machinists of the island who are 21 years of age or over and can read and write. The dues are \$1 a month. There are general sessions of the society twice a year, at which time one-half of the board of directors is renewed. Provision is made for local branches in different towns, which shall have representation upon the board of directors of the general society. The following are stated among the objects of the organization: (1) To defend the rights and interests of members; (2) to prevent incompetent persons from exercising the profession of engineer; (3) to prevent the use of dangerous engines and machinery; (4) to secure indemnification for injuries suffered by members while following their profession. In order that the union rate of wages may be maintained, there is an article in the constitution of the society that requires all members to secure a special authorization from the board of directors, or in case of urgency from the president of the association, before accepting an appointment to a position. This society is the only one in Cuba at present that has an active membership extending beyond a single city.

RADICALS AND CONSERVATIVES.

The earlier attempts at federation, which were mentioned in the historical section of this report, were followed in Habana by two local federations—the Workingmen's Alliance and the Workingmen's Union—which represented, respectively, the radical and the conservative factions among the workingmen. The tobacco trades were dominant in both these federations. When they reorganized last year the Alliance or radical society adopted the name Habana Cigar Makers' Union, and confined its membership to that trade. The conservative federation is now known as the General League of Cuban Workingmen. Each society has an official organ, published weekly, that of the former being *La Defensa* and that of the latter *La Alerta*. It is rather significant that the radical society is largely Spanish and the conservative largely Cuban. In a copy of *La Defensa*, the radical and Spanish organ, which chances to be at hand, the following quotation from Tolstoi occupies a prominent place as a separate paragraph: "Sages have told us that law is an expression of the will of the people. But always and everywhere the men who have sincerely wished to comply with the law have been much fewer than those who wished to violate it and refrained from doing so simply for fear of penalties. So it is evident that law can never be looked upon as the will of the people."

The League of Cuban Workingmen nominally represents all the working people of Cuba, and has for one object the federation of all

organized labor in the island. It is opposed to the alleged monopolizing of certain trades by Spaniards, and so has assumed a pro-native attitude. It also opposes the anarchistic or revolutionary tendencies of the other organization just mentioned. According to its secretary the league consists at present of representatives from 26 different trades and establishments, and is strongest among the cigar makers, from whose ranks it has 1,200 members. It has correspondents in other cities of the island acting as agents of propaganda. Its progress has been slow, partly on account of the ignorance and apathy of the workingmen, and partly because the ideal of an organization seeking the best interests of labor as a class—and not those of some particular trade—is a new one to Cubans. The league took no part in the Tampa strike, though it sent an agent to the field of action, on account of the race questions that entered into that conflict, many Cubans claiming that the Tampa factories are managed in the interest of Spanish operatives, that these are hostile to the employment of Cubans, and that the fight of the cigar makers at that place was one that ought not to command the sympathy and support of Cuban workmen for this reason. However this may be, there is evidently an element of race antagonism in the present dissensions among the cigar operatives of Cuba. How sincerely workingmen are divided along lines separating conservatives from radicals is a question more difficult to decide. The native Cuban is not of a sanguinary temperament, and perhaps has little natural inclination to anarchistic theories. During a half century of turmoil, insurrection, and oppression by a foreign government he did not commit a single political assassination. It is quite possible that he is temperamentally averse to many of the doctrines brought over by the Spanish immigrants from Barcelona.

But, whatever their source, there are frequent evidences of a more lawless spirit among Cuban workingmen than prevails among their saner and more experienced brethren of the North. In a broadside issued to the restaurant employees, recently picked up in a Habana café, this phrase occurs: "Tis ours to defend ourselves and to adopt all means in our power for our protection, although they may appear to be illegal." From another source—this time a labor periodical—the following is taken: "The idea of a universal strike is gaining ground in America and Europe. That which to-day is an aspiration will to-morrow be a reality. The world moves."

STRIKES.

A constant succession of petty strikes and labor disputes occurs in Habana and other cities, but these seldom attain a degree of importance sufficient to disturb business or even to arouse the passing attention of the majority of workingmen. There is much ignorance among the

organized labor of one trade as to what is taking place in another, and sympathetic strikes are as yet only a theory in Cuba. The Government had some trouble with its employees at one time, which was adjusted by granting them an eight-hour day. Two or three long-shoremen's strikes that threatened to be serious have been arbitrated by the intervention of Government officials. Many of the strikes among the cigar makers are occasioned by personal objections to the factory foremen. The compositors' union in Habana maintains a strike fund, which amounted to \$570 gold (\$513 American) in February, 1902. This was directly after a short and unsuccessful strike on one of the leading dailies of the city, caused by the employment of a non-union American pressman, which resulted in the particular office in question being lost to organized labor. This union pays strike assistance of \$1 gold (90 cents American) a day to members losing their positions through acts authorized by the organization, for a period of three months, or less if employment is sooner secured. The funds for this purpose are raised by an equal assessment upon all employed members of the union. Similar strike funds are maintained by some of the other unions, notably the railway engineers.

The following account of a brush between organized labor and a large employer, related by a prominent official of one of the Cuban railways, illustrates how a strike situation may develop unusual features in that island, especially in the nature of the demands made by workingmen:

The foreign machinists, who were the first locomotive engineers in Cuba, enjoyed many privileges and received high salaries. Their native successors were able to maintain most of these advantages, and the locomotive engineers were the most powerful and thoroughly organized branch of railway employees—generally recognized as leaders by the other railway unions. They were also able in many ways to influence or dictate the policy of the roads under the loose methods of management prevailing in Spanish times. No Negroes were admitted to this employment by the unions. There was no line of promotion from firemen to engineers—a man engaging in the former occupation becoming practically ineligible to the latter. Locomotive engineers were paid \$137 gold (\$123.30 American) a month, firemen just one hundred dollars less. Under the system of personal influence and political patronage—or “protection,” as it is locally called—which characterized the patron and client relations common in all industries of Cuba, the railways were overloaded with long pay rolls of superfluous employees, many of whom rendered no service in return for their salaries. This abuse created a spirit of paternalism in the dealings of the management with the employees fatal to strict discipline and economical management, and this still further increased the influence of the more thoroughly organized unions, who were contending with a weak directorate and assisted by many and powerful outside connections, both personal and political.

During the late insurrection many locomotive engineers, influenced by national sympathies or by the danger attending their occupation

on account of the operations of the insurgents against the railways, resigned their positions, and for the first time firemen were promoted to take their places. At the close of the war, however, the influence of the engineers' union was sufficient to secure the reduction of these new engineers and the reinstatement of the engineers who had resigned to their old positions; but on account of the shattered resources of the railways and the generally depressed industrial condition, their salaries were lowered to \$120 gold (\$108 American) a month. There was a dispute between the engineers and the management as to whether this reduction was understood to be temporary or permanent. Such was the situation in the spring of 1901.

At this time the secretary of public works, who was honorary president of the engineers' union, and one of whose inspectors was treasurer of that organization, issued an order governing the licensing of engineers, which confined admission to that employment to candidates who had passed successfully a Government examination, which was to be held annually and partly in writing and to cover general technical and scientific branches and theoretical as well as practical knowledge of locomotive construction and management. The requirements, if enforced, practically demanded that an engineer be qualified to repair or construct his own engine. This order was to take effect October 1, 1901.

About two months previous to the latter date the engineers' union, which under this order included practically all men who could be legally employed as engine drivers, and so had a monopoly of this occupation for the island, presented to the management of the roads a written statement of their demands, which were in substance as follows:

(1) The old salary of \$137 gold (\$123.30 American) a month should be restored for all engineers, including those in charge of yard engines and engines on plantation siding, or "cane handlers."

(2) Engineers should be allowed one day out of every six at full pay.

(3) Engineers should not be transferred from one engine to another, and in case their regular engine were disabled should receive full pay during the time it was undergoing repairs.

(4) Engineers should receive social recognition from the management.

The manager stated that the last demand was orally interpreted by the representatives of the union to mean that their families should be placed on the calling and invitation lists of the manager's and directors' families.

The railroad decided to resist these demands, and made a presentation of the whole case to General Wood, who suspended the order of the secretary of public works for one month—to prevent a complete tie-up of the roads—modified that order by a clause providing for its suspension in case of strikes, and caused the examinations to be given quarterly instead of annually, and to be confined principally to determining the practical knowledge and qualifications of candidates.

The railway management at once discharged those employees who had been prominent in the agitation and promoted firemen to their positions, all but one of whom passed the required examination. There was one Negro among them.

The engineers were weakened in their contest with the company by the fact that the firemen were hostile to their demands on account of

their own exclusion from promotion and the fact that at the close of the war members of their own union had been reduced from the rank of engineers to firemen at the demand of the engineers' organization.

Upon the railway in question engineers' salaries are now graded according to the responsibility of the positions they occupy, regular train engineers receiving \$120 gold (\$108 American) a month; but some men on cane siding engines receive only half that amount. On the other hand, firemen's wages have been raised.

The engineers' union is still in control and the old system still remains in force—so far as wages and conditions of work are concerned—on some of the other railroads.

ORGANIZATION.

The general organization of unions in Cuba does not differ materially from that of similar bodies in the United States. There are the usual officers and an executive committee. In the smaller unions these are elected by the vote of all the members assembled in general session, but in larger organizations, like the cigar makers' societies, each shop or factory is represented by delegates. No race line is drawn in the matter of membership, and occasionally it is provided that both races shall be represented on the directorate or executive committee. Dues are usually 20 cents silver (14 cents American) a week or \$1 (70 cents American) a month, the interval of collection depending upon the frequency with which wages are paid.

There is some sympathetic connection, or "solidarity" as it is called, with labor movements in other countries, especially in Spain and the United States. Over \$14,000 gold (\$12,600 American) was collected by the Habana unions for the support of the Tampa strikers in 1901, and in the spring of the present year a general committee from the organized labor of the same city was appointed to raise funds for the strikers of Barcelona.

While the more important organizations are conducted in good faith and in what are believed to be the interests of the laboring men, some unions are probably run for the benefit of a local "boss." This is more especially true among the most ignorant classes of workmen. The constitution of one laborers' union contains a special provision to the effect that the president and founder, who is mentioned by name, shall be the permanent president, shall always have the right to attend and vote at all sessions of the society, and that his portrait shall hang in its hall of meeting. Most of the unions have a wage tariff, which is usually higher than the prevailing rate of wages in the occupation they represent. The longshoremen are the only ones who have succeeded in having their union schedule well observed. This one fact is probably decisive in forming a judgment as to the power of organized labor in Cuba at the present time. Trade unionism, both in form and spirit, exists in some trades, and is having an influence in creating

a class consciousness among the working people of the island. Its most beneficent result has been in educating workmen into a theoretical belief at least in the dignity of labor, and in overcoming prejudices against manual occupations handed down from slavery times. Trade unionism and emancipation entered the island almost hand in hand. The unions are also a stronghold of the sentiment in favor of universal popular education, state control of indigents and orphans, and many other wholesome extensions of public activities much needed in Cuba. Negatively they have possibly operated in some instances to deter oppression or overreaching by employers. But as yet their positive influence in bettering the material condition of the working people has been very slight. It is fortunate that their power has not been greater, for the laboring classes of the island have not yet reached a stage of intelligence and self-discipline that qualifies them to share largely in the responsibilities of industrial control.

CONCLUSION.

TRANSFORMATION IN SUGAR INDUSTRY.

The material for this report was gathered during a period of acute economic depression in Cuba, caused primarily by the low price of sugar and accentuated by uncertainty as to the future trade relations of that island with the United States. But it has been intended to present as nearly as possible the status of labor under normal conditions. During the present crop season the question of unemployment has not been so serious in the island as a whole as might be imagined. The labor supply was very materially reduced by the insurrection and the deaths in the reconcentration camps, and though field employment was naturally lessened for a time by the destruction of the plantations, the restoring of these has recently engaged the investment of large amounts of capital, much of which has been spent in wages. A far greater proportion of the public revenues of the island has been expended in giving employment to the working people than ever before. The building of the Cuban Central Railroad has made it possible for every common laborer in the two largest provinces to have work for the asking at better wages than have been usual in the past. The tobacco industries, which engage the labor of a large per cent of the rural workers and of nearly all the factory population of Cuba, and the total value of whose product is approximately equal to that of sugar, have been normally prosperous. The fact that there has been a constant immigration from Spain during the last year, and that large contractors have to import labor from abroad, sufficiently indicates that work of some kind is to be had at wages high enough to attract men from a distance. The principal sufferers from the stagnation that has recently prevailed in some lines of business have been the

merchants and capitalists, and those special classes of workingmen whose employment is contingent upon a high degree of local prosperity—as in some branches of the clothing and building trades—or whose occupation is connected directly with the sugar industry. The cases of unemployment in the last instance, however, are not so much due to a temporary depression of prices as to fundamental changes that are taking place in the methods of the sugar industry itself. The concentration of the manufacture of sugar in a few large establishments has precisely the effect that the merging of several railway systems has upon salary lists. A large number of high-priced employees are dispensed with, the competition for positions of this class consequently becomes greater, and for a time there is a decline in the rate of compensation for a certain grade of work. An era of low prices, such as have recently prevailed, stimulates the introduction of labor-saving devices and lessens the number of men employed in proportion to product. This is the process now taking place in Cuba. Most of the old-style sugar plants were destroyed by the insurgents. There was a chance to begin with modern machinery and methods. The condition of the sugar market has made it imperative that economic ways of production should be studied. American capital and ideas of business organization have suddenly become predominant. When any industry goes through a transformation of this sort considerable property is apt to change hands, not always to the advantage of those who represent the old system. The traditional routine is destroyed. Men who have come back to nest in the same old job year after year since youth during each succeeding crop season, suddenly find the whole economic landscape changed and no place for them in the new scheme of things. All these facts have to be taken into consideration in weighing the comments of sugar planters and workmen upon the present situation in Cuba. One meets the representatives of the new régime, advocating reciprocity, but optimistic and confident in their ability to coin money out of their cane fields under normal trade conditions in the future. These men are figuring ahead and discounting the effect of present and future economies. On the other hand, there are planters who consider present prices only in relation to cost of production ten or twenty years ago, and not in relation to modern and prospective conditions. Many men of this class are hardly solvent, having borrowed money and made investments with only the old status of affairs in mind.

Employers of both classes agree that it is exceedingly difficult to economize in the cost of labor except where it is possible to substitute machinery for men. This is particularly true in case of field hands. In the cities and in skilled branches of sugar manufacture wages are less a matter of tradition and fluctuate more readily to meet trade conditions. In Matanzas sugarhouse mechanics and engineers,

who formerly were paid \$5 and \$6 gold (\$4.50 and \$5.40 American) a day during crop season, are working as ordinary helpers, and receive but \$1.50 silver (\$1.05 American) a day. In the neighborhood of the city cane cutters are to be had for 40 cents Spanish gold (36 cents American) a day, which is half the rate paid in some parts of the island. It has already been mentioned that in Santiago province the mines have been able to maintain a full output during the crop season because laborers were not drawn off as is done usually by the plantations. And yet, in traveling through the island, it is unusual to see a mill in working order that is not in operation. Cane was being ground in March on the Tuinicú River, 10 miles inland from Sancti Spiritus, where there was this long haul by ox cart and nearly 30 miles of expensive rail transportation to reach the nearest shipping port. Though planters were losing money, this fact was only beginning to react upon plantation laborers. The greater part of the rural workers of Cuba, even in the sugar districts, were busy during the crop season of 1902.

UNEMPLOYMENT.

In the cities the complaint of lack of employment seems occasionally better justified than in the rural districts. At Cienfuegos the unions reported one-third of their members idle or working part time. Without further information than is available, however, it is impossible to say that this condition has not frequently occurred in the past, simply from the crowding into urban occupations of restless incomers from the country. Cuban writers for thirty years have deplored the tendency of the laboring population to desert the fields for the city streets. There is a local depression of trade in some smaller towns, where a minor industry sprang up in former times, that is probably due to the freer entry of manufactured goods from abroad under the new tariff. For instance, in Colon there used to be some fifty shoemakers regularly employed in manufacturing shoes from native leather for the Cuban market. Most of these men are now out of work. But as Cuba imported more than a pair of shoes for every man, woman, and child in the island during the last financial year, the sugar question does not seem to be responsible for the situation in that town. So in many other local and minor industries, where there has not been a readjustment to the new trade conditions resulting from the war, there are instances of unemployment or even of occasional distress which are probably unavoidable during a period of political and economic change such as Cuba is now experiencing.

CURRENCY CONDITIONS.

Neither workingmen nor employers fully agree as to the exact cause of their present difficulties. In Habana there was but one answer—the low price of sugar. But there was very bitter complaint, especially

in the country and among the working people, over the retention of Spanish silver in circulation. It is a prevalent opinion among the laboring classes that the partial circulation of American currency in the island has lowered the purchasing power of silver. This is true where there is a large and constant influx of American money in the form of wage payments. Every tradesman, from the petty huckster to the wholesale merchant, hastens to adjust his prices to the new currency. Last February a native pony could be hired for \$1 silver (70 cents American) in the eastern part of Santa Clara; the following month, after one or two pay days on the new railroad, the same pony cost \$1 in American money. A similar advance occurred in the price of other articles and services. It is possible that in the course of time competition or some other process of readjustment will force prices back toward their old level, but for the time being the laborer whose wages continue to be paid in silver is a sufferer. Probably the payment of Government workmen in American money has produced a similar result in other parts of the island. The latter has practically displaced silver in Santiago. But where the new currency is once uniformly adopted and is used for all wage payments the ill effect complained of naturally ceases.

In any case the use of a triple currency—American, Spanish gold, and Spanish silver—the dollar of the second and third being, respectively, at 10 and 30 per cent discount on the American dollar, is without much doubt prejudicial to the interests of the working people of Cuba. Certain classes of labor, Government employees, clerks in large commercial houses, skilled mechanics in the railway service, and the higher-salaried employees in the sugar mills may profit by it, for they are paid in gold and are able to purchase in a silver market. Their real wages are somewhat more than their nominal wages, though the difference is not usually equivalent to the difference in exchange, for the prices in this silver market are not as low as they would be were there no gold and American currency in circulation. It is noticeable that in parts of the island where silver alone is used, and there are practically no workingmen paid in any other form of money, prices for the necessities of life range lower than elsewhere in Cuba, although nominal wages in silver may remain about the same. But the effect just mentioned as following the influx of American currency into Santa Clara has become a permanent result in many parts of Cuba. The competition of a higher class currency has lowered the purchasing power of wages paid in silver.

This is not an old established condition, to which the economic machinery of the island has long since adjusted itself. Silver currency has not been in use more than a decade and has depreciated gradually. The introduction of American currency is a new factor in the situation. And even though rates of discount remain fixed

the mere process of effecting exchange is a burden upon industry. Except in primary and central markets a workingman's wages are not worth to him their full exchange value in another form of currency. At the post-office, the railway station, or the merchant's, he is a loser every time he has to figure prices in a different type of money. Even the American traveler, though provident in supplying himself systematically with every kind of coin in vogue, is conscious of the attrition of this tax upon the contents of his purse. The wage-earner may be less awake to the fact, because it is brought less directly to his attention, but he is a relatively greater loser. There is an item for exchange concealed in every bill he pays and deducted from every dollar of his money that passes over a counter.

In stating wages the amount and form of currency have usually been given instead of the equivalent in American money. It is partly for the reasons mentioned that this has been done. The exchange equivalent is not an exact statement of wages paid, because the purchasing power of silver does not vary uniformly with the rate of exchange. Furthermore, the rate of exchange is not uniform throughout the island, and is not uniform at the same place at different times.

Speaking of the general condition of the working people of Cuba in 1902, one is not justified in saying that it is materially worse than that of the same classes in many other countries. It is certainly very far better than the condition that prevailed in Porto Rico when the military government withdrew from that island. The people of Cuba are better fed, better physically developed, better clothed and housed, and enjoy a higher standard of living than did the Porto Rican until recently. Their wages have averaged in the past nearly 100 per cent higher. While there are cases of actual want in the larger cities, there is little real destitution in the country or in the smaller towns. The unemployment in the cities is a social rather than an economic evil. There is no good reason to suppose that it will be materially affected by tariff treaties or by legislative and administrative enactments. Where the condition of the Cuban worker compares unfavorably with the condition of the man of similar status in the United States, the cause of his disadvantage lies deeper than laws and treaties reach. It is to be found in qualities of habit and temperament that are modified only by a process of social evolution.

EMPLOYERS' OPINIONS.

Some opinions of Cuban workingmen are given in the following quotations from remarks by American and English employers of broad experience. It is not possible to have perfect agreement in judgments of this sort, and naturally no attempt has been made to do so. But those sweeping denunciations of Cuba and everything Cuban that come

from tactless adventurers and from men who have left their own country because they are chronically out of sorts with the world have been omitted:

A railway manager: "A Cuban seldom has a real conception of what is meant by special qualifications. On railways a man might occupy in succession a dozen different posts, each requiring a special kind of training. We have an instance where the same man has been station agent, telegraph superintendent, and superintendent of locomotive power within a few months' time."

A contracting foreman: "In the mechanic trades men are constantly presenting themselves as applicants for any positions to be had, assuring us with the greatest apparent candor that they unite all the qualifications of expert masons, carpenters, painters, plumbers, and gas fitters. We don't employ such men any more. A modest range of acquirements is one of the best credentials that a mechanic can offer us."

A Government engineer: "The labor cost of all kinds of construction is half again as much as in the United States. But with time and patience intelligent Cuban mechanics can be trained to keep pretty well up with Americans on the same job. They will not do this, however, unless they are paid for it."

An English railway manager: "After many years' experience in railway management in Brazil and other South American countries, I must say that Cuban labor is the dearest labor I have ever had under my charge."

A factory superintendent: "We employ only Spaniards. They equal in industry and endurance American workingmen and are more regular and steady in their habits. I have had more than twenty years' experience in Cuba as factory and plantation manager, and have seldom found native Cubans efficient in occupations requiring physical endurance or manual skill. But they make neat and fairly accurate clerks."

An army officer in charge of 1,200 men in road construction: "The Cuban laborer is not as intelligent or as strong physically as the unskilled laborer in the United States. He accomplishes about half as much work in a day as the latter. We bought a number of the iron wheelbarrows commonly used by American contractors for our work here, but the men were not strong enough to handle them successfully, and I had to substitute wooden ones in their stead."

An electric-railway manager: "You can not manage Cubans with a club. The amount of work you get out of them depends on the way you handle them. We find our men unusually distrustful, because they have been so often cheated by their past employers. If the paymaster is a little late they jump at the conclusion that their money is not coming to them. It has taken time to win their confidence in the company. They do not understand how to take care of their own interests. Our unclaimed wage book shows that during the last two

years many hundred men have not applied for all the pay due them. Probably 10 per cent of the whole number of common laborers employed thus fail to collect their full wages. On our fortnightly pay days fifty or sixty men at times fail to claim amounts ranging from one or two days' pay to as high as \$20 or \$30 silver (\$14 or \$21 American). Of course such men are often imposed upon, and a man who knows or thinks he's being cheated by his employer isn't going to over-exert himself in his service. An intelligent Cuban makes a good mechanic. He learns more rapidly than an American. It has taken me less time to break in motormen here than in the United States. In the last year or two we have trained most of our force of mechanics, repair men, and our armature winder. They are about as efficient as Americans."

The head of an electrical supply house: "Labor conditions in Cuba have not changed materially since 1890. Cubans make efficient mechanics in our line of business. We also employ them in contracting work, such as bridge construction, so that our monthly pay roll is sometimes over \$6,000. They are slower than Americans, but are less independent and work longer hours. In electric fitting we get about as much service for the same wages as in New York. A man who has had long experience with the working people here, and who knows their language and how to treat them, will not have much trouble with his employees, and will find them fairly efficient."

A railway superintendent: "Spaniards are the future laborers of Cuba. But they will work mostly under the direction of Cubans. The amount of work you get out of men depends upon how well you pay and feed them. It is worth the money it costs an employer to provide and compel his common laborers to eat a substantial meal before going to work in the morning."

The variety of opinions here expressed illustrates the fact that the man in practical touch with the labor question in Cuba usually has some one aspect of the situation in mind which appeals to him from his own experience. As to labor efficiency, all agree that for manual labor the Spaniard excels the native Cuban. This is true of factory as well as field occupations. Cane cutting must be excepted from the latter, for here the Negro is the best workman; and in the machine shops and some mechanic trades, where a certain dexterity of mind as well as hand is required, the more nervous and intellectual Cuban is at an advantage. There is practical unanimity in the opinion that the cost of labor is high, the only exceptions being in some trades requiring much skill and intelligence and where the men work under the direct control of their employer.

The emphasis laid upon the fact that the amount of work to be obtained from employees depends largely upon the way they are treated and the wages they are paid is significant, and it accords fully

with other testimony and with observation in different parts of the island. At one place a gang of laborers was just completing what appeared to even a casual observer a rather scanty day's work. The foreman looked up with a half-vexed smile and said: "Their wages have been lowered 30 per cent, and no driving will get more than two-thirds the former amount of work out of them. They simply shrug their shoulders and say, 'Poco dinero, poco trabajo' (Little money, little work)."

CUBAN CHARACTER.

Beneath a most unimposing exterior the Cuban laborer generally manages to cherish a considerable sense of personal dignity, and he resents deeply, however unperturbed he may appear, the rough way of handling that has come to mean so little to his fellow-laborer in the United States. Perhaps the unexpressed contempt with which he is tolerated by some Americans is resented still more deeply. In any case, the very efforts put forth by employers and their representatives to increase the amount of work done by employees often have the reverse effect to that intended. Tactful management is often one of the most expensive assets a foreign enterprise has to acquire in Cuba.

Cuba is one of the most democratic countries in the world. Nowhere else does the least-considered member of a community aspire with more serene confidence to social equality with its most exalted personage. The language, with its conventional phrases of courtesy shared by all classes, the familiar family life of proprietor and servant, master and apprentice, a certain simplicity and universality of manners inherited from pioneer days, and a gentleness of temperament that may be both climatic and racial, which shrinks from giving offense by assuming superiority of rank in intercourse with others, have all contributed to render class assumptions externally less obvious in Cuba than in most other countries where equally great differences of race, culture, and fortune exist. The Cuban is naturally self-possessed. It is difficult to fancy him having stage fright. He is so imaginative and Tarasconese that he frequently confounds ideals with realities, and as his ideal of himself is usually an exalted one, this disposition does not incline him to diffidence or humility. He is therefore apt to assume an artlessly familiar air with his employer, and to try to put their business relations, so far as their social aspect is concerned—which is to him a most important one—as nearly upon a partnership basis as possible. With his manual services he bestows the gifts of his own discretion and judgment as a gratuity, and he is thus enabled to amplify and modify any instructions he may receive to guide him in his work. These personal advances and well-intended departures from what are called orders principally as a matter of courtesy in Cuba are received quite differently by an American and a Cuban employer. The former

resents them brusquely, often profanely, and thus sows the first seeds of misunderstanding that result in much concealed resentment and hostility, and unless he master the situation by great force of will and character, may occasion more serious damage to his interests. The Cuban or Spanish employer, understanding his man, contrives to secure his ends more diplomatically; but he never has a really disciplined force of employees. Organization and discipline are two of the things most seriously lacking in Cuban life; and they are lacking because of a certain timidity, a lack of self-assertiveness in the attitude of the officers of industry toward their men. The Cuban is capable of discipline; but so long as nothing else is required, he naturally prefers discussing politics and local news or comparing notes about their children with his foreman to performing more commonplace duties. His friendliness toward his employer is usually well-meaning, even if unwisely manifested. It is somewhat akin to the easy, inquisitive, but sympathetic familiarity one finds in a New England village. Occasionally it can be turned to good account in securing the loyalty of men. Two American retail merchants were interviewed in Habana. One was evidently reserved toward his working people. He reported that among several employed he had never had a Cuban clerk he was not obliged to discharge for stealing. Another, who was conducting a larger business and had many Cubans in his employ, but who stood on terms of greater intimacy with them, reported that he had no difficulty whatever of this kind. Whether the difference in the experience of the two merchants was due to the reason suggested or not, it is certain that the Cuban is peculiarly susceptible to appeals to ideal motives, whether made directly or only by implication, and that success or failure in dealing with the workmen of the island often hinges upon an understanding of this trait of character.

One desirable outcome of the aspiration toward social equality on the part of Cubans is their aversion to tips. Employees who had made some money sacrifice by leaving piecework to act as guides about a factory refused, evidently with considerable embarrassment, the offer of gratuity. A poor countryman who had left his field labor for several hours to show a trail through a tract of forest would only accept compensation under protest—and when it was turned into a gift for the children. These same men would have made as shrewd a bargain as possible and would have haggled for hours over centavos in a matter of trade, but for a service of courtesy money was no compensation for their sense of wounded dignity in accepting a gratuity.

With reference to the personal honesty of the Cuban, no unqualified statement is likely to be just. All people possessing great love of approbation and an excessive desire to please are apt to be more or less

insincere in social intercourse. Extend the ethics of an afternoon tea to all statements of fact in business relations, and one has an atmosphere of reliability or the reverse about equivalent to that prevailing in Cuba. Men tell you things they think you like to hear. It appears to strike a Cuban as something akin to discourtesy to bring a painful fact to your attention, even though a knowledge of it be quite essential to your business welfare. To save himself the embarrassment of refusing a request, he will often make a promise that he can not keep, and to save you from being disquieted by uncertainty he will give you an assurance as unqualified that ought to be decidedly conditional. His business statements are like his currency, subject to a fluctuating discount. As in case of money, this is undoubtedly an inconvenience in conducting a transaction. But as there is sound money in Cuba, so are there men to be found whose word in a matter of business is as good as their bond.

The upper commercial classes of the island preserve a conservative integrity in their dealings and in their methods of conducting business as high as prevails in any country. There are few failures. The representatives of large American houses report that their losses from bad debts are less in Cuba in proportion to the amount of business done than in the United States. In purchasing at retail one has to guard against overcharging. But this is simply a feature of a very ancient and still very common method of doing business. There are no fixed prices, and each individual sale is a separate transaction to be settled by independent agreement, and is not prejudiced in the least by the precedent of previous transactions of a similar character. Americans with little experience outside of their own country frequently bring up this practice as a main argument to prove the universal dishonesty of the Cuban. But it is like very many other ingenuous arguments of the same sort—it is not our way, ergo it is wrong—that would result in making virtue a decidedly local thing in this world if they were universally applied.

It is sometimes stated that while the Cuban, especially of the middle or lower class, is often lax about keeping his word, he shows quite the opposite disposition with regard to trifles belonging to other persons. The experience of strangers in the island doubtless varies in this respect. It is hardly probable that the Cuban has an abnormally high regard for the rights of property. There are criminals and petty thieves in Cuba as elsewhere. But here is the result of a single personal experience covering nearly two years, and divided between Cuba and Porto Rico, where the general moral standards may be assumed to be about the same. Though the person in question traveled most of this time, stopping at boarding houses and hotels, and a guest in private families where only native servants were employed, though he allowed small articles of personal property to lie about uncared for

with the same freedom as in the United States, and habitually left satchels and other hand baggage unlocked, during these two years not a single article was stolen. In Cuba umbrellas and unlocked luggage were frequently left unchecked in baggage and waiting rooms at railway stations, in wharf warehouses, and at hotel offices, and nothing was ever lost in this way. Articles accidentally left behind in traveling or when making purchases were returned when opportunity offered. At no time during the two years was an attempt made to pass incorrect change or bad money. He traveled sometimes all night over rough trails and in the remotest part of either island, with only native companions, with considerable sums of money upon his person and unarmed, and was never molested.

Large contractors in Cuba report no unusual loss of tools through the peculations of their workmen. The owners of retail stores, where there is such a multitude of petty sales that no record of such transactions can be kept, intrust practically their whole business to their clerks. Judging from actual experience with the people and with their way of doing business, there is nothing to indicate that a fair degree of private and commercial honesty does not prevail. As a rule the Cuban has not a passion for acquisition for its own sake. The question of money is an ever present and insistent one with the middle and working classes in Cuba as elsewhere; but when current demands are met—and they are not excessive—the Cuban is usually satisfied. He is not ambitious to accumulate. Men in political life, with uncertain tenure of office, expensive ambitions, and the worst kind of precedents to influence them, are said not to be trustworthy; but Cuba should not be judged by its politicians. Considering only the industrial classes, there is no reason to reproach Cuba with a particularly low standard of commercial and personal integrity. One will not find there conditions equaling those in countries where greater general intelligence and social discipline have long prevailed, and where reasonably good government has been habitual; but the moral standards of the people in the respects mentioned are not such as to present a serious bar to the industrial development of the country.

One of the most common and perhaps the most popular charges made against Cuban workmen by Americans is that they are indolent. Disinclination to hard, physical labor is a widely disseminated peculiarity of the human race. That is perhaps the reason why it is so confidently brought up as a defect in one's neighbors. Foreign immigrants in the United States say that the American likes to do all the bossing and none of the hard work. German and Swiss peasants along the Rhine consider the Frenchman's great weakness his desire to have clean hands and fine clothes, and that the Italian is a "lazy beggar." And the Italian borderer will assure you in return that the Swiss and Germans "want to eat and sleep all the time." Therefore, in forming

a judgment about the working people in Cuba, one has to allow for this national equation. The climate of the island does not encourage long-continued physical labor, apart from all question of race. The American, the Spaniard, the white native, and the Negro are all subject to this influence. But a moderate amount of the rudest kind of work can be done by any of these under the right conditions. The immigrant from the North brings with him a fund of physical stamina superior to that of the native, which runs for life and is not bequeathed to his successors born in the island. No statement that can be made is less likely to be controverted than the oft-repeated one that the Spaniard is superior to the Cuban, even of the first generation, as a laborer. But the climate which withdraws physical vigor frequently compensates by giving mental alertness. The man of the second and third generation in the island is often quicker to comprehend any complex matter than his Spanish ancestor. This gives him a penchant toward the professions or the higher mechanic arts. It is not indolence so much as a combination of qualities of temperament that turns him away from manual occupations. He does not lack industry in his new career.

This charge of indolence against Cuban workmen is sometimes justified by the slowness with which they perform their tasks. They are not nearly so expeditious as Americans. But this is due in part to the system of industrial administration. The Cuban bricklayer lays as many brick a day as the Englishman in the same trade. Recently, in building the new Westinghouse electric plant at Manchester, American supervision raised the average number of brick laid a day by the British bricklayers from less than 400 to 1,800, with a maximum of 2,500 for the plainest work. This illustrates how large a part organization and supervision play in creating industrial efficiency. Employing the same men, the English contractor got only about 20 per cent as much work out of them as did the American superintendents. In Cuba a change to American methods and implements, and from oxen to mules as draft animals, has reduced the cost of plowing from \$97.50 and \$76.50 a caballeria (33½ acres), in two specific instances, to \$39.16 and \$24, respectively. There is reason to believe that in all industries this factor of supervision and administration counts for as much in Cuba as it does elsewhere. If so, a large part of the relative inefficiency of the Cuban must be charged off to poor management and a wasteful industrial system.

When regularly employed the Cuban works long hours. A chart of the street-railway traffic of Havana shows that during the shorter days of the year the registered number of passengers carried per hour in the whole city is nearly one-half the maximum by 6 a. m., and that it reaches its maximum at just 6 p. m. Considering only those lines

running into the city from suburbs occupied by the working classes, the traffic before 6 a. m. is nearly or quite two-thirds the maximum. For most of these men, therefore, twelve hours, with the noon rest deducted, is the usual term of daily labor. On the plantations the 11-hour day is still the rule. In riding through the country at earliest dawn one sees workers already in the fields. The independent country laborer usually protracts his noontide rest until the heat of the day is over, and some of the apparent idleness of Cuba is due to the fact that the hours of work are divided by this interval of repose.

In some trades the men work slowly or short hours in order to limit production. Where payment is by piece work, as in the cigar factories, they do so at their own expense. But this is usually during the slack season, and the motive is to keep as many men as possible employed.

One weakness of the working people of Cuba may be charged in part to indolence, but it is equally due to their love of pleasure and excitement, and to a feeling of irresponsibility as to the future so characteristic of tropical nations. Unless pressed by necessity the Cuban laborer takes frequent vacations. This is his form of dissipation—his way of going on a spree. The excitement of strong drink does not appeal to him as much as the gentler attractions of more protracted recreations. He is often a gambler, he delights in music and dances and in the little festivals of his neighborhood, he regards scrupulously all the observances of the church that give promise of sufficient entertainment, especially those of a gala-day character. Weddings and christenings and funerals are important events in his calendar. By dint of a close and constant study of the situation he can usually find a valid excuse for indulging in the relaxations of leisure whenever it is not absolutely necessary for him to labor for his support.

The Cuban is therefore neither thrifty nor frugal. As a workman he responds only to the incentive of necessity. The Spanish laborer in Cuba usually works with the aim of accumulating a competency; not so the Cuban. The one produces much and consumes little; the other produces only that he may consume. The Spanish laborer has few and simple ideals, but they are fixed and permanent; the Cuban stores away a new fancy in his head every few days, and forgets it. He becomes impassioned over a carnival mask or a polka-dot tie; a month later it has passed out of his remembrance. This is one principal reason why employe:es so greatly prefer Spaniards in their service; they are not necessarily more honest, more active, or more intelligent, but they can be depended upon.

The Cubans are not criminally inclined. Under Spanish rule there were four times as many Spaniards as native whites in the prisons of Cuba in proportion to the total number of inhabitants of each nation

in the island. The Chinese and Spaniards both showed a larger percentage of criminals than the native Cubans of either race. Among the higher class Cubans, especially in the remoter towns, there are many evidences of physical degeneracy due to close intermarriage. Little scrawny men, with big, bony hands and almost no head at all, are characteristic of this class. But this type is not usually found among the rural or the laboring population.

MORALS.

It is difficult to speak with authority, or perhaps without doing injustice, of the private morals of the Cuban working people, because marriage statistics have been influenced by the exorbitant church fees charged during Spanish rule. The proportion of the population over 15 years of age legally married is, in the United States 55 per cent, in Porto Rico 30 per cent, and in Cuba 25 per cent. Only 6 per cent of the colored are married. Statistics seem to show that the proportion of the total population legally married has decreased during the last forty years. In proportion to the population, marriage is nearly twice as common among the foreign as among the native whites. About 132,000, or over 8 per cent of the total population, are living together without legal formalities. Reckoning this illegal relation as a common-law marriage, there still remain nearly 22 per cent of the total population, or nearly 350,000 people, who in the United States would be married, but who in Cuba have formed no permanent family connection, even of the looser type. It seems impossible that in a tropical country these conditions can coexist with a high standard of private morals.

EDUCATION.

About one-third of the population of Cuba can read and write. With the schools recently opened the proportion of illiterates will be rapidly reduced. The recent extension of school advantages, however, means more than a simple decrease in illiteracy. It means a broader all-round education for the rising generations. It ought to mean the creation of higher ideals of life. It is through the schools principally that the slow process of repairing the social defects of Cuba must be accomplished.

FUTURE FIELDS OF EMPLOYMENT.

The prospective industrial development of Cuba and the effect it may have on labor conditions are still largely speculative topics. What is done depends to such an extent upon the character of the new government and the intimacy of the future relations of the island with the United States that all present judgments must be conditioned

by the uncertainty of these factors. There may be retrogression instead of progress, but this is very improbable. There are conservative elements at work more powerful than exist in most other Spanish-American countries. The investment and consequently the influence of capital is greater. There is a dominant European population in the commercial centers. The influence of the United States, even though direct intervention has ceased, still broods over the island. All this inspires confidence, and confidence apparently is all that is needed to insure the prompt development of Cuba's undoubted resources.

A population of several million could be profitably employed in agriculture alone. There seem to be no reliable data, aside from opinions, as to the amount of land available for sugar cultivation. It is probably nearly 20 per cent of all the arable land in the island. Even were only choice lands used, we may suppose that 10 per cent of the entire area, or five times the present acreage, may ultimately be planted in cane. The tilling of these new fields alone would employ 200,000 laborers, or necessitate an increase of 1,000,000 in the population of the island. The tobacco area can not be so readily extended if Cuba is to maintain her present reputation for high-grade product. But there is no doubt that this industry may in time employ double or treble the number of people it employs at present. Market gardening and the raising of food crops could engage the population of a good sized State in Cuba without interfering with the crops already mentioned. As rapidly as the local market extends, coffee culture will increase. Banana culture and fruit raising are industries of great possibilities. The vine and olive have never been grown because the Spanish forbade this in the interest of their own producers. But a single vine in the Trinidad valley—"grown under a surplice"—is reported to produce several hundred pounds of raisin grapes each year. The old grazing lands will be encroached upon by tilled fields, but in the mountains, some of the coast country, and on the poorer lands this industry promises to thrive for many years to come. All the valuable timber will soon disappear, and it will require some foresight on the part of the Government to avoid injury to the agricultural interests by depletion of the forest areas, especially in broken country, where tropical rains do great damage to lands not properly protected. The mineral resources of Cuba appear to be extensive, but their exact value is not known and they are yet an uncertain factor in the future labor market. Conservative men interested in the business believe that Cuba will sometime have a mining population of more than a hundred thousand, and it seems certain that these interests will be sufficiently important to diversify the industry of the island. Manufactures will probably make little relative gain on account of the lack of fuel or other economical source of power.

IMMIGRATION.

Two things are necessary for the industrial development of Cuba—immigration and capital. In spite of its great natural resources, as yet scarcely touched, the island does not afford a broad and varied field for the investment of capital with its present labor supply. Over the vast eastern plains one can ride at times from dawn to sunset without meeting a solitary wayfarer. Any enterprise that attempts to exploit such country must be large enough to command labor at need from foreign markets. The small investor who goes into the newer parts of Cuba without the cooperation of many of his kind must make his own hands his principal and final resource for manual service in any emergency. Even in the older sections it is often a problem of difficulty to secure the right kind of labor. Many may offer themselves for employment who understand how to manipulate a hoe or a machete, but who are of little use in guiding a disk plow or running a cultivator. A simple job of construction or repairs proves a source of several times the annoyance, delay, and expense that it would in the United States.

Innovation is difficult in Cuba. After a routine has once been established among working people all runs smoothly, but at the first change, especially if it be at some critical emergency, the organization built up with such care goes entirely to pieces. The American manager, continually experimenting and improving, finds it exceptionally difficult to deal with employees of this character. He keeps them constantly stirred up, doesn't give their habits time to crystallize, and is with good reason dissatisfied with his men and the results of their services. They on their side accomplish less than if allowed to pursue their old courses, because they are confused and fail to catch the purpose of constant change and innovation. So one often finds the large employer sighing not so much for more men as for a different kind of men. He wants employees who can grasp new ideas and carry them out. An immigration of men of this sort is needed in Cuba, even if it be only sufficient to leaven the mass of native workmen. There is reasonable hope that the Cuban, who is pliable and mentally alert in his way and quick at imitation, might thus become inoculated with certain principles of progress in his craft that would open his mind to new methods and perhaps give him more power of individual initiative.

Established industries employing large bodies of unskilled labor, such as the mines and sugar plantations and the railway companies, will continue to look to Spain to supply their needs. This source of labor, if adequate in amount, might suffice for the capitalistic exploitation of Cuba. It is not so certain that it alone will supply all the demands of a well-ordered commonwealth. From this point of view

probably the chief objection to the Spanish immigration coming into the island at present is that it does not consist to any great degree of permanent settlers or men with families. When a shipload of immigrants lands at Habana there are visible none of the domestic features so characteristic of the hordes that pass through Ellis Island. Women are seldom seen, young children almost never. There is no importation of heirlooms and family belongings. In short, those who have come evidently intend to be only transient residents in their new home. They will return to Spain as soon as they have accumulated a modest sum from their wages. This constant ebb and flow of single men, who form no permanent family ties in Cuba, does not tend to elevate the standard of social morality. The influence of these immigrants also goes rather to depress than to raise the general level of education. There are said to be more illiterates among them than among the Cubans. But in spite of all these objections, their presence adds to the physical stamina and to the solidity of character of the people of the island; and from an industrial point of view they are almost indispensable to its future development.

Immigration from other sources is evidently needed, however, not only to bring in additional wealth and hands, but also to introduce new brains and new ideas into business management and industrial methods. It is also needed in order to create higher standards of living and culture among the masses. The influence of the American intervention has been both beneficent and far-reaching in this last respect. A ferment of new ideas as to ways of doing things and ways of existing has been spread among the common people. The visit of the Cuban teachers to the United States exercised a broad educational influence in this direction. The oral teaching of the American, his bitterest criticisms and denunciations, and all the driving he may do as an employer or a manager of labor, will slide off a Cuban like water off a duck's back. But he will be imitated to the letter. If an American settler puts up a windmill or buys an improved plow, a market for those things is at once created in his vicinity. Suspenders have superseded belts since the American occupation. When American ladies adopted the palmleaf hats of the country as a comfortable and becoming head gear, the Cuban ladies followed their example. Indirect suggestions go much further than specific hints with the people of the island. Immigration that will bring with it a large fund of imported customs of a sort intended to elevate the prevailing standard of living, that will add to the intellectual resources of the people, and that will increase their familiarity with modern inventions, improvements, and processes is needed in Cuba, both for political and social and for industrial reasons. Settlers of this sort might build up a class of small farmers and fruit raisers in the less densely populated portions

of the island. Under a stable government and with liberal trade relations with the United States there are inducements sufficient to bring the kind of people wanted from the United States and Europe. A few families of this sort would soon become a dominant influence in their vicinity. They would need to possess the true pioneer spirit, and would at first suffer much from isolation and from social rather than physical hardships. But there are few countries in the world that offer a more assured and rapid road to success to the intelligent and industrious farmer than does Cuba at the present time.

Some thirty Americans, mostly from Florida, are already successfully engaged in market gardening and fruit raising in the country tributary to Habana. A number of colonies have also been started by land speculators at various points near the coast. But the investor who intends to become a resident of the island should make his own purchases, and he can generally do better by acting independently or through some local agent. The most attractive country for homes is the portion along the high interior ridge which forms the backbone of Cuba. Here there is usually a limestone soil, much superior to any of the coast soil for general farming, mosquitoes and other insects are rare, there is practically no malaria and fever, and a bracing atmosphere makes outdoor life and work much more agreeable than in the humid coast country. Such land, mostly cleared and in meadow, can be bought for from \$3 to \$10 silver (\$2.10 to \$7 American) an acre near railways and other means of communication. Poor land is expensive at any price in Cuba.

An American used to outdoor work can cultivate a small farm without much hired labor, especially if his land be ready for the plow when he begins. His implements will vary with the character of his crops, but need not be peculiar to the island on account of special features of the climate or soil. A team of acclimated mules and a single disk plow is an equipment he will be sure to need. An American 60 years of age, who had moved to Cuba from Colorado and had resided in the island three years, reported that he found it a task of no especial difficulty to plow 100 acres in a season without hired labor, or to keep from a third to a half of that area fully cultivated. His crops were chiefly corn, and melons for export.

The completion of the Cuban Central Railway will open a large tract of sparsely settled territory to development the present year. This road extends from Nipe Bay and Santiago, on opposite sides of the eastern end of Cuba, westward to Santa Clara, passing for nearly 400 miles through excellent agricultural country. The soil is practically virgin, though mostly cleared and in artificial pasture. It is rolling prairie, cut by many clear streams, as is usual in a limestone country. The land is mostly in large grazing ranges of from 10,000 to 20,000 acres. Many of these are being subdivided for sale, and titles are being put into shape to facilitate ready and secure transfers.

If this country develops as rapidly as is anticipated, there will be a demand for common laborers and mechanics in the building trades at the new town sites along the line. Nipe Bay, which has a good harbor, is nearly a day's sailing nearer New York than Habana, and lies approximately in a straight line between New York and the entrance of either of the proposed isthmian canals. It requires no great gift of prophecy to see one of the future cities of Cuba at this point. The greatest advantage of this section of the island for the American settler is the fact that it is new and will probably be dominated by modern and progressive influences.

The older and more densely populated parts of Cuba offer fewer inducements to the American immigrant. If he be a workingman he must expect to encounter more or less race and national prejudice. With equal wages his living expenses will be higher than in the United States. Moreover he will be obliged to sacrifice many public and quasi-public services and conveniences that he may not pay for in cash at home, but which count for much in making his existence and that of his family agreeable, and which alone make the higher features of life possible. First of these are the public schools that will be sacrificed in large part, even though his children receive the full advantage of the best that Cuba has to offer. He will lose the benefit of libraries, art galleries, churches, fraternal organizations, and clubs, which though they exist do not supply the same place in Cuban as in American life, especially outside of Habana. The press and periodicals are more expensive and in every way inferior to those he has at home. He will not have the same physical conveniences—abundant water, variety of food, sanitary dwellings. He must sell his labor in a limited market, and will not be able to move from place to place with the same convenience and economy as in the United States. His children must grow up under moral surroundings distinctly inferior to those of any town or city of the American Union. Should his death or illness leave them unprovided for, their position would be immeasurably worse in Cuba than in their native country.

The labor market of Cuba therefore does not compete with that of the United States. It does not offer, and probably will not offer, sufficient advantages to attract any large number of American workmen to the island. During the military government a few building mechanics and plumbers went to Habana to enter the employ of the engineering and public works department. These were mostly single men, and they did not go to Cuba with the intention of becoming permanent residents of the island. In the same way a few journey-men printers and pressmen drifted over to set up government documents or work on the English newspapers. Other special demands, incident to the presence of our officials in the island, were supplied by American workmen. But there is not likely to be an extension of this sphere of employment. Probably many of the men now in Cuba

will ultimately return to the United States. The installation of the new sewer system, while it will drive American residents out of Habana, may create a demand for specially skilled workmen in certain capacities. As this work is gradually completed along the different streets a small body of qualified plumbers may find employment installing the more modern forms of sanitary apparatus. But the only American immigration into Cuba for which there seems to be sufficient inducement at present is that of small farmers and agriculturalists, especially into the less settled parts of the island. When such a population becomes established a demand for American workmen in certain trades may follow, but such a demand does not exist to-day.

CAPACITY FOR SELF-GOVERNMENT.

The capacity of the Cuban for self-government is still undetermined. He has not yet been proved guilty of incompetency in this direction. It took the United States several years, though guided through the first steps of independent national existence by one of the wisest and firmest of leaders, to establish its fitness to survive. So far as the character and intelligence of her people and her natural opportunities are concerned, Cuba has not an equal prospect of success; but she has the great advantage of the political lessons to be learned from a century of growing self-government in other countries. The Cubans are sometimes represented as a turbulent and lawless people. Nothing could be further from the fact. They are docile, gentle, almost effeminate. One would quite expect their dissensions to borrow more features from the sewing circle than from the forum or the battlefield. The Americans in Habana were a source of more disorder than the native population. The native born are, in proportion to their numbers, the most law-abiding element of the island's people. Unless they belie their past history and their present traits the Cubans will conduct bloodless though exciting political campaigns. If the conservative element remains in power, there is no good reason to believe that Cuba will not have the best government of any Spanish-American country, with the possible exceptions of Chile and Mexico. But the problem of administration will not be so complicated as it is in Mexico, and there are no pressing foreign questions, reacting acutely upon domestic politics, such as may at any time disturb the equilibrium of the Government of Chile. Cuba has no debt and consequently no elaborate fiscal policy to maintain, and she remains constantly under the supervision and tutelage of the United States, by virtue of the Platt amendment.

TRADE RELATIONS AND PROSPERITY.

The commercial prosperity of the island and the betterment of the condition of the laboring classes does not therefore seem to be imperiled by the establishing of an independent government. How far the

economic welfare of the island will be dependent upon the creation of reciprocal trade relations with other nations can not now be determined. For more than fifty years sugar has been the dominant factor in Cuba's prosperity. Sugar has been as much king in Cuba as cotton is king in the South or wheat in the Northwest. While the tobacco exports are at times equally valuable, the receipts from this crop are not so widely distributed throughout the island, and the ramifications of this industry are not so closely interwoven with the texture of all other business. But if in the future cane culture is to prove profitable only when subject to foreign favor, the more important this industry becomes the more will the independence of any government that exists in the island be compromised. The conditions of 1902 may reoccur at any time. There is a distinction to be sure between political and economic dependence, and Cuba is not a wholly free country. But this does not affect the outcome. If she does subordinate her political to her economic interests, and this seems to depend at present on whether or not the United States gives her an opportunity to do so, she will thrive commercially, but her government will be only nominally independent. The very growth of the industry she fosters will make her more and more a satellite of the United States. The stability, perhaps the very existence, of her own government will be settled in the Ways and Means Committee. But in this close connection with our own country Cuban labor will undoubtedly prosper.

On the other hand, if it should prove possible to produce sugar profitably without reciprocity agreements, as it may in time and quite probably will under the Brussels Convention, Cuba will develop her cane culture, and her government, exercising as it becomes established more and more independent powers, may find it possible to foster other industries with a view to making the nation more self-sustaining, and thus create a wider field for employment and increase the prosperity of the laboring classes.

But should the growing of cane prove unprofitable without reciprocity advantages, and should no treaties of this kind be made, there will doubtless be some years of depression in the Cuban labor market, until new industries can be built up to take the place of the one destroyed. Cuba would not go into bankruptcy by any means, but this would prove a very severe strain upon the young Government. Grazing, fruit raising, and banana planting would probably be the recourse of her planters. The unemployed peasantry would retreat to their yam and plantain patches, and the general standard of living throughout the country would be lowered. But this third outcome of the present economic crisis in Cuba does not seem likely to occur. With the transformation now taking place in methods of production Cuba can probably sell sugar at a profit. Her natural advantages assure her economic future.

BEEF PRICES.

BY FRED C. CROXTON.

During the last few months perhaps no subject has been more discussed by the press and the public than has the advance in the price of fresh beef. In view of this unusual attention this article has been prepared, comparing trade conditions for recent months with those for the corresponding months of the twelve preceding years.

The Department of Labor, in its Bulletin for March, 1902, presented the wholesale prices of some 260 commodities for the period from 1890 to 1901, and, based on those prices, relative prices were computed and combined, in order to show the course of prices during that period.

In the present article the prices of live cattle and dressed beef are shown for certain dates (the first of January, February, March, April, May, and June) in 1902, and for corresponding dates in the twelve years, 1890 to 1901. The difference between the price of live cattle and of dressed beef is also shown for each of the above dates, both as an actual difference and in the form of a percentage.

It must not be understood that this difference represents the packers' margin of profit; the tables are presented for the purpose of showing the course of this margin between the prices of live cattle and of the most important product—fresh beef.

The great packers of the country in developing their business have been able to utilize all the by-products, so that no part is really lost. Developing this branch of their business has of course enabled them to reduce to some extent the margin between the price of live cattle and of dressed beef.

Cattle on the average yield from 50 to 60 per cent of dressed beef. It is thus seen that if dressed beef were the only product, and cattle were selling at \$7.10 per 100 pounds (mean price of good to extra steers in Chicago on the 1st of June, 1902), the price of dressed beef, instead of being \$10 per 100 pounds (mean price of good to extra fresh beef—Western sides—in Boston on the 1st of June, 1902) would be \$14.20 per 100 pounds if the steer dressed 50 per cent, or \$11.83 if the steer dressed 60 per cent. To these prices, if dressed beef were the only product, must also be added a sufficient amount to cover the interest on money invested by the packer, profit, labor cost of slaughtering, transportation charges, etc.

In addition to the tables showing prices of live cattle and dressed beef, tables are presented showing for the months of January, February, March, April, May, and June of each year since 1890 the receipts of cattle at Chicago, Kansas City, Omaha, and St. Louis; the average weight and gross weight of cattle received at Chicago during the same months; the estimated acreage, production, and farm value of the corn crop in the United States each year since 1889; the price of corn and hay in Chicago on the 1st of January, February, March, April, May, and June, from 1890 to 1902; the published freight rates on dressed beef from Chicago to Boston during the last thirteen years; also the quantity and value of domestic exports of cattle, beef products, and corn during the months of January, February, March, April, and May, 1890 to 1902.

The information has been secured from the files of trade journals, published reports of stock-yard companies and boards of trade, Government departments, etc.

The Boston prices of fresh beef were taken, as the trade papers of that city were the only available ones which quote prices of Western dressed beef for the whole period from 1890 to 1902.

The following table shows, for the first of January, February, March, April, May, and June, 1890 to 1902, the mean price of good to extra steers in Chicago, the mean price of good to extra fresh beef (Western sides) in Boston, the actual difference between these prices, and this difference in the form of a percentage:

MEAN PRICE OF GOOD TO EXTRA STEERS IN CHICAGO, AND OF GOOD TO EXTRA FRESH BEEF (WESTERN SIDES) IN BOSTON, AND THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THESE PRICES ON THE 1ST OF JANUARY, FEBRUARY, MARCH, APRIL, MAY, AND JUNE, 1890 TO 1902.

[Quotations of prices are from the Daily Trade Bulletin, the Daily Inter Ocean, the Boston Herald, and the Boston Globe.]

Year.	1st of January.				1st of February.			
	Mean price per 100 pounds.		Difference in price, per 100 pounds, of steers and fresh beef.		Mean price per 100 pounds.		Difference in price, per 100 pounds, of steers and fresh beef.	
	Good to extra steers in Chicago.	Good to extra fresh beef (Western sides) in Boston.	Actual.	Per cent.	Good to extra steers in Chicago.	Good to extra fresh beef (Western sides) in Boston.	Actual.	Per cent.
1890.....	\$4.15	\$6.00	\$1.85	44.6	\$4.20	\$6.50	\$2.30	54.8
1891.....	4.65	6.87½	2.22½	47.8	4.90	6.50	1.60	32.7
1892.....	5.25	7.87½	2.62½	50.0	4.82½	7.50	2.67½	55.4
1893.....	5.12½	7.75	2.62½	51.2	5.30	7.50	2.20	41.5
1894.....	5.15	7.25	2.10	40.8	4.92½	7.00	2.07½	42.1
1895.....	5.25	7.50	2.25	42.9	4.90	7.75	2.85	58.2
1896.....	4.40	7.25	2.85	64.8	4.22½	7.25	3.02½	71.6
1897.....	4.65	7.87½	3.22½	69.4	4.90	8.25	3.35	68.4
1898.....	5.05	7.87½	2.82½	46.0	5.00	8.00	3.00	60.0
1899.....	5.15	7.87½	2.72½	52.9	5.52½	8.25	2.72½	49.3
1900.....	6.05	8.75	2.70	44.6	5.90	8.50	2.60	44.1
1901.....	5.70	7.62½	1.92½	33.8	5.65	7.75	2.10	37.2
1902.....	6.12½	8.25	2.12½	34.7	6.50	8.37½	1.87½	28.8

MEAN PRICE OF GOOD TO EXTRA STEERS IN CHICAGO, AND OF GOOD TO EXTRA FRESH BEEF (WESTERN SIDES) IN BOSTON, AND THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THESE PRICES ON THE 1ST OF JANUARY, FEBRUARY, MARCH, APRIL, MAY, AND JUNE, 1890 TO 1902—Concluded.

Year.	1st of March.				1st of April.			
	Mean price per 100 pounds.		Difference in price, per 100 pounds, of steers and fresh beef.		Mean price per 100 pounds.		Difference in price, per 100 pounds, of steers and fresh beef.	
	Good to extra steers in Chicago.	Good to extra fresh beef (Western sides) in Boston.	Actual.	Per cent.	Good to extra steers in Chicago.	Good to extra fresh beef (Western sides) in Boston.	Actual.	Per cent.
1890.....	\$4.42½	\$6.00	\$1.57½	35.6	\$4.45	\$6.37½	\$1.92½	43.3
1891.....	5.07½	7.00	1.92½	37.9	5.47½	9.25	3.77½	68.9
1892.....	4.65	7.25	2.60	55.9	4.32½	6.75	2.42½	56.1
1893.....	5.32½	7.25	1.92½	36.2	5.37½	7.62½	2.25	41.9
1894.....	4.50	6.62½	2.12½	47.2	4.25	6.37½	2.12½	50.0
1895.....	5.27½	7.50	2.22½	42.2	5.90	9.50	3.60	61.0
1896.....	4.25	6.75	2.50	58.8	4.07½	7.37½	3.30	81.0
1897.....	4.97½	7.62½	2.65	53.3	5.02½	8.00	2.97½	59.2
1898.....	5.22½	7.50	2.27½	43.5	5.17½	8.75	3.57½	69.1
1899.....	5.25	8.75	3.50	66.7	5.25	8.00	2.75	52.4
1900.....	5.45	8.00	2.55	46.8	5.25	7.75	2.50	47.6
1901.....	5.55	7.50	1.95	35.1	5.65	7.62½	1.97½	35.0
1902.....	6.50	8.75	2.25	34.6	6.62½	9.12½	2.50	37.7

Year.	1st of May.				1st of June.			
	Mean price per 100 pounds.		Difference in price, per 100 pounds, of steers and fresh beef.		Mean price per 100 pounds.		Difference in price, per 100 pounds, of steers and fresh beef.	
	Good to extra steers in Chicago.	Good to extra fresh beef (Western sides) in Boston.	Actual.	Per cent.	Good to extra steers in Chicago.	Good to extra fresh beef (Western sides) in Boston.	Actual.	Per cent.
1890.....	\$4.50	\$6.50	\$2.00	44.4	\$4.72½	\$6.37½	\$1.65	34.9
1891.....	5.75	8.37½	2.62½	45.7	5.70	8.12½	2.42½	42.5
1892.....	4.45	6.62½	2.17½	48.9	4.37½	6.50	2.12½	48.6
1893.....	5.32½	7.87½	2.55	47.9	5.62½	9.00	3.37½	60.0
1894.....	4.32½	6.25	1.92½	44.5	4.17½	7.00	2.82½	67.7
1895.....	5.67½	9.25	3.57½	63.0	5.57½	9.00	3.42½	61.4
1896.....	4.65	7.37½	2.72½	58.1	4.10	6.87½	2.77½	67.7
1897.....	5.05	8.25	3.20	63.4	5.02½	8.37½	3.35	66.7
1898.....	4.87½	8.37½	3.50	71.8	4.90	7.75	2.85	58.2
1899.....	5.20	8.62½	3.42½	65.9	5.30	8.62½	3.32½	62.7
1900.....	5.35	7.75	2.40	44.9	5.37½	8.00	2.62½	48.8
1901.....	5.60	8.00	2.40	42.9	5.75	7.75	2.00	34.8
1902.....	6.82½	9.50	2.67½	39.2	7.10	10.00	2.90	40.8

An examination of the preceding table shows that on the 1st of June, 1902, the mean price per 100 pounds of good to extra steers in Chicago was \$7.10, against \$5.75 on the same date in 1901 and \$5.37½ on the same date in 1900, etc., the lowest price on the 1st of June for the last thirteen years being \$4.10 in 1896. On the 1st of June, 1902, the mean price per 100 pounds of good to extra fresh beef (Western sides) in Boston was \$10, against \$7.75 on the same date in 1901 and \$8 on the same date in 1900, etc., the lowest price on the 1st of June for the last thirteen years being \$6.37½ in 1890.

The difference between the mean price of good to extra steers in Chicago and the mean price of good to extra fresh beef (Western sides) in Boston on the 1st of June, 1902, was \$2.90 per 100 pounds, against \$2 on the same date in 1901 and \$2.62½ on the same date in 1900, etc., the lowest margin shown in this table being \$1.65 in 1890, and the highest \$3.42½, in 1895. The margin of difference when expressed as a percentage, was, on the 1st of June, 1902, 40.8, against 34.8 on the same date in 1901, and 48.8 on the same date in 1900, etc., the lowest per cent on the 1st of June during the period 1890 to 1902 being 34.8 in 1901, and the highest 67.7 in 1894 and 1896. On the 1st of May, 1902, the difference in price was 39.2 per cent, while on the same date in 1896 the difference was 82.1 per cent.

The following table shows for the first of each month, January to June, 1902, the same information as is given in the preceding table. This table shows a gradual but decided advance during these months in the price of both steers and dressed beef; the margin of difference in these prices shows a drop in February to \$1.87½, or 28.8 per cent, since which time there has been a gradual rise in both the actual difference and the per cent of difference:

MEAN PRICE OF GOOD TO EXTRA STEERS IN CHICAGO AND OF GOOD TO EXTRA FRESH BEEF (WESTERN SIDES) IN BOSTON, AND THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THESE PRICES ON THE FIRST OF EACH MONTH, JANUARY TO JUNE, 1902.

Month.	Mean price per 100 pounds on the first of each month.		Difference in price, per 100 pounds, of steers and fresh beef.	
	Good to extra steers in Chicago.	Good to extra fresh beef (Western sides) in Boston.	Actual.	Per cent.
January	\$6.12½	\$8.25	\$2.12½	34.7
February	6.50	8.37½	1.87½	28.8
March	6.50	8.75	2.25	34.6
April	6.62½	9.12½	2.50	37.7
May	6.82½	9.50	2.67½	39.2
June	7.10	10.00	2.90	40.8

The receipts of cattle at Chicago, Kansas City, Omaha, and St. Louis, and the total receipts at the four cities during each month, January to June, for the years 1890 to 1902 are shown in the following table. During the month of June, 1902, the receipts at the four cities above named were 462,292, as against 473,921 during the same month in 1901 and 429,500 during the same month in 1900, etc. The lowest June receipts for the last thirteen years were 358,280 in 1895, and the highest 513,737 in 1890. The lowest receipts for the month of May in the last thirteen years were 379,232 in 1902 and the highest 541,120 in 1890.

NUMBER OF CATTLE RECEIVED AT CHICAGO, KANSAS CITY, OMAHA, AND ST. LOUIS DURING THE MONTHS OF JANUARY, FEBRUARY, MARCH, APRIL, MAY, AND JUNE, 1890 TO 1902.

[Compiled from the reports of the Chicago Board of Trade, Kansas City Stock Yards, Union Stock Yards of Omaha, and Merchants' Exchange of St. Louis, and from the Daily Inter Ocean and the Daily Trade Bulletin.]

Year.	January.					February.				
	Chicago.	Kansas City.	Omaha.	St. Louis.	Total for the four cities.	Chicago.	Kansas City.	Omaha.	St. Louis.	Total for the four cities.
1890.....	288,386	107,158	48,985	35,331	469,855	232,796	95,368	41,427	28,998	398,584
1891.....	274,359	80,993	50,972	32,586	438,860	223,413	66,484	47,057	32,088	368,992
1892.....	286,683	95,565	58,188	38,245	476,651	207,013	76,168	55,563	29,925	368,669
1893.....	281,244	111,313	87,614	63,719	543,890	242,575	98,338	63,027	63,077	467,017
1894.....	254,658	147,482	64,608	68,626	535,374	214,462	109,596	50,946	51,248	426,252
1895.....	248,971	120,709	50,718	80,354	495,752	170,700	91,868	32,305	59,261	354,134
1896.....	287,763	123,103	40,193	73,187	474,246	192,497	104,944	33,308	58,648	389,397
1897.....	189,199	152,412	48,964	89,735	490,310	180,129	118,242	47,138	70,491	416,000
1898.....	213,987	148,366	43,406	91,339	497,098	199,345	121,268	50,141	65,301	436,055
1899.....	191,564	139,419	47,749	62,802	435,534	172,966	116,521	43,554	63,561	396,592
1900.....	226,649	146,044	57,717	59,296	489,706	198,354	118,594	49,572	58,946	420,466
1901.....	252,445	154,724	55,456	65,704	528,329	205,467	136,419	51,673	50,393	448,952
1902.....	275,180	133,654	78,908	72,170	554,912	230,329	97,093	61,408	69,551	458,381

Year.	March.					April.				
	Chicago.	Kansas City.	Omaha.	St. Louis.	Total for the four cities.	Chicago.	Kansas City.	Omaha.	St. Louis.	Total for the four cities.
1890.....	246,502	99,602	55,980	32,670	434,754	259,747	119,669	52,778	37,656	469,850
1891.....	242,316	62,326	49,923	32,380	387,445	201,668	60,715	35,946	33,392	331,720
1892.....	271,165	78,444	61,165	40,782	451,566	245,587	81,184	61,563	30,616	418,900
1893.....	244,519	97,869	74,440	55,638	472,461	226,760	102,696	68,469	52,568	450,493
1894.....	223,005	119,667	66,396	49,349	458,417	256,520	110,568	69,473	36,075	472,626
1895.....	168,381	115,802	40,780	53,842	378,755	160,094	96,630	33,469	54,591	344,784
1896.....	203,043	105,928	37,812	58,642	405,425	187,635	90,742	33,825	52,005	364,207
1897.....	209,510	120,208	52,917	58,250	430,885	191,966	117,368	51,811	58,076	419,251
1898.....	217,159	124,966	45,236	61,788	463,881	170,852	104,907	53,665	44,819	374,243
1899.....	207,811	128,752	66,277	66,223	449,163	174,655	109,472	50,332	50,995	385,454
1900.....	208,076	134,583	53,538	64,173	460,370	213,784	120,526	59,927	41,443	435,630
1901.....	207,411	115,285	58,824	48,571	425,091	252,459	61,377	44,878	44,878	485,172
1902.....	238,560	103,032	63,897	57,937	458,426	211,769	97,615	67,497	63,893	440,774

Year.	May.					June.				
	Chicago.	Kansas City.	Omaha.	St. Louis.	Total for the four cities.	Chicago.	Kansas City.	Omaha.	St. Louis.	Total for the four cities.
1890.....	299,090	123,293	63,054	55,683	541,120	284,037	98,122	48,991	32,587	513,737
1891.....	220,683	68,250	31,576	60,683	381,192	235,618	76,027	34,066	96,682	442,393
1892.....	264,849	75,357	62,102	40,360	442,668	285,717	75,187	44,230	85,966	469,120
1893.....	248,813	110,979	61,457	65,711	486,960	245,974	113,411	46,317	79,496	485,198
1894.....	238,413	100,018	68,517	50,144	457,092	213,772	91,856	55,278	58,283	419,189
1895.....	187,233	114,338	26,733	77,591	405,945	167,859	97,254	21,356	71,811	358,280
1896.....	205,030	105,542	37,590	62,229	410,391	208,948	106,782	36,170	87,544	439,444
1897.....	200,468	126,165	55,804	57,939	440,376	208,108	118,215	68,185	77,447	467,965
1898.....	210,903	111,193	66,184	41,256	429,536	213,361	98,330	63,396	53,126	428,212
1899.....	236,741	115,055	68,334	37,880	458,010	205,132	88,160	55,486	42,920	391,698
1900.....	241,309	140,422	81,909	52,672	516,312	195,102	109,477	64,235	60,686	429,500
1901.....	253,257	100,118	71,991	56,054	491,420	225,433	122,368	47,312	78,308	473,921
1902.....	186,901	79,400	50,646	62,285	379,232	204,813	110,170	47,437	99,872	462,292

The receipts at Chicago, Kansas City, Omaha, and St. Louis and the total receipts at the four cities during each of the six months, January to June, 1902, are shown in the table which follows.

NUMBER OF CATTLE RECEIVED AT CHICAGO, KANSAS CITY, OMAHA, AND ST. LOUIS DURING EACH MONTH, JANUARY TO JUNE, 1902.

Month.	Chicago.	Kansas City.	Omaha.	St. Louis.	Total for the four cities.
January	275, 180	133, 654	73, 908	72, 170	554, 912
February	230, 329	97, 098	61, 408	69, 551	458, 381
March	233, 560	108, 032	63, 897	57, 987	458, 426
April	211, 769	97, 615	67, 497	63, 898	440, 774
May	186, 901	79, 400	50, 646	62, 285	379, 232
June	204, 813	110, 170	47, 437	99, 872	462, 292

The table following shows for each month, January to June, 1890 to 1902, the receipts of cattle at Chicago, and the average weight and the gross weight of such cattle during each month.

In 1902 lighter cattle were shown for each month considered than for the corresponding month in the other years of the period, with the exception of June, 1891, when the average weight was less than in June, 1902. The gross weight received in both January and February, 1902, exceeded the gross weight received during the corresponding month in any other year since 1894, and the gross weight received in March, 1902, was greater than that received during the same month in the other years since 1898. In April, 1902, the average weight was 101 pounds less than in 1901 and 148 less than in 1900. The gross weight in April, 1902, was 199,062,860 pounds against 262,808,778 in 1901, 232,542,592 in 1900, and 187,055,505 in 1899. In May, 1902, the average weight was 79 pounds less than in 1901, 104 less than in 1900, and 177 less than in 1896. The gross weight in May, 1902, was 178,864,257 pounds, or 83,509,995 pounds less than in 1901, and 77,164,592 less than in 1900. In June, 1902, the average weight was 36 pounds less than in 1901 and 104 less than in 1900. The gross weight in June, 1902, was 27,993,268 pounds less than in 1901 and 10,929,204 less than in 1900.

NUMBER, AVERAGE WEIGHT, AND GROSS WEIGHT OF CATTLE RECEIVED AT THE UNION STOCK YARDS, CHICAGO, DURING THE MONTHS OF JANUARY, FEBRUARY, MARCH, APRIL, MAY, AND JUNE, 1890 TO 1902.

[Compiled from the reports of the Chicago Board of Trade, and from Goodall's Weekly Farmer and Drovers' Journal, the Daily Trade Bulletin, and the Daily Inter Ocean.]

Year.	January.			February.		
	Number received.	Average weight.	Gross weight.	Number received.	Average weight.	Gross weight.
1890	283, 386	1, 130	320, 226, 180	232, 796	1, 136	264, 456, 256
1891	274, 359	1, 110	304, 538, 490	223, 413	1, 127	251, 786, 451
1892	286, 683	1, 084	310, 764, 372	207, 013	1, 124	232, 682, 612
1893	281, 244	1, 031	289, 962, 564	242, 575	1, 162	279, 446, 400
1894	254, 658	1, 151	293, 111, 358	214, 462	1, 142	244, 915, 604
1895	243, 971	1, 070	261, 048, 970	170, 700	1, 101	187, 940, 700
1896	237, 763	1, 136	270, 098, 768	192, 497	1, 175	226, 183, 975
1897	189, 199	1, 121	212, 092, 079	130, 129	1, 125	202, 645, 125
1898	213, 987	1, 111	237, 739, 557	199, 345	1, 111	221, 472, 295
1899	191, 564	1, 097	210, 145, 708	172, 956	1, 111	192, 154, 116
1900	226, 649	1, 097	248, 633, 953	193, 354	1, 104	213, 462, 816
1901	252, 445	1, 096	276, 679, 720	205, 467	1, 105	227, 041, 035
1902	275, 180	1, 014	279, 032, 520	230, 329	1, 007	231, 941, 308

NUMBER, AVERAGE WEIGHT, AND GROSS WEIGHT OF CATTLE RECEIVED AT THE UNION STOCK YARDS, CHICAGO, DURING THE MONTHS OF JANUARY, FEBRUARY, MARCH, APRIL, MAY, AND JUNE, 1890 TO 1902—Concluded.

Year.	March.			April.		
	Number received.	Average weight.	Gross weight.	Number received.	Average weight.	Gross weight.
1890.....	246,502	1,142	281,506,284	259,747	1,146	297,670,062
1891.....	242,816	1,105	268,811,680	201,668	1,115	224,859,820
1892.....	271,165	1,152	312,382,080	245,537	1,118	273,282,681
1893.....	244,519	1,055	257,967,545	226,760	1,107	251,023,320
1894.....	223,005	1,154	257,347,770	256,520	1,128	288,841,520
1895.....	168,381	1,052	177,186,812	160,094	1,088	166,177,572
1896.....	203,043	1,172	237,966,396	187,635	1,150	215,780,250
1897.....	209,510	1,126	235,908,260	191,996	1,080	207,355,680
1898.....	217,159	1,111	241,263,649	170,852	1,086	185,545,272
1899.....	207,811	1,118	231,778,698	174,655	1,071	187,055,505
1900.....	208,076	1,096	228,051,296	213,734	1,088	232,542,592
1901.....	207,411	1,081	224,211,291	252,458	1,041	262,808,778
1902.....	233,560	1,005	234,727,800	211,769	940	199,062,860

Year.	May.			June.		
	Number received.	Average weight.	Gross weight.	Number received.	Average weight.	Gross weight.
1890.....	299,090	1,116	333,784,440	284,087	1,057	300,227,109
1891.....	220,683	1,077	237,675,591	235,618	896	211,118,728
1892.....	264,849	1,142	302,457,558	265,717	1,088	289,100,096
1893.....	248,813	1,014	252,296,882	245,974	1,048	257,780,752
1894.....	238,413	1,060	252,717,780	213,772	1,098	234,721,656
1895.....	187,233	1,080	192,849,990	167,859	1,011	169,705,449
1896.....	205,080	1,134	232,504,020	208,948	1,113	235,608,864
1897.....	200,468	1,088	218,109,184	208,108	1,072	217,731,776
1898.....	210,908	1,099	231,782,397	213,361	1,091	232,776,851
1899.....	236,741	1,050	248,578,050	205,132	1,051	215,593,732
1900.....	241,809	1,061	256,028,849	195,102	1,068	206,368,938
1901.....	253,257	1,086	262,374,252	225,438	1,000	225,438,000
1902.....	186,901	957	178,864,257	204,813	964	197,439,732

For each of the six months, January to June, 1902, the number, average weight, and gross weight of cattle received at Chicago are shown in the following table. The number received during May was 88,279, or 32.1 per cent, less than in January, the average weight 57 pounds, or 5.6 per cent, less, and the gross weight 100,168,263 pounds, or 35.9 per cent, less. The number received during June was 17,912 more than in May, the average weight 7 pounds more, and the gross weight 18,575,475 pounds more.

NUMBER, AVERAGE WEIGHT, AND GROSS WEIGHT OF CATTLE RECEIVED AT THE UNION STOCK YARDS, CHICAGO, DURING EACH MONTH, JANUARY TO JUNE, 1902.

Month.	Number received.	Average weight.	Gross weight.
January.....	275,180	1,014	279,032,520
February.....	230,329	1,007	231,941,308
March.....	233,560	1,005	234,727,800
April.....	211,769	940	199,062,860
May.....	186,901	957	178,864,257
June.....	204,813	964	197,439,732

The price of cattle depending not only upon the supply of cattle but also to a great extent upon the price of feed, some tables are presented relating to the important item—corn—and also to an item of much less importance—hay.

A drought of the magnitude of the one which visited the Central West in the summer of 1901 not only advances the price of corn, hay, etc., but tends to hasten cattle and other stock to market, many of them underfed and in poor condition for slaughtering. Previous tables show the great reduction in the average weight of cattle received at Chicago during 1902. This low average weight may be due not alone to underfed cattle going on the market but also to the marketing of young cattle during the present extremely high prices.

The table immediately following shows the estimated acreage, production, and farm value of the corn crop in the United States each year from 1889 to 1901. The year 1901 shows the largest acreage, the smallest yield with two exceptions (1890 and 1894), and the greatest farm value during the period. The statistician of the Department of Agriculture in issuing, on May 23, 1902, his estimate of the cereal crops for 1901 makes the following note: "In the preparation of this report all proper weight has been given to the recently published census report on the crops of 1899."

ACREAGE, PRODUCTION, AND FARM VALUE OF CORN IN THE UNITED STATES, 1889 TO 1901.

[From the Reports of the United States Department of Agriculture.]

Year.	Acreage.	Production (bushels).	Farm value, December 1.
1889.....	78, 819, 651	2, 112, 892, 000	\$597, 918, 829
1890.....	71, 970, 763	1, 439, 970, 000	754, 453, 451
1891.....	76, 204, 515	2, 060, 154, 000	896, 439, 228
1892.....	70, 626, 658	1, 628, 464, 000	642, 146, 690
1893.....	72, 086, 465	1, 619, 496, 131	591, 625, 627
1894.....	62, 582, 269	1, 212, 770, 052	554, 719, 162
1895.....	82, 075, 890	2, 151, 138, 590	544, 985, 534
1896.....	81, 027, 156	2, 238, 875, 165	481, 006, 967
1897.....	80, 095, 051	1, 902, 967, 933	501, 072, 952
1898.....	77, 721, 781	1, 924, 154, 660	552, 023, 428
1899.....	82, 108, 587	2, 078, 143, 933	629, 210, 110
1900.....	83, 320, 872	2, 105, 102, 516	751, 220, 034
1901.....	91, 349, 928	1, 522, 519, 891	921, 556, 768

The table following shows for the 1st of January, February, March, April, May, and June, 1890 to 1902, the mean price per 100 pounds of good to extra steers in Chicago, the mean price per bushel of No. 2 cash corn in Chicago, and the mean price per ton of No. 1 timothy hay in Chicago. January, March, and June, 1902, show higher prices for steers, corn, and hay than the corresponding months in the years 1890 to 1901; February, 1902, shows higher prices for cattle and corn, and a higher price for hay, except in 1896, when the price was \$12.25—the same as on the 1st of February, 1902. On the 1st of April, 1902, cattle were higher than on the same date in the years 1890 to 1901, corn higher than in any of those years except 1891, and hay higher except in 1891 and 1901. On the 1st of May, 1902, cattle were higher than on the same date in the previous years, corn higher except in 1891, and hay higher except in 1891, when the price was the same as in 1902.

MEAN PRICE OF GOOD TO EXTRA STEERS, OF NO. 2 CASH CORN, AND OF NO. 1 TIMOTHY HAY IN CHICAGO ON THE 1ST OF JANUARY, FEBRUARY, MARCH, APRIL, MAY, AND JUNE, 1890 TO 1902.

[Quotations are from the reports of the Chicago Board of Trade, and from the Daily Trade Bulletin and the Daily Inter Ocean.]

Year.	1st of January.			1st of February.		
	Mean price per 100 pounds of good to extra steers.	Mean price per bushel of No. 2 cash corn.	Mean price per ton of No. 1 timothy hay.	Mean price per 100 pounds of good to extra steers.	Mean price per bushel of No. 2 cash corn.	Mean price per ton of No. 1 timothy hay.
1890.....	\$4.15	\$0.29 $\frac{7}{8}$	\$9.75	\$4.20	\$0.28 $\frac{3}{4}$	\$9.50
1891.....	4.65	.49 $\frac{1}{2}$	9.37 $\frac{1}{2}$	4.90	.51 $\frac{1}{8}$	9.25
1892.....	5.25	.89 $\frac{1}{2}$	12.75	4.82 $\frac{1}{2}$.39 $\frac{1}{8}$	11.75
1893.....	5.12 $\frac{1}{2}$.40 $\frac{1}{2}$	10.75	5.30	.44 $\frac{1}{2}$	11.25
1894.....	5.15	.84 $\frac{3}{8}$	10.25	4.92 $\frac{1}{2}$.35 $\frac{1}{2}$	10.50
1895.....	5.25	.45	10.75	4.90	.40 $\frac{1}{2}$	10.25
1896.....	4.40	.25 $\frac{1}{2}$	11.75	4.22 $\frac{1}{2}$.28 $\frac{1}{2}$	12.25
1897.....	4.65	.23 $\frac{3}{4}$	8.25	4.90	.22 $\frac{1}{2}$	8.25
1898.....	5.05	.26 $\frac{1}{2}$	8.25	5.00	.27 $\frac{1}{2}$	8.25
1899.....	5.15	.36 $\frac{1}{2}$	7.75	5.52 $\frac{1}{2}$.36 $\frac{1}{2}$	7.75
1900.....	6.05	.31 $\frac{1}{2}$	10.75	5.90	.31 $\frac{1}{2}$	11.25
1901.....	5.70	.36 $\frac{1}{2}$	12.50	5.65	.36 $\frac{1}{2}$	11.75
1902.....	6.12 $\frac{1}{2}$.63 $\frac{1}{2}$	13.00	6.50	.57 $\frac{1}{2}$	12.25

Year.	1st of March.			1st of April.		
	Mean price per 100 pounds of good to extra steers.	Mean price per bushel of No. 2 cash corn.	Mean price per ton of No. 1 timothy hay.	Mean price per 100 pounds of good to extra steers.	Mean price per bushel of No. 2 cash corn.	Mean price per ton of No. 1 timothy hay.
1890.....	\$4.42 $\frac{1}{2}$	\$0.28 $\frac{3}{8}$	\$3.25	\$4.45	\$0.29 $\frac{9}{8}$	\$9.50
1891.....	5.07 $\frac{1}{2}$.54 $\frac{1}{2}$	10.00	5.47 $\frac{1}{2}$.67 $\frac{1}{2}$	14.75
1892.....	4.65	.41 $\frac{1}{2}$	11.50	4.32 $\frac{1}{2}$.39 $\frac{1}{8}$	11.25
1893.....	5.32 $\frac{1}{2}$.40	10.87 $\frac{1}{2}$	5.37 $\frac{1}{2}$.39 $\frac{1}{8}$	11.25
1894.....	4.50	.34 $\frac{1}{2}$	10.00	4.25	.36 $\frac{1}{8}$	10.00
1895.....	5.27 $\frac{1}{2}$.43 $\frac{7}{8}$	10.25	5.90	.45 $\frac{1}{2}$	9.25
1896.....	4.25	.29 $\frac{3}{8}$	11.25	4.07 $\frac{1}{2}$.28 $\frac{1}{2}$	11.50
1897.....	4.97 $\frac{1}{2}$.22 $\frac{1}{2}$	7.75	5.02 $\frac{1}{2}$.24 $\frac{1}{2}$	8.25
1898.....	5.22 $\frac{1}{2}$.29 $\frac{1}{2}$	8.25	5.17 $\frac{1}{2}$.29	9.25
1899.....	5.25	.36	8.25	5.25	.34 $\frac{1}{2}$	9.25
1900.....	5.45	.33 $\frac{1}{2}$	10.75	5.25	.38 $\frac{1}{2}$	11.00
1901.....	5.55	.39 $\frac{1}{2}$	12.25	5.65	.43 $\frac{1}{2}$	13.50
1902.....	6.50	.60	12.75	6.62 $\frac{1}{2}$.58 $\frac{1}{2}$	12.50

Year.	1st of May.			1st of June.		
	Mean price per 100 pounds of good to extra steers.	Mean price per bushel of No. 2 cash corn.	Mean price per ton of No. 1 timothy hay.	Mean price per 100 pounds of good to extra steers.	Mean price per bushel of No. 2 cash corn.	Mean price per ton of No. 1 timothy hay.
1890.....	\$4.50	\$0.32 $\frac{1}{2}$	\$11.00	\$4.72 $\frac{1}{2}$	\$0.33 $\frac{7}{8}$	\$10.25
1891.....	5.75	.67 $\frac{1}{2}$	13.50	5.70	.55 $\frac{1}{2}$	12.50
1892.....	4.45	.40 $\frac{1}{2}$	11.50	4.37 $\frac{1}{2}$.50 $\frac{1}{2}$	13.50
1893.....	5.32 $\frac{1}{2}$.41 $\frac{1}{2}$	12.50	5.62 $\frac{1}{2}$.40 $\frac{1}{2}$	11.00
1894.....	4.32 $\frac{1}{2}$.37 $\frac{1}{2}$	9.50	4.17 $\frac{1}{2}$.37 $\frac{1}{2}$	9.75
1895.....	5.67 $\frac{1}{2}$.47 $\frac{1}{2}$	10.00	5.57 $\frac{1}{2}$.51 $\frac{1}{2}$	9.75
1896.....	4.05	.28 $\frac{1}{2}$	12.75	4.10	.27 $\frac{1}{2}$	11.50
1897.....	5.05	.24 $\frac{1}{2}$	9.50	5.02 $\frac{1}{2}$.23 $\frac{1}{2}$	9.00
1898.....	4.87 $\frac{1}{2}$.33 $\frac{1}{2}$	9.25	4.90	.33 $\frac{1}{2}$	9.75
1899.....	5.20	.34 $\frac{1}{2}$	9.75	5.30	.33 $\frac{1}{2}$	10.25
1900.....	5.35	.40 $\frac{1}{2}$	12.00	5.37 $\frac{1}{2}$.37 $\frac{1}{2}$	11.00
1901.....	5.60	.49 $\frac{1}{2}$	12.50	5.75	.43 $\frac{1}{2}$	12.25
1902.....	6.82 $\frac{1}{2}$.61 $\frac{1}{2}$	13.50	7.10	.61 $\frac{1}{2}$	13.75

The table following shows for the 1st of each month, January to June, 1902, the same information as is given in the table immediately preceding. Cattle show a gradual advance since January. Corn was \$0.63 $\frac{1}{2}$ per bushel the 1st of January, \$0.57 $\frac{1}{2}$ the 1st of February,

and \$0.61 $\frac{5}{8}$ the 1st of June. Hay on the six dates under consideration was as low as \$12.25 per ton on the 1st of February and as high as \$13.75 on the 1st of June.

MEAN PRICE OF GOOD TO EXTRA STEERS, OF NO. 2 CASH CORN, AND OF NO. 1 TIMOTHY HAY IN CHICAGO ON THE 1ST OF EACH MONTH, JANUARY TO JUNE, 1902.

Month.	Mean price per 100 pounds of good to extra steers.	Mean price per bushel of No. 2 cash corn.	Mean price per ton of No. 1 timothy hay.
January	\$6.12 $\frac{1}{2}$	\$0.63 $\frac{1}{2}$	\$13.00
February	6.50	.57 $\frac{1}{2}$	12.25
March	6.50	.60	12.75
April	6.62 $\frac{1}{2}$.58 $\frac{1}{2}$	12.50
May	6.82 $\frac{1}{2}$.61 $\frac{1}{2}$	13.50
June.....	7.10	.61 $\frac{3}{8}$	13.75

The published freight rates on dressed beef, for domestic consumption, from Chicago to Boston during the last thirteen years are shown in the table which follows.

The lowest rate, \$0.30 per 100 pounds, was in effect from July 3 to November 23, 1890; the highest rate, \$0.45 per 100 pounds, was in effect from May 1, 1889, to June 15, 1890, from November 24, 1890, to January 31, 1899, from January 1, 1900, to July 28, 1901, and from January 1, 1902, to March 25, 1902. The rate established on March 26, 1902, still remains in effect.

PUBLISHED FREIGHT RATES ON DRESSED BEEF, FOR DOMESTIC CONSUMPTION, FROM CHICAGO TO BOSTON, MAY 1, 1889, TO JUNE 30, 1902.

[Furnished by the Interstate Commerce Commission.]

Date of change.	Rate per 100 pounds.	Date of change.	Rate per 100 pounds.
May 1, 1889	\$0.45	November 24, 1890	\$0.45
June 16, 189042	February 1, 189940
June 20, 189039	January 1, 190045
June 26, 189036	July 29, 190140
June 30, 189033	January 1, 190245
July 3, 189030	March 26, 190240

The tables following show the quantity and value of domestic exports from the United States of cattle, canned beef, fresh beef, salted, pickled, and other cured beef, tallow, and corn during the months of January, February, March, April, and May, 1890 to 1902. Exports from the United States to Hawaii and Porto Rico are not included after June 30, 1900. Exports from Hawaii to foreign countries are included after June 30, 1900, and from Porto Rico to foreign countries after July 1, 1901.

During May, 1902, a less number of cattle was exported than during the same month of the other years since 1898, and their value was less than the value in May of the other years since 1895.

Canned beef shows heavy exports during the months of the present year, the United Kingdom taking a large portion of the total. The

quantity of this article exported during April, 1902, was 151.8 per cent greater and the value 160.0 per cent greater than during April, 1901. In May, 1902, the exports were 81.2 per cent greater in quantity and 89.8 per cent greater in value than in May, 1901.

The exports of fresh beef in April, 1902, were 31.6 per cent less in quantity and 22.2 per cent less in value than they were in April, 1901. In May, 1902, the exports were 26.0 per cent less in quantity and 10.9 per cent less in value than in May, 1901.

The exports of salted, pickled, and other cured beef were less during January, February, and May and greater during March and April, 1902, than they were during the corresponding months in 1901.

Less tallow was exported in April, 1902, than in the same month of any other year since 1895. The value also was less than in April of any other year since 1897. The quantity and value exported during May, 1902, were both less than during the same month of the preceding twelve years. The quantity was 63.5 per cent less and the value 54.8 per cent less than in May, 1901.

Corn shows a great decrease, the exports being less, both in quantity and value, during each of the months January, February, March, April, and May, 1902, than during the corresponding months of the preceding twelve years. April, 1902, compared with April, 1901, shows a decrease in quantity of 88.6 per cent and in value of 84.6 per cent. May, 1902, compared with May, 1901, shows a decrease in quantity of 95.6 per cent and in value of 93.9 per cent, or the exports of corn in May, 1901, were 22.6 times as great in quantity and 16.3 times as great in value as the exports in May, 1902.

NUMBER AND VALUE OF DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF CATTLE FROM THE UNITED STATES DURING JANUARY, FEBRUARY, MARCH, APRIL, AND MAY, 1890 TO 1902.

[Compiled from the Monthly Summary of Commerce and Finance, issued by the Bureau of Statistics, Treasury Department.]

Year.	January.		February.		March.		April.		May.	
	Number.	Value.	Number.	Value.	Number.	Value.	Number.	Value.	Number.	Value.
1890..	21,342	\$1,774,497	21,252	\$1,738,642	31,000	\$2,424,380	42,773	\$3,514,790	42,266	\$3,446,515
1891..	27,855	2,302,082	27,927	2,343,061	32,771	2,748,024	16,226	1,384,123	21,943	1,873,818
1892..	32,062	2,879,681	31,323	2,850,519	41,774	3,769,464	40,749	3,729,162	38,220	3,464,461
1893..	24,615	2,196,063	19,660	1,797,441	16,141	1,484,304	15,405	1,397,128	20,047	1,856,147
1894..	26,598	2,498,418	27,128	2,528,655	35,667	3,358,496	43,771	4,058,675	42,996	3,989,877
1895..	23,255	2,160,525	23,924	2,059,374	22,427	2,097,132	21,111	1,991,994	22,687	2,118,353
1896..	35,709	3,276,701	36,582	3,361,892	38,599	3,574,783	36,080	3,234,462	33,691	3,117,209
1897..	35,319	3,275,461	31,168	2,844,493	34,144	3,152,712	34,240	3,123,956	41,030	3,776,797
1898..	38,588	3,297,726	38,811	3,287,519	40,571	3,507,687	30,807	2,772,789	29,391	2,672,944
1899..	28,325	2,091,678	21,235	1,780,311	37,304	2,806,237	32,243	2,683,668	43,068	3,207,882
1900..	26,852	2,054,761	32,600	2,736,210	28,685	2,360,965	28,149	2,406,745	33,258	2,766,751
1901..	34,046	3,015,807	32,796	2,968,504	33,492	3,001,958	37,842	3,220,742	44,328	3,597,677
1902..	26,330	2,315,117	23,238	1,986,094	25,564	2,108,566	23,295	1,748,565	30,315	2,119,149

BEEF PRICES.

QUANTITY AND VALUE OF DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF CANNED BEEF FROM THE UNITED STATES DURING JANUARY, FEBRUARY, MARCH, APRIL, AND MAY, 1890 TO 1902.

[Compiled from the Monthly Summary of Commerce and Finance, issued by the Bureau of Statistics, Treasury Department.]

Year.	January.		February.		March.		April.		May.	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
1890..	5,585,184	\$446,661	4,701,860	\$378,107	4,902,038	\$408,694	6,754,772	\$540,937	4,452,044	\$388,753
1891..	7,121,514	569,250	6,058,284	494,126	6,469,610	542,060	7,568,083	630,291	7,887,189	698,174
1892..	12,269,960	1,171,159	5,314,144	487,262	7,178,513	633,351	4,962,873	436,632	5,167,796	449,349
1893..	6,620,003	581,612	4,797,569	452,915	6,423,253	588,055	3,567,453	321,215	2,911,234	269,394
1894..	5,167,787	479,877	3,395,988	294,104	3,152,819	282,243	3,140,466	258,926	3,482,576	284,158
1895..	5,738,964	506,860	4,914,695	415,931	4,590,451	425,803	4,578,636	424,987	4,007,758	375,726
1896..	10,097,649	923,667	4,532,481	417,741	4,586,741	405,617	3,121,548	256,890	3,559,153	301,843
1897..	4,437,382	385,945	3,421,052	296,384	2,727,721	241,722	3,192,780	281,841	4,368,793	382,322
1898..	3,966,832	360,931	2,812,295	247,794	3,356,817	313,460	2,518,555	212,358	1,827,815	164,834
1899..	3,559,337	322,674	2,544,834	228,898	3,221,595	281,595	2,330,896	258,814	2,646,989	245,634
1900..	6,358,282	596,519	4,498,465	447,487	3,474,510	341,848	2,058,782	198,739	2,482,875	241,815
1901..	3,795,323	370,220	3,048,844	299,633	6,984,704	679,061	3,822,290	369,308	3,762,063	365,847
1902..	6,518,887	638,561	4,893,585	489,297	4,820,867	465,284	9,624,543	960,335	6,816,385	693,503

QUANTITY AND VALUE OF DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF FRESH BEEF FROM THE UNITED STATES DURING JANUARY, FEBRUARY, MARCH, APRIL, AND MAY, 1890 TO 1902.

[Compiled from the Monthly Summary of Commerce and Finance issued by the Bureau of Statistics, Treasury Department.]

Year.	January.		February.		March.		April.		May.	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
1890..	11,264,043	\$ 819,670	14,568,879	\$1,113,790	15,134,827	\$1,137,796	12,214,026	\$ 909,397	16,939,205	\$1,298,362
1891..	8,448,533	1,030,269	16,315,786	1,265,352	17,409,807	1,406,005	17,040,584	1,410,469	16,877,663	1,411,473
1892..	16,026,951	1,854,627	15,991,021	1,332,138	18,577,155	1,513,037	19,507,908	1,691,995	24,194,710	1,915,369
1893..	15,574,888	1,338,415	15,132,631	1,361,892	14,769,808	1,334,223	14,119,621	1,291,806	12,766,294	1,141,380
1894..	15,735,046	1,389,027	15,703,521	1,329,693	18,925,887	1,565,412	17,796,134	1,445,356	19,825,155	1,633,591
1895..	16,996,721	1,493,190	16,084,302	1,381,885	17,283,481	1,431,139	16,498,886	1,524,818	15,205,952	1,490,965
1896..	17,696,364	1,489,825	18,323,062	1,547,087	25,476,204	2,037,999	22,794,690	1,843,737	24,626,280	2,195,300
1897..	24,040,351	1,772,110	24,858,476	1,856,414	23,110,984	1,811,404	24,180,286	1,886,754	26,007,475	2,036,080
1898..	24,892,832	2,071,219	22,834,297	1,935,891	22,128,127	1,839,051	22,209,520	1,884,205	22,754,330	1,979,284
1899..	20,213,128	1,706,925	22,645,118	1,880,769	25,547,027	2,081,745	25,310,231	2,090,517	28,754,287	2,379,301
1900..	20,340,074	1,897,920	25,416,552	2,291,153	25,445,282	2,202,354	25,657,495	2,247,351	28,687,961	2,439,208
1901..	26,124,704	2,391,488	27,286,651	2,465,823	31,189,966	2,735,437	33,277,711	2,998,264	33,780,647	3,009,713
1902..	21,971,692	2,088,280	18,866,074	1,864,763	23,982,833	2,272,759	22,747,266	2,331,536	25,008,813	2,682,550

QUANTITY AND VALUE OF DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF SALTED, PICKLED, AND OTHER CURED BEEF FROM THE UNITED STATES DURING JANUARY, FEBRUARY, MARCH, APRIL, AND MAY, 1890 TO 1902.

[Compiled from the Monthly Summary of Commerce and Finance issued by the Bureau of Statistics, Treasury Department.]

Year.	January.		February.		March.		April.		May.	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
1890..	8,375,551	\$43,487	11,380,349	\$46,359	11,841,507	\$601,017	9,360,233	\$516,780	8,033,754	\$456,047
1891..	8,536,806	527,030	8,363,359	446,932	7,972,326	464,936	5,119,528	309,053	4,013,377	233,041
1892..	5,474,644	314,993	5,695,965	312,156	6,242,531	354,812	4,956,207	281,193	5,465,500	289,983
1893..	3,646,065	205,851	4,369,270	284,246	4,013,602	252,445	3,358,920	200,761	4,385,294	236,686
1894..	5,373,259	326,766	4,103,079	243,786	6,157,590	368,320	6,038,414	352,140	5,985,326	326,141
1895..	6,769,958	402,449	6,414,016	367,062	5,455,429	313,175	4,649,190	270,447	4,757,725	296,030
1896..	6,395,120	371,002	6,742,776	405,966	5,948,152	341,323	5,894,035	335,632	6,911,696	384,400
1897..	3,739,226	182,873	2,578,297	140,767	3,729,120	192,651	3,854,859	189,631	3,376,290	176,140
1898..	3,104,462	176,641	3,471,180	198,251	4,548,150	263,866	4,085,852	232,692	4,424,813	265,525
1899..	3,292,760	197,123	2,945,326	160,533	3,978,572	239,757	4,747,361	275,396	3,186,503	179,286
1900..	3,436,184	205,903	4,373,122	270,655	4,199,228	245,655	4,506,797	269,756	5,208,377	316,587
1901..	3,713,637	223,741	3,700,094	217,622	4,639,530	251,265	4,353,400	249,057	5,909,998	324,337
1902..	3,202,840	200,568	2,929,359	184,083	4,999,609	315,900	4,504,320	291,961	4,218,207	300,271

QUANTITY AND VALUE OF DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF TALLOW FROM THE UNITED STATES DURING JANUARY, FEBRUARY, MARCH, APRIL, AND MAY, 1890 TO 1902.

[Compiled from the Monthly Summary of Commerce and Finance issued by the Bureau of Statistics, Treasury Department.]

Year.	January.		February.		March.		April.		May.	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
1890.	10,754,921	\$586,831	8,064,883	\$400,103	9,832,182	\$461,474	7,834,027	\$371,741	10,857,991	\$487,172
1891.	8,261,566	408,775	11,279,575	572,821	12,102,184	591,122	8,941,956	448,739	5,511,917	276,818
1892.	8,855,896	439,675	6,896,166	336,086	8,091,075	396,349	9,689,162	466,797	7,623,010	371,664
1893.	2,484,644	125,195	1,760,531	97,516	2,423,199	149,527	4,951,871	247,422	6,756,997	349,474
1894.	2,525,045	132,289	1,025,016	58,514	2,667,136	135,496	2,277,996	114,435	4,425,373	224,218
1895.	1,453,091	71,838	1,374,128	67,240	1,358,996	66,383	931,019	47,717	2,045,708	101,998
1896.	4,340,543	216,437	3,454,531	157,596	7,579,213	321,947	5,665,940	232,867	6,791,500	253,722
1897.	3,071,805	115,314	2,519,750	98,202	3,656,353	136,665	2,694,168	102,878	5,391,990	190,756
1898.	6,083,541	240,471	3,460,772	136,389	8,738,806	345,512	11,656,753	448,268	11,268,965	456,490
1899.	10,053,622	397,642	8,108,230	319,376	7,023,793	297,489	8,292,000	358,310	11,464,366	503,598
1900.	5,293,213	270,619	6,041,818	321,446	8,435,842	451,019	7,420,629	384,847	7,198,749	369,049
1901.	6,400,001	326,700	5,729,827	293,532	5,914,630	298,680	4,519,211	229,462	3,894,355	195,668
1902.	2,320,167	131,045	2,543,573	156,671	2,251,712	138,418	2,057,958	132,556	1,420,618	88,476

QUANTITY AND VALUE OF DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF CORN FROM THE UNITED STATES DURING JANUARY, FEBRUARY, MARCH, APRIL, AND MAY, 1890 TO 1902.

[Compiled from the Monthly Summary of Commerce and Finance issued by the Bureau of Statistics, Treasury Department.]

Yr.	January.		February.		March.		April.		May.	
	Bushels.	Value.	Bushels.	Value.	Bushels.	Value.	Bushels.	Value.	Bushels.	Value.
1890	8,501,283	\$ 594,314	13,527,210	\$ 5,513,918	13,877,589	\$ 5,595,095	13,898,215	\$ 5,588,781	10,329,115	\$ 4,357,668
1891	1,343,191	802,712	1,441,065	888,446	2,787,561	1,795,174	1,535,424	1,092,611	1,999,814	1,493,434
1892	14,500,874	7,797,218	12,307,972	6,677,323	11,681,017	6,017,497	8,726,343	4,331,656	5,972,315	3,140,990
1893	3,159,947	1,700,692	3,613,533	1,896,933	3,849,839	1,961,096	4,240,531	2,169,171	5,608,400	2,337,708
1894	8,701,831	3,869,744	5,884,040	2,678,008	7,081,893	3,150,167	7,370,607	3,307,628	3,780,459	1,689,218
1895	3,782,419	1,854,731	2,838,532	1,410,698	3,390,284	1,704,636	4,083,579	2,088,691	4,414,455	2,498,044
1896	14,667,314	5,151,960	12,981,296	4,587,236	9,590,814	3,402,640	7,454,885	2,629,861	8,213,443	3,012,402
1897	16,319,917	4,902,196	22,360,346	6,572,856	25,352,174	7,548,062	18,987,577	5,591,821	11,460,112	3,545,295
1898	18,608,381	6,427,414	18,586,997	6,615,121	18,665,215	6,651,351	23,166,082	8,372,423	23,147,902	11,179,723
1899	14,393,016	6,014,534	14,872,533	6,237,338	14,018,927	6,614,953	13,271,788	5,489,489	16,305,517	6,535,260
1900	15,332,546	6,063,050	15,375,363	6,146,923	14,535,201	6,021,627	15,720,333	6,928,612	18,705,084	8,213,098
1901	19,438,395	8,576,743	16,900,726	7,651,935	13,504,403	6,315,112	10,172,830	5,022,185	10,636,217	5,287,698
1902	1,046,110	721,492	1,272,830	862,058	1,223,365	827,148	1,159,783	775,298	471,495	324,291

The table following shows for each month, January to May, 1902, the same information relating to domestic exports as is given in the tables immediately preceding:

QUANTITY AND VALUE OF DOMESTIC EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES OF CATTLE, BEEF PRODUCTS, AND CORN, DURING EACH MONTH, JANUARY TO MAY, 1902.

Month.	Cattle.		Canned beef.		Fresh beef.	
	Number.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
January	26,330	\$2,315,117	6,518,887	\$638,561	21,971,692	\$2,088,280
February	23,288	1,986,094	4,893,585	499,297	18,866,074	1,864,763
March	25,564	2,103,566	4,820,667	465,284	23,982,833	2,272,759
April	23,295	1,748,565	9,624,543	960,335	22,747,266	2,331,536
May	30,815	2,119,149	6,816,385	693,503	25,008,813	2,882,850

Month.	Salted, pickled, and other cured beef.		Tallow.		Corn.	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.	Bushels.	Value.
January	3,202,840	\$200,568	2,320,167	\$131,045	1,046,110	\$721,492
February	2,929,359	184,083	2,543,573	156,671	1,272,830	862,058
March	4,999,609	315,900	2,251,712	138,418	1,223,365	827,148
April	4,604,320	291,961	2,057,958	132,556	1,159,783	775,298
May	4,218,207	300,271	1,420,618	88,476	471,495	324,291

THE TRUE REFORMERS.

BY WILLIAM TAYLOR THOM, PH. D.

The "True Reformers" constitutes probably the most remarkable Negro organization in the country. The association has its headquarters in Richmond, Va., and its history in brief is as follows:

THE GRAND FOUNTAIN.

The association was organized in January, 1881, by Rev. William Washington Browne, an ex-slave of Habersham County, Ga., as a fraternal beneficiary institution composed of male and female members, and began with 100 members and a capital of \$150. On April 4, 1883, or over two years later, the circuit court of the city of Richmond, Va., granted a regular charter of incorporation as a joint stock company to Browne and his associates under the name of "The Grand Fountain of the United Order of True Reformers." The chief purpose of incorporation was "to provide what is to be known as an endowment or mutual benefit fund;" the capital stock was "to be not less than one hundred dollars nor more than ten thousand dollars, to be divided into shares of the value of five dollars each;" the company was to hold real estate "not to exceed in value the sum of twenty-five thousand dollars;" the principal office was "to be kept in the city of Richmond," and the officers named in the charter for the first year were Rev. William W. Browne, Richmond, Va., grand worthy master; Eliza Allen, Petersburg, Va., grand worthy mistress; R. T. Quarles, Ashland, Va., grand worthy vice-master; S. W. Sutton, Richmond, Va., grand worthy chaplain; Peter H. Woolfolk, Richmond, Va., grand worthy secretary; Robert I. Clarke, Centralia, Va., grand worthy treasurer. These, with six others, composed the board of directors for the first year. Thus the True Reformers started on their way as a full-fledged joint stock corporation whose chief aim was to provide a form of what is known as mutual beneficial insurance for its members. In 1898 the charter was amended so that a part of section 2 should read as follows: "The said corporation shall issue certificates of membership to its members and shall pay death benefits to the heirs, assigns, personal or legal representatives of the deceased members;" and section 4 as follows: "The real estate to be held shall not exceed in value the sum of five hundred thousand (\$500,000) dollars."

Up to December, 1901, the last report of the organization shows that it had paid in death claims \$606,000 and in sick dues \$1,500,000, and that the membership was over 50,000, having increased 18,000 in the preceding year. The increase in twenty years from a membership of 100 and a capital of \$150 to a membership of over 50,000, with payments to members aggregating over \$2,000,000, and with real estate aggregating \$223,500 in value, constitutes an excellent showing.

But it is not the growth nor even the existence of the Grand Fountain of the True Reformers as a mutual insurance association, with its small army of employees, that causes it to be considered here; it is the affiliated by-products, to use an industrial expression, that are of interest and that may prove to be of great economic value to the Negro race.

THE SAVINGS BANK.

The first by-product was naturally a depository for the funds of the Grand Fountain. After about five years of use of other depositories, the savings bank of the Grand Fountain of the United Order of True Reformers was incorporated by the legislature of Virginia, by an act passed on March 2, 1888, the seventh section of which act declared "the object of this incorporation is to provide a depository for the grand and subordinate fountains of the United Order of True Reformers, a benevolent institution incorporated for such purposes by the circuit court of the city of Richmond."

The act gives the bank a very liberal charter, the chief provisions being as follows: The second section provides that the capital stock of the bank shall not be less than \$10,000 nor more than \$100,000, in shares of \$5 each, the bank not to begin business until 20 per cent of the minimum capital stock shall have been paid in. The third section is perhaps the most important. It provides that "the board of directors elected by the Grand Fountain of the United Order of True Reformers shall constitute the board of directors of said bank; they shall continue in office until the first meeting of the members; at such first meeting, and at every annual meeting thereafter, directors shall be elected, who may be removed by the Grand Fountain, United Order of the True Reformers, in general meeting, but unless so removed shall continue in office until their successors shall be duly elected and qualified." The remainder of the section gives the usual prescriptions as to meetings, directors, and by-laws. The fourth section prescribes the appointment by the board of directors of officers and agents of the bank. The fifth section authorizes the bank to acquire real estate for the transaction of its business and also such real estate as may come to it by conveyance or by foreclosure of mortgage in payment of debt due. The sixth section provides that the "bank may receive money on deposit and grant certificates therefor, and may levy, sell, and

negotiate coin, bank notes, foreign and domestic bills of exchange, and negotiable notes payable in and out of this State. It may loan money on personal and real security, and receive interest in advance; may guarantee the payment of notes, bonds, bills of exchange, or other evidence of debt; and may receive for safe-keeping gold and silver plate, diamonds, jewelry, and other valuables, and charge reasonable compensation therefor; the money received on deposit by said bank, and other funds of the same, may be invested in or loaned on real security or be used in purchasing or discounting bonds, bills, notes, or other papers."

This broad-based financial instrument of the Grand Fountain began operations April 3, 1889, in a small room of the residence of the president. On that date 40 per cent of the minimum capital, or \$4,000, had been paid, and the deposits for the opening day amounted to \$1,268.69. The amount of business done for the first year, according to the official guide book of the organization, was \$15,282; and the second year the business amounted to \$104,284. The total business of the bank up to the end of the year, December 31, 1899, is given by the guide book as \$5,582,990, and the total business reported up to the time of this investigation (December, 1901) was \$7,426,450.92. There are more than 10,000 depositors. The stock of the bank, says the guide book, is sold to the members of the organization, and pays a dividend of 20 per cent on the dollar. The bank pays 4 per cent on time deposits. In 1893, according to the same authority, this was the only bank in Richmond which continued to pay currency to its depositors during the financial stringency, while the other banks were using scrip—a remarkable record.

REAL ESTATE DEPARTMENT.

In 1882 the real estate department of the Grand Fountain was established. This department grew out of the necessity of having offices and buildings in which to carry on the business of the organization, and to furnish halls for the subordinate fountains. The Grand Fountain now occupies a large four-story building, 604 to 608 North Second street, Richmond, Va., which contains, in addition to the various offices of the Grand Fountain, a large hall, the banking room, and the printing office. The real estate department furnishes a channel for investment for the bank, and the rents and profits of the department are used to pay dividends to stockholders of the bank, dividends from which source up to January 1, 1900, had amounted to over \$55,000. At the same date the organization owned 15 halls, 3 farms, 2 dwellings, 1 hotel, and held 14 halls by lease. During 1900 and 1901 the amount of property owned by the organization increased greatly, the total, as already given, aggregating \$223,500; and important purchases of valuable property in two of the large cities of the Central West were understood at the time of this investigation to be in contemplation or in process of realization.

THE REFORMER.

In 1892, also, *The Reformer*, described as "the headlight of the organization, * * * an industrial, agricultural, and financial paper, * * * an economic journal in the interest of the Negro race," was founded, and it began publication in January, 1893, first as a bimonthly, then, after some months, as a weekly. It had a circulation in 1900 of over 8,000, and a job printing department is attached to its office.

OLD FOLKS' HOMES.

In 1893 the Grand Fountain decided to begin the collection of money "for the erection of Old Folks' Homes, for the benefit of the old people of the entire race regardless of society or denomination." In 1897 a farm of 634½ acres, known as the Westham farm and the site of the historic Westham iron furnace within 6 miles of Richmond, in Henrico County, Va., was bought at a cost of \$14,400, for the location of the first Old Folks' Home. There is a large dwelling house, with the usual outhouses, on this farm; and it is further designed to erect suitable buildings for inmates as soon as sufficient funds shall have been collected for the purpose.

In August, 1898, the circuit court of the city of Richmond granted a charter of incorporation containing the following provisions:

1. The said association is to be known by the name of the Old Folks' Homes of the Grand Fountain, United Order of True Reformers.

2. The capital stock of the said association shall be nominally \$5,000, and divided into shares of \$5 each.

3. The object of this association is to establish self-sustaining institutions where the aged, infirm, and indigent members of the colored race may be provided with a comfortable home, gratuitously or on such terms as may be prescribed by the by-laws of the association.

4. For the purposes herein set forth, to take and hold all real estate not exceeding \$200,000 in value and personal property that may be purchased, given, granted, bequeathed, and devised to it, and to change investments, to exchange or sell real estate, and to deal with said property as may seem judicious.

5. The board of directors elected by the Grand Fountain, United Order of True Reformers, at its annual meetings, shall constitute the board of governors of the said association, with power to make such by-laws, rules, and regulations, and to select such officers and committees as will be necessary to the correct management of the association.

6. The principal office of the association shall be in the city of Richmond.

In 1898 a surveyor was employed and a settlement to be known as Brownsville was laid off in lots of one-half acre each, on the part of the Westham farm adjoining Westham Station, Henrico County, Va. The lots front on a broad street, and are for sale at \$50 each, on terms of easy payment.

Up to December, 1901, the most important progress made in this scheme of a home for the aged was that the Old Folks' Home as a corporation had gotten together enough money to repay the purchase money advanced by the Grand Fountain, and therefore to own its property free of obligation. The farm was being improved gradually; fruit trees had been planted; arrangements were being made to test the feasibility of establishing a dairy farm to sell milk in Richmond. The home as such was not open to inmates; the additional buildings had not been put up by the contributions of the different States, as is the hoped-for realization of the scheme; and the lots in the proposed Brownsville had not been sold nor offered for sale in any active way. The management seemed to be making haste with conservative slowness, and, while by no means idle, was waiting wisely for a sufficient contribution of funds by the charitable public. A considerable portion of the farm is in woods, and, with proper handling, it can be made the source of perennial revenue at a very small outlay, as Richmond will absorb all the wood that the farm can supply.

The Old Folks' Home seemed to be regarded as the ward of the organization, to be fostered, and not as an institution intended to strengthen it financially.

THE REFORMERS' MERCANTILE AND INDUSTRIAL ASSOCIATION.

In September, 1899, the annual session of the Grand Fountain decided to apply for a charter of an importance to it second only to the bank charter granted by the legislature eleven years before. On December 15, 1899, the circuit court of Richmond granted a charter incorporating the Reformers' Mercantile and Industrial Association, and containing the following provisions:

I. The corporate name of the association shall be The Reformers' Mercantile and Industrial Association.

II. The purposes for which this association is formed are, first, to manufacture, buy, and sell, at wholesale or retail, or both, groceries, goods, wares, implements, supplies, and articles of merchandise of any and every description, manufactured or grown, in this State or any other States or country, on its own account, and also for others on commission or otherwise; and to establish and maintain warehouses and stores at such places as may be agreed upon by the board of directors; second, to build and erect a hotel in the city of Richmond, Va., to lease out said hotel so erected, or to conduct and carry on the hotel business therein, as shall be determined by the board of directors of said association; third, to conduct and carry on newspaper, book, and job printing business in all its branches, and do generally all the things that pertain to a printing establishment; fourth, to buy and sell and improve land in the State of Virginia or elsewhere with the right to lay off the same into lots, streets, and alleys, to improve said lands by erecting buildings thereon, and to dispose of the same as shall seem best for the interest of the association, and

shall have authority to dispose of any real or personal estate, or to mortgage or otherwise encumber the same as may be deemed necessary by its board of directors to the proper prosecution of its business, and may on any real property acquired erect and maintain any structure and machinery needful for the manufacturing of any kind of wood, metals, wool, cotton, and other materials, and may operate, lease, sell, or otherwise dispose of the same; and said company is authorized to borrow money when necessary for the better conduct of its business and to secure the same when so ordered by the board of directors; sixth, to conduct a building and loan business and loan associations.

III. The capital stock of this company shall not be less than \$100,000.

IV. The capital stock shall be divided into shares of \$100 each, payable in such installments as the board of directors may direct.

V. The real estate to be held shall not exceed 3,000 acres of land in any county of this State, or of any other State or country.

VI. The principal office of the company shall be, and its chief business shall be carried on, in the city of Richmond, Va., but it is authorized to engage in mercantile, hotel, building and loan, printing, and may transact any other business authorized by this charter anywhere in this or other States or countries as its interest may demand, at the discretion of the board of directors.

VII. The chief business to be transacted will be such as is necessary for the purposes herein set out in this charter.

VIII. The board of directors elected by the Grand Fountain of the United Order of True Reformers, at every annual meeting, shall constitute the board of directors of said company.

Under this charter the association began business by opening a grocery and general merchandise store in Richmond in April, 1900; a second store in Washington, D. C., in March, 1901; a third and fourth in Manchester and Portsmouth, Va., in June, 1901; and a fifth in Roanoke, Va., in December, 1901. These stores were reported as doing a combined business of \$75,000 a year, and the association as being rated as "O. K." by the mercantile agencies.

The business methods of the stores, as far as can be learned, are sound. Supplies, deliverable as needed, are bought in large quantities for cash, and are sold at a fair retail profit, likewise for cash; and the managers of the stores make weekly reports and daily (or weekly) remittances. This cash system prevents the overaccumulation of supplies and loading up the books with bad debts; and the system of frequent reports prevents the risk of large loss through dishonest employees.

The present policy of this department of the Grand Fountain is to extend the mercantile business as rapidly as possible, and to buy, where the success of the stores seems to justify it, lots for the erection of buildings for the use of the stores, for halls, and for other purposes of the general organization. Such buildings may reasonably be expected to pay for themselves. But the charter looks far beyond mere merchandising. It authorizes the association to manufacture as

well as to buy and sell; and it provides that land may be acquired, in Virginia or elsewhere, and may be so disposed of as to form the sites of manufacturing towns around shops and factories adapted to manufacturing the products of the forests or of the mine, or to converting the products of the sheep ranch or of the cotton field into textile fabrics. With this in view, the Mercantile Association is authorized to organize building and loan associations in Virginia or elsewhere.

If the Mercantile Association continues to be managed with what appears to be its present conservatism, there seems to be no reason why these aims should not be realized in so far as they may show themselves to be profitable and desirable.

HOTEL REFORMER.

The Hotel Reformer at No. 900 North Sixth street, Richmond, Va., has grown gradually under good executive management until now, by additions to the original building, it contains some fifty plain but neatly appointed living rooms, in which a considerable proportion of the office force of the Grand Fountain find their homes.

THE CHARTER OF THE ORGANIZATION.

On March 21, 1901, the charter of the organization was again amended and enlarged by the circuit court of Richmond, as follows:

It is ordered that the amended charter be altered and amended from the beginning to and including section 4 of the original charter so as to read instead of "The undersigned and their associates desiring to form," etc., as follows: "The undersigned and their associates are hereby constituted a body politic and corporate by the name and style of the Grand Fountain of the United Order of True Reformers, hereinafter called 'association,' under the provisions of the general laws of the land, being specially authorized and provided for in the acts of the regular session of 1897-98 of the general assembly of the State of Virginia, for the following purposes and objects, to wit:

"1. (a) To unite fraternally all colored persons of sound bodily health and good moral character and who are entitled to membership under the constitution and laws of the association, who are socially and otherwise acceptable to each other; (b) and to give all moral and material aid in its power to its members and those dependent upon them; (c) to educate its members, socially and morally and intellectually; (d) to establish a fund for the relief of the sick and distressed members, or for such other purposes as the association may determine; (e) to establish a benefit fund, from which, on satisfactory evidence of the death of a member of the association who has complied with all its lawful requirements, a sum not exceeding \$5,000 shall be paid to the family heirs, blood relatives, affianced husband, affianced wife, or to a person dependent upon said member, as the member may direct; (f) to secure for its members such other advantages as are from time to time designated by the constitution and laws of the association.

"2. To purchase and hold, or receive by gift, real and personal property necessary for the transaction of the corporate business, and also to purchase real estate, where necessary, in the payment of any debt due the corporation, and to sell realty for the benefit of the association, and is hereby authorized to hold real property not to exceed \$500,000.

"3. The private property of the members shall be exempted from the debts due by the corporation.

"4. The said Grand Fountain of the United Order of True Reformers shall have power to make its own constitution, by-laws, rules, and regulations, as well as the general laws for the government of all its branches, and to alter and amend the same, provided the same shall not conflict with the laws of this State nor the laws of the United States. The said association shall have power to organize, continue, and establish subordinate fountains of the Grand Fountain of the United Order of True Reformers, throughout the State, also the several States of the United States, and in other countries, and they may have and enjoy such powers, privileges, and immunities as may be conferred upon them by the laws, rules, and regulations as may be enacted by the said association."

Also the words "The conformation of a joint stock company," in the court's order granting the original charter, be stricken out and the words "The formation of a fraternal beneficiary association" inserted.

This amended charter, as compared with the original charter, it will be observed, enlarges the powers of the Grand Fountain very considerably in several particulars, besides the very important one of increasing the real estate to be held from \$25,000 to \$500,000.

The control of the whole affiliated association, it is seen, is in the Grand Fountain, which is the legislative body and meets annually.

Up to 1898 the development of the True Reformers seems to have proceeded from the initiative and under the guiding impulse of Rev. William W. Browne, described in the Guide Book as "the leading financier and organizer of the Negro race." Since 1898 the official leader has been Rev. W. L. Taylor, born a slave in Caroline County, Va., but freed by the result of the civil war while yet a child.

The organization is managed and controlled exclusively by Negroes; but the investigator did not observe a single one of the administrative and executive officers who was not of mixed blood. The management of the organization seems to have shown and to be showing both ability to plan outlines and shrewdness in the grasp of details of administration and execution.

Such is the organization of the "True Reformers." The purpose of this report is simply to make a record, neither to praise nor to blame, nor yet to prophesy. The capabilities of the organization can be read at a glance; the permanent value of its achievements time alone will show.

RECENT REPORTS OF STATE BUREAUS OF LABOR STATISTICS.

CONNECTICUT.

Seventeenth Annual Report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, for the year ending November 30, 1901. Harry E. Back, Commissioner. 443 pp.

This report includes the following subjects: Manual training in the public schools, 22 pages; new construction, 19 pages; articles manufactured, 81 pages; strikes and lockouts, 35 pages; free public employment bureaus, 48 pages; statistics of manufactures, 121 pages; labor organizations, 21 pages; labor laws, 55 pages.

MANUAL TRAINING IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.—This chapter presents a general discussion of the subject, with mention of the manual training work of Washington University, St. Louis, Mo., and of the Catholic Protectory, a reformatory institution for boys, located at Van Nest, N. Y.; also a somewhat fuller statement of the work of the Boardman Manual Training High School, of New Haven, Conn.

NEW CONSTRUCTION.—This section gives a list of buildings or additions erected during the year ending July 1, 1901, to be used for manufacturing purposes. Location, material, cost, the class of work for which intended, and the number of employees provided for are given in each instance. Eighty-seven concerns erected 92 additions and new factories in 36 towns of the State, at a total reported cost of \$2,121,741. The additional number of employees thus provided for was 2,254.

ARTICLES MANUFACTURED.—This is a series of alphabetically arranged lists showing, by towns, the numerous articles manufactured in the State.

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS.—Under this heading are given brief accounts of the labor troubles of the State for ten months ending October 30, 1901, and a tabulated statement showing the date, class of labor, name of employer, location, number of employees involved, duration, causes, and results of 93 strikes and 3 lockouts. Of the strikes, 41 were reported as successful, 10 partially successful, 10 amicably adjusted, and 32 unsuccessful. In the contentions giving rise to the lockouts, the employees were successful in one instance and partially successful in another, while the third difficulty was reported

as amicably adjusted. The number of employees involved in these difficulties was 11,250, with a reported loss of time of 250,168 days, and of wages to the amount of \$375,252.

FREE PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS.—Under the law of May 29, 1901, five free public employment bureaus were opened on July 1 following, at as many different points. The report here given covers the first five months of their operations. Full details are given, showing by sex the number and kind of positions sought for and secured, and the class of help applied for, together with an account of the obstacles met and the various conditions affecting this mode of public service.

The following table presents a summary of the results for the period covered:

SUMMARY OF OPERATIONS OF FREE PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES, JULY 1 TO NOVEMBER 30, 1901.

Location.	Applications for situations.		Applications for help.		Positions secured.		Percent of positions secured of applications for situations.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
New Haven	666	487	188	331	155	224	23.3	51.3
Hartford	1,086	1,211	544	1,064	590	1,038	54.3	85.7
Bridgeport	406	742	263	778	147	494	36.2	66.6
Norwich	321	185	61	149	81	86	25.2	46.5
Waterbury	341	347	81	411	110	216	32.3	62.2
Total	2,820	2,922	1,187	2,783	1,083	2,068	38.4	70.4

Of the females securing situations, all but about 120 were engaged for some form of domestic service. A wide range of occupations is shown in the returns for males, a considerable number taking places as skilled workmen. The largest single class of males aided by the offices was farm laborers, 343 of whom were placed. Laborers and shopmen come next in order, the numbers for these being 158 and 56, respectively.

STATISTICS OF MANUFACTURES.—This section consists chiefly of three tables, showing by industries the number of employees, number of days in operation, the total wages paid, the average annual and daily earnings, the value of products, the percentage of labor cost of value of products, and the percentage of other expenses and profits. These items are reported for the years 1900 and 1901, and, except for the last two items, there is given the percentage of increase or decrease for the latter year. Summaries and analytical text are also given.

The following table presents a summary of the more important data:

STATISTICS OF MANUFACTURES FOR THE YEAR ENDING NOVEMBER 30, 1901.

Industries.	Estab-lish-ments reporting.	Average persons em-ployed.	Average days in oper-ation.	Average annual earnings per em-ployee.	Amount paid in wages.	Gross value of product.	Per cent of labor cost of gross value of prod-uct.
Brass and brass goods.....	70	19,747	297.1	α\$502.90	\$9,958,096	\$54,123,491	18.4
Carriages and carriage parts.....	13	668	305.5	560.01	389,149	1,028,617	37.8
Corsets.....	11	4,742	290.1	320.78	1,521,159	5,388,443	28.2
Cotton goods.....	29	3,899	302.5	334.94	1,305,961	6,529,066	20.0
Cotton mills.....	27	9,819	298.1	α340.17	3,349,921	10,376,976	32.3
Cutlery and tools.....	35	3,082	296.2	485.28	1,471,381	3,586,629	41.6
General hardware.....	30	8,988	298.0	447.99	4,026,545	8,089,625	50.1
Hats and caps.....	22	2,457	281.6	α456.96	1,066,185	3,909,585	27.8
Hosiery and knit goods.....	21	3,296	289.7	357.84	1,179,452	4,579,487	25.8
Iron and iron foundries.....	40	4,411	297.6	α521.39	2,296,917	5,790,149	39.7
Leather goods.....	12	587	307.2	496.17	291,250	2,470,128	11.8
Machinshops.....	79	11,237	298.1	α528.21	5,920,251	15,076,673	39.3
Musical instruments and parts.....	13	2,002	296.4	478.22	957,405	3,770,532	25.4
Paper and paper goods.....	44	2,789	287.2	α364.47	1,017,312	4,703,956	21.6
Rubber goods.....	13	3,797	285.7	471.04	1,788,557	10,902,687	16.4
Shoes.....	4	190	297.5	α357.68	68,360	228,694	29.9
Silk goods.....	24	5,904	299.4	α394.44	2,335,747	9,430,645	24.8
Silver and plated ware.....	21	2,697	298.6	α461.03	1,252,327	3,949,049	31.7
Wire and wire goods.....	16	1,166	300.2	420.09	489,828	2,598,683	18.9
Wood working.....	23	1,181	297.9	526.27	621,524	1,811,014	34.3
Woolens and woolen mills.....	48	6,344	284.7	362.01	2,296,565	9,884,947	23.2
Miscellaneous.....	89	5,303	296.8	α454.36	2,408,357	7,424,969	32.4
Total.....	684	104,256	294.5	441.53	46,032,249	175,553,985	26.2

α Dividing the amount paid in wages by the average number of persons employed does not give this result. The figures are printed, however, as they appear in the original.

The statistics for 1900 and 1901 being for identical establishments, the following comparison of totals has been made:

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF 684 IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS FOR 1900 AND 1901.

Items.	1900.	1901.	Per cent of increase or decrease.
Average persons employed.....	102,806	104,256	+1.4
Average days in operation.....	296.9	294.5	- .8
Average annual earnings per employee.....	\$449.24	\$441.53	-1.7
Gross value of product.....	\$181,912,388	\$175,553,335	-3.5
Amount paid in wages.....	\$46,185,030	\$46,032,249	- .3
Per cent of labor cost of gross value of product.....	25.4	26.2

This table indicates a general falling off during the latter year, except in the average persons employed and in the per cent of labor cost of gross value of product. It is evident that this latter percentage does not correlate with the average annual earnings per employee, as appears more clearly from a comparison of these two items in the table by industries given above. In the manufacture of general hardware, for instance, the percentage of labor cost of gross value of product was more than four times as great as in the leather-goods industry, while the average annual earnings per employee are considerably greater in the latter industry than in the former.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.—A directory of the labor organizations in the State is the principal matter here presented. Of 340 such organizations making returns, 314 report their membership, which aggregates 32,256.

ILLINOIS.

Eleventh Biennial Report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics for the State of Illinois. 1900. David Ross, Secretary of Board of Commissioners of Labor. 282 pp.

This report is taken up with the presentation of two subjects, as follows: Statistics of manufactures, 237 pages; kindergartens, manual training, and industrial education in public schools, 42 pages.

STATISTICS OF MANUFACTURES.—Under this head are presented two series of tables, one covering the years 1895, 1897, and 1899, giving returns from 627 identical establishments in 38 industries; the other for the years 1897 and 1899, in which the same number of industries are represented by 735 establishments. The data given include the number of firms and corporations, partners and stockholders, capital invested, cost of material, value of product, number of persons employed, by sex, industries, and months, total wages paid, classified weekly earnings, and days in operation. These subjects are presented in a variety of details and combinations in 129 tables. Twenty-five additional tables present summaries of the detailed data.

The following table summarizes the returns for each series:

STATISTICS OF MANUFACTURES FOR 627 IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS FOR 1895, 1897, AND 1899, AND FOR 735 IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS FOR 1897 AND 1899.

Items.	627 establishments.			735 establishments.	
	1895.	1897.	1899.	1897.	1899.
Private firms	371	371	367	444	440
Corporations	256	256	260	291	295
Partners	549	538	510	638	605
Stockholders	5,334	5,600	6,521	6,196	7,096
Capital invested.....	\$29,078,157	\$29,835,821	\$38,713,438	\$31,684,658	\$36,061,094
Average number of employees:					
Males.....	20,056	21,059	25,804	22,539	27,536
Females.....	2,410	2,508	3,362	2,554	3,394
Total	22,466	23,567	29,166	25,093	30,930
Average yearly earnings.....	\$436.22	\$438.58	\$475.77	\$436.65	\$475.02
Average days in operation.....	255.90	258.66	261.36	253.15	268.47
Total product.....	\$97,120,822	\$109,207,579	\$135,798,309	\$113,531,999	\$141,234,272
Stock used.....	\$75,382,583	\$86,523,373	\$104,444,137	\$88,534,136	\$107,234,579
Industry product (a)	\$21,738,239	\$22,684,206	\$31,354,122	\$24,997,863	\$33,999,693
Wages paid.....	\$9,800,033	\$10,335,919	\$13,876,259	\$10,957,170	\$14,692,374
Per cent of industry product applied to wages.....	45.06	45.56	44.26	43.88	43.21
Minor expenses and profits....	54.92	54.44	55.74	56.17	56.79

a This is the difference between "Total product" and "Stock used" and represents the added value or actual product due to the manufacturing operations of the various industries.

In each of 8 industries of the State, \$1,000,000 or more were invested. Following each of the series of tables described above, series of tables are given presenting the statistics for these 8 industries, together with a summary of "Other industries" and "All industries." These 8 industries include 272 of the 735 establishments reported for 1897 and 1899, and their aggregate capital is nearly 70 per cent of the total capital reported for the latter year.

From the tables of this series the following table is collated:

STATISTICS RELATING TO EIGHT LEADING INDUSTRIES, WITH TOTALS FOR "OTHER INDUSTRIES" AND FOR "ALL INDUSTRIES," 1899.

Industries.	Estab-lish-ments.	Capital invested.	Wages paid.	Average number of employ-ees.	Average annual earn-ings.	Total product.	Stock used.
Agricultural implements.....	16	\$1,904,851	\$794,631	1,572	\$505.49	\$3,598,464	\$1,342,045
Brick, tile, and sewer pipe.....	50	1,445,706	350,459	955	366.97	1,067,761	282,810
Carriages and wagons.....	18	1,375,251	358,232	742	482.79	1,338,276	675,662
Food preparations.....	23	5,782,462	3,334,610	6,615	504.10	87,466,279	79,963,233
Ironwork, structural.....	21	1,488,967	1,034,368	1,694	610.61	2,456,899	1,201,638
Liquors, malt.....	20	5,116,149	402,710	591	681.40	5,362,530	1,766,105
Machines and machinery.....	69	5,598,036	2,264,366	4,449	508.96	7,250,043	3,414,989
Milling, flour, feed, etc.....	55	1,836,901	361,390	741	487.69	6,290,843	5,068,998
Eight industries.....	272	24,548,313	8,900,756	17,359	512.75	114,831,095	98,665,480
Other industries.....	463	11,512,781	5,791,618	13,571	426.76	26,408,177	13,569,099
All industries.....	735	36,061,094	14,692,374	30,930	475.02	141,234,272	107,234,579

Industries.	Amount of industry product.			Per cent of indus-try product ap-plied to—	
	Total.	Per \$1,000 capital in-vested.	Per employ-ee.	Wages.	Minor expenses and prof-its.
Agricultural implements.....	\$2,256,419	\$1,184.56	\$1,435.35	35.22	64.78
Brick, tile, and sewer pipe.....	784,951	542.95	821.94	44.65	55.35
Carriages and wagons.....	712,614	518.17	960.40	50.27	49.73
Food preparations.....	7,503,046	1,297.55	1,134.25	44.44	55.56
Ironwork, structural.....	1,255,261	843.04	741.00	32.40	17.60
Liquors, malt.....	3,596,425	702.95	6,085.32	11.20	88.80
Machines and machinery.....	3,835,054	685.07	862.00	59.04	40.96
Milling, flour, feed, etc.....	1,221,845	665.17	1,648.91	29.58	70.42
Eight industries.....	21,165,615	862.20	1,219.29	42.05	57.95
Other industries.....	12,834,078	1,114.77	945.70	45.13	54.87
All industries.....	33,999,693	942.84	1,099.25	43.21	56.79

Of the eight leading industries here presented, three have each a capital exceeding \$5,000,000. These are, in the order of their capital, food preparations, machines and machinery, and malt liquors. They also hold first place in industry product. The first two keep their rank when average number of employees, wages paid, and total product are considered, while in number of employees malt liquors is lowest of the eight industries and ranks fifth in wages paid and fourth in total product and stock used. In respect to these last two items the manufacture of food preparations stands alone, representing in each instance more than half the total for all industries. The manufacture of malt liquors shows the greatest industry product per employee, with the enormous sum of \$6,085.32, while the per cent of the same applied to wages is correspondingly the lowest. The same industry shows, however, the highest average annual earnings.

A separate presentation of data for establishments owned by private firms and by corporations makes it possible to present the following comparative statistics:

CAPITAL INVESTED, VALUE OF PRODUCTS, NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES, AND WAGES PAID BY PRIVATE FIRMS AND BY CORPORATIONS, 1895, 1897, AND 1899.

Items.	1895.		1897.		1899.	
	Private firms.	Corporations.	Private firms.	Corporations.	Private firms.	Corporations.
Number of establishments	371	256	371	256	367	260
Per cent of establishments in each class	59.17	40.83	59.17	40.83	58.58	41.47
Capital invested.....	\$6,784,903	\$22,293,254	\$6,911,495	\$22,924,326	\$7,763,640	\$25,949,798
Per cent of capital in each class	23.33	76.67	23.17	76.83	23.03	76.97
Average capital per establishment	\$18,288	\$87,063	\$18,629	\$89,548	\$21,154	\$99,807
Total product.....	\$12,892,848	\$34,227,974	\$13,047,342	\$36,160,237	\$15,309,488	\$120,498,821
Per cent of product by each class	13.23	86.72	11.95	88.05	11.27	88.73
Average product per establishment	\$34,752	\$329,016	\$35,168	\$375,626	\$41,715	\$463,457
Number of employees	5,875	16,591	7,187	16,392	7,309	21,857
Per cent of employees in each class	26.15	73.85	30.48	69.52	25.06	74.94
Average number of employees per establishment	15.34	64.81	19.37	64.03	19.92	84.07
Wages paid.....	\$2,542,955	\$7,257,078	\$2,493,176	\$7,842,743	\$3,111,548	\$10,764,711
Per cent of wages paid by each class	25.95	74.05	24.12	75.88	22.42	77.58
Average wages paid per establishment	\$6,854	\$28,348	\$3,720	\$30,636	\$8,478	\$41,403

^a The sum of these items does not agree with the total given in the table on page 818; the figures, however, are given as found in the original.

From the above table it appears that corporation management is steadily encroaching upon the firm or individual method of doing business. The movement is uniform in respect to per cent of capital invested, product, and wages paid, and somewhat irregular as to the other items shown. Of perhaps even greater significance, and serving somewhat to explain this tendency, are the facts that appear from a comparison of the data for any given year. In 1899, for instance, private firms controlled 58.53 per cent of the establishments, which represented, however, but 23.03 per cent of the capital and employed but 25.06 per cent of the labor. This 23.03 per cent of capital and 25.06 per cent of employees furnished but 11.27 per cent of the product, showing the decided economic advantage of the larger organizations in their greater productiveness. Furthermore, it is seen that to the 25.06 per cent of total employees private firms paid but 22.42 per cent of the total wage disbursements.

The following table shows by sex the weekly earnings of employees in 735 establishments, representing 38 industries, for 1897 and 1899. The summary is for the greatest number of persons employed during those years:

CLASSIFIED WEEKLY EARNINGS OF EMPLOYEES IN 38 INDUSTRIES, 1897 AND 1899.

Weekly earnings.	1897.					1899.				
	Total.	Males.		Females.		Total.	Males.		Females.	
		Num-ber.	Per cent.	Num-ber.	Per cent.		Num-ber.	Per cent.	Num-ber.	Per cent.
Under \$5.....	3,922	2,501	9.46	1,421	46.98	4,454	2,890	9.01	1,564	42.80
\$5 or under \$6.....	1,985	1,379	5.22	616	20.36	1,949	1,248	3.89	701	19.19
\$6 or under \$7.....	2,464	2,194	8.07	330	10.91	2,569	2,055	6.40	514	14.07
\$7 or under \$8.....	3,375	3,064	11.59	311	10.28	3,585	3,199	9.97	386	10.56
\$8 or under \$9.....	3,299	3,058	11.55	246	8.18	3,777	3,579	11.16	198	5.42
\$9 or under \$10.....	3,989	3,943	14.92	46	1.52	5,131	5,011	15.62	120	3.28
\$10 or under \$12.....	3,891	3,861	14.61	30	.99	5,577	5,472	17.06	105	2.87
\$12 or under \$15.....	3,635	3,617	13.68	18	.59	4,668	4,629	14.43	39	1.07
\$15 or under \$20.....	2,313	2,308	8.78	5	.17	3,154	3,130	9.76	24	.66
\$20 or over.....	576	574	2.17	2	.07	868	865	2.70	3	.08
Total.....	29,459	26,434	100.00	3,025	100.00	35,732	32,078	100.00	3,654	100.00

A comparison of the per cent columns for the two dates shows a shifting of the maximum ordinate wage for males from below \$10 in 1897 to above \$10 in 1899. There was a general comparative reduction of all groups receiving less than \$9 per week and a corresponding general increase in the better-paid classes.

Of the females in 1897, nearly one-half (46.98 per cent) received less than \$5 per week. Here also the three lowest-paid groups formed a smaller proportion of the whole in 1899 than in 1897, while the actual number of females receiving \$9 or more was nearly three times as great in the later year as in the earlier.

KINDERGARTENS, MANUAL TRAINING, AND INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.—Under this head is a somewhat general discussion, including a chapter on the history of art and trade schools, a consideration of the objection of trade unions that manual-training schools develop "scab" labor, lists of the cities of the United States in which manual training and kindergartens are a part of the public-school work, and a review of the laws relating to the subjects discussed.

IOWA.

Ninth Biennial Report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics for the State of Iowa. 1899, 1900. C. F. Wennerstrum, Commissioner. 598 pp.

This report comprises a letter of transmittal, introduction, and recommendations, 33 pages; report of factory inspection, 37 pages; manufacturing industries, 34 pages; wage-earners, 25 pages; railroad employees, 32 pages; trade unions, 32 pages; cooperation and profit sharing, 21 pages; locations for new industries, 18 pages; manual

training, 14 pages; strikes and lockouts, 74 pages; the shorter work-day, 7 pages; advantages gained by labor organizations without strikes during 1899 and 1900, 7 pages; cost of labor bureaus, 5 pages; statutory investigation, 113 pages; report of labor commissioner, 97 pages; labor laws, 11 pages.

MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES.—Statistics are given for 118 specified industries, represented by 14,746 establishments, besides 73 establishments in which the industry is not specified. The facts reported include capital, number of proprietors and firm members, number and aggregate salaries of officials and clerks, number and aggregate wages of employees by sex and age, cost of materials, value of products, and miscellaneous expenses. A summary of these items is also given by counties and by cities and towns.

A table showing the principal data for 10 leading industries and totals for the State is given herewith.

CAPITAL, VALUE OF PRODUCTS, COST OF MATERIALS, NUMBER OF WAGE-EARNERS, AND WAGES PAID IN 10 LEADING INDUSTRIES, 1900.

Industries.	Estab-lish-ments.	Capital.	Value of product.	Cost of ma-terials.	Total wages paid.	Wage-earn-ers.
Carriages and wagons	211	\$4,087,400	\$3,931,067	\$1,863,988	\$713,901	1,692
Cheese, butter, and condensed milk.	907	3,459,017	15,846,077	13,501,556	588,653	1,133
Clay products.....	356	3,437,613	2,224,920	517,580	862,159	2,220
Flour and grist mills.....	702	6,421,078	13,823,083	11,272,217	526,479	1,285
Food preparations	16	2,501,521	3,604,031	2,388,003	209,031	609
Foundries and machine shops.....	190	3,732,774	4,460,914	2,189,660	1,088,312	2,372
Lumber and timber products.....	264	8,762,219	8,677,058	6,324,034	1,046,181	2,793
Planing-mill products, including sashes, doors, and blinds	65	3,576,305	5,295,546	3,195,243	983,924	2,372
Printing and publishing.....	1,025	5,679,390	6,145,563	1,494,260	1,656,344	4,245
Slaughtering and meat packing	27	6,351,353	25,695,044	21,556,344	1,208,167	2,887
Total for 10 industries.....	3,763	48,008,670	89,703,303	64,303,185	8,883,651	21,611
Total for all industries.....	14,819	102,733,103	164,617,877	101,170,357	23,931,680	53,553

There were 16,619 proprietors and firm members. Of the wage-earners, there were 48,417 males and 8,248 females above 16. Under that age there were 1,888 children employed, whose annual earnings averaged \$143.59.

WAGE-EARNERS OF IOWA.—This is a report based on returns made by 268 working people of the State as to their condition. Occupation, locality, nativity, wages, hours of labor, yearly earnings, membership in labor unions, insurance, and home ownership are the points reported on. Several pages are devoted to remarks on legislation desired and on convict labor.

RAILROAD EMPLOYEES.—Under this head are given the number, wages, and annual earnings of the different classes of employees of each road operating in the State for the years 1899 and 1900. In 1899 32,385 employees, including general officers, received \$18,406,384. The corresponding numbers for 1900 are 37,696 employees and an aggregate wage payment of \$21,363,320. These totals include only persons employed within the State.

TRADE UNIONS.—A schedule of inquiries was sent to each of 396 labor organizations in the State, to which 379 replies were received. These inquiries related both to the organizations and to the members forming them. The following is a summary of the returns on number of unions and of members:

TRADE UNIONS IN IOWA, 1900.

Name of organization.	Number of unions.	Number reporting.	Membership.
Bakers and Confectioners, International, Journeymen	2	2	58
Barbers' International Union, Journeymen	10	10	350
Blacksmiths, International Brotherhood of	3	3	64
Boiler Makers and Iron Ship Builders, Brotherhood of	4	4	82
Bookbinders, International Brotherhood of	3	3	110
Bottlers, Beer and Pop, Union of	1	1	25
Brewery Workers, International Union of United	3	3	89
Bricklayers, International Union of	8	7	347
Brickmakers' National Alliance	2	2	330
Broom Makers, International	4	4	41
Car Men, Brotherhood of Railroad	4	4	255
Carpenters and Joiners of America, United Brotherhood of	10	10	880
Cigar Makers' International Union of America	15	15	713
Clerks' International Protective Association, Retail	17	12	648
Coopers' International Union of America	6	6	140
Conductors, Order of Railway	20	20	947
Drivers, International Union of Team	5	4	739
Electrical Workers of America, National Brotherhood of	3	2	97
Engineers, Brotherhood of Locomotive	24	24	1,268
Engineers, National Brotherhood of Coal Hoisting	8	8	154
Federal Labor Unions (mixed crafts)	17	16	1,771
Firemen, Brotherhood of Locomotive	27	27	1,434
Firemen, International Brotherhood of Stationary	2	2	57
Horseshoers of United States and Canada, International Union of	2	2	32
Lathers, International Union of Wood and Metal	1	1	31
Leather Workers on Horse Goods, United Brotherhood of	5	5	252
Machinists, International Association of	11	11	469
Meat Cutters and Butcher Workmen of North America	3	2	720
Mine Workers of America, United	59	59	9,109
Molders' Union of North America, Iron	6	6	185
Musicians, American Federation of	5	4	383
Painters, Decorators, and Paper Hangers, Brotherhood of	9	9	416
Plasterers, International Operative Association of	3	3	38
Plumbers and Gas and Steam Fitters, United Association of	8	7	129
Printing Press Feeders and Assistants to Pressmen	2	2	91
Printing Pressmen's Union, International	5	5	97
Railroad Telegraphers, Order of	1	1	18
Sheet Metal Workers, International Association of Amalgamated	4	4	106
Soap Makers' Union, American Federation of Labor	1	1	12
Stage Employees, National Alliance of Theatrical	2	2	46
Stereotypers and Electrotypers' Union	2	2	33
Street Railway Employees of America, Amalgamated Association of	1	1	44
Switchmen's Union of North America	4	4
Tailors' Union of North America, Journeymen	11	11	323
Trainmen, Brotherhood of Railroad	29	29	1,762
Typographical Union, International	16	16	661
Waiters, Cooks, and Bartenders, Hotel and Restaurant Employees	4	3	168
Woodworkers' International Union of America, Amalgamated	4	4	339
Total	396	379	26,068

Three organizations, the Cigar Makers' International Union of America, the International Union of Wood and Metal Lathers, and the United Mine Workers of America, report an 8-hour day. The longest workday reported is 15 hours, by the Amalgamated Association of Street Railway Employees of America. Minimum and maximum daily wages are also reported for each union.

COOPERATION AND PROFIT SHARING.—Under this title are presented financial and other statements relating to 5 cooperative establishments within the State and 4 establishments in other States in which profit sharing is practiced. The cooperative institutions ranged in age from one to twelve years, and each presented encouraging reports.

A statement covering the operations of one of the largest of these for a period of seven years is presented herewith:

STATEMENT OF BUSINESS OF FARMERS' SUPPLY COMPANY, 1893 TO 1899.

Year.	Paid capital.	Profit.	Sales.	Members.
1893	\$915	\$667	\$8,000	30
1894	1,523	1,058	15,000	76
1895	2,175	1,179	15,000	147
1896	2,772	973	12,306	192
1897	3,038	1,257	14,001	210
1898	3,373	2,013	18,724	263
1899	3,885	2,435	22,269	300
Total.....		9,582	105,900

MANUAL TRAINING.—This section is made up of replies of county superintendents of public schools to inquiries as to the status of manual training in their respective counties. These replies show that but little has been done in the way of a general introduction of this class of work.

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS.—This report covers the period from June 30, 1894, to December 31, 1900. Of the 381 strikes that occurred, 296 were ordered by unions. Eight hundred and thirty-one establishments were involved, 669 of which were closed for an aggregate of 4,006 days. The wage loss of the 32,930 strikers is reported at \$1,440,679, while assistance was rendered to the amount of \$51,302. Seven lockouts were reported during the same period, 6 of which were successful. In two instances the hours of labor were increased from 48 per week to 60 per week. One hundred and sixteen new men were employed, of whom 113 were brought from other places. The 656 locked-out employees lost \$86,750 in wages, with an assistance of \$5,000. The loss of employers is reported at \$54,476.

THE SHORTER WORKDAY.—This is mainly a tabular presentation of the results of the efforts of organized labor to shorten the working day. The report covers the United States and is intended to be complete. Names and dates of organization of the various unions involved, strike data for 1899 and 1900, and maximum working hours per day before and after the organization came into existence are among the facts reported. From these reports it is concluded that the length of the average workday was 11.5 hours before organization, as against 9.7 hours at present.

STATUTORY INVESTIGATION.—The results of this investigation are presented separately for each county of the State and show the kind of industry or business, number of establishments and of employees, total wages paid, weeks in operation, and increase or reduction of daily wages. These items are reported for each of the years 1899 and 1900.

REPORT OF LABOR COMMISSIONER.—This comprises a number of articles, two of which are contributed, the others being reprints, which discuss various questions of economic interest. The titles of the contributed articles are “Some of the economic and industrial phases of the Amana Society,” and “Free public employment offices.”

MAINE.

Fifteenth Annual Report of the Bureau of Industrial and Labor Statistics for the State of Maine. 1901. Samuel W. Matthews, Commissioner. 188 pp.

This report includes the following subjects: The cotton and woolen industries, 8 pages; factories, mills, and shops built during 1901, 4 pages; the ice industry, 3 pages; the dairy business, 35 pages; Portland and its terminal facilities, 28 pages; the Portland Stoneware Company, 8 pages; feldspar, mica, and tourmaline industries, 6 pages; railroad employees, 4 pages; an article on the preservation of Maine forests, 16 pages; abstracts from bulletins of the Twelfth Census, 47 pages; labor laws, 9 pages; report of the inspector of factories, workshops, mines, and quarries, 4 pages.

COTTON AND WOOLEN INDUSTRIES.—For the year ending June 30, 1901, returns were received for 11 cotton mills and 24 woolen mills, showing for each the capital invested, cost of material, value of product, number of employees by sex and age, weeks in operation, and total annual and average weekly wages paid. In the 11 cotton mills there was a total investment of \$13,415,219, a product of \$11,559,455, and a wage payment of \$3,867,783 to 12,045 employees. For the 24 woolen mills the amounts were: Capital, \$3,826,036; product, \$5,524,017; wages, \$1,248,743, and number of employees, 3,212.

Nine of the cotton mills and 19 woolen mills reported in 1900 also, so that comparative statistics can be presented for identical establishments as follows:

STATISTICS OF 9 COTTON MILLS AND 19 WOOLEN MILLS, 1900 AND 1901.

Items.	9 cotton mills.		19 woolen mills.	
	1900.	1901.	1900.	1901.
Capital invested.....	\$12,766,994	\$12,959,719	\$2,633,509	\$2,586,472
Cost of material.....	\$5,761,677	\$6,189,126	\$2,673,941	\$2,725,204
Wages paid.....	\$3,730,610	\$3,702,818	\$982,324	\$949,567
Value of product.....	\$10,481,884	\$10,886,849	\$4,533,740	\$4,341,871
Average weekly wages:				
Men.....	\$7.51	\$7.75	\$8.84	\$8.58
Women.....	\$5.66	\$5.91	\$6.54	\$6.42
Children.....	\$3.26	\$3.16	\$3.73	\$3.44
Average weeks in operation.....	51.7	50.4	51.5	51.1
Average number of employees:				
Men.....	5,253	5,088	1,621	1,611
Women.....	5,855	5,890	760	801
Children.....	527	518	26	24
Total.....	11,635	11,496	2,407	2,436

A comparison of the two years shows that in both branches of industry there was a considerable increase in the cost of material used during 1901, and a decrease in the amount paid out in wages. In the cotton industry the number of employees and the number of weeks in operation were both somewhat reduced, so that the average weekly wages of adult employees were larger for 1901 than for 1900. Similar reductions in the woolen industry, however, were too slight to succeed in holding up average weekly wages.

The following table shows the proportion of the value of product applied to cost of material, to wages, and remaining for minor expenses and profits; also the annual average earnings per employee in these two industries for the years named:

PER CENT OF VALUE OF PRODUCT APPLIED TO COST OF MATERIALS, TO WAGES, AND TO MINOR EXPENSES AND PROFITS, AND AVERAGE ANNUAL EARNINGS PER EMPLOYEE IN THE COTTON AND WOOLEN INDUSTRIES, 1898 TO 1901.

Items.	Cotton industry.				Woolen industry.			
	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
Material.....	52.4	51.8	53.9	57.1	60.1	65.5	55.9	60.0
Wages.....	34.8	36.6	35.0	33.5	23.4	21.7	21.9	22.6
Margin.....	12.8	11.6	11.1	9.4	16.5	12.8	22.2	17.4
Average annual earnings ..	\$270.91	\$300.00	\$319.62	\$321.11	\$375.20	\$354.71	\$416.10	\$388.77

In the cotton industry it is noticeable that the per cent of value of product applied to cost of material is greatest in 1901, while the per cent of margin is least in that year, having fallen steadily during the period here shown. The proportion applied to wages has decreased since 1899, though the average annual earnings have increased.

The movements have been more irregular in the woolen industry, cost of material rating highest in 1899 and lowest in 1900. In 1900 also there was a marked increase in the per cent of margin and in the average annual earnings, though the per cent of product applied to wages was but 0.2 per cent greater than in the former year.

FACTORIES, MILLS, AND SHOPS BUILT.—The returns show 121 new buildings erected during the year 1901, at a total cost of \$5,638,200. These provided for 6,337 additional employees. Compared with the previous year, there were 46 fewer buildings to the credit of 1901, but their value was more than double that of the constructions of 1900.

ICE.—A table shows the annual cut of ice for Maine and for the Hudson River from 1880 to 1900; also the capacity of the Hudson ice houses. It indicates that the Maine cut is depended on rather to supplement the Hudson River cut, though the amount generally varies but little. For the nine years 1891 to 1899 the least number of tons cut was 1,242,500 in 1898, and the greatest, 1,600,800 in 1894. In 1890, when the Hudson crop was a complete failure, the Maine cut was 3,092,400 tons, a doubling of the average cut. In 1900 there were

but 723,780 tons cut for shipment, and in 1901 but 16,000 tons cut, with about 400,000 tons of old ice in store. The future of the local business is regarded as dependent on the as yet undisclosed policy of the syndicate which has practical control of both the Hudson and Maine fields.

THE DAIRY BUSINESS.—A general discussion of the dairy business in the State is given, together with some comparisons with conditions in other States and in Canada. The statistics are for the year ending June 30, 1901.

The reports show 54 creameries and 16 cheese factories in operation, representing an aggregate capital of \$222,828. The amount paid out for milk and cream to the 8,687 farmers or dairymen was \$1,471,250, the value of products being \$2,001,798. Employment was given to 546 persons.

RAILROAD EMPLOYEES.—The returns are for the employees within the State and cover 21 roads. The following is a summary for the years 1900 and 1901:

STATISTICS OF RAILROAD EMPLOYEES, 1900 AND 1901.

Year.	Number of employees.	Total wages paid.	Average daily wages.
1900.....	7,240	\$3,693,155	\$1.78
1901.....	7,573	4,070,618	1.79

Street railways paid out \$461,279 to their employees in 1901 as against \$423,500 in 1900, the number of employees being about 940 for each year.

MISSOURI.

Twenty-third Annual Report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics and Inspection of the State of Missouri for the year ending November 5, 1901. William Anderson, Commissioner. 404 pp.

The subjects treated of in this report are as follows: Statistics of manufactures, 114 pages; prison factories and convict labor, 26 pages; industrial statistics, 117 pages; Government lands in Missouri, 4 pages; labor organizations, 73 pages; free employment offices, 3 pages; direct legislation, 10 pages; statistics of Missouri cities having 100,000 population and over, 17 pages; judicial decisions and laws relating to labor, 28 pages.

MANUFACTURES.—Forty tables, presenting as many industries, give the returns separately for 1,053 establishments. The total product for the year 1900 was valued at \$173,856,993, being an increase of \$20,548,436 over the returns for the year 1899. Including clerical help, there were 57,921 males and 15,622 females employed. These employees received as wages and salaries \$33,061,531, or \$3,745,782 more than was expended for these purposes in the previous year. The rate of average daily wages shows little change.

CONVICT LABOR.—Returns from 8 prison factories show a product valued at \$2,800,639. The number of employees was: Males, 1,720; females, 185. Of these 175 males and 40 females are classed as skilled laborers. Following the table are several pages of extracts from the report of the United States Industrial Commission on the subject of convict labor.

INDUSTRIAL STATISTICS.—Under this head are given, for each county, the population, surplus products shipped in 1900, location and resources, manufactures, average wages in certain occupations, etc.

GOVERNMENT LANDS.—Statements as to the amount and location of Government lands in the State, with information as to the mode of entry, make up this portion of the report.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.—Six tables furnish general information relating to the labor organizations in the State, including a directory and data as to wages, hours of labor, benefit features, strikes, etc. The following table summarizes certain of the above facts:

NUMBER AND MEMBERSHIP OF LABOR ORGANIZATIONS, AND DAILY HOURS OF LABOR OF MEMBERS, IN THREE PRINCIPAL CITIES AND IN THE STATE OUTSIDE IN 1900.

Location.	Number of organizations.	Number of members.	Number of crafts reporting daily hours of labor to be—										
			8.	8½.	9.	9½.	10.	11.	11½.	12.	12½.	14.	15.
St. Louis	190	30,396	42	5	32	3	40	9	2	8	2	2	1
Kansas City	48	4,690	18	5	4	1	10	2	1
St. Joseph	48	3,684	15	1	6	1	14	4	1	1
State outside	118	8,014	6	4	1	9	5
Total	399	46,784	81	11	46	6	78	15	2	15	3	2	1

One hundred and three unions pay sick benefits and 248 pay death benefits, the sums expended for these purposes being \$16,433.20 and \$68,941.50, respectively. One hundred strikes are reported, of which 59 are said to have been settled satisfactorily, 4 were lost, 19 were still pending, and for 18 the results were not reported. Some pages are devoted to suggestions from the organizations as to legislation desired.

FREE EMPLOYMENT OFFICES.—Returns from the offices in St. Louis, Kansas City, and St. Joseph show an aggregate of 12,035 applications for employment, of which 8,107 were successful. There were 16,988 applications for help, 8,401 of which were supplied. Males and females are not separated in these reports.

DIRECT LEGISLATION.—This is a discussion devoted mainly to a consideration of the referendum. Its general use is recommended.

STATISTICS OF CITIES.—Statistics appearing in Bulletin No. 36 of the United States Department of Labor, in so far as they relate to the three cities of Missouri there considered, are here reproduced.

MONTANA.

Seventh Report [First Biennial] of the Bureau of Agriculture, Labor, and Industry of the State of Montana. 1899-1900. J. H. Calderhead, Commissioner. 613 pp.

This report is largely taken up with a description of the resources and advantages of the State. Numerous illustrations accompany the descriptive matter, which treats of mining, agriculture, and grazing, including a discussion of irrigation, reports on public lands, climate, water supply, educational facilities, etc. Statistics relating to State and county finances, court proceedings, census and election returns, and a record of real estate transfers are given. Manufacturing statistics, 13 pages; organized labor, 18 pages; wages, 6 pages, and cost of living, 20 pages, present matter of more direct industrial interest. Besides these there is an interesting report on the adulteration of food, 29 pages. This includes the analyses of a number of articles of food commonly found in the markets.

MANUFACTURING STATISTICS.—These relate to printing and publishing, breweries, clay products, sawmills, and flour mills, but are not complete. Nine breweries reported a capital of \$1,015,000, a product valued at \$932,831, and 152 employees, who received \$150,637 in wages. For 24 sawmills there was a reported capital of \$936,000, an output valued at \$496,426, and 592 employees, receiving wages to the amount of \$261,038. These data are for the year ending June 30, 1900. In 1899 the clay products of the State amounted to \$225,844.

ORGANIZED LABOR.—There are here given a brief summary of the eight-hour laws of Montana and other States, some account of labor conditions in New Zealand, a report on Japanese railroad labor in the State, an account of a miners' strike at Red Lodge, and of accidents in mines in 1900, and a directory of 128 labor organizations in the State.

COST OF LIVING.—Under this head are given the market prices of farm products and of groceries at wholesale and at retail in the various counties and towns of the State.

RECENT FOREIGN STATISTICAL PUBLICATIONS.

BELGIUM.

Recensement général des Industries et des Métiers, 31 Octobre, 1896.
Office du Travail, Ministère de l'Industrie et du Travail. 1900-1901.
Volume I, 946 pp.; Volume II, 907 pp.; Volume III, 180 pp.; Volume IV, 525 pp.; Volume V, 573 pp.

These five volumes contain the first installment of the returns of the Belgian industrial census of October 31, 1896. The distinguishing characteristic of this census is the combination of the features of an occupation census with those of an industrial census, and on this account it calls for a brief description of the methods used in securing and compiling the census returns.

On the basis of the population register of 1890, which was supposed to have been kept up to date, the schedules of inquiries were sent to all the industrial persons, or "industrial households," as the official reports designate them, in the Kingdom. This enumeration (made on Schedule B) secured from the working population information as to name, sex, place of birth, date of birth, conjugal condition, relation to head of household, occupation, whether working at home for one or more employers, the name and industry of the employer, and the address of the establishment in which the employee worked.

On the same day an examination of the industrial establishments (made on Schedule A) was taken and information secured as to the name and address of the proprietor or firm, the industry carried on in the establishment, the length of the business season; in case the establishment was temporarily shut down, the length of time and cause of such shut down; the number of employees of each sex and their positions in the establishment, with the young persons given separately; the hour of beginning and of stopping work, with the length of the intermissions, and the working personnel by day and by night shifts. Wages were to be given in such shape as to show the form of wage payments for each position by sex and age of the workers, the total wages paid in the last wage period, with specification of the number of working days, and the working personnel. Returns were made for the motors used, their kind and average horsepower, and the type of steam boilers, their pressure and heating surface.

When the schedules were returned to the labor office they were assembled by establishments and a comparison of the statements on the "A" schedules was made with those on the "B" schedules. This verification eliminated a large portion of the errors, and among other things suggested additional investigations not originally included in the census.

One of the important features of the census is the extended classification of industries. The classification was made after the schedules had been returned to the central office, and on the basis of the infor-

mation contained in them. No prearranged classification was given to the enumerators to follow in filling out the schedules. There are no less than 858 classes of industries specified, so that for practical purposes the returns are more available than has formerly been the case with industrial censuses.

The final volume of the census reports is intended to be a general summary, and until this volume has been issued it will not be possible to give a full summary by industries of the returns for the Kingdom.

Volumes I and II contain the table showing the distribution, by industries, of the factory and domestic working establishments by provinces, arrondissements, and communes. The table shows the total number of establishments, the number in operation on the census day, and the employees classified as wage workers and as other personnel. The horsepower used is also stated. Giving returns for such small geographical divisions as communes, with such an elaborate classification of industries, has made the information exceedingly detailed; in fact, in a very large number of cases the table simply reproduces the schedules of individual establishments. The information is given in two tables: In the first table, those industrial concerns which comprise more than one undertaking have these undertakings counted as separate establishments; in a second and supplementary table, these combined establishments are treated as single establishments.

Volume III contains a full index of the matter tabulated in Volumes I and II, and gives the subjects by industries and by geographical divisions. In Volume IV the establishments are given according to the form of organization.

In Volume V the establishments in operation on the census day are classified according to the number of wage workers.

Following is a summary statement of the returns thus far published, each undertaking being regarded as a separate establishment:

Total establishments.....	337,395
Establishments in operation October 31, 1896:	
Carried on by individuals.....	305,045
Full partners under a collective name.....	18,678
Commandites (special partnerships).....	331
Total carried on by individuals and partners.....	324,054
Stock companies.....	1,862
Cooperative societies.....	167
Total carried on by stock companies and cooperative societies.....	2,029
Total in operation October 31, 1896.....	<i>a</i> 326,089
Persons engaged in establishments in operation October 31, 1896:	
Owners and salaried employees.....	379,992
Wage workers.....	722,252
Total.....	1,102,244
Total horsepower (steam, gas, and petroleum motors) of establishments in operation October 31, 1896.....	628,253

a Including 6 establishments for which details regarding form of organization and character of employment were not reported.

The following table shows the number of persons engaged in establishments conducted by individuals or partnerships and by stock companies and cooperative societies, grouped according to sex and character of employment:

PERSONS ENGAGED IN ESTABLISHMENTS IN OPERATION OCTOBER 31, 1896, ACCORDING TO CHARACTER OF EMPLOYMENT.

Character of employment.	Persons in establishments conducted by individuals or partnerships.			Persons in establishments conducted by stock companies and cooperative societies.		
	Men.	Women.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Total.
Owners of establishments.....	205,415	135,474	340,889
Salaried employees.....	16,854	1,487	18,341	20,499	263	20,762
Members of owners' families employed as wage workers.....	33,182	17,474	50,656
Other wage workers.....	316,352	74,738	391,090	244,943	35,563	280,506
Total.....	571,803	229,173	800,976	265,442	35,826	301,268

The next table relates only to wage workers who are not members of owners' families. The establishments and employees are grouped according to the number of wage workers in each establishment.

ESTABLISHMENTS AND WAGE WORKERS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE NUMBER OF WAGE WORKERS IN EACH ESTABLISHMENT.

Wage workers in each establishment. (a)	Number of establishments.	Number of wage workers. (a)		
		Men.	Women.	Total.
1.....	30,258	24,571	5,687	30,258
2 to 4.....	26,396	54,216	14,412	68,628
5 to 9.....	7,851	42,379	7,776	50,155
10 to 19.....	3,823	44,605	6,204	50,809
20 to 49.....	2,537	66,469	9,436	75,905
50 to 99.....	931	53,413	11,553	64,966
100 to 199.....	652	74,474	17,596	92,070
200 to 499.....	449	117,491	21,110	138,601
500 to 999.....	117	66,710	9,454	76,164
1,000 to 1,999.....	12	10,760	3,161	13,921
2,000 or over.....	4	6,157	3,912	10,069
Total.....	b 73,046	561,295	110,301	671,596

a Not including members of proprietors' families.

b Including 16 establishments employing wage workers the number of whom could not be determined.

CANADA.

Report of the Department of Labor for the year ended June 30, 1901.
1902. 67 pp. (Printed by order of Parliament.)

This is the first report issued by this department as it came into existence under section 10 of the conciliation act of July 18, 1900. (See Bulletin No. 33, p. 272, U. S. Department of Labor.)

The subjects presented in this report are: The Labor Gazette, 23 pages; conciliation and arbitration, 9 pages; fair wages on public contract work, 19 pages; enforcement of alien labor acts, 4 pages; details as to departmental work and expenses, 5 pages.

THE LABOR GAZETTE.—Here is given a statement of the general scope and purpose of the monthly publication of the department, with a brief review of the principal articles appearing in the first 10 numbers.

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION.—The act under which the department of labor was organized provides for its active friendly intervention, under certain circumstances, in the adjustment of industrial disputes. It is provided that—

(a) The minister of labor may take certain action in the way of inquiry or may arrange a conference without application from any of the parties to a dispute.

(b) He may appoint a conciliator on the application of either party.

(c) He may appoint an arbitrator on the application of both parties.

The present report indicates that in no case has the department seen fit to intervene unless invited by one of the parties, or by some interested person in their behalf. The following table summarizes the principal points in connection with this branch of the department's work for about eight months:

INTERVENTIONS BY THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR FOR THE SETTLEMENT OF INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES, 1900, 1901.

Establishments.	Cause of dispute.	Em- ploy- ees af- fected.	Date of begin- ning strike.	Date in- terven- tion was re- quest- ed.	Date of set- tle- ment.	Nature of settlement.
Cotton mills, Val- leyfield, Quebec.	Presence of militia to overawe earlier strik- ers.	3,000	Oct. 25, 1900.	Oct. 27, 1900.	Oct. 25, 1900.	Troops withdrawn and agreement to reinstate strikers.
Iron works, Osh- awa, Ontario.	Refusal of coremakers to assist in shifting and dumping molds: complaint as to heat- ing and ventilation of works.	300	Dec. 5, 1900.	Dec. 8, 1900.	Dec. 12, 1900.	Coremakers to do no other work. Objec- tionable conditions remedied.
Tool works, Dun- das, Ontario.	Demand for increase of wages, and limita- tion of number of apprentices.	55	Oct. 8, 1900.	Jan. 22, 1901.	Jan. 24, 1901.	Satisfactory agreement. Terms not made pub- lic.
Paper mills, Grand Mère, Quebec.	Rejection by employ- ees of new scale of wages, and objection to manner of notifi- cation.	800	Apr. 15, 1901.	Apr. 17, 1901.	Apr. 19, 1901.	Employees accept scale. Employers agree to semimonthly pay- ments, etc.
Coal mines, Syd- ney Mines, Nova Scotia.	Demand for increase of wages.	700	(a)	(a)	June 25, 1901.	Wages scale agreed to; increase to some em- ployees. New rule as to bonuses. Local board of arbitration established.

a The dispute commenced early in the year, but before declaring a strike the employees requested the intervention of the department of labor. The company agreeing, a meeting was arranged for between the conciliator and representatives from both sides. Settlement was arrived at within two days.

FAIR WAGES ON PUBLIC CONTRACT WORK.—A resolution of Parliament of March 17, 1900, declares: "That all Government contracts should contain such conditions as will prevent abuses which may arise from the subletting of such contracts, and that every effort should be made to secure the payment of such wages as are generally accepted as current in each trade for competent workmen in the district where the work is carried out."

This applies not only to work done by the Government, but to undertakings aided by Government subsidies as well.

The report covers the fiscal year 1900-1901, under the two heads of public and subsidized undertakings. A list is given of the contracts made under the provisions of the resolution quoted from above, and of the investigations made by the "fair-wages officers" of the department. The method of procedure is for the department of the Government which is about to invite bids on a contract to furnish the department of labor such specifications as to locality and the nature of the labor required as will enable it to draw up a "fair-wages schedule," based on its own investigations. This schedule is then inserted in the proposed contract and becomes the basis for a minimum wage payment for the several classes of employees. Complaints of violations are investigated by the department of labor and determined by the department entering into the contract, after the results of such investigation have been submitted. The report indicates that such complaints as were made during the ten months covered by it were generally well grounded, and that the action of the department was efficient and acceptable.

ENFORCEMENT OF ALIEN-LABOR ACTS.—The investigation of alleged violations of these acts was assigned to the newly-formed department of labor upon its organization. The statute requires that no proceeding at law shall be begun until the consent of the attorney-general of Canada, or of some person authorized by him, be obtained. The effect of this law has been that no legal action has been necessary beyond the investigation made by the department and the communication of its conclusions to the party charged. If the finding was in favor of the bringing of an action, the offending parties at once deported the persons thought to be illegally employed, and the cases were then dropped, with the consent of the complainants.

Seventy-one complaints were received, 7 of which were not acted upon owing to a change in the law. Of the 64 cases investigated, 48 were found not to be violations. Nineteen aliens went away during the investigations, and 52 were voluntarily deported as a result of findings of well-grounded complaints.

GREAT BRITAIN.

Workmen's Trains. 1900. (Published by the British Board of Trade.)

This report is a return to an order of the House of Commons, and is made up of individual reports from all railways in Great Britain, showing the number of trains, distances run, fares charged, and number of tickets issued in connection with special provisions for workmen.

In some instances there is a statutory obligation resulting from special acts of Parliament relating to particular companies, but in

most cases it is by the voluntary action of the companies that workmen's trains are run. Where there is statutory obligation, the number of trains actually run is generally many times greater than the number required by law.

The sections of the special act referring to each road are usually four in number, and the acts are quite similar in their provisions. The first section names terminal points, the maximum fare to be charged, and the number of trains to be run at fixed hours—for example, "not later than 7 in the morning or earlier than 6 in the evening, as may be most convenient for artisans, etc." Another section empowers the company to ascertain the rights of applicants; a third provides for penalties for the abuse of tickets, and the fourth limits the liability of the company on claims for damages by passengers using workmen's tickets to the sum of £100 (\$486.65).

Of course, trains run voluntarily are not restricted to the hours named, and on Saturdays the usual evening limit is changed to allow returns after 12 m. Nor are the accommodations restricted to special trains, many roads issuing workmen's tickets which can be used to procure third-class passage on any train within specified time limits, as up to 8 a. m. and after 4 p. m. In still other cases there are special trains going, the return ticket being available on any train returning, sometimes only after 4 p. m., in other instances as early as 12 m. on any day of the week. Daily tickets are usually restricted to a return on the date of issue, though tickets issued on Saturday are sometimes available for a return on Monday. Weekly tickets afford, in some instances, still further reductions on the daily rates.

The report presents no summary or average statement of distances or charges. A schedule prepared in connection with a statute limiting the liability of the Metropolitan District Railway Company is indicative of rates, but probably can not be taken as representative, especially of roads in less populous localities. The rates given are for the single journey and are as follows:

For distances up to and including 4 miles.....	1 d. (2.03 cents)
Beyond 4 miles, up to and including 6 miles.....	1½ d. (3.04 cents)
Beyond 6 miles, up to and including 8 miles.....	2 d. (4.06 cents)
Beyond 8 miles, up to and including 10 miles.....	2½ d. (5.07 cents)
Beyond 10 miles, up to and including 12 miles.....	3 d. (6.08 cents)
For distances exceeding 12 miles, fares not exceeding ½ d. (1.01 cents) for every 2 miles or part of such 2 miles.	

Of 83 roads reporting in England, Scotland, and Wales, 8 operate trains under some statutory provision, 36 report no workmen's trains, and the remainder report a range of from 2 to more than 1,500 per day. Some roads which run no workmen's trains haul such trains under contract with an employer who pays either a gross or a per capita sum for such service. The number of workmen's tickets issued during 1899 provided for more than 50,000,000 round-trip passages, not taking into consideration the contract service just mentioned.

DECISIONS OF COURTS AFFECTING LABOR.

[This subject, begun in Bulletin No. 2, has been continued in successive issues. All material parts of the decisions are reproduced in the words of the courts, indicated when short by quotation marks, and when long by being printed solid. In order to save space, matter needed simply by way of explanation is given in the words of the editorial reviser.]

DECISIONS UNDER STATUTORY LAW.

BLACKLISTING—CONSTITUTIONALITY OF STATUTE—*State ex rel. Scheffer v. Justus, Supreme Court of Minnesota, 88 Northwestern Reporter, page 759.*—Alfred Scheffer, agent of the firm of Scheffer and Rossum, had been convicted of a violation of chapter 174, laws of 1895, and sentenced to imprisonment. The case came before the supreme court on an application for a writ of habeas corpus, the ground of Scheffer's motion being that the act is unconstitutional. The constitutionality of the statute was, therefore, the sole question to be considered.

The act is entitled: "An act to prohibit the practice of blacklisting and the coercing and influencing of employees by their employers." Section one prohibits the combination of two or more employers of labor for the purpose of interfering with any person or preventing them from procuring employment by the use of threats, promises, or blacklisting. Section two provides that: "No company, corporation, or partnership in this State shall authorize, permit or allow any of its or their agents to, nor shall any of its or their agents blacklist any discharged employee or employees, or by word or writing seek to prevent, hinder or restrain such discharged employee or any employee who may have voluntarily left such company's or person's service from obtaining employment from any other person or company." The third section prohibits employers from requiring their employees not to join or become members of labor organizations, as a condition of their employment. Other sections refer to penalties, modes of procedure, etc.

Section three was excluded from the consideration of the court, as the case had no dependence upon it, nor would its validity or invalidity affect the sections directly bearing on the question in issue. As to the title, it was conceded that the term "blacklisting" has no well defined meaning in the law, either by statute or judicial expression,

but that general understanding gives it a meaning sufficiently definite for use in its connection. As to other points, Judge Lewis, who announced the conclusions of the court said:

It is urged that section two is objectionable to the provisions of the constitution upon the ground that it is class or special legislation, having application only to corporations or partnerships, as distinguished from individual employers. This argument is based upon the omission from the first part of the section of the word "person." While true that word is omitted from the first part of section two, yet it is used in the next to the last line in such connection that it becomes necessary either to drop the word out of the section entirely, or to supply it in connection with the words "company," "corporation," or "partnership." Section one has reference to all employers, without regard to whether they are corporations, partnerships, or individuals. So with sections three and four, where the word "person" is used. It was evidently not the intention of the legislature to discriminate in section two against an individual employer, when the other sections of the act are plainly made applicable to individuals. Employers, as distinguished from employees, do not constitute a class, within the constitutional prohibition. Those acts which are declared unlawful by the statute are peculiar to employers of labor. The act, being applicable to all members of the class, is not invalid because limited to that class. (*Cameron v. Railway Co.*, 63 Minn. 384, 65 N. W. 652, 31 L. R. A. 553.) We therefore hold that section two of the act applies to individuals as well as to companies, corporations, and partnerships, and is not class legislation.

Again it is insisted that an employer of labor has the natural right under the constitution, State and Federal, to give such advice and information as he desires with respect to his employees, whether they have been discharged for cause or without cause, or whether they have voluntarily left the employment. This leads to a consideration of what the offense is, as set forth by the provisions of section two. An employee who voluntarily leaves his employment is one who has the right to do so. He violates no contract obligations. Presumably he is an employee in good standing, and leaves because it is to his advantage to do so; and if he seeks employment elsewhere he is entitled to the presumption that his reputation as an employee has been unharmed by the fact of his leaving. The fact that such an employee voluntarily abandons his employment does not give the employer a right to prejudice his employment elsewhere. Under such circumstances, a communication designed to prevent such employment is presumably a reflection upon the standing of the employee. It is no answer to say that the employer may have cause for making such communication; that it may be to the advantage of the new employer, and for the mutual advantage of all such employers, to have notice of the character of the employee. If there is any valid reason for such communication, it would be available only as a matter of defense. It is the purpose of this law to protect employees in the enjoyment of those natural rights and privileges guaranteed them by the Constitution, viz., the right to sell their labor and acquire property thereby.

The act is valid and the conviction must be sustained.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—MINE REGULATIONS—WAIVER BY EMPLOYEE—*D. H. Davis Coal Company v. Polland, Supreme Court of Indiana, 62 Northeastern Reporter, page 492.*—Samuel Polland obtained judgment in the circuit court of Clay County on account of injuries received by him while in the employ of the above-named company. On appeal the case came before the appellate court. This being equally divided, the supreme court of the State then heard the case and affirmed the judgment of the circuit court.

At the time of the accident occasioning the injury for which damages were claimed, Polland was not furnished with a sufficient supply of props, caps, and timbers to secure the roof of the room in which he was at work, and, though his examination of the roof had failed to show any dangerous condition therein, it nevertheless suddenly caved and fell upon him, inflicting serious and permanent injury.

Negligence on the part of the bank boss was also charged, in that he failed of his statutory duty of visiting and examining every working place in the mine at least every alternate day.

The statutes which it is claimed were violated are as follows: "Miners' bosses shall visit their miners in their working places at least once every day where any number not less than 10 nor more than 50 miners are employed, and as often as once every two days when more than 50 miners are employed." (Sec. 7447, Burns' Rev. St. 1901.) Section 7466 of the same provides that "The owner, operator, agent or lessee of any coal mine in this State shall keep a sufficient supply of timber at the mine, and the owner, operator, agent or lessee shall deliver all props, caps, and timbers (of proper length) to the rooms of the workmen when needed and required, so that the workmen may at all times be able to properly secure the workings from caving in."

Another section charges the duty of seeing that the timbers are sufficiently supplied and properly set to the mining boss, and still another gives a right of action to any party injured by the willful failure to comply with these provisions.

Two questions arise on the complaint, as considered by the supreme court, viz, assumption of risk and contributory negligence.

Judge Baker, who announced the opinion of the court, after stating the common law rule as to degree of care, said:

If, however, the statute, as in this case, sets up a definite standard, and requires specific measures to be taken by the employer in providing safe working places and appliances, other considerations come into view. It is the duty of the employer to use the very means named in the statute. He is not at liberty to adopt others, though, in his opinion, they are more efficacious than those prescribed by the lawmakers. How, then, can there be any lawful basis for an agreement, implied or express, that the employer shall violate the law, and that the employee shall be remediless? The heart of the present case is this: Is a contract enforceable by which the employee waives in advance his

right of having, and relieves his employer of the duty of providing, the specific safeguards required by the statute?

Freedom of contract should not be lightly interfered with. As a general rule, the right of contracting as one sees fit stands untrammelled. But the State has power to restrict this right in the interest of public health, morals, and the like. When, in the present case, it is pointed out that the legislature has failed in terms to deny the employee's right to assume the risks from the employer's disregard of the statute, the question is not ended. If the legislature has clearly expressed the public policy of the State on a matter within its right to speak upon authoritatively, and if that public policy would be subverted by allowing the employee to waive in advance his statutory protection, the contract is void as unmistakably as if the statute in direct words forbade the making of it. If the employer may avail himself of the defense that the employee agreed in advance that the statutes should be disregarded, the court would be measuring the rights of the persons whom the lawmakers intended to protect by the common-law standard of the reasonably prudent person, and not by the definite standard set up by the legislature. This would be practically a judicial repeal of the act. It is no hardship to the employer to disallow him a defense based on an agreement that he should violate a specific statutory duty. His sure protection lies in obedience to the law. The risks that still inhere in the business after this is done may be assumed by the employee.

Second. As to contributory negligence: The complaint alleged that appellee used due care and caution to avoid injury. This is enough, unless the specific averments show this general allegation to be untrue. It sufficiently appears that appellee was an experienced miner, knew that appellant had failed to provide supports as required by statute, and with this knowledge continued at his work until injured. Appellant claims that this constituted such negligence as to preclude a recovery. If the risk is so great and immediately threatening that a person of ordinary prudence, under all the circumstances, would not take it, contributory negligence is established. If the risk is not so great and immediately threatening but that a person of ordinary prudence, under all the circumstances, would take it, contributory negligence is not established. Appellee alleges that there was nothing in the appearance of the mine's roof to indicate immediate danger, that he was unable to find any defect therein by the usual tests, and that he could and would have propped up the slate securely if appellant had not been derelict in supplying timbers. The specific averments do not overcome the general allegation of freedom from fault.

Judgment affirmed.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—RAILROAD COMPANIES—CONTRACTS WAIVING RIGHT TO DAMAGES—*Tarbell v. Rutland Railroad Company*, Supreme Court of Vermont, 51 Atlantic Reporter, page 6.—In an action by Darius Tarbell, administrator of the estate of Arthur W. Tarbell, deceased, to recover damages for the death of the latter, certain pleas of the defendant company were demurred to, and, the demurrer being sustained by the court, an appeal was taken to the supreme court of

the State. The ruling of the Rutland County court was affirmed and the cause remanded.

Arthur Tarbell was an employee of the Rutland Railway Company and met his death while descending a ladder on the outside of one of the cars, which the company was operating on the main track, by being knocked from the ladder by a car standing on a side track. At the trial the defendant plead that it was not liable to the plaintiff since it had been a condition of employment that plaintiff should release and discharge the company from all damages that might accrue to the plaintiff, as next of kin to the intestate, by reason of the defendant's negligence during his employment. It was to this plea that Tarbell demurred.

On the facts set forth therein the court handed down the following opinion, Judge Tyler speaking for the court:

The defendant contends that, though such a contract between itself and the injured employee might not be upheld, this contract, being with the next of kin of the employee, does not contravene public policy. In general, when a contract belongs to a class which is reprobated by public policy, it will be declared illegal, though in that particular instance no actual injury has resulted to the public. If it is immoral or contrary to the policy of the law, it will be declared void. Contracts of the kind under consideration are clearly against public policy, and invalid, for the reason that they tend to promote negligence on the part of railroad companies in respect to the personal safety of their employees. Sections 3886 and 3887 [V. S.] forbid railroad companies having ladders or steps upon cars of their own to the top on the sides of the cars, and require that they be placed upon the ends or inside of the cars, and a forfeiture of \$50 a day is imposed as a penalty for failure to comply with the statute. It is the law that courts will not enforce contracts made for the purpose of violating statutes, but will hold them inoperative and void. (Rob. Dig. 152, pl. 54 et seq.) As the purpose of the contract was to exempt the defendant from its statutory liability for its negligence, and thus defeat the statute, it was an immaterial fact that one of the contracting parties was the next of kin and not the employee.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—RAILROAD COMPANIES—FELLOW-SERVANTS—SCOPE OF EMPLOYMENT—*Jensen v. Omaha and St. Louis Railroad Company, Supreme Court of Iowa, 88 Northwestern Reporter, page 952.*—Jensen was employed as a coach cleaner for the defendant company, and, while engaged in his line of duty, was injured by an engine, operated at the time by a hostler, coming into collision with the car in which he, Jensen, was at work. A statute (section 2071 of the Code) makes railroad companies liable to its employees for injuries received by them in consequence of the neglect of the company's agents, or by any mismanagement of the engineers or other employees.

thereof, whenever such negligence is "in any manner connected with the use and operation of the railway on or about which" they shall be employed. Jensen sued under this statute in the district court of Pottawattamie County, and was awarded damages. The company appealed, its chief contentions being that Jensen's duties did not bring him within the benefit of the act quoted above; and that the hostler, having taken the yardmaster to his home before going to the round-house whither he was to take the engine, was outside the scope of his employment, and hence the company was not responsible for his actions.

The supreme court affirmed the judgment of the court below, Judge Weaver speaking for the court. From his remarks the following is quoted:

This provision [the statute already quoted] has been construed as embracing within its protection all that class of employees whose employment "exposes them to the peculiar dangers and perils attendant upon the use and operation of railroads." (*Keatley v. Railway Co.* 94 Iowa 685, 63 N. W. 560; *Akeson v. Railway Co.* 106 Iowa 54, 75 N. W. 676; *Reddington v. Railway Co.* 108 Iowa 99, 78 N. W. 800.) Among others found to be entitled to recover have been the section hand, the section foreman, the shop hand, the clinker man, the detective, the gravel shoveler, and the snow shoveler, none of whom had any connection with the train service proper. [Cases cited.] The kind of labor in which the employee is engaged is not the test of his right of recovery so much as the fact whether, in the performance of that labor, he is, for the time being, exposed to the peculiar hazards which arise from or are connected with the use and operation of the road. (*Pyne v. Railroad Co.* 54 Iowa 225, 6 N. W. 281, 37 Am. Rep. 198.) It has also been held that the movement of a lone engine by a hostler over the side tracks or about the yards or in the cinder pit is a "use and operation of the road" within the meaning of the law. If that holding be correct—and we see no reason to doubt it—then the plaintiff in this case, being in his proper place in the baggage car in defendant's yard, where, as shown by the evidence, switch engines and other engines were frequently run back and forth switching and turning cars, making up trains, and sometimes moving the cars in which the cleaners were at the time employed, was clearly exposed to perils peculiarly incident to railroad use and operation.

If, in taking the yardmaster to his dinner, the hostler was so out of the line of duty as to relieve appellant of responsibility while so improperly engaged (which we need not decide), it is sufficient here to say that such departure from his ordinary service had ceased. The trip had been made and completed, and he had, in accordance with his admitted duty, entered upon the appropriate track to reach the round-house, where he was to store and care for the engine. This was plainly within the scope of his employment, and his prior trip for the accommodation of the yardmaster is wholly immaterial.

The judgment of the district court is affirmed.

EXAMINATION, LICENSING, ETC., OF HORSESHOERS—REVENUE—POLICE POWER—CONSTITUTIONALITY OF STATUTE—*Bessette v. People*, *Supreme Court of Illinois*, 62 *Northeastern Reporter*, page 215.—Edward Bessette, a horseshoer, was convicted before a justice of the peace of the town of Aurora of practicing his trade without a license, and was fined. The case came before the city court of Aurora, which affirmed the judgment with costs. On retrial on an agreed statement of facts, certain propositions of counsel for plaintiff calling into question the constitutionality of the statute under which the action was brought were rejected by the court and sentence affirmed. The case was then brought before the supreme court and the lower courts were reversed, the act being declared unconstitutional.

The law in question is the act of June 11, 1897 (Laws of 1897, page 233), entitled "An act to insure the better education of practitioners of horseshoeing, and to regulate the practice of horseshoers in the State of Illinois." (See Bulletin of the U. S. Department of Labor, No. 14, pages 129, 130.) The act consists of 15 sections, the first of which provides that "it shall be unlawful for any person to practice as a horseshoer in this State" without a license. The fourth section provides for the registry, within a limited time, of all persons engaged as horseshoers, such registration enabling the party to continue his trade without incurring the penalties provided for in the act. Other sections make provision for a board of examiners, their payment from fees of applicants, modes of procedure, penalties, etc. Section 12 provides for an apprenticeship of four years and attendance (if convenient) on lectures on the anatomy of the horse's foot. Section 15 reads as follows: "This act applies only to towns and cities of 50,000 inhabitants and over, but it shall be optional with all towns and cities of 10,000 or over to come under the provisions of this act."

Justice Magruder, who delivered the opinion of the court, reviewed somewhat extensively the principles involved. From his remarks the following is taken:

It is quite apparent, from the terms of the act, that it does not impose a tax upon the business of horseshoeing. We are not inclined to hold that the legislature has no power to impose a tax upon such occupation.

After discussing certain sections of the constitution of the State empowering the general assembly to levy taxes, the court continued:

Of course, if the act of 1897 now under consideration imposed a tax upon the occupation of horseshoeing, such imposition would be for the purpose of revenue. We are not prepared to say that the legislature has not the power to impose an exaction in the form of a license fee for revenue upon the business of horseshoeing, even though the exaction of such license fee is not a tax. The act of 1897, however, although it requires a license to be issued, does not impose such license for the purpose of revenue. The license fee imposed by

this act must, therefore, be imposed for regulation. Cooley, in his work on the Law of Taxation, says: "License fees may be imposed: (1) For regulation; (2) for revenue; (3) to give monopolies; (4) for prohibition." (Cooley, Tax'n (2d Ed.) p. 592.) The license fee under the present act is certainly not imposed for prohibition or to give monopolies, and, as it is not imposed for revenue, its imposition must be for the purpose of regulation. That the license fee here under consideration is not imposed for revenue appears from the language of the act itself.

The act of 1897 in reference to horseshoeing states, in section 10 thereof, that the license fee is charged "in order to carry out the provisions of this act and maintenance of the said board of examiners." These provisions seem to indicate that the license fee is merely imposed for the purpose of paying the expenses of enforcing the act, and not for the purpose of raising revenue in any way. Although the act provides that, where a fine is collected upon a conviction for violating the provisions of the act, such fine shall be paid into the common school fund of the county, yet there is nothing to indicate that the license fee charged shall be appropriated as revenue for any purpose whatever.

Therefore, the proper construction of the act being that the license fee is imposed for regulation and not for revenue, the question arises whether the occupation of horseshoeing is such an occupation as the legislature has any power to regulate in the manner provided for in this act. The general rule is that a license fee will not be exacted for the purpose of regulating any trade, calling, or occupation, unless there is something in the nature of such trade, calling, or occupation, or in the circumstances surrounding it, which calls for the exercise by the State of its police power. In other words, licenses for regulation merely, and not for revenue, can only be justified upon the ground that a necessity exists for the exercise by the State, either directly or through delegation to municipal corporations, of its police power. The police power is limited to enactments which have reference to the public health or comfort, or to the safety or welfare of society. It has been said that, "when the license is for regulation merely, * * * the question presented is whether the business or occupation is one rendering special regulation important for any purpose of protection to the public or to guard individuals against frauds and impositions." (Cooley, Tax'n (2d Ed.) p. 600; Hawthorn v. People, 109 Ill. 302, 50 Am. Rep. 610.) Laws which interfere with the personal liberty of the citizen and his right to pursue such avocation or calling as he may choose can not be constitutionally enacted, unless the public health, comfort, safety, or welfare demands their enactment. (Ruhstrat v. People, 185 Ill. 133, 57 N. E. 41, 49 L. R. A. 181, 76 Am. St. Rep. 30; Bailey v. People, 190 Ill. 28, 60 N. E. 98.) In Allgeyer v. Louisiana, 165 U. S. 578, 17 Sup. Ct. 427, 41 L. Ed. 832, it was said: "The right to follow any of the common occupations of life is an inalienable right. It was formulated as such under the phrase 'pursuit of happiness,' in the Declaration of Independence, which commenced with the fundamental proposition that 'all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.' This right is a large ingredient in the civil liberty of the citizen." It was also said in the latter case: "The liberty of pursuit,

the right to follow any of the ordinary callings of life, is one of the privileges of a citizen of the United States." Although the power and discretion which the State legislature has in the matter of promoting the general welfare, and of employing means to that end, are very large, yet such power must be so exercised as not to impair the fundamental rights of life, liberty, and property; and although the legislature may determine when the exigency exists for the exercise of the police power, yet it is for the courts to determine what are the subjects of the exercise of this power. "The general right of every person to pursue any calling, and to do so in his own way, provided that he does not encroach upon the rights of others, can not be taken away from him by legislative enactment." (*Ruhrstrat v. People*, supra, and authorities there referred to.) It has also been held that "the right to choose one's occupation is the right to be free from unlawful interference or control in the conduct of it." (*Id.*; *Black*, *Const. Law*, p. 412.)

An application of the principles above referred to to the provisions of this act of 1897 in relation to the business of horseshoeing condemns it as invalid law. It is impossible to conceive how the health, comfort, safety, or welfare of society is to be promoted by requiring a horse-shoer to practice the business of horseshoeing for four years, and submit to an examination by a board of examiners, and pay a license fee for the privilege of exercising his calling.

The court then took up section 15 of the act, which makes it optional with cities having 10,000 but under 50,000 inhabitants as to whether or not they shall come under the provisions of the law. The city of Aurora is within this class. After quoting section 22 of article 4 of the State constitution, which provides that "the general assembly shall not pass local or special laws * * * incorporating cities, towns, or villages, or changing or amending the charter of any town, city or village," the court said:

The general incorporation act does not confer upon cities and villages the power to regulate the business of horseshoeing. Therefore, if the present act be construed as amending the general incorporation act by permitting cities and villages to regulate the business of horseshoeing, it is evidently a special law changing and amending the charter of the city of Aurora. So far as the act can be said to change or amend the charter of any city or town, it creates a purely arbitrary classification. There is no reasonable relation between the cities and towns classified in section 15 and the purposes and objects to be attained by the act in reference to horseshoeing. (*Dupee v. Swigert*, 127 Ill. 494.) But it is not clear that the act can be regarded as affecting in any way the charters of cities and towns. The terms of the sections of the act which precede section 15 do not concern cities and towns, but individuals. The legislature by the act does not delegate the power to control horseshoeing to cities and towns, but directly itself regulates the business of horseshoeing. *Cooley*, *Const. Lim.* (6th Ed.) p. 481, says: "A statute would not be constitutional * * * which should select particular individuals from a class or locality, and subject them to peculiar rules, or impose upon them special obligations or burdens from which others in the same locality or class are exempt." In the case at bar, the act deals with one class of workmen,

to wit, horseshoers. It grants to horseshoers living in cities and towns containing a population less than 10,000, and in those containing a population between 10,000 and 50,000, a special privilege, to wit, the privilege of being exempt, either entirely or conditionally, from the obligation to take out licenses to pursue their business, while it requires horseshoers living in cities and towns containing a population of 50,000 or more to obtain such license. The manner in which the act discriminates in favor of particular persons of one class, pursuing one occupation, and against all others of the same class, places it in opposition to the constitutional guaranties hereinbefore referred to.

EXEMPTION OF WAGES—CONSTITUTIONALITY OF STATUTE—TITLE OF ACT—COMPLAINT—*State ex rel. Green v. Power, Supreme Court of Nebraska, 88 Northwestern Reporter, page 769.*—Meyer Green was charged with a violation of the provisions of section 531c of the code of civil procedure, which relates to exemptions of 60 days' wages of laborers, mechanics, and clerks who are heads of families, and, after preliminary examination, was bound over to appear at the next term of the district court. Failing to enter recognizance he was committed to the county jail until the term should be held. Green applied for and was denied a writ of habeas corpus, and on writ of error the petition came before the supreme court of the State. The petition for the writ was based on two claims: First, that the provisions of the act under which he was held were invalid, not being embraced within the title of the act of which they form a part, and because there are two subjects included in the act, both being repugnant to section 11, article 3, of the constitution, which provides that "no bill shall contain more than one subject, and the same shall be clearly expressed in the title;" the second claim was that the complaint on which he was held, failing to aver that the defendant in the garnishment case was the head of a family, did not state any offense nor charge a crime.

The appeal resulted in an affirmation of the constitutionality of the statute, but an allowance of the writ because of the defect in the complaint.

The following syllabus prepared by the court is a succinct statement of the points of law involved:

1. The purpose of the constitutional provision that "no bill shall contain more than one subject, and the same shall be clearly expressed in the title," was intended to prevent surreptitious legislation, and not to prohibit comprehensive titles. The test is not whether the title chosen by the legislature is the most appropriate, but whether it fairly indicates the scope and purpose of the act. (*State v. Bemis, 64 N. W. 348, 45 Neb. 724.*)

2. A legislative enactment the title of which is, "An act to provide for the better protection of the earnings of laborers, servants, and other employees of corporations, firms, or individuals engaged in interstate business," comprehends legislation providing for the punishment

of those who violate the provisions of the act by doing the things therein declared unlawful.

3. A complaint drawn under the provisions of section 531c of the code of civil procedure is fatally defective, and charges no violation of the law, if it fail to charge that the complainant is the head of a family, and that the wages sought to be affected by the acts complained of are the wages exempt by law to laborers, etc., for not exceeding a period of 60 days.

PAYMENT OF WAGES—RIGHTS OF ASSIGNEE—*Chicago and South-eastern Railway Co. v. Glover, Supreme Court of Indiana, 62 North-eastern Reporter, page 11.*—Robert J. Glover was owner by assignment of a number of time checks issued by the above-named company as payment for labor performed for it by several persons. In the circuit court of Madison County Glover sued to recover judgment for said time checks with interest, and for penalty and attorney's fees, under sections 7056 and 7057, Burns' Rev. St. 1901, which provide that, in the absence of a written contract to the contrary, "every company, corporation or association now existing, or hereafter organized and doing business in this State," shall make full payment of wages to its employees at least once in every month.

"If any company, corporation or association shall neglect to make such payment, such employee may demand the same of said company, corporation or association, or any agent of said company, corporation or association, upon whom summons might be issued in a suit for such wages, and if said company, corporation or association shall neglect to pay the same for thirty days thereafter, said company, corporation or association shall be liable to a penalty of one dollar for each succeeding day, to be collected by such employee in a suit (together with reasonable attorney's fees in said suit) for said wages withheld: *Provided*, That said penalty shall in no instance exceed twice the amount due and withheld."

Judgment was rendered for the plaintiff, whereupon the company appealed, and secured a reversal of the lower court's decision.

From the remarks of Judge Monks, who delivered the opinion of the court, the following is quoted:

These sections [quoted above], being penal and in derogation of the common law, must be strictly construed; and no one can recover under such a statute unless he, by averment or proof, brings himself clearly within its terms. It was said by this court in *Railroad Co. v. Keely's Adm'r*, 23 Ind. 133: "As the right to sue is purely a statutory one, and in derogation of common law, the statute must be strictly construed, and the case brought clearly within its provisions, to enable the plaintiff to recover." Section 7057, *supra*, gives the penalty on the neglect to comply with the demand of the employee for payment. There is no provision of said section giving a penalty when the demand is made by an assignee of the employee.

Judgment reversed, with instructions to grant a new trial.

DECISIONS UNDER COMMON LAW.

CONTRACT OF EMPLOYMENT—ACTION FOR BREACH—NECESSARY GROUNDS—*Savannah, Florida and Western Railway Co. v. Willett, Supreme Court of Florida, 31 Southern Reporter, page 246.*—William E. Willett sued the above-named company in the circuit court of Orange County to recover damages for alleged breach of contract. Damages were awarded, but on appeal to the supreme court this judgment was reversed.

It appeared that Willett was a conductor on a railroad, and, desiring to better his condition and to get better pay, he applied for a position on the road of the appellant company. Formal application was required and made, stating the facts of present employment and reasons for desiring a change, and Willett was notified that he would be given employment if he would report at once for duty. His resignation was tendered his employers and he was released and reported for duty. A route was assigned him and he was directed to familiarize himself therewith. As he was proceeding to obey this instruction, he was recalled by a telegram and was informed that he would not be employed unless he furnished a release or recommendation from his former employers.

In consequence of this refusal by the company to carry out its agreement, he was thrown out of employment and had so remained for 12 months, though diligently seeking employment, and for the loss suffered he sued, claiming \$1,500 damages.

Among the points raised by way of demurrer by the defendant company were the lack of facts to authorize recovery, the failure to show any specified term of employment, and the failure to set forth times of payment for services rendered or to be rendered.

As to these points Judge Hocker, speaking for the court, said:

A declaration upon which a plaintiff finds his right of recovery must allege every fact that is essential to his right of action. (*Telegraph Co. v. Maloney, 34 Fla. 338, 16 South. 280.*) The declaration, while alleging that plaintiff "was agreed to be employed by the proper officer of the defendant corporation," and that "the defendant informed the plaintiff that it could give him employment as conductor," nowhere states the duration of his employment, nor are the facts alleged sufficient to infer it. From the allegations in the declaration it must be taken as an employment at will, terminable by either party. No action can be maintained for the breach of a contract to employ unless there is some stipulation as to the length of time for which the employment shall continue.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—EFFECT OF NONSUIT AS TO ONE OF TWO JOINT TORT FEASORS—DUTY OF LIGHT INSPECTOR—CONTRIBUTORY NEGLIGENCE—*Hart v. Allegheny County Light Co. et al., Supreme Court of Pennsylvania, 50 Atlantic Reporter, page 1010.*—In this

case N. J. Hart sought to recover damages for an injury received while acting as inspector for the above-named electric light company. The injury was occasioned by Hart's placing one hand on a telephone wire while the other was in contact with an electric-light wire, from which he received a heavy shock so that he fell from the pole on which he was at the time. Action was brought in the court of common pleas of Allegheny County against the telephone company (whose wire was on the light company's pole) and the electric light company as joint wrong-doers; but as the evidence failed to show any concert of action or any joint trespass by the defendants, a nonsuit was ordered against the telephone company, and, on trial, judgment was entered against the Allegheny County Light Company. From this judgment the company appealed and obtained a reversal.

Judge Potter, in announcing the opinion of the court, used in part the following language:

This action was brought against two defendants as joint tort feors. The evidence failed to show any concert of action, or any joint trespass by the defendants, and under the principle of *Wiest v. Traction Co.*, 200 Pa. 148, 49 Atl. 891, a separate recovery should not have been allowed against one defendant. The point should, however, have been brought to the attention of the court at the trial.

But aside from this question, it clearly appears from the evidence that the injury for which recovery is here sought was caused by the act of the plaintiff. The plaintiff was an inspector and had been employed as such by the electric light company for several years. The special duty for which he was employed was to look after the lights at night, and to see that the wires were clear, and to adjust any difficulties that prevented the proper operation of the lights. It is therefore apparent that the plaintiff, above all others, was the one whose business it was to discover anything wrong with the wires. The defendant company could only be apprised of a difficulty with its wires through the report of the plaintiff, or some other inspector employed for that purpose.

He [Hart] had been provided with rubber gloves for the express purpose of protecting himself against an injury of this character. If he had made use of these rubber gloves upon the night in question, he would have been safe. The inference is unavoidable that, without the contributory negligence of the plaintiff, the accident could not have occurred.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—NEGLIGENCE—CONTRIBUTORY NEGLIGENCE
—DUTY OF COURT OF APPEAL—*Layng v. Mt. Shasta Mineral Spring Co.*, 67 *Pacific Reporter*, page 48.—Robert J. Layng sued the above-named company in the superior court for the city and county of San Francisco to recover damages for injuries received while in its employ. Damages were awarded and an appeal taken, resulting in the judgment of the lower court being affirmed.

At the time of the injury Layng was engaged in repairing a generator for the defendant company. While engrossed with this "most

difficult and delicate piece of work," he knelt and extended one leg under a wagon standing near so that it was a short distance in front of one of the rear wheels of the wagon. This wagon was used at irregular intervals, and Layng knew that it was to be used some hours later, and thought it would not be used until then. While Layng was at work as above described, the driver loaded and hitched to the wagon and drove off without looking to see if the way was clear, with the result that Layng's leg was crushed.

From the remarks of Judge Garoutte, who delivered the opinion of the court, the following is quoted:

In the consideration of the question as to the sufficiency of the evidence, the interrogatory at once presents itself, was the defendant guilty of negligence, and, if so, was the plaintiff guilty of contributory negligence? In the discussion of these questions it must be borne in mind that they come to us upon appeal, and must be solved as matter of law. Under these circumstances the evidence given at the trial will be construed against defendant, and all contradictions in the testimony will be resolved in favor of the verdict of the jury. Upon the application of this principle of law to the facts, the court is satisfied that the jury was justified in declaring defendant guilty of negligence.

If the plaintiff may be charged with contributory negligence, it can only be by reason of his act in placing his leg in front of the wheel. Yet it may be said that the wagon was a dead wagon, in itself inanimate and immovable. If the horses had been attached to the wagon, the driver upon the seat, and plaintiff, knowing these facts, had placed his leg in front of the wheel, a different case would have been presented. Such a case would have been very similar to *Studer v. Southern Pac. Co.*, 121 Cal. 400, 53 Pac. 942, 66 Am. St. Rep. 39; and even in the present case, if the jury, under these facts, had declared plaintiff guilty of contributory negligence, this court would not have disturbed the verdict. But, the jury having taken the opposite view, and declared the plaintiff's act did not constitute contributory negligence, this court can not, as a matter of law, say that the verdict is not justified by the evidence.

It is urged that the court committed error in allowing evidence to go to the jury as to the custom of teamsters in looking to see if everything was clear of the wagon immediately prior to starting the team. Regardless of the custom, the law certainly enjoined the exercise of some care and vigilance upon the part of the teamster before he started the team. The negligence of a fellow-servant can only be invoked when it is set up as an affirmative defense to a right of recovery. Here it was not done.

For the foregoing reasons, the judgment and order are affirmed.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—PARTNERSHIP—DISSOLUTION BY ORGANIZATION OF CORPORATION—*Goodwin et al. v. Smith, Court of Appeals of Kentucky, 66 Southwestern Reporter, page 179.*—Henry Smith was employed by Goodwin, Kimball, Mantle & Co. to quarry stone, and while so employed was injured by the carelessness and negligence of a foreman occasioning the explosion of some dynamite. Suit was

brought in the circuit court of Hart County to recover damages for the injuries so received and from a verdict awarding damages the defendants appealed.

The contention of the defense was that on the 15th day of May, 1900, the day on which the accident occurred, the partnership previously existing was changed to a corporation, and that therefore the plaintiff was not in the employ of them personally or as a firm or partnership, but of a corporation of the same name as the firm in whose service Smith had been employed previous to the date named.

The court of appeals affirmed the judgment of the court below, Judge White delivering its opinion. He used in part the following language:

According to the proof, the most that can be said in favor of the corporate proposition is that the partners had determined to merge the firm, with its assets and liabilities and the partners' holdings, into a corporation, with the same relative positions among themselves. But it is not pretended that any knowledge or information of this change was actually given to appellee or to other employees. Under the proof the court would not be authorized to say as a matter of law that the appellee was employed by a corporation of whose existence he had not learned. There was no contract of employment entered into on May 15, 1900. The old contract simply continued, and appellee went to work as usual. He had been engaged by the partnership, and had neither been discharged or reemployed. Appellee was therefore in the employ of the partnership, and not the corporation.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—RAILROAD COMPANIES—DUTY OF EMPLOYER—NEGLIGENCE—CONCURRENCE OF THIRD PARTIES—CONTRIBUTORY NEGLIGENCE—ASSUMPTION OF RISK—PROXIMATE CAUSE—*Choctaw, Oklahoma and Gulf Railroad Company v. Holloway, United States Circuit Court of Appeals, Eighth Circuit, 114 Federal Reporter, page 458.*—Judgment had been obtained by one Holloway, a locomotive fireman, for injuries received while in the employment of the above-named company, and from this judgment the company appealed.

It appeared that the engine on which Holloway was at work was being run backward in the early morning, while it was yet dark, and, while crossing a trestle, struck a horse which had been caught fast there. There was neither light nor lookout on the tender. When the accident occurred, the brakes on the tender were immediately set, and, there being no brakes on the engine, Holloway was caught between the engine and tender and seriously injured. Holloway had worked on this engine for about six hours when the accident occurred, and declared that he did not know of the absence of brakes, and it was on the ground that it was negligence on the part of the company not to provide the engine with brakes that he sought to recover damages.

Counsel for the company took exception to the charge of the judge in the trial court, and for errors alleged and instructions denied took

this appeal, which resulted in the judgment of the trial court being affirmed.

Judge Sanborn delivered the opinion of the court, from whose remarks the following extracts are taken:

Actionable negligence is a breach of duty. Where there is no breach of duty, there is no negligence, and there can be no recovery. It is not the duty of the master to furnish his servants with reasonably safe appliances, machinery, tools, or working places, or to keep them in a reasonably safe condition of repair. His failure to do so is not the breach of any duty, and it furnishes no basis for an action of negligence. The limit of his duty here is to exercise ordinary and reasonable care, having regard to the hazards of the service, to provide his employees with reasonably safe appliances, machinery, tools, and working places, and to exercise ordinary and reasonable care to keep them in a reasonably safe condition of repair. A servant may assume that his master has discharged this duty, unless he knows, or by the exercise of reasonable care he would have known, that the duty had not been discharged, and that there were defects in the machinery and appliances with which, or in the place in which, he undertakes to work. On the other hand, the servant assumes all the ordinary risks and dangers of the employment upon which he enters, so far as they are known to him, and so far as they would have been known to a person of ordinary prudence and care by the exercise of ordinary diligence. He is not required to search for latent defects or hidden dangers, but it is his duty to exercise reasonable diligence to observe and be cognizant of all obvious defects in the machinery and appliances with which he is working; and he assumes the risks and dangers of all such defects of which he has knowledge, and of which he would have had knowledge by the exercise of ordinary care and diligence. [Cases cited.]

The plaintiff in this case alleged that his injury was caused by the failure of the railroad company to provide the engine upon which he was working as fireman with suitable brakes to arrest its motion when occasion required. Upon the question whether or not the engine could have been stopped after knowledge of the presence of the horse in the trestle in time to prevent the accident, the testimony was not so clear that it was the duty of the court to withdraw this issue from the jury. Nor can it be properly said, as a matter of law, that the absence of this brake was not the proximate cause of the injury. It is undoubtedly true that one of the proximate causes of the accident was the negligence of the party who permitted the horse to stray into the trestle. But if the injury would not have been inflicted if there had been a brake upon the engine, it can not be truthfully said that the absence of this brake was not another of the proximate causes of the damage, inasmuch as the accident would not have happened if the brake had been provided. If it be true, as the jury have found, that no injury would have been inflicted upon the plaintiff if this engine had been provided with a brake, it is no defense for the railroad company that the concurring negligence of the owner of the horse contributed to the infliction of the injury. One is liable for an injury caused by the concurring negligence of himself and a third party to the same extent as for one caused entirely by his own negligence. It is no defense for a wrongdoer that a third party shared the guilt of the same wrongful

act, nor can he escape liability for the damages he has caused on the ground that the wrongful act of a third party contributed to the injury.

Nor does the absence of brakes from this engine fall without the legal definition of the proximate cause of the injury which the plaintiff suffered. An injury that is the natural and probable consequence of an act of negligence is actionable, while one that could not have been foreseen nor reasonably anticipated as the probable result of such an act can not be made the basis of an action for damages. From the failure to provide this engine with proper brakes to arrest its motion, the accident and injury which resulted, or others of like character, might well have been anticipated as probable consequences; and the evidence in the record is ample to sustain the finding of the jury that the injury to the plaintiff was caused by that absence.

Another specification of error is that the court refused to instruct the jury that if the plaintiff was guilty of negligence in riding on an engine backing with the tender foremost in the dark, without a light upon the forward end of the tender, he could not recover. But there was no error in this refusal. The plaintiff could not recover for the negligence of the company in running this engine backward in the night without a light upon the forward end of the tender, because the plaintiff was aware of this negligence, and assumed the risk of it. But he did not know that the engine upon which he was riding was not provided with brakes. The exercise of ordinary care by the defendant would have equipped it with these appliances. He had the right to assume that the defendant had exercised this care. He did undoubtedly indulge in that assumption. The jury have found that the absence of the brakes was not an obvious defect—not a defect which a person of ordinary prudence, exercising reasonable care, would have discovered under the circumstances of this case. As he was ignorant of the absence of the brakes, he did not assume the risk of that absence; and his assumption of the risk of riding upon an engine and tender in the night with[out] a headlight upon its forward end, was not an assumption of the risk of operating this engine without brakes. His negligence regarding, or his assumption of, the former risks, was neither such contributory negligence regarding, nor such an assumption of, the latter risk, as bars him from a recovery for the negligence of the defendant producing it.

It is assigned as error that the court repeatedly instructed the jury that it was the duty of the company to furnish its servants with reasonably safe machinery and a reasonably safe working place. This instruction was a patent and unquestionable error. But in the case at bar the record makes it clear beyond all doubt that this error did not prejudice, and could not have prejudiced, the railroad company, because no question concerning its duty or its negligence was left to the jury to consider by the charge of the court. The railroad company conceded that there were no brakes upon the engine. The absence of brakes upon this road engine, in the absence of any evidence excusing it, was conclusive evidence, as a matter of law, of the lack of ordinary care to provide reasonably safe machinery to operate this railroad. The court clearly and positively instructed the jury to this effect. This left the jury nothing to consider relative to the care or the negligence of the company and limited the issues they were to determine to the questions whether or not the absence of the brakes was the proximate cause of the injury, and whether or not the plaintiff knew, or ought to have known, and hence assumed the risk, of this absence.

As there was no question of the care or negligence of the company submitted to the jury, it conclusively appears beyond all doubt that the erroneous charge upon that subject could not have prejudiced the defendant, and error without prejudice is no ground for reversal.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—RAILROAD COMPANIES—FAILURE TO OBEY RULES—CONTRIBUTORY NEGLIGENCE—DAMAGES—*San Antonio and Aransas Pass Railway Company v. Connell, Court of Civil Appeals of Texas, 66 Southwestern Reporter, page 246.*—Sam Connell was employed as an engineer by the above-named company and was injured by the collision of the locomotive of which he had charge with a train standing on the track at a water station. On suit in the district court of Bexar County, Connell was awarded damages in the amount of \$18,000, the injury resulting from the accident having made one leg practically useless. Conflicting testimony was offered during the trial as to whether the engineer had notice of the danger in due time to avoid it, and as to whether he was running his train in accordance with the rules promulgated by the company. The court of appeals did not review these points, accepting the finding of the trial court. The defense had asked for instructions to the jury to the effect that a failure to obey rules promulgated by the railroad company was negligence per se. This the court refused to do, submitting the question of negligence to the jury. From the judgment rendered the company appealed. The court of appeals remitted \$2,000 of the damages as being in so far excessive.

As to the ruling on instructions the court below was sustained, as shown by the following quotations from the remarks of Judge Fly, who delivered the opinion of the court:

We have not seen any case in which it was held that a court would be justified in telling a jury that the infraction of a rule formulated by the master was negligence per se in the servant; and, on the other hand, the converse of the proposition has been time and again held by the courts of Texas. In the leading case of *Railway Co. v. Murphy*, 46 Tex. 357, 26 Am. Rep. 272, it is held except in cases where the entire facts show negligence, or where a statute declares certain acts negligence, it is error for a court to instruct a jury that a given state of facts constitutes negligence. In the case of *Railroad Co. v. Sweeney*, 36 S. W. 800, this court said: "It is also contended that the charge should not have left to the jury whether or not the violation of the rules by the engineer was negligence, and, practically, that the court should have instructed the jury that such an act was in itself negligence. * * * We can not give a rule the force of a statute in this respect. It would place it within the power of a master to make that negligence which may not be negligence at all, by means of rules."

A violation of a rule of the master by the servant is a circumstance which, taken in connection with the other circumstances of the case, might, when the facts taken together lead irresistibly to the conclusion

that the servant had been injured through his own negligence, justify a court in taking the case from a jury; but the violation of a rule does not justify a court in instructing a jury that such violation is negligence per se. The rules of railway companies have never been put upon a parity with the laws of the State, and no court has ever so declared. We have discussed this question at length, not because it is an open one, but for the reason that it is so earnestly insisted in the brief of appellant that the court should have declared the infraction of the rule by the employee negligence in itself.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—RAILROAD COMPANIES—FAILURE TO OBEY RULES—CONTRIBUTORY NEGLIGENCE—VOLUNTEER—*Green v. Brainard and Northern Minnesota Railway Company, Supreme Court of Minnesota, 88 Northwestern Reporter, page 974.*—This was an action by Alice J. Green as administratrix of the estate of Louis M. Brown, deceased, to recover damages for his death. Brown was a rear brakeman on a logging train and it was his duty, as he had been instructed, always to ride on the rear of his section, that he might both attend the brakes and keep a lookout for any logs that might fall from the cars. On the night of the accident he had been riding on the footboard of the engine until the main track was reached. He then stepped off and was almost immediately crushed by a log falling upon him from one of the cars of the train being hauled. The reason for his stepping off at that place was not apparent. It was admitted that the log was not properly placed on the car and that if Brown had been in the place assigned him, it would not have caused him the injury. The plaintiff's counsel argued that, inasmuch as the section of cars being operated at the time of the accident was equipped with air brakes, and as the ground was so level as to do away with the danger of falling logs blockading the track, there was no necessity for his presence on the rear car, and that he was justified in disregarding the rule on that occasion.

The judgment of the trial court, which was for the defendant company, being appealed from was affirmed by the supreme court.

Judge Collins, in delivering the opinion of the court, spoke in part as follows:

We assume, for the purposes of this appeal, that the negligence of the defendant company was sufficiently established; and this brings us to inquire whether Brown's disobedience of orders and apparent breach of duty will prevent a recovery in this action. Was Brown violating the order of his superior unjustifiably, and was this violation the proximate cause of his death? The right of the employer to promulgate rules, and the duty of the employee to obey them are reciprocal. If the right exists in the master, and is exercised by him, public policy requires compliance therewith by the servant. It seems to be well settled by the authorities—and there is no discord—that it is the duty of the employees of a railroad company to implicitly obey all reasonable orders or rules, and a failure so to do

will defeat a recovery by an injured employee, if his disobedience was the proximate cause of his injury, unless obedience was impracticable under the circumstances. There may be circumstances which will excuse disregard of orders or rules, but prima facie disobedience is always negligence, and it is only in clear cases that it can be excused. Obedience to all reasonable rules brought to the attention of the employee is part of his contract of employment. Such orders and rules are promulgated and are to be enforced for the protection of the public, of fellow-servants, and of the employer's property, and can not be disregarded or annulled by employees with impunity. [Cases cited.] In order to make a party liable in the capacity of an employer for injuries resulting from negligence, the plaintiff must affirmatively prove that at the time of the injury he was acting within the line of his duty as an employee. If the time when and the place where the injury is received are not within the scope of the contract of employment, the relation of master and servant can not be justly said to exist, and no recovery can be had against a defendant in the character and capacity of a master or employer. When one employed to do a designated kind of work, or to work at a particular place, voluntarily goes to a place different from that assigned by the contract of employment, he can not successfully insist that he is within the protection of the rule that the master must exercise ordinary care to protect him against injury. (Elliott, R. R. § 1303, and citations.) There is, of course, in cases of this character, the presumption that the servant is acting within the line of his duty; but this presumption may be rebutted, and we are of the opinion that it was completely met and overthrown in this case. Brown was not at a place where he could perform the duty assigned to him by the conductor when he rode on the footboard, or when he was struck by the falling log. By his disobedience in riding upon the footboard, stepping therefrom, and standing beside the moving cars, from which, by observation and experience, he knew logs frequently fell while in transit, he assumed an unnecessary risk, not in the line of his duty, and was guilty of contributory negligence. Under such circumstances, the law forbids a recovery.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—STATUS OF WORKMAN BEING TRANSPORTED BY EMPLOYER TO PLACE OF EMPLOYMENT—ASSUMPTION OF RISK—*Bowles v. Indiana Railway Co.*, *Appellate Court of Indiana*, 62 *Northeastern Reporter*, page 94.—Curtis N. Bowles was one of a number of employees engaged by the Indiana Railway Co. to construct a trolley wire line. The company furnished a team and wagon for the transportation of its workmen to and from their place of employment, which team "was fractious, and what is called a runaway team," but was represented to be safe while handled by the expert driver who had it in charge. On the 11th of September, 1899, however, the horses ran away while Bowles was riding, and he was thrown upon the ground and suffered injury. He then sued in the circuit court of Elkhart County to recover damages. Judgment was in favor of the defendant company, from which judgment Bowles appealed.

The opinion of the appellate court, affirming the judgment of the

court below, was delivered by Chief Justice Black, who used in part the following language:

In such a case it may be an important matter to determine whether the status of the person for whose injury the action is prosecuted was that of a passenger, being carried by the defendant either for hire or gratuitously, or was that of a servant of the defendant. If a passenger, the defendant would be under obligation to exercise the highest care, and would be liable for injury through slight negligence, and the maxim respondeat superior would be applicable; but, if a servant, the master would be under obligation to exercise only ordinary care, and would be liable for injury through the want of it, and, if the injury accrued from one of the ordinary risks of the service, the hazard of which was assumed by the injured person as an employee, there could be no recovery. In the case before us the conveyance of the plaintiff and his fellow-workmen by the employer was for the mutual convenience of the parties, no compensation being rendered or required. The transportation of the laborers was one of the means by which the employer procured the doing of the work. It was connected with the employment. The defendant was not carrying the plaintiff gratuitously for the mere accommodation of the latter, without regard to the relation between them created in their contract, but was doing so because of that relation, and as an incident of the employment. The general rule may be said to be that where an employee is being carried by his employer, in the conveyance of the latter, to and from the work for which the former is employed, he is regarded, not as a passenger, but as an employee; though if he is being carried merely for his own convenience, pleasure, or business, he is a passenger.

The complaint does not charge any act or omission of the appellee as negligent, or show that the injury was occasioned by the appellee's negligence. It is not charged that the appellee was negligent in the selection of the driver, or that the driver in any respect was incompetent or negligent. Whatever might be the effect, as evidence, of the use of such a team for such a purpose, it can not be said that a pleading thus showing the use of the team in care of a competent driver charges negligence without so characterizing the use in the pleading. Instead of stating want of knowledge of the character of the team on the part of the appellant, and thereby negating the assumption by him of the hazard of the danger, it is indicated that he had known the fault of the team for two months, during which he had been riding to and from his work drawn by the same team. Where, the danger being equally open and known to both the employee and the employer, the former has voluntarily continued in the service, making no complaint, and the latter has made no promise concerning it, there can be no recovery.

INJUNCTION—PARTIES—ARMED CAMPS—*Reinecke Coal Mining Company v. Wood et al.*, *United States Circuit Court, Western District of Kentucky*, 112 *Federal Reporter*, page 477.—A bill of complaint was exhibited by the above-named company, which was incorporated under the laws of Delaware, against Wood and others, members and officers of a labor organization known as the United Mine Workers of America, with a prayer for an injunction to be operative during the suit. The

facts are that mine workers in Indiana and Illinois having met and adopted what was known as the Indianapolis scale, endeavored to secure its adoption among the mine workers of Kentucky. Certain operators in the latter State were approached and agreed to adopt the scale if a certain percentage in the western Kentucky coal fields would do the same. These last were not employers of union labor, and in order to procure the adherence of the miners in their employ to the organization of United Mine Workers armed camps were established at different points, and threats and violence were used to cause the workmen to join. It appeared that mutual satisfaction had prevailed between operators and workmen in the district entered upon prior to the coming of the armed bands.

The granting of the injunction was opposed by the defendants on the ground that the acts complained of had been directed against the Reinecke Coal Company, predecessor to the present complainant, and that therefore there was no ground for the complaint. A second objection set forth that the complainant was barred by a judgment of the State court in Hopkins County by which an injunction had been denied.

On these two points Judge Evans handed down an opinion from which the following is quoted:

It is indeed quite true that the defendants should not be enjoined if their acts were only directed against another person than the complainant, and especially if the complainant is threatened with no injurious results from the conduct of the defendants. But the court finds from the evidence submitted to it that, while the history of the transaction in the course of which the troubles complained of arose shows that the old company was the one aimed at, yet it also shows that the results sought by the defendants can not be accomplished without pursuing the same course towards the complainant; and the court finds from the evidence that, up to the time of the filing of the bill of complaint and the issuance of the restraining order in this case, there was no cessation of the efforts of the defendants to accomplish their designs, and that these efforts were directed against the complainant after its purchase of the mining property; and, further, that the armed camp of the defendants near complainants' mines was maintained until the restraining order was served, after which the armed persons composing that camp, in great numbers, moved upon a neighboring coal mine in Webster County, and that that movement was attended with deplorable results, which otherwise might have been inflicted upon the complainant. This is sufficient to dispose of the defendants' first objection.

A second objection made by the defendants is based upon the averment in the answer as amended to the effect, substantially, that the complainant in an action in equity brought by it in the State court in Hopkins County on the 8th day of May, 1901, sought, but was refused, an injunction by that court; it being claimed that the cause of action asserted in that case was the same as that asserted in the pending action. This, it is contended, was a judgment against the right of the complainant, which bars the granting of the injunction now prayed

for. This contention is entirely without legal force or merit, for several distinct reasons, among which are: First, the fact that that suit, as shown by the copy of the record filed, was not brought by the complainant at all, but was brought by the St. Bernard Coal Company, the Reinecke Coal Company, and the Monarch Coal Company, jointly, each of which was an entity entirely different from the complainant; second, the record shows that the defendants in that case were different in most respects from the defendants in this case; third, the plaintiffs in the proceeding, so far as it was passed upon, sought a provisional remedy only, under the Code of Practice, against the defendants in that suit, and the claim thereto was based upon grounds which differ materially from those alleged in this suit; fourth, the order refusing the temporary injunction in that case was not made as a final judgment by the court, but the provisional remedy of a temporary injunction was refused by the judge, and no final judgment appears to have been entered in the case on the merits; * * * and eighth, to be a bar, there must have been a judgment, in the technical sense, and in a suit to which the complainant was either a party, or to the judgment in which he was privy.

The intrusion of the defendants, so long as mere peaceful argument and persuasion were used, was in no way violative of the rights of the complainant; but when that persuasion took the form of the multitudinous camp and the gun and the pistol and the armed force, it passed the bounds of legal right, and entitled the complainant to its lawful remedies against it, quite as much, to say the least, as "picketing," or "besetting," which are held to be a nuisance, and suppressible as such. If picketing may be so treated, then a fortiori the conduct of the defendants should be prohibited. If this court can not, in a case like this, protect the rights of a citizen when assailed as those of complainant have been in this instance, there is a decrepitude in judicial power which would be mortifying to every thoughtful man. It is conceived that there is no such impotency, and there should be no lack of promptness in exercising in the premises all the power the court possesses. Quite true it may be that the exertion of executive power would be more desirable in cases like this, but that abstract proposition in no wise exempts the court from the duty of protecting the rights of the litigant when a proper case is presented. It has not been deemed useful to cite authorities in support of principles so well settled as those upon which the court must proceed in this case, but it may be well to mention the cases of *In re Debs*, 158 U. S. 564, 15 Sup. Ct. 900, 39 L. Ed. 1092, and *Quinn v. Leatham*, [1901] App. Cas. 495, as covering the whole ground.

The motion for an injunction pendente lite according to the prayer of the bill is sustained, and counsel will prepare and submit proper orders to that effect.

MECHANICS' LIENS—DESTRUCTION OF IMPROVEMENTS—MISJOINDER OF MINORS—*Armijo et al. v. Mountain Electric Company, Supreme Court of New Mexico, 67 Pacific Reporter, page 726.*—This was an appeal from a judgment assessing the terms of a mechanics' lien, rendered in the district court of Bernalillo County. The supreme court affirmed the judgment of the court below, with modifications. Two points of interest appear in the amended and supplemental answer,

as follows: The defendants, appellants in this action, state that at the time the suit was brought they owned but one-half the land on which the improvements were placed, the other half being the property of minors, so that in any case they were liable for but one-half the judgment; and, secondly, that the improvements for which the lien was granted had been destroyed by fire.

From the syllabus by the court the following sections are quoted as presenting the opinion of the court on the above points:

3. If, after a mechanics' lien is filed, the improvements situated on the land are destroyed by fire, it does not avoid the lien, but the real estate is still liable therefor.

4. When a mechanics' lien is filed on real estate and improvements, a part of which is owned by minors, and the adult defendants complain of a misjoinder, and have the suit dismissed as to the minors, it does not relieve the adult defendants from liability, but they are liable to pay the entire debt, as they caused the dismissal to be made as to the minors.

MUNICIPAL CORPORATIONS—GOVERNMENTAL FUNCTIONS—LIABILITY FOR ACTS OF OFFICERS—*Nicholson v. City of Detroit, Supreme Court of Michigan, 88 Northwestern Reporter, page 695.*—Ada Nicholson sued in the circuit court of Wayne County as administratrix of the estate of Alfred Cope, deceased, to recover from the city of Detroit damages for his death. Cope had been engaged by the board of health of Detroit to tear down a building, the property of the city, which had been used as a hospital for smallpox patients, and from his exposure while so employed he contracted the disease and died. No measures had been taken to disinfect the building, nor had Cope been warned of the danger of infection.

From a judgment in favor of the city the plaintiff appealed, the appeal resulting in the judgment of the lower court being affirmed.

The following is quoted from the remarks of Judge Hooper, who delivered the opinion of the court:

It is the well settled rule that the State is not liable to private persons who suffer injuries through the negligence of its officers,—and the rule extends to townships and cities,—while in the performance of State functions, imposed upon them by law.

Counsel for the plaintiff seem to admit the general rule that a municipality is not liable for injuries received through the negligence of its officers while acting in the capacity of governmental agents. They allege, however, that the city owned the premises, and contracted with the deceased, and owed the duty of warning him against hidden dangers; that the city is subject to the same responsibility to warn those upon its land against pitfalls that other landowners are subject to; and that the obligation under its contract for constructing a house upon its land entitles its employees to a safe place to work, as a contract between private persons does. There is some plausibility in the suggestion, but we think it fallacious. In a moral sense, those acting for the State owe the same duty toward persons employed upon its behalf as that

due from the citizen. They should also be as careful to provide safe appliances and a safe place for employees, as a private person should. But if they do not, the sufferer is remediless, as against the State, for the reason that it has provided no remedy, although the State itself own the land when the injury occurred, and make the contract of employment.

After developing the above proposition further, and citing a number of cases in support of the position taken, the court continued:

The true theory is that the township or city represents the State, in causing these things to be done, and, like the State, it enjoys immunity from responsibility in case of injury to individuals, leaving liability for such injuries to rest upon the persons whose misconduct or negligence is the immediate cause of the damage.

SEAMEN—INCOMPETENCY—RIGHT OF MASTER TO DISCHARGE—*Capillo v. Bristol Packing Company, District Court, Northern District of California, 112 Federal Reporter, page 439.*—The libellant, Capillo, contracted to serve as cook on a vessel for the round trip from San Francisco to Bristol Bay, Alaska, and return. He was found not to be a competent cook, and on reaching Alaska was discharged.

Suit being brought for unpaid wages, Judge De Haven announced the libellant's right to recover in the following language:

“When a mariner contracts for a particular service or duty on board a vessel, he engages both for fidelity in the performance of that duty, and for that capacity and those qualities which will enable him to perform the service in a satisfactory manner. If the master finds, upon trial, that there is on the part of the man either a want of fidelity or a want of capacity which disqualifies him for the service, he will be justified in putting him upon a different duty. And in such a case the master will also be justified, not in refusing altogether to pay him wages, but in making from them a reasonable deduction.” (Sherwood v. McIntosh, Ware, 109, Fed. Cas. No. 12, 778.) And in Curt. Merch. Seam. p. 149, it is said: “Incompetency for the station contracted for is not, however, by the general maritime law, a valid reason for a discharge in a foreign country.”

The fact that the port where libellant was discharged was not in a foreign country is not sufficient to render the rule just stated inapplicable to the present case.

The clause in the shipping articles giving to the master or agent of the defendant the right to discharge the libellant for a failure to properly perform the duties for which he shipped was not read or explained to the libellant, and is not binding upon him. The defendant contracted to pay the libellant the sum of \$50 per month for the round trip, but, on account of libellant's inability to satisfactorily discharge the duties for which he was employed, a deduction from the amount agreed upon should be made. In my opinion, the libellant is entitled to recover for the whole time for which he was shipped at the rate of \$35 per month.

Let such decree be entered.

SEAMEN—WAGES—SET-OFF OF DAMAGES CAUSED BY NEGLIGENCE OF DUTY—*The Juneau*—United States District Court, District of Washington, Northern Division, 113 Federal Reporter, page 514.—This was a suit in admiralty brought by a master, mate, engineer, and fireman, in sole charge of a tug, to recover wages for services.

There was no dispute as to services or the nonpayment of wages. It appeared, however, that on a dark, stormy night the crew took the tug into port and anchored, and devoted their attention to a game of cards, allowing steam to go down and the vessel to drag anchor until it ran aground. Before they got up steam the receding tide left the tug hard aground; the boat then listed and was submerged, remaining so for several days. For damage incurred and expenses for towage and repairs the owners demanded an off-set, claiming that these expenses more than equaled the wages due.

The decision of the court, as given by Judge Hanford, was as follows:

In admiralty, justice is administered according to the principles of equity; and it is contrary to equity for the captain and crew intrusted with the care of a vessel, who by their culpable neglect of duty have suffered the vessel to be seriously damaged, so that by their employment the owner has been damaged, and not benefited, to have a lien upon the vessel for wages. Seamen may be subjected to deductions from their wages for neglect of their duty; and they are liable for losses of property occasioned by their negligence. [Cases cited.]

Case dismissed, with costs.

SUBSTITUTED CONTRACTS—CONSIDERATION—DURESS—AUTHORITY OF AGENT—RELEASE OF CLAIM FOR WAGES—EFFECT IN ADMIRALTY—ADMIRALTY JURISDICTION—*Demenico et al. v. Alaska Packers' Association*, United States District Court, Northern District of California, 112 Federal Reporter, page 554.—This was a suit in admiralty to recover a balance claimed for wages. The facts appear in the following quotations from the remarks of Judge De Haven, before whom the suit came:

This is a libel in personam, brought by a large number of persons to recover each the sum of \$50, balance due for wages as fishermen and seamen, upon a contract alleged to have been entered into between them and the defendant corporation on May 22, 1900, at Pyramid Harbor, Alaska. The answer of the defendant sets forth three defenses: First, the defendant avers that the contract referred to in the libel is without consideration; secondly, denies that it executed such contract; and, for a third defense, it is alleged that the labor performed by the libelants was done under a contract other and different from that sued on, and that prior to the commencement of this action each of the libelants was paid the full amount due him, and in consideration thereof executed a release of all claims and demands which he had against the defendant.

It appears from the evidence that on March 26, 1900, the libelants entered into a contract with the defendant whereby they were employed to go as seamen for a voyage between San Francisco and Pyramid Harbor and return on board such vessel as might be designated by defendant; and also to work for the defendant at Pyramid Harbor during the season of that year as fishermen, "or in any other capacity;" the libelants undertaking to do "regular ship's duty both up and down, discharging and loading, and to do any other work whatsoever when requested to do so by the captain or agent of the Alaska Packers' Association." By the terms of this agreement the defendant was to pay each of the libelants \$50 for the season, and 2 cents for each red salmon caught by him. On April 5, 1900, certain of the libelants signed shipping articles by which they shipped as seamen on the *Two Brothers*, a vessel chartered by the defendant for the voyage between San Francisco and Pyramid Harbor, and also bound themselves to do for defendant the same work they were to perform under the previous contract; the defendants agreeing to pay each of them \$60 for the season and 2 cents for each red salmon caught by him. Thereafter the libelants entered into the employment of the defendant, some under the first and others under the second of these contracts, and proceeded on the *Two Brothers* from San Francisco to Pyramid Harbor, Alaska. Shortly after their arrival at that place they became dissatisfied and refused to further perform the services called for by such contracts, unless defendant would enter into a new agreement with them, binding itself to pay to each of the libelants for the same work the sum of \$100 for the season, and, in addition thereto, the sum named in the former contracts for each red salmon caught. The defendant had \$150,000 invested in the business conducted by it at Pyramid Harbor, and no other men could be engaged to take the places of libelants during that fishing season. Under these circumstances the superintendent of defendant yielded to what he deemed the unreasonable and illegal demands of libelants, and agreed in behalf of the defendant corporation to pay the additional sum demanded by them for the season's work. This contract was entered into May 22, 1900, and is the one sued on. Upon their return to San Francisco, October 6, 1900, the defendant, through its proper officer, informed libelants that the contract of May 22, 1900, was executed without authority from defendant, and that it would not pay the increased compensation therein provided for them. After this notice all of the libelants, and some of them after consulting counsel, accepted under protest the amount of wages stipulated for in the original agreement, and thereupon executed a release of all their claims and demands against the defendant.

1. It will be noticed that the principal subject of the contract upon the part of the libelants was for the rendition of services as fishermen at Pyramid Harbor, and included work in the cannery on shore, in preserving the fish caught by them, and also the labor of placing the fish on board the *Two Brothers* for transportation to San Francisco. The contract is, however, maritime in its nature. The fact that, while engaged in fishing at Pyramid Harbor, the libelants slept on shore, and mended their nets and cared for the fish on shore, and that this was contemplated by the contract, does not make it any the less a maritime contract which a court of admiralty has jurisdiction to enforce. (The *Minna* (D. C.) 11 Fed. 759.)

2. The contention of libelants that the nets provided them were rotten and unserviceable is not sustained by the evidence. It follows

from this finding that libelants were not justified in refusing performance of their original contract. The defendant contends that, such being the fact, the contract sued on is nudum pactum; and it is urged in support of this claim that the promise of the defendant contained therein was simply a promise to pay to the libelants additional compensation for the precise work they were already under a legal obligation to perform by the terms of the prior agreement. It is an elementary principle of law that after a contract for the rendition of services or for the delivery of property has been completely executed by the party who agreed to do so, a promise made by the other to pay more for such service or property than the sum fixed by the contract performed would be without consideration. (Clark, Cont. p. 192.) The promise in that case would be simply a promise to make a gift, and could not be enforced. But when a contract remains wholly or partly executory, and the party who has obligated himself to render services or deliver property thereunder refuses performance unless paid more than he would be entitled to receive by the terms of such contract, whether in such case the agreement of the other to pay the increased price demanded in order to obtain precisely the same service or property stipulated for in the original contract would be without consideration is a question upon which the courts are not agreed. The following cases may be cited as in principle holding that such agreement would be without consideration. [Cases cited]. The doctrine of these cases is expressed in the following extract from the opinion of the court in *Vanderbilt v. Schreyer*, 91 N. Y. 392: "Pollock states the rule as follows: That 'neither the promise to do a thing nor the actual doing of it will be a good consideration if it is a thing which the party is bound to do by the general law, or by a subsisting contract with the other party.' (Pol. Cont. 161; *Crosby v. Wood*, 6 N. Y. 369; *Deacon v. Gridley*, 15 C. B. 295.) 'Nor is the performance of that which the party was under a previous, valid, legal obligation to do sufficient consideration for a contract.' (2 Pars. Cont. 437.)"

On the other hand, it has been held that when one who has bound himself to render services or deliver property under an existing contract refuses to do so unless paid more than the contract price, the parties may enter into a new agreement by which an increased price or compensation is to be paid for the same service or property, and that in such case the subsequent performance of the contract by the promisee is a sufficient consideration for the new agreement. [Cases cited]. In my opinion, the cases just cited state the true rule. Upon principle it would seem that the parties to a contract have a perfect right to change or add to its terms for any reason which seems adequate to them, or they may entirely discharge such contract, and substitute another in relation to the same subject matter; and there is no more legal objection to a promise to pay more for future services contracted for than to an agreement that services shall be other or different from those named in the original contract, with a corresponding increase or reduction in the price to be paid therefor. "There need be no express waiver of the old contract or of some of its terms, to constitute a discharge by substituted agreement. A new contract inconsistent with the original impliedly discharges the latter without an express provision to that effect." (Clark, Cont. p. 611.) "Such a substituted agreement prima facie takes the place of the original agreement as to everything remaining unperformed." (*Rogers v. Rogers*, 139 Mass. 440, 1 N. E. 122.) In the case at bar, if the parties deemed it for their

mutual interest so to do, it was competent for them to enter into the new contract sued on, and when they did this there was an implied discharge of the former contract, and the new became the measure of their rights, unless the consent of the defendant thereto was obtained by duress; and the facts appearing here do not show that the defendant acted under duress in making that contract. (*Goebel v. Linn*, 47 Mich. 489, 11 N. W. 284, 41 Am. Rep. 723; *Hackley v. Headley*, 45 Mich. 569, 8 N. W. 511.) When the libelants refused to continue in the performance of the original agreement, they rendered themselves legally liable for damages for their breach of contract, and suit might have been brought by the defendant to recover such damages. But this was not the only right of defendant. It had the right to enter into a new contract with the libelants for the performance of the same work, if, upon consideration of all the circumstances, that was deemed by it the best course to pursue. The reason why the defendant did not choose to rely upon the original agreement, and bring an action for the damages occasioned by its breach, may have been, and probably was, because of the inability of the libelants to respond in damages. Under such circumstances it would be strange indeed if the law would not permit the defendant to waive the damages caused by the libelants' breach, and enter into the contract sued upon.

3. The contract sued on is that of the defendant. The defendant obtained and still retains the benefit of the services of libelants under such contract, and is therefore estopped from disputing the authority of Murray [the superintendent] to act for it in making the contract under consideration.

4. The next question that arises is as to the effect of the settlement made by the defendant with libelants. If this were an action at law, this payment and release would, under the circumstances just stated, operate as a satisfaction of the claims set forth in the libel. (*Croft v. Lumley*, 5 El. & Bl. 648, 680; *McDaniels v. Lapham*, 21 Vt. 222; *Donohue v. Woodbury*, 6 Cush. 148, 52 Am. Dec. 777.) And the same result would follow if the contract sued on was governed by section 4552 of the Revised Statutes. (The Pennsylvania (D. C.) 98 Fed. 744.) But it is not. The contract, while it provides that libelants shall render some services as seamen, is not, strictly speaking, such a contract as is contemplated by section 4552 of the Revised Statutes. The effect of the release must therefore be determined by the rule applied in courts of admiralty when a release is relied upon as a defense to the action. That principle, broadly stated, is this: That courts of admiralty are not bound in the decision of cases before them by technical rules, but are governed by enlarged views of equity and justice; and as seamen are usually improvident, and often ignorant of their rights, they are frequently tempted by their necessities to take less than is due them. While, as before stated, the present is not, strictly speaking, a suit for the recovery of seamen's wages, still there is the same reason for looking behind the releases which are relied upon by the defendant in this case as if the action were one for the recovery of seamen's wages.

5. A decree will be entered in favor of each of the libelants for the sum of \$50, and interest thereon from date of filing the libel until decree is satisfied, and for costs.

LAWS OF VARIOUS STATES RELATING TO LABOR ENACTED SINCE JANUARY 1, 1896.

[The Second Special Report of the Department contains all laws of the various States and Territories and of the United States relating to labor in force January 1, 1896. Later enactments are reproduced in successive issues of the Bulletin from time to time as published.]

ARKANSAS.

ACTS OF 1901.

Act 114.—*Weighing coal at mines.*

SECTION 1. Section 2 of said act entitled, An Act to prevent fraud in weighing and measuring coal and requiring the same to be weighed or measured before screening and for other purposes, approved April 10th, 1899, [shall] be amended so that said section 2 shall read as follows:

All coal mined and paid for by weight, shall be weighed before it is screened, unless the person or persons mining same shall by contract agree otherwise, and shall be paid for according to the weight so ascertained, at such prices per ton or bushel as may be agreed upon by such owner or operator and the miners who mined the same: *Provided*, That nothing in this act shall be so construed as to prevent such owner or operator from having the right to deduct the weight of any sulphur, slate, rock or other impurities contained in the car and not discovered until after the car has been weighed.

SEC. 2. All laws and parts of laws in conflict with this act, are hereby repealed and this act shall take effect from and after its passage.

Approved April 19, 1901.

Act 161.—*Payment of wages—Issue of scrip—Company stores.*

SECTION 1. It shall be unlawful for any corporation, company, firm, or person, engaged in any trade, or business in this State, either directly or indirectly to issue, sell, give or deliver to any person employed by such corporation, company, firm or person, in payment of wages due such laborer, earned by him, any scrip, token, draft, check or other evidence of indebtedness, payable or redeemable, otherwise than in lawful money, at the regular pay day of such corporation, company, firm or person; and if any such scrip, token, draft, check or other evidence of indebtedness, be so issued, sold, given or delivered to such laborer, it shall be construed, taken and held in all courts and places to be a promise to pay the sum specified therein, in lawful money, by the corporation, company, firm or person, issuing, selling, giving or delivering the same to the person named therein, or the holder thereof. And the corporation, company, firm or person, so issuing, selling, giving, or delivering the same shall, moreover, be guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction thereof, shall be fined not less than twenty-five dollars (\$25), and not more than one hundred (\$100) dollars. And at the discretion of the court trying the same, the officer or agent of the corporation, company, firm or person, issuing, selling, giving or delivering the same, may be imprisoned not less than ten, nor more than thirty days.

SEC. 2. If any corporation, company, firm or person, shall coerce or compel, or attempt to coerce or compel, any employee in its, theirs [their] or his employment, to purchase goods or supplies in payment of wages due him or earned by him, from any corporation, company, firm or person, such first-named corporation, company, firm or person, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor and upon conviction thereof, shall be punished as provided in the preceding section.

SEC. 3. If any such corporation, company, firm, or person, shall directly or indirectly, sell to any such employee, in payment of wages, due or earned by him, goods or supplies at prices higher than a reasonable or current market value thereof in cash, such corporation, company, firm or person, shall be liable to such employee, in a civil action in double the amount of the charges, made and paid for such goods

and supplies, in excess of the reasonable or current value in cash thereof: *Provided*, That the provisions of this act do not apply to coal mines, when less than twenty (20) men are employed under the ground.

SEC. 4. All laws and parts of laws in conflict herewith are hereby repealed, and this act [shall] take effect and be in force sixty days after its passage.

Approved May 23, 1901.

COLORADO.

ACTS OF 1901.

CHAPTER 36.—*Blacklisting and boycotting—Repeal.*

SECTION 1. The act, and every part thereof, entitled "An act to prevent blacklisting and boycotting," approved April 21, 1897, the same being chapter 31, of the Session Laws of 1897 of the State of Colorado, is hereby repealed.

Approved March 30, 1901.

CHAPTER 55.—*Payment of wages—Semimonthly pay day.*

SECTION 1. All private corporations doing business within this State, except railroad corporations, shall pay to their employees, the wages earned each and every fifteen days, in lawful money of the United States, or checks on banks convertible into cash on demand at full face value thereof, and all such wages shall be due and payable, and shall be paid by such corporations, on the fifth and twentieth day of each calendar month for all such wages earned up to and within five days of the date of such payment: *Provided, however*, That if at such time of payment any employee shall be absent from the regular place of labor, he shall be entitled to such payment at any time thereafter: *Provided, further*, That each and every railroad corporation in this State shall have at least one regular pay day in each and every month upon which said pay day said railroad corporation shall pay to its employees all wages for services and labor performed during the preceding calendar month, in lawful money of the United States, or checks on banks convertible into cash on demand, at full face value thereof: *Provided, further*, That the provisions of this act shall not apply to any corporations exclusively operating ditches, canals or reservoirs.

SEC. 2. Whenever any such corporation fails to pay any of its employees, as provided in section 1 of this act, then a penalty shall attach to such corporation, and become due to such employees, as follows: A sum equivalent to a penalty of five per cent of the wages due and not paid as herein provided as liquidated damages, and such penalty shall attach and suit may be brought in any court of competent jurisdiction to recover same and the wages due.

SEC. 3. Whenever any employee is discharged from the employ of any such corporation, then all the unpaid wages of such employee shall immediately become due and payable, and if such corporation fails to pay any such discharged employee all the wages due and payable to said discharged employee, then the same penalty of five per cent shall attach to said corporation and become due to such employee as provided in section 2 of this act.

SEC. 4. Any employee or assignee of any such employee may recover all such penalties that may, by violation of section 2 of this act, have accrued to him, at any time within six months succeeding such default, or delay, in the payment of such wages.

SEC. 5. Any contract or agreement made between any corporation, and any parties in its employ, whose provisions shall be in violation, evasion or circumvention of this act, shall be unlawful and void, but such employee may sue to recover his wages earned, together with such five per cent penalty, or separately to recover the penalty if the wages have been paid.

SEC. 6. Whenever any such corporation shall contract any or all of its work to any contractor, then it shall become the duty of any such corporation to provide that the employees of any such corporation or contractor shall be paid according to the provisions of this act, and such corporations shall become responsible, and liable to the employees of such contractor in the same manner as if said employees were employed by such corporation.

SEC. 7. Whenever it shall become necessary for the employees to enter or maintain a suit at law for the recovery or collection of wages due as provided by this act, then such judgment shall include a reasonable attorney fee, in favor of the successful party, to be taxed as part of the costs in the case.

SEC. 8. It is herein provided that all corporations hereinafter organized for pecuniary profit, except railroad companies, shall be deemed to have incorporated with special

reference to the provisions of this act, and the obligation to comply with such and every provision herein, shall be deemed to be the condition upon which incorporation is granted by the State.

A willful violation of any of the provisions herein, shall be sufficient ground or cause for forfeiture of such corporate rights and privileges to be enforced by suit brought in the name of the people of the State of Colorado upon relation of the attorney-general of this State in any district court in Colorado.

SEC. 9. In the opinion of the general assembly an emergency exists; therefore, this act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage.

Approved April 10, 1901.

CHAPTER 67.—*Employers' liability.*

SECTION 1. Every corporation, company or individual who may employ agents, servants or employe., such agents, servants or employees being in the exercise of due care, shall be liable to respond in damages for injuries or death sustained by any such agent, employee or servant, resulting from the carelessness, omission of duty or negligence of such employer, or which may have resulted from the carelessness, omission of duty or negligence of any other agent, servant or employee of the said employer, in the same manner and to the same extent as if the carelessness, omission of duty or negligence causing the injury or death was that of the employer.

SEC. 2. All acts, and parts of acts, in conflict herewith are hereby repealed: *Provided, however,* That this act shall not be construed to repeal or change the existing laws relating to the right of the person injured, or in case of death, the right of the husband or wife, or other relatives of a deceased person, to maintain an action against the employer.

Approved March 28, 1901.

CHAPTER 89.—*Hours of labor of railroad employees.*

SECTION 1. No company operating a railroad in whole or in part within this State, shall permit or require any conductor, engineer, fireman, brakeman, telegraph operator, or any trainman who has worked in his respective capacity for sixteen (16) consecutive hours, except in case of casualty, to again go on duty or perform any work until he has had at least ten (10) hours' rest.

SEC. 2. Any company which violates, or permits to be violated, any of the provisions of the preceding section or any officer, agent or employee who violates or permits to be violated any of the provisions of the preceding section, shall be fined not less than one hundred dollars, nor more than three hundred dollars, for each and every violation of this act.

SEC. 3. All acts or parts of acts in conflict with this act, are hereby repealed.

Approved February 19, 1901.

CHAPTER 91.—*Weighing coal at mines.*

SECTION 1. It shall be the duty of every corporation, company or persons engaged in the business of mining and selling coal by weight or measure in this State to procure and constantly keep on hand, at the proper place, the necessary scales and measures and whatever else may be necessary to correctly weigh or measure the coal mined and taken out by the workmen or miners of such corporation, company or persons, and it shall be the duty of the inspector of weights and measures of every county in which coal is mined and sold to visit each coal mine operated therein, and, once in each year, unless oftener requested by the operator or the miner or the miners, test the correctness of such scales and measures. If in any county there is no inspector of weights and measures, then the State inspector of mines shall be required to test the correctness of such scales or measures within a reasonable time after application is made to him therefor by either the miners or owner or those who may be operating the mine.

SEC. 2. Each car or other apparatus used by any such corporation, company or person in removing coal from any coal mine shall be plainly marked by having distinctly placed upon it a number which shall be kept thereon while such car or other apparatus is in use and no two cars or other apparatus so used shall bear the same number, and if the coal from such mine is mined and the miners are paid therefor according to weight for mining the same, every such car so used shall be weighed upon such tested scales and the weight of the coal thereof shall be correctly credited to the person mining it and recorded in a book kept for that purpose and the correct weight shall also be marked upon such car or apparatus before it is returned to the

mine for reloading. If the coal of any such mine is mined and the miners thereof are paid for the same by measure, the number of bushels of coal such car or other apparatus will hold when loaded to its capacity shall also be plainly marked upon it and kept thereon as long as such car is used, as aforesaid. Where coal is mined by weight, or by the ton, two thousand pounds shall constitute a ton, or where it is measured by the bushel, eighty pounds shall constitute one bushel.

SEC. 3. All coal mined by the ton or by weight shall be weighed in the car or other apparatus in which it is removed from the mine before it is screened or before it is passed over or dumped upon any screen or any other device which may let or be capable of letting a portion of the coal drop through such screen or device, and it shall be paid for according to the weight so ascertained at such price per ton as may be agreed upon by such owner or operators and the miner or miners who mine the same. All coal mined and paid for by measure shall be paid for per car according to the number of bushels marked upon the car or other apparatus in which it is removed from the mine and without the coal thereof being screened or without it being passed over or dumped upon a screen or any other device which will let any portion of the coal fall through such screen or device.

SEC. 4. A failure to comply with any of the provisions of this act shall be unlawful and deemed a misdemeanor, and any person, owner or agent operating a coal mine in this State, who shall be convicted of a violation of this act shall be fined for the first offense not less than twenty-five dollars (\$25), nor more than fifty dollars (\$50) and for the second offense and each subsequent offense not less than one hundred dollars (\$100) nor more than two hundred dollars (\$200).

SEC. 5. In the opinion of the general assembly an emergency exists; therefore, this act shall take effect upon and after its passage.

Approved April 30, 1901.

CHAPTER 99.—*Convict labor.*

SECTION 5. They [the board of control of State canal number 3] shall have the further authority to call upon the board of penitentiary commissioners for the use of as many able-bodied convicts, confined in the State penitentiary or State reformatory, as can be worked on said canal to advantage; and it shall be the duty of the said penitentiary commissioners to promptly select from the able-bodied convicts the number required, none of whom shall be under life sentence, and transport said convicts to a general headquarters which said board of control shall establish for the safe-keeping of said convicts; and said convicts under proper guard, shall be used in the rock and tunnel work on said canal.

Approved April 11, 1901.

CHAPTER 103.—*Protection of street railway employees—Inclosed platforms.*

SECTION 1. It shall be unlawful for any person, partnership, or corporation owning or operating any street railway or the cars thereupon, in this State, or for any officer or agent thereof superintending or having charge or control of the line of railway or the cars thereupon, whether the motive power of such car is electricity, steam, by cable or otherwise, which require the constant service, or care or attention of any person or persons on any part of such car, except the rear platform, to require or permit such service, attention or care of any of its employees, or any other person or persons, unless such person, partnership or corporation, or superintending officer and managing agents thereof, first provide the said car with a proper and sufficient inclosure constructed of wood, iron and glass, or similar suitable materials sufficient to protect such employee or other person from exposure to the rain, snow, cold or other inclemencies of the weather.

SEC. 2. Where there is a trailing car or cars being drawn by a head car upon which the propelling or drawing power is situated and used and where no person is required to remain constantly at one point either for the purpose of keeping the lookout or for the purpose of operating any apparatus or machinery upon such trailing car or cars; this act shall not be construed to apply to any car except the head one; nor shall it be construed to mean that the inclosure for the motorman or for the employee managing or operating any apparatus or machinery of a car at any point shall have his view obstructed, but the said inclosure or vestibuling shall be constructed in a manner so as to permit a front and side view from the position which it is necessary for the person to occupy while he is in the performance of his duties.

SEC. 3. For each day that any car is permitted to be operated contrary to the provisions of this act, it shall be deemed to be a separate offense, and any person, partnership or corporation, or the superintending officers or managing agents thereof operating any such line of street railway or the cars thereupon, who shall violate any of the provisions thereof, upon being convicted, in any court of competent juris-

diction, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall be fined not less than fifty dollars (\$50) nor more than one hundred dollars (\$100) or imprisonment in the county jail not to exceed thirty (30) days for each and every offense.

Approved April 29, 1901.

HAWAII.

ACTS OF 1901.

Act 9.—*Exemption from execution, etc.*

SECTION 1. The following described personal property shall be exempt from attachment, execution, distress and forced sale of every nature and description:

SEC. 2. All necessary household, table and kitchen furniture, including one sewing machine, crockery, tin and plated ware, calabashes and mats, family portraits and photographs and their necessary frames, all wearing apparel, bedding, household linen, and provisions provided for household use sufficient for three months.

SEC. 3. All farming implements and utensils not exceeding in value the sum of five hundred dollars; also two oxen, two horses or mules, and their harness; food for such oxen, horses or mules for one month; one cart, brake or wagon; and one horse, one set of single harness and one vehicle belonging to any person who is maimed or crippled.

SEC. 4. The tools or implements of a mechanic or artisan necessary to enable him to carry on his trade; the instruments and chest of a surgeon, physician, surveyor and dentist, necessary to the exercise of their profession, together with their necessary office furniture and fixtures; the necessary office furniture, fixtures, blanks, stationery and office equipment of attorneys, judges, ministers of the gospel, and rabbis; the typewriter, one desk and half a dozen chairs of a stenographer or typewriter; the musical instruments of every teacher of music used by them in giving instruction; one bicycle when the same is used by its owner for the purpose of carrying on his regular business or when the same is used for the purpose of transporting the owner to and from his place of business; the fishing nets, dips and seines, and the boats, with their tackle and equipment, of every fisherman.

SEC. 5. Two horses or two mules and their harness, one cart or wagon or stage, one dray or truck, one coupe or hack or carriage for one or two horses, by the use of which a cartman, drayman, truckster, huckster, peddler, hackman, teamster, or other laborer actually earns his living; and one horse and harness and one vehicle used by a physician, surgeon, or minister of the gospel, in the practice or exercise of his business or profession.

SEC. 6. The nautical instruments and wearing apparel of every master, officer and seaman of any steamship or other vessel.

SEC. 7. All books, maps, pamphlets, magazines and manuscripts of every kind, nature and description, together with the bookcases, shelving, cabinets or other devices for holding the same: *Provided, however,* That this section shall not apply to such of the articles herein specified as are kept for sale by any dealer therein.

SEC. 8. The wages of every laborer or person working for wages, such person being the head of a family, to the amount of two hundred dollars, and every other person to the amount of fifty dollars.

SEC. 9. The proceeds of insurance on, and the proceeds of the sale of, and of the property in this act mentioned, for the period of three months from the date such proceeds are received.

SEC. 10. No property mentioned in this act shall be exempt from attachment for, nor from execution issued upon a judgment recovered for the purchase price thereof, or upon a judgment of foreclosure of a mortgage thereon, nor for taxes or fines or any debt due the Territory of Hawaii.

SEC. 16. This act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage.

Approved this 24th day of April, A. D. 1901.

Act 17.—*Protection of wages due laborers.*

SECTION 1. It shall be unlawful for any person, firm, partnership or corporation, within this Territory, to deduct and retain any part or portion of any wages due and payable to any laborer or employee, or to collect any store account, offset or counter claim without the written consent of such laborer or employee or by action in court as provided by law.

SEC. 2. No fines, offsets or counter claims shall be collected, deducted, or retained out of any wages due and payable to any laborer or employee by any person, firm,

partnership or corporation, in this Territory, unless by action in court and judgment therefor first obtained as provided by law.

Sec. 3. Any person, partnership, firm or corporation who shall violate any provision of this act shall be guilty of a misdemeanor and upon conviction thereof shall be fined not less than fifty dollars and not more than one hundred dollars.

Sec. 4. This act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage and publication.

Became a law April 24, 1901, without the signature of the governor.

KANSAS.

ACTS OF 1901.

CHAPTER 180.—*Railroad employees—Voting.*

SECTION 1. It shall be lawful for any employee of any railroad company, being a qualified elector of the State of Kansas, who may, on the occurrence of any annual or biennial election, be unavoidably absent from his township or ward because his duties or occupation or business require him to be elsewhere within the State, to vote for county, district or State officers, members of the legislature, members of congress and electors of President and Vice-President of the United States in any voting precinct where he may present himself for that purpose on the day of such election, under regulations hereinafter prescribed.

Sec. 2. The voter so entitled to vote shall present himself at the polls in any precinct in the State where he may be on such election day, and during voting hours, and make and subscribe, before one of the judges of election, an affidavit in substance as follows:

State of Kansas, _____ County, ss.

I, _____, do solemnly swear that I have resided in the State of Kansas more than six months, and in the township of _____ (or in the _____ ward of the city of _____), in the county of _____, in said State, more than thirty days next preceding this date, and am in all respects a duly qualified elector of said _____; that I am a _____, and that because of my duties (or occupation or business) as such _____ I am required to be absent from my township (or ward) on this day, and have had and will have no opportunity to vote there; and that I have not voted elsewhere at this election.

Any judge of election in any precinct in the State is hereby authorized to administer the oath and take and certify such affidavit. Thereupon the affiant shall be given a blank official ballot, as in case of a resident voter, and shall mark the same as any resident voter may, and shall fold the same and hand it to the judges, as in case of a resident voter, but such ballot shall not be deposited in the ballot-box nor be entered on the poll-books. It shall, together with said affidavit, be securely sealed in an envelope, upon the back of which one of the judges shall write: "The ballot of _____, an absent voter of _____ township (or ward, or precinct of the _____ ward, of the city of _____), in the County of _____," which shall be signed by one of said judges.

Sec. 3. All such envelopes shall, by the judges of the election, be filed with the county clerks of the county where such votes were cast not later than the next succeeding day, and said county clerks shall immediately mail them, postage prepaid, to the county clerks of the respective counties where such votes belong.

Sec. 4. The county clerk of the county in which said absent voter resides shall receive said ballot, and shall safely keep and preserve the same unopened in his office until the board of county commissioners canvass the vote according to law, at which time the said board of county commissioners, in the presence of said county clerk and no other person, shall open said envelope and record the said ballot upon the poll-sheet of the proper precinct or ward in their possession, in the same manner as clerks of election record votes, and in so canvassing said vote the board of county commissioners shall count the votes of all absent voters taken as herein provided, and add the same to the total of the poll-sheet, in arriving at the total result of the election in the precinct or ward where said voter lives.

Sec. 5. Said ballot, when so opened by the county commissioners, shall be sealed in an envelope with the endorsement thereon: "Vote of absent voter of _____ ward, _____ city (or precinct)," and the same shall be kept in the county clerk's office as other ballots are kept until destroyed according to law; and in case of a contested election the same may be counted and opened as in other cases. The board of county commissioners and the county clerk of each county wherein any vote of any absent voter

is received as herein provided shall keep the fact of such vote and the persons for whom the same is recorded and contents thereof secret and shall not reveal or divulge the same.

Approved March 22, 1901.

CHAPTER 185.—*Free public employment offices.*

SECTION 1. There is hereby created the free employment bureau of the State of Kansas, for the purpose of providing free employment agencies in all cities of the first and second class within the State: *Provided*, That any city of the second class may, by resolution of the mayor and council, dispense with such free employment agency, and shall notify the director to that effect. Said bureau shall be under the supervision and direction of an officer designated as "director of free employment," who shall be appointed by the governor within ten days from the taking effect of this act, and shall hold such office for the term of two years and until his successor is appointed and qualified. Before entering upon the duties of the office, he shall take and subscribe an oath as provided for other State officers.

SEC. 2. As soon as such director of free employment shall have been appointed and qualified, it shall be his duty to prepare, prescribe, print, and transmit to the city clerks of all cities of the first and second classes, directions, rules and regulations for the opening, conduct and reports of free employment agencies in said cities, which directions, rules and regulations said director may amend, add to or revise from time to time. Said director shall also prepare all needful or proper forms to be used by such agencies, and shall cause blanks and all blank books to be prepared by the State printer, and shall forward supplies thereof to all such city clerks for use of such agencies; all work authorized by this act to be done by the State printer, upon the requisition of said director, subject to the approval of the State printing committee.

SEC. 3. Within thirty days after such directions, rules and regulations shall have been received by any city clerk, the mayor and council shall comply with the directions of said director as to the opening and preparing to maintain a free employment agency and for the expense thereof; and if no such provisions be made, the duties of free employment agent shall devolve upon the city clerk, who shall perform the same, and his office shall be the free employment agency of said city.

SEC. 4. It shall be the duty of the free employment agent of every city to register, as directed by the directions of the director of free employment, every person desiring to employ any person and every person desiring employment; and it shall be the strict legal right of every such person to so register and to enjoy all of the advantages of such employment agency free from any charge or expense whatever. Reports to the director of free employment shall be made by such agencies as often and as to such matters as he may require. Every person shall be notified of employment open in the order of his or her registration for that employment by such agent where registered. All other details shall be fixed by the director of free employment.

SEC. 5. The reports of such agencies shall be made to the director of free employment as he may require, and shall be tabulated and classified, and such persons as have not secured employment or notice of employment where registered shall be notified by the director where such employment may be had, as shown by the reports made. The director shall embody in his annual report such tabulations of the work performed by such agencies in the State, with such recommendations as he may deem proper for the information of the legislature.

SEC. 6. If any city clerk shall fail or refuse to carry out in good faith, in a reasonably fair and efficient manner, the duties devolved upon him by this act or by the direction, rules and regulations of the director of free employment, he shall forfeit his office as such free employment officer, and be removed therefrom: *Provided*, Such removal shall not affect the tenure of his office as to its other duties. Any agent provided for and appointed by any city to conduct a free employment agency under this act shall be removed by the mayor at any time when requested in writing by ten or more electors of said city, upon a showing being made that such agent refused or failed to perform the duties as required by this act. In case of the removal or resignation for any cause of the free employment agent in any city, the mayor of such city shall immediately appoint a qualified person to fill such vacancy.

SEC. 7. The director of free employment shall keep and maintain an office, and the executive council is hereby directed to provide for said director a suitable room, properly furnished for the use of said director.

SEC. 8. It shall be the further duty of the said director to secure and list, as far as practicable, from the rural districts of the State, the number of extra laborers required for the harvest season in each community, for the purpose of providing labor for the harvest season to meet such demand, and to provide employment for any idle labor seeking employment.

SEC. 9. The director of free employment shall be paid a salary of twelve hundred dollars per annum, to be paid as other State officers. The further sum of five hundred dollars annually for postage and express is hereby allowed for the use of said director in carrying out the provisions of this act.

Approved March 29, 1901.

CHAPTER 187.—*Seats for female employees.*

SECTION 1. The proprietor, manager or person having charge of any mercantile establishment, store, shop, hotel, restaurant or other place where women or girls are employed as clerks or help therein in this State shall provide chairs, stools or other contrivances for the comfortable use of such female employees, and shall permit the use of same by such female employees for the preservation of their health and for rest when not actively employed in the discharge of their respective duties.

SEC. 2. Any proprietor, manager or other person violating the preceding section of this act shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction shall be fined in a sum not less than ten dollars nor more than one hundred dollars.

Approved May 1, 1901.

CHAPTER 229.—*Wages preferred.*

SECTION 1. Whenever a receiver shall be appointed of the estate of any corporation, copartnership, or individual, under the laws of this State, or whenever any corporation, copartnership or individual shall make a general assignment for the benefit of the creditors of such corporation, copartnership, or individual, the wages due to all laborers or employees other than officers of such corporation, accruing within the six months immediately preceding such appointment of a receiver or such assignment, shall be preferred to every other debt or claim against such corporation, copartnership, or individual, and shall be paid by the receiver or assignee of such corporation, copartnership or individual from the moneys thereof which shall first come into the hands of such receiver or assignee.

Approved May 1, 1901.

CHAPTER 256.—*State association of miners—Secretary of mining, industries, etc.*

SECTION 1. Whenever seven or more miners whose usual occupation is to mine coal for wages shall now be organized or shall hereafter organize as a miners' union in any county, city or mining camp in the State, and shall choose a delegate or delegates to the State association of miners, as such union may be under this act entitled, such delegate or delegates shall, being duly certified to the secretary of said State association by the presiding officer and secretary of such union, be admitted to and become a member or members of the State association of miners until the first Monday in February next following, and until the successor or successors of such delegate or delegates shall have been chosen and admitted: *Provided*, That at any time any such union may recall its delegate or any or all of its delegates by choosing and certifying a successor or successors. Each union shall be entitled to one delegate, and to one additional delegate for every fifty, or major fraction of fifty, members of such union: *Provided*, Such union shall have been organized three months preceding the then next annual meeting of said State association, and shall have certified said organization, by its presiding officer and secretary, to the secretary of said State association three months preceding said annual meeting, and during the preceding year, or during such portion thereof as it shall have existed, shall have complied with the requests of the secretary of said State association for statistics and informations. Any union may, at its option, authorize a single delegate to cast all the votes to which such union may be entitled, provided that no delegate shall cast more than five votes.

SEC. 2. On the first Monday in February every year the delegates elected to said State association of miners shall assemble at the State capitol, at an hour and place to be fixed by the secretary in his annual call therefor, to be mailed to each union at least ten days before such assembling. The delegates present at the time and place fixed for said assembly shall be deemed a quorum, competent to transact all business to be done. The delegates shall elect a president, vice-president, and secretary, and said secretary shall be known officially as State secretary of mine industries, and shall be ex officio State mine inspector, and shall collect and publish statistics of mine industries of the State. Said officials shall constitute the executive board of said association, and shall hold their offices until the next annual meeting and the election of their successors; but upon the demand of the presiding officers of five unions at any time, the president shall immediately convene the delegates by

special call, issued in like manner as the annual call, for the purpose of electing a successor to said secretary; and if at the said election another person shall receive a majority of the votes cast, he shall immediately be entitled to succeed said secretary in all his functions. One so elected may be removed in like manner.

SEC. 3. The officers of every union shall promptly and fully answer all requests for statistics or other information which the State secretary of mine industries shall make. Said secretary shall have a discretion to treat any information called for by him as confidential, and to so state his request therefor; and no information so obtained shall be subject to inspection by any person not an officer or delegate of the said State association. No union failing to answer requests for statistics or information shall be entitled to representation in the then next annual meeting. The annual report of said secretary of mine industries shall be published as the reports of other State officers. He shall receive a salary of fifteen hundred dollars per annum, payable as other State salaries are paid, and not exceeding one thousand dollars for expenses. By permission of the executive council, he may appoint one deputy mine inspector in each of the following counties: Crawford, Cherokee, Osage, and Leavenworth: *Provided*, No deputy mine inspector shall be appointed in the county in which the State mine inspector resides. Said deputy mine inspectors shall be under the supervision and control of the State mine inspector, and hold their positions at his pleasure. They shall each receive as compensation for their services three dollars per day for each day actually employed, and actual necessary traveling expenses, account and time to be audited by the secretary and certified to the State auditor for payment monthly.

Approved February 15, 1901.

CHAPTER 257.—*Mine regulations—Ventilation—Inspection.*

SECTION 1. Every mine owner, agent, superintendent, lessee or operator of coal mines or underground workings of the character mentioned in section 1 of this act shall provide and maintain, for every mine under his direction, management, or control, ample means of ventilation, providing a constant and adequate supply of pure air to every person working in such mine. On and after October 1, 1901, as to every mine already in operation, and from and after the expiration of six months next after the opening of any new mine hereafter for operation, said air shall be split into at least four separate currents, so as to give a full and separate current of air to each quarter-section of the mine, and so as to supply to every person working in the mine at his working place at least one hundred cubic feet of pure air per minute. All openings to worked-out or abandoned portions of every operated mine shall be securely gobbed and blocked off from the operated portions thereof, so as to protect every person working in such mine from all danger that can be caused or produced by such worked-out or abandoned portions of said mines. It shall not be lawful to use a furnace for the purpose of ventilating any mine in which explosive gases are germinated.

SEC. 2. If, in any coal mine or underground workings of the character mentioned in section 1 of this act, or in any portion of such mine or workings, because of improper or inadequate ventilation, the presence of stagnant water or noxious or explosive gases, inadequate or improper air ways or air gates, or the use or presence, with the knowledge, connivance or consent of the operator or person in charge of said mine, for illuminating purposes, of oil other than lard or other equally safe first-class oil, lack of adequate and lawful stairways, break-throughs, or manholes, or for any other reasons within the power of the operator, owner, or lessee, by the exercise of ordinary care, to remove or guard against, or cause to be removed or guarded against, he or becomes injurious to the health or dangerous to the lives or limbs of persons working in such mine or part of mine, the State mine inspector may maintain action in the name of the State to enjoin the working of such mine or such part of such mine until the court shall be satisfied by proper showing that said mine has been made and will be kept safe for persons to work in or be present in without injury to health or danger to life or limb. Fifteen days' written notice of the application for such injunction shall be served by the State mine inspector upon the agent, superintendent or other person in active charge of said mine. Such application may be heard, and granted or denied, at any place where the district judge may be or where the district court may be in session within the judicial district in which said mine is situated, at the time fixed in said notice; and if the district judge be absent from the district at the time fixed in said notice for the hearing, said application may be heard, and granted or denied, by the district judge of the judicial district wherever he may be found. If satisfied that the danger alleged is imminent and that delay might endanger life or limb, the judge or court may at any time during said period of fifteen days issue a restraining order to prevent the working of said mine or such part of said mine in the meantime.

The injunction need not be served, but shall be in force from and after the order allowing it against the defendants served with the original notice. If a restraining order is granted, it shall be in force from and after notice thereof reaches the defendant in the case, and such restraining order herein provided for shall be served on the agent, superintendent or other person in active charge of said mine, and such service shall bind the owner or owners, operator or operators, and lessee or lessees, as if personally served. No bond shall be required where such injunction is allowed. Any person violating such injunction or restraining order shall be punished as for direct contempt of the court issuing it by a fine of not less than one hundred dollars nor more than five hundred dollars, or by imprisonment in the county jail for not less than thirty days nor more than six months, or by both such fine and imprisonment, in the discretion of the court or the judge thereof. It shall be and is hereby made the duty of every county attorney and every deputy county attorney, on application of the State mine inspector, to prosecute actions under this act, and in that manner to diligently enforce the provisions hereof. If any county attorney or deputy county attorney shall refuse or fail to bring such action for an injunction for ten days after written request by the State mine inspector, or shall neglect or fail to diligently prosecute such action or any proceeding to enforce such an injunction or restraining order, such county attorney shall forfeit his office for neglect of official duty; and upon written request by the State mine inspector, showing the facts as to such failure, refusal, or neglect, it shall be the duty of the attorney-general to at once bring and diligently prosecute quo warranto proceedings for the removal of such county attorney. If the plaintiff in any action or proceedings brought under this act shall be defeated, the county in which the mine is located shall pay the costs therein, but if the plaintiff prevails in any such action or proceeding, the county attorney or deputy county attorney who prosecutes such action or proceeding shall receive an attorney's fee of twenty dollars, to be taxed and collected as a part of the costs.

Approved March 8, 1901.

MONTANA.

ACTS OF 1901.

PAGE 24.—*Hours of labor.*

ARTICLE III, section 19, paragraph 5. Any person subject to the payment of road poll tax in any district may, in lieu thereof, work on the roads in such district at the rate of two dollars per day of eight hours, until he shall have worked out such poll tax; * * * Eight hours labor, in the meaning of this act, shall be eight hours actual labor upon the roads or highways, exclusive of the time consumed in going to and from such labor.

Approved March 11, 1901.

PAGE 62.—*Hours of labor.*

SECTION 1. The period of employment of workmen in all underground mines or workings, shall be eight (8) hours per day, except in cases of emergency where life or property is in imminent danger.

SEC. 2. The period of employment of workmen in smelters, stamp mills, sampling works, concentrators, and all other institutions for the reduction of ores, and refining of ores or metals, shall be eight (8) hours per day, except in cases of emergency where life or property is in imminent danger.

SEC. 3. Any person or persons, body corporate, agent, manager or employer who shall violate any of the provisions of sections one (1) or two (2) of this act, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction thereof shall, for each offense, be subject to a fine of not less than one hundred dollars, or more than five hundred dollars, or by imprisonment in the county jail for a period of not less than one (1) month, or more than six (6) months or by both such fine and imprisonment.

SEC. 4. All acts, or parts of acts, in conflict with this act, are hereby repealed.

SEC. 5. This act shall not be in full force and effect until ninety days after its passage and approval by the governor.

Approved February 2, 1901.

PAGE 63.—*Inspection, etc., of mines.*

SECTION 1. The governor, by and with the advice and consent of the senate, shall appoint one coal mine inspector who shall hold office for the term of four years from the date of his appointment unless otherwise removed by the governor.

SEC. 2. No person shall be eligible to the office of coal mine inspector until he shall have attained the age of 30 years, and been actually employed at coal mining, ten years prior to his appointment, and shall possess a competent knowledge of all the different systems of coal mining and working and properly ventilating coal mines, and the nature and constituent parts of noxious gases of coal mines, and of the various ways of expelling the same from said mines. Said inspector shall be a graduate of some recognized school of mines and mining engineering, and hold a diploma from same, which shall be deposited with the governor before appointed; and further it shall be the duty of the said inspector, when not engaged in examining coal mines, to inspect quartz mines if called upon by the governor to do so.

SEC. 3. Said coal mine inspector shall before entering upon and discharging the duties of his office, shall [sic] take an oath to faithfully discharge the same in an impartial manner; and for the faithful performance thereof; he shall receive a salary of two thousand dollars per annum, and all other and necessary traveling expenses.

SEC. 4. It shall be the duty of the said coal-mine inspector to carefully examine all coal mines that may be in operation in this State at least once every two months and oftener if necessary, to see that every precaution is taken to insure safety to all workmen that may be engaged in said coal mine, and to see that provisions of section 3350, 3351, 3352, 3353, 3354, 3355, 3356, 3357, 3358, 3359, 3360, 3361, 3362, 3363, 3364, and 3365, chapter 20, article 1, part 3, title 7, of the Political Code of Montana pertaining to the regulation of coal mines are strictly observed; and all other legislation that may be enacted governing coal mines, and it shall further be the duty of the said coal mine inspector after being notified by a justice of the peace, or coroner, in the district wherein accidents may occur to immediately investigate the same.

SEC. 5. The said coal mine inspector while in office shall not act as agent for any corporation, superintendent or manager of any mine, and shall in no manner whatever be under the employ of mining companies, and it shall be the duty of said coal mine inspector on or before the first day of January in every year to make a report to the governor, of his proceedings as such coal mine inspector, and the conditions of each and every coal mine in the State, stating therein all accidents that may have happened in or about said mine, and to set forth in said report all such information that may be proper and beneficial and also to make such suggestion as he may deem important as to any further legislation on the subject of coal mining.

SEC. 6. It is the duty of the inspector of coal mines to visit, enter and examine any coal mine in the State for the purpose of ascertaining the conditions of the same in regard to its safety, ventilation and means of egress, and for this purpose he must have access at any and all times to any mine in the State for the purpose of inspection, but the working of such mine must not be obstructed or impeded during such examination; the inspection must not be at the expense of the owner, lessor, lessee, or agent of the mine being examined, but they must render such assistance as may be necessary to enable the inspector to make the examination.

SEC. 7. This act shall be in force and effect from and after its passage and approval. Approved March 18, 1901.

PAGE 65.—*Weighing coal at mines.*

SECTION 1. The weighman employed at any mine shall subscribe to an oath or affirmation before a justice of the peace, or other officer authorized to administer oaths, to do justice between employer and employee, and to truly and correctly weigh the output of coal from the mines as herein provided. The miners employed by or engaged in working for any mine owner, operator or lessee of any mine in this State shall have the privilege, if they desire of employing at their own expense a check weighman, who shall have like equal rights, powers and privileges in the weighing of coal as the regular weighman, and be subject to the same oath and penalties as the regular weighman. Said oath or affirmation shall be kept conspicuously posted in the weigh office, and any weigher of coal or person so employed, who shall knowingly violate any of the provisions of this article, or any owner, operator or agent of any coal mine in this State who shall forbid or hinder miners employing or using a check weighman as herein provided, or who shall prevent or willfully obstruct any such check weighman in the discharge of his duty, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction shall be punished by a fine of not less than one hundred dollars nor more than five hundred dollars for each offense, or by imprisonment in the county jail for a period of not less than thirty days or more than ninety days, or by both such fine and imprisonment, proceedings to be instituted in any court having competent jurisdiction. Whenever the inspector of mines, or deputy inspector of mines shall be satisfied that the provisions of this section have been willfully violated, it shall be his duty to forthwith inform the prosecuting attorney of any such violation, together with all the facts within his knowledge and the

prosecuting attorney shall thereupon investigate the charges so preferred, and if he be satisfied that the provisions of this section have been violated, it shall be his duty to prosecute the person or persons guilty thereof.

SEC. 2. Any person or persons having or using any scale or scales for the purpose of weighing the output of coal at mines, so arranged or constructed that fraudulent weighing may be done thereby, or who shall knowingly resort to or employ any means whatsoever, by reason of which such coal is not correctly weighed and reported in accordance with the provisions of this article, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall, upon conviction, for each such offense, be punished by a fine of not less than two hundred dollars nor more than five hundred dollars, or by imprisonment in the county jail for a period not to exceed sixty days, or by both such fine and imprisonment, proceedings to be instituted in any court of competent jurisdiction.

SEC. 3. This act shall be in full force and effect from and after its passage and approval.

Approved February 19, 1901.

PAGE 147.—*Payment of wages.*

SECTION 1. It shall be unlawful for any person, firm, company, corporation or trust, or the business manager or agent of any such person, firm, company, corporation or trust, to sell, give, deliver or in any way, directly or indirectly, to any person employed by him, or it in payment of wages due or to become due, any script [scrip], token, check, draft, order, credit, or any book of account or other evidence of indebtedness payable to bearer or his assignees, except as hereinafter provided, but such wages shall be paid only in lawful money of the United States, or by check or draft drawn upon some bank in which such person, firm, company, corporation or trust, or the agent or business manager of such person, firm, company, corporation or trust, has money upon deposit to cash the same, and no assignment of any wages due, or to become due to any employee, shall be made to any person, firm, company, corporation or trust, or the business manager or agent of any such person, firm, company, corporation or trust, or to any one interested, directly or indirectly in any firm, company, corporation or trust, employing said laborer. And any contract to the contrary shall be void: *Provided, however,* This shall not prevent ranchmen, farmers, lumber camps, or mining camps from supplying their employees or paying said employees in other than cash or check where there is no bank or other store than that owned by said employers at which said employees may purchase supplies, or cash their bankable checks received for their labor.

SEC. 2. Every person, company, corporation or trust, or agent or business manager of such person, firm, company, corporation or trust, who violates any of the provisions of this act, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction thereof, shall be subject to a fine of not less than one hundred (\$100) dollars, or more than five hundred (\$500) dollars, or by imprisonment in the county jail of not less than one month, or more than six months, or by both such fine and imprisonment.

SEC. 3. This act shall be in force immediately upon its passage and approval by the governor.

Approved March 7, 1901.

PAGE 169.—*Kidnaping.*

SECTION 1. Section 380 of the Penal Code of the State of Montana shall be amended so as to read as follows:

SECTION 380. Every person who willfully—

Seizes, confines, inveigles or kidnaps, another with intent to cause him, without authority of law, to be secretly confined or imprisoned within this State, or to be sent out of the State, or in any way held to service or kept or detained against his or her will or against the will of his or her parent or guardian, whether such guardian be natural or appointed, * * * is guilty of kidnaping and is punishable by imprisonment in the State prison for not less than one year.

SEC. 2. All acts and parts of acts in conflict herewith are hereby repealed.

SEC. 3. This act shall be in force and take effect from and after its passage and approval by the governor.

Approved March 11, 1901.

NORTH DAKOTA.

ACTS OF 1901.

CHAPTER 30.—*Licensing, examination, etc., of barbers.*

SECTION 1. It shall be unlawful for any person to follow the occupation of barber in this State unless he shall have first obtained a certificate of registration as provided in this act: *Provided, however,* That nothing in this act contained shall apply to or affect any person who is now actually engaged in such occupation, except as hereinafter provided.

SEC. 2. A board of examiners to consist of three (3) persons is hereby created to carry out the purposes and enforce the provisions of this act. Said board shall be appointed by the governor, and each person appointed to act on said board must be a practical barber, who has been practicing his profession in the State of North Dakota for the past five (5) years.

Each member of the board shall serve for a term of two (2) years and until his successor is appointed and qualified, except in the case of the first board, whose members shall serve one (1), two (2) and three (3) years respectively, as specified in their appointment.

Each member of said board shall give a bond of five thousand (\$5,000) dollars with sureties to be approved by the secretary of state, conditioned for the faithful performance of his duties, and shall take the oath provided by law for public officers. Vacancies on said board caused by death, resignation or expiration of the term of any member thereof, shall be filled by appointment from the same class of persons to which the deceased or retiring member belonged.

SEC. 3. Said board shall elect a president, secretary and treasurer, and shall have its headquarters at the State capitol; shall have a common seal, and the secretary and president shall have power to administer oaths.

SEC. 4. Each member of said board shall receive a compensation of three (\$3) dollars per day for actual service and ten (10) cents per mile for each mile actually traveled in attending the meeting of said board, which compensation shall be paid out of any moneys in the hands of the treasurer of said board: *Provided,* That the said compensation and mileage shall in no event be paid out of the State treasury.

SEC. 5. Said board shall make a biennial report to the governor, which report shall contain a full statement of its receipts, and disbursements of the board of the preceding two (2) years, also a full statement of its doing and proceedings and such recommendations as to it may seem proper looking to the better carrying out of the intents and purposes of this act, which report shall not be printed except at the expense of the fund herein provided for.

Any moneys in the hands of the treasurer of the said board at the time of making such report shall be kept by him for the future maintenance of the board and to be disbursed by him upon warrants signed by the president and secretary of the said board.

SEC. 6. Said board shall hold public examinations at least four (4) times in each year in at least four (4) different cities in this State, at such times and places as it may determine, notice of such meetings to be given by a publication thereof at least ten (10) days before such meetings, in a newspaper published in the county where such meeting is to be held.

SEC. 7. Every person now engaged in the occupation of barber in this State shall, within ninety (90) days after the taking effect of this act, file with the secretary of said board an affidavit setting forth his name, residence and length of time during which, and the place where he has practiced such occupation, and shall pay the treasurer of said board two (\$2) dollars and a certificate of registration entitling him to practice said occupation shall thereupon be issued to him.

SEC. 8. Any person desiring to obtain a certificate of registration under this act shall make application to said board therefor and shall pay to the treasurer of said board an examination fee of five (\$5) dollars, and shall present himself at the next regular meeting of the board for the examination of applicants, whereupon said board, shall proceed to examine such persons, under such rules and regulations as may be by said board prescribed, which rules and regulations, shall require that said applicant shall present to said board a certificate from some reputable physician designated by said board to the effect that said applicant is free from any contagious or infectious disease, and being satisfied that he is above the age of nineteen (19) years, of good moral character, free from contagious or infectious diseases, has either (a) studied the trade for three years as an apprentice under a qualified and practicing

barber or (b) studied the trade for at least three years in a properly appointed and conducted barber school under the instructions of a competent barber, or (c) practiced the trade in another State for at least three (3) years, and is possessed of the requisite skill in said trade to properly perform all the duties thereof, including his ability in the preparation of tools, shaving, hair cutting, and all the duties and services incident thereto, and is possessed of sufficient knowledge concerning the common diseases of the face and skin to avoid the aggravation and spreading thereof in the practice of said trade; his name shall be entered by the board in the register hereafter provided for, and a certificate of registration shall be issued to him, authorizing him to practice said trade in this State: *Provided*, That whenever it appears that applicant has acquired his knowledge of said trade in a barber school, the board shall be judges of whether said barber school, is properly appointed and conducted and competent to give sufficient training in such trade.

All persons making application for examination under the provisions of this act shall be allowed to practice the occupation of barbering until the next regular meeting of said board. Certificates of registration provided for in this act, shall be valid for one year from the date thereof, but shall be renewed by said board upon application within thirty days after the expiration thereof and the payment of one dollar to the treasurer of said board, which application shall be accompanied by a certificate from a physician approved by said board, stating that said applicant is free from contagious or infectious diseases.

SEC. 9. Nothing in this act shall prohibit any person from serving as an apprentice in said trade under a barber authorized to practice the same under this act, nor from serving as a student in any barber school for the teaching of such trade under the instructions of a qualified barber: *Provided*, That in shops where there are two or more barbers there shall not be more than one apprentice to two barbers authorized under this act to practice said occupation.

SEC. 10. Said board shall furnish to each person to whom a certificate of registration is issued a card or insignia bearing the seal of the board and a signature of its president and secretary, certifying that the holder thereof is entitled to practice the occupation of barber in this State, for a period of one year from the date thereof, and it shall be the duty of the holder of such card or insignia to post the same in a conspicuous place in front of his working chair, where it may readily be seen by all persons whom he may serve.

SEC. 11. Said board shall keep a register in which shall be entered names of all persons to whom certificates are issued under this act, and said register shall be at all times open to public inspection.

SEC. 12. Said board shall have power to revoke any certificate of registration granted by it under this act, for (a) conviction of crime, (b) habitual drunkenness for six (6) months, immediately preceding the time of receiving notice of a charge thereof duly made, as hereinafter provided, (c) gross incompetency, or (d) contagious or infectious diseases: *Provided*, That before any certificate shall be revoked the holder thereof shall have notice in writing of the charge or charges against him, and shall at a day specified in said notice, at least (5) five days after the service thereof, be given a public hearing and full opportunity to produce testimony in his behalf and to confront the witnesses against him. Any persons whose certificate has been so revoked may, after the expiration of ninety (90) days, apply to have the same re-granted and the same shall be re-granted to him upon a satisfactory showing that the disqualification has ceased.

SEC. 13. To shave or trim the beard or cut the hair of any person for hire or reward received by the person performing such service, or any other person shall be construed as practicing the occupation of barber within the meaning of this act.

SEC. 14. Any person practicing the occupation of barber without having obtained a certificate of registration, as provided by this act, or willfully employing a barber who has not such certificate, or falsely pretending to be qualified to practice such occupation under this act, or violation of any of the provisions of this act, is guilty of a misdemeanor, and, upon conviction thereof, shall be punished by a fine of not less than ten (\$10) dollars or more than one hundred (\$100) dollars, or by imprisonment in the county jail not less than ten (10) days or more than ninety (90) days.

Approved March 2, 1901.

CHAPTER 76.—*Exemption from execution, etc.*

SECTION 1. Sections 324, 328, and 333 of the Code of Civil Procedure of the State of North Dakota, being sections 5518, 5522 and 5528 of the Revised Codes of 1895 of the State of North Dakota, are hereby amended to read as follows:

SECTION 5518. In addition to the property mentioned in the preceding section, the head of the family may, by himself or his agent, select from all other of his personal

property, not absolutely exempt, goods, chattels, merchandise, money or other personal property, not to exceed in the aggregate one thousand dollars in value, which is also exempt and must be chosen and appraised as hereinafter provided.

Sec. 5522. The three appraisers so selected must take and subscribe an oath before the sheriff or other officer, to be attached to the inventory of appraisement, that they will truly, honestly and impartially appraise the property of the debtor. The property must be appraised at the actual value of the several articles at the place where they are situated as near as can be determined, and must be set down in an inventory by articles or by lots, when definitely descriptive, with the value opposite. From the appraisement so made, if over the amount of one thousand dollars, the debtor, his agent or attorney, may select the amount in value of one thousand dollars, or the alternative in order of each class, leaving the remainder, if any, subject to legal process.

Sec. 5528. A partnership firm can claim but one exemption of one thousand dollars in value or alternative property, when so applicable, instead thereof, out of the partnership property. All partnership property claimed as exempt shall constitute a part of the exemptions of the several partners, the same being divided in proportion to the interests of the partners in the firm assets, and in no case shall the aggregate exemptions of the several partners exceed the amount which would have been allowed to them if the partnership had not existed.

Sec. 2. Provided, however, that the provisions of this act shall not apply to or affect any debt contracted prior to the passage and approval of this act.

Approved March 12, 1901.

CHAPTER 77.—*Exemption from execution, etc.*

SECTION 1. Section 5526, Revised Codes, is hereby amended to read as follows:

SECTION 5526. No personal property, except absolute exemptions, shall be exempt from execution or attachment in an action for laborers' or mechanics' wages, or for a debt incurred for property obtained under false pretenses; and no personal property shall be exempt from such process in an action for the collection of the bills of a legally practicing physician or nurse for professional service or medicine, or in an action for the collection of a bill for board, medicine or attendance furnished patients at any hospital in this State, except absolute exemptions and household and kitchen furniture, stoves and two cows, the value of which, exclusive of absolute exemptions, shall not exceed five hundred dollars, which value in case of dispute shall be determined by appraisers to be selected in accordance with the provisions of section 5521.

Sec. 2. All acts or parts of acts in conflict with this act are hereby repealed.

Approved February 27, 1901.

CHAPTER 87.—*Farm laborers' liens.*

SECTION 1. Section 4827 of the Revised Codes of North Dakota [shall] be amended so as to read as follows:

SECTION 4827. In order to acquire a lien, as specified in section 4826 of this chapter, the person performing such services shall within thirty days after the services are fully performed, file in the office of the register of deeds of the county in which any of the real estate is situated, on which any crop is grown, on which a lien is claimed, an affidavit and notice, setting forth the terms of the employment, the name of the employer, the time when the services were commenced and when ended, the wages agreed upon, if any, and if not agreed upon, then the reasonable value of the same, the terms of payment, if any, and a description of the real estate on which any crop is grown, or has been grown, or harvested, on which a lien is claimed, the amount paid him, if any, and the amount remaining unpaid, and that said laborer claims a lien for the same.

Sec. 2. Whereas, an emergency exists that only ten days is prescribed wherein said affidavit and notice can be filed, therefore this act shall take effect immediately after its passage and approval.

Approved March 8, 1901.

CHAPTER 115.—*Kidnaping.*

SECTION 1. Section 7110, chapter 20, of the Revised Codes of 1899, defining kidnaping and providing a penalty therefor, [shall] be amended so as to read as follows:

SECTION 7110. A person who willfully

1. Seizes, confines, inveigles or kidnaps another, with intent to cause him, without authority of law, to be secretly confined or imprisoned within this State, or to be sent out of this State, or in any way held to service or kept or detained against his will;

3. * * * is guilty of kidnaping, and is punishable by imprisonment in the penitentiary, not less than five (5) nor more than twenty (20) years.

All acts or parts of acts in conflict with this act are hereby repealed.

SEC. 2. Whereas, there being no law providing a penalty so severe as to sufficiently discourage the violation of the law, an emergency exists, therefore this act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage and approval.

Approved February 8, 1901.

CHAPTER 198.—*Twine and cordage plant at penitentiary—Convict labor.*

SECTION 1. Section 8567 of the Revised Codes of 1899 [shall] be amended to read as follows:

SECTION 8567. The product of said twine and cordage plant shall be disposed of by the board of trustees of said penitentiary, under regulations to be prescribed by them, subject only to the following restrictions, viz: The board of trustees of said penitentiary, at its regular meeting held in the month of February in each year, shall fix prices at which the product of the plant shall be sold during that season, such prices to be based on the cost of the product and the demand for it; prices for carload lots may, in their discretion, be fixed at not more than one-half cent per pound under prices for smaller lots; the product shall be sold only to those living in the State and intending and agreeing to use it or sell it for use in the State; the price of the product of the plant so established at the February meeting of the board of trustees shall continue to be the price for the season, unless it shall become evident to the board that the price so established is such that it will prevent the sale of the product, or such that the State will not receive a fair price, based on the market value of like product, in which cases a change in price can be made at any regular meeting of said board thereafter held.

SEC. 2. An emergency exists in that it is of great importance that this amendment shall be in effect for the present season; therefore, this act shall be in force from and after its passage and approval.

Approved February 2, 1901.

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Notes concerning the money of the U. S. and other countries, by W. C. Hunt.
The wealth and the receipts and expenses of the U. S., by W. M. Steuart.
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- No. 6. Industrial communities: Familistère Society of Guise, by W. F. Willoughby.
Cooperative distribution, by Edward W. Bemis, Ph. D.
- No. 7. Industrial communities: Various communities, by W. F. Willoughby.
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- No. 14. The Negroes of Farmville, Va.: A social study, by W. E. B. Du Bois, Ph. D.
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- No. 19. Alaskan gold fields and opportunities for capital and labor, by S. C. Dunham.
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- No. 21. Pawnbroking in Europe and the United States, by W. R. Patterson, Ph. D.
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- No. 39. Course of wholesale prices, 1890 to 1901.
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Workmen's compensation acts of foreign countries, by Adna F. Weber.